THE AUSTRALIAN CENTRE FOR EVENT MANAGEMENT

UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY SYDNEY

THE IMPACTS OF EVENTS

EVENT MANAGEMENT
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THE IMPACTS OF EVENTS

PROCEEDINGS OF INTERNATIONAL EVENT RESEARCH CONFERENCE HELD IN SYDNEY JULY 2005

EDITED BY JOHNNY ALLEN

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PREFACE

Johnny Allen
Conference Convenor
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At the First International Event Management Research Conference *Events Beyond 2000*, held in Sydney in July 2000, the economic impact of events and related methods for their measurement dominated the agenda of the Conference. However, the need for a wider and more holistic evaluation process was noted by the Conference, and reinforced by the Second Conference in 2002.

Since then, a triple bottom line approach to evaluation encompassing economic, social/cultural and environmental impacts has continued to emerge, notably in areas of academic research, the event industry and local government involvement in events. The response to the theme of this Conference would seem to indicate that this approach is now well established, with a wide variety of research projects exploring the full spectrum of event impacts and outcomes. In the Call for Papers, the theme of the Conference was broadened to include related areas such as event tourism, regional, community and event industry issues, and there has been a satisfying response in these areas also.

The area of event education and research has also continued to grow in tandem with the growth of the event industry, as demonstrated by the wide geographical spread of the Conference, encompassing delegates from most states of Australia and New Zealand, as well as from North America, Europe, Asia and Africa. As discussed at the last Conference, a special one-day Symposium has been added to the program to explore event education and research issues, and to establish an on-going association of event educators.

Papers from both the Conference and the Symposium have been published in the Conference Proceedings. All papers were submitted to a double blind peer review process, with papers grouped into thematic areas and each author invited to review the papers of two other colleagues. Authors were then invited to respond to the reviewers comments in compiling the final drafts of their papers. The review process was overseen by the Conference Academic Committee consisting of Leo Jago, Rob Harris and Johnny Allen. The papers are presented in the same thematic areas in the Conference Proceedings, with working papers denoted by an asterisk and in some cases represented by an abstract only, at the discretion of the Committee. The papers have been edited to conform as far as possible to a uniform style, whilst respecting the differing styles and cultural backgrounds of the authors.

In order to promote a dialogue at the Conference among academic researchers, industry practitioners and government representatives, several industry guest presentations and workshops were incorporated in the Conference Program. These were not subject to the review process, and are not included in the Conference Proceedings, but where possible

have been placed on the Australian Centre for Event Management website at www.acem.uts.edu.au.

On behalf of the Conference Committee, I would like to thank warmly the guest presenters, academic authors, conference volunteers, and the many individuals and organizations that have contributed to the success of the Conference. Last, but not least, on behalf of the Conference Committee I would like to thank all our sponsors, without whose generous assistance we would not have been able to stage the Conference - Tourism Australia, the NSW Department of State and Regional Development, CRC for Sustainable Tourism, Victoria University, Southern Cross University, and the University of Queensland.

Johnny Allen, Sydney 2005

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Event Impacts – The Triple Bottom Line

Triple Bottom Line Event Evaluation: A proposed framework for holistic event evaluation

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Abstract

Although there has long been an interest in measuring the economic impacts of events, it is only relatively recently that concern about the sustainability of event tourism has driven an imperative to develop methods for evaluating and monitoring other sorts of impacts including social and environmental. This trend mirrors moves in general tourism and business more broadly where discussion about triple bottom line reporting underpins a move for enterprises to be accountable to stakeholders, not only in regard to the economic bottom line, but also with regard to their "footprint" on the environment and on society more broadly. There is substantial enthusiasm for this trend, but a limiting factor is the current lack of an accepted set of evaluation techniques to underpin the Triple Bottom Line reporting process. The Sustainable Tourism CRC has been working on developing appropriate techniques for this purpose.

This paper outlines a proposed method for evaluating key performance indicators of events in the economic, environmental and social domains. It begins with a review of the literature concentrating on the empirical work which will be most useful for informing development of the proposed tool. It then identifies appropriate indicators in each of the three domains; economic, social and environmental, and goes on to suggest a technique for examining these domains holistically by utilising a framework which allows consideration of the inevitable trade-offs between positive and negative impacts within and between the different domains.

Introduction

It is a widely held belief that staging major events can be beneficial for the host region with positive impacts that often include the stimulation of the local economy and the "showcasing" of the region to the world. This latter impact has the potential to promote future tourism and business activity and bring substantial long term benefits. With little doubt this is one of the major reasons for the increase in public sector support for event-based development strategies that can be observed in many parts of the world. Other positive impacts often associated with staging events include the development and refurbishment of facilities and infrastructure, entertainment and social opportunities for the resident population, and an increase in the sense of community pride, which is less tangible than the other impacts but nonetheless important.

However, it is also clear that there are outcomes associated with staging an event that adversely affect the host destination, although these negative impacts are often ignored in event evaluation research. Any event which attracts a large number of visitors to a relatively small area over a short time period is likely to create a level of disruption through increased traffic, noise, and crowding, and to place a higher level of strain on the natural and built environment. There are also substantial financial risks associated with large events that should not be underestimated, as well as issues of crowd control and waste management. In recent times of global political instability there has also been increased concern about safety and security at events.

The majority of event impact assessments conducted by consultants have focused on the economic evaluation of events and much of the academic literature has adopted a similar focus (see Hede, Jago & Deery, 2003) for a thorough review of the academic literature). In more recent times, however, there has been recognition that the evaluation of events must be more broadly-based and consider a range of perspectives. Triple bottom line reporting, which considers the economic, social and environmental domains, has become a well-recognised term in the general business environment. However, little has been done as yet to apply the principles of triple bottom line reporting to the event sector.

The term "triple bottom line" (TBL) was originally coined by John Elkington (1980, 1999) with reference to corporations and their capacity to create (and destroy) value not only in the economic domain, but also in the social and environmental domains. While the emphasis in the TBL literature is on the accountability of private sector corporations with regard to their day to day activities, the concept of TBL reporting is equally applicable in assessing the impacts of public sector activity and endeavours that involve interactions between private and public organisations, as occurs for many events.

The rationale behind TBL reporting is to illuminate the externalities associated with business activities and therefore to promote sustainability through planning and management practices which ameliorate negative outcomes and promote positive ones. There has been substantial rhetoric and debate relating to its practical application (McAuley, 2001; Walker, 2003), which are beyond the scope of this paper. The key

challenge is to operationalise the TBL concept such that the various dimensions of the TBL can be measured and then synthesised in a manner that provides an overall assessment of the value of an endeavour.

It should be noted that the triple bottom line approach does not provide a completely holistic evaluation of all of the impacts of events. Events have the potential to generate long term impacts on destination image and investment in the region through media exposure. However the TBL approach provides a mechanism for considering the short term impacts immediately following the event.
The Sustainable Tourism Cooperative Research Centre in Australia has an interest in TBL impact evaluation in the events context as well as with regard to other types of tourism. There are several projects currently underway which are seeking to identify key performance indicators in each of the TBL domains to facilitate reporting for enterprises and communities. This paper goes further than what has already been proposed to look at potential mechanisms for summating the results within each TBL domain, and then to synthesise the results of the three domains into an overall indicator of the impact of an event. This would facilitate comparison of events with different profiles and support decision making for destination managers and event funding bodies regarding which events are best to promote and fund.

Specifically, the objectives of this program of research are:
1. To develop and refine the methods for evaluating the various types of event impact, and
2. To investigate suitable techniques for synthesising these assessments into an overall evaluation of the value of an event.

Literature

Previous academic attempts to evaluate the impacts of tourism activity in general, and events in particular, have tended to adopt a "silo" approach whereby each element is looked at in isolation. Being discipline driven, researchers have concentrated on assessing the impacts within their frame of reference; economists have investigated the economic impacts of events, while sociologists, psychologists and geographers have examined the social impacts of events and, to a much lesser extent, geographers and environmental scientists have investigated the environmental impacts of events.

Economic Impact Assessment

Compared with other aspects of special events, the literature on economic impact assessment is well advanced and many of the underlying economic and research principles are clearly recognised and documented. This has been driven largely by the fact that many events receive public funding and government funding agencies are invariably required to demonstrate the economic returns of such investments. A number of comprehensive summaries are available for more detail (see, for example Mules, 1999).

Social Impact Assessment

The social impact assessment literature can be broadly divided into three categories based on the methods used. The most common method endeavours to identify the social impacts through a survey of the local residents of the host community to identify their perceptions of the impact on their quality of life (Fredline & Faulkner, 1998, 2000, 2002a, 2002b; Delamare, 1997). This is a highly subjective assessment technique, but it is argued that social impacts are by nature subjective and may have a differential affect on different community members which could not be measured objectively.

Another method, which is often referred to by the acronym SIA (Social Impact Assessment) uses techniques developed in urban planning for "assessing or estimating, in advance, the social consequences that are likely to follow from specific policy actions or project development" (Burdge and Vanclay, 1996: 59). Four basic steps to the process have been outlined; profiling existing social conditions, projecting likely social change, assessing the relative importance of expected changes, and evaluating the acceptability of the predicted level of change. The technique relies on the identification of key "objective" indicators of social change that can be used to monitor social impacts. Clearly, the technique should be used as a post development evaluation tool, but there are few examples of this.

Finally, another method which has been occasionally employed in the tourism literature is the use of contingent valuation (CV) and related techniques such as choice modelling. These techniques attempt to assign monetary values to social impacts by asking residents about how much they are willing to pay to ensure or avoid tourism development (see for example Lindberg and Johnson, 1997; Lindberg, Dellaert and Rassing, 1999; Lindberg, Andersson and Dellaert, 2001). A quasi-experimental design is used in this type of research and thus there are limits on the number of variables (impacts) and levels, which can be manipulated. This limits the knowledge gains that can be made using this approach.

Environmental Impact Assessment

Research into the environmental impacts of events emanates from the sustainability literature that became prominent after the establishment of the Brundtland Commission in 1984 (World Commission on Environment and Development, 1987). Although much has been written on environmental sustainability over the last 20 years, very little published literature has been found that considers the environmental impacts of events. There have been a few studies that have specifically examined sensitive environments rather than relatively robust urban locations (see for example May, 1995).

Previous Attempts at Holistic Event Evaluation

While the vast majority of the event impact literature can be classified under one of the above headings, there have been some attempts to evaluate events from a range of perspectives and to bring these results together into a more holistic framework.

An early example was a comprehensive cost benefit analysis of the Australian Formula One Grand Prix in Adelaide in 1985 (Burns, Hatch and Mules, 1986). This important study provided a framework for the analysis of major special events. It attempted to measure many of the less tangible impacts of the Grand Prix as well as the more traditional economic dimension. Through a combination of resident surveys and secondary data analysis, social and environmental impacts such as noise, property damage, traffic congestion and road accidents were evaluated. The technique used to synthesise the social impact assessment with the economic impacts involved assessing monetary values for the social impacts where possible. For example, traffic congestion was assessed by calculating time lost through increased travel times. By assigning a value to each hour lost it was possible to calculate the overall social cost of traffic congestion.

One of the most important social benefits associated with events is the "feelgood" factor, which is an amalgam of pride, excitement, entertainment, and self actualisation that is often reported by the host community of a successful event. In Burns et al (1986) this impact was referred to as "psychic income" and a lower bound for it was estimated in monetary terms by taking the proportion of residents affected by negative externalities (20%) and calculating their psychic income. Ninety percent of this group were nonetheless in favour of the event; therefore it was assumed that for them, the benefits must at least match the costs. Weighting up to reflect the entire population, "psychic income" was calculated to be at least $28 million dollars.

While the Burns et al (1986) study represents a seminal work in the field of event impact assessment, it only investigated selected social and environmental impacts that could be more easily assessed in objective terms. There are other potential social impacts which are difficult, if not impossible to quantify such as community pride, the showcase effect and crowding. Despite the substantial contribution that Burns et al made to the event evaluation literature, it is surprising that little has been done to apply or further develop the approach proposed in 1986.

Another attempt to assess the tangible and intangible impacts of events was conducted by Dwyer, Mellor, Mistilis and Mules (2000). They proposed a framework that measured economic impacts in the traditional manner, but also employed a qualitative assessment of many less tangible impacts including social,long-term tourism promotion, induced development, additional trade and business development, increased property values, the costs associated with resident exodus, interruption of normal business, and underutilised infrastructure. Dwyer et al (2000) acknowledged the difficulty in quantifying these impacts and advocated instead the use of ratings by experts. They proposed a positive scale for benefits (one, two or three pluses depending on estimated magnitude) and a negative scale for costs (one, two or three minuses depending on estimated magnitude) No attempt was made to synthesise these ratings with the monetary value established for the economic impact.

While both the approaches referred to above represent substantial contributions to the development of a more holistic evaluation framework, several issues still obstruct this ideal. Firstly, expression of some or all of the impacts in monetary terms implies the

supremacy of economic considerations. As people are generally used to comparing numerical results and have a clear understanding of terms expressed in dollars, there is a very strong inclination to focus on the result that is presented in dollar terms and to basically neglect the discussion of other impacts that are presented in a more descriptive fashion. Neither of the above approaches reduces the overall evaluation of event impacts to a single figure making comparison between events extremely subjective and very cumbersome.

Definition of impacts and indicators

In attempting to progress this field of study, it is important to draw the distinction between the "impacts" of tourism and "indicators" of that impact. For the purposes of this paper, impacts of tourism are defined as;

> "the effects or influences that tourism has within the region identified as being the destination".

This definition can then be subdivided into its three components.

1. Economic impacts – the impact that tourism has on the economy, that is, the effect on the flow of money through the economy of the destination in terms of the quantity of money introduced and the directions in which it flows. Thus issues such as employment are within scope of the definition.
2. Social impacts – the impact of tourism on society, the Mathieson and Wall (1982) definition has been adopted here, that is, "changes in quality of life of residents of tourist destinations" (p137). Thus, it can be argued that all impacts have a social dimension.
3. Environmental impacts – the impact that tourism has on the environment, that is the effect on ecology brought about by tourism activities.

Some impacts can be measured with substantial precision, while others cannot be measured directly and indicators must be used to give an indication of their level. The term indicator is used here to mean "a gauge or marker of the impact" and it can be regarded as an operationalisation of the impact. In some cases the relationship between a potential indicator and the impact it is trying to measure is weak, and there is substantial error variance associated with its use. Social indicators tend to be poorer operationalisations of their associated impacts than economic and environmental indicators. This is one of the reasons that social impact assessment lags behind the other two areas.

It is for this reason that the predominant method for assessing social impacts has been to use host community perception of the impacts as an indicator rather than attempting to find more objective measures. The key advantages and disadvantages of each approach are summarised in Table 1.

Table 1: Comparison of host community perceptions and objective indicators

Host community perception as indicators of social impact	
Advantages	**Disadvantages**
Almost any impact can be assessed this way	Highly influenced by personal values of respondent
The indicator is framed in the context of the impact on quality of life	Requires primary data collection
Can assess differential impact on different community subgroups	
Objective indicators of social impact	
Advantages	**Disadvantages**
Objective measures are value neutral	Many social impacts have no reliable indicator
A single value is derived for the impact on the entire community rather than a range of values with substantial variance	They give no indication of the impact on quality of life
Some indicators may be measurable via secondary data, reduced resource requirements	Less able to identify differential impact on community subgroups

Given the substantial limitations of both methods it is likely that a combination of the two techniques is the best option for maximising the validity of the social indicators.

Context

It is also important to consider the context in event impact assessment. Different types of event will attract different types of tourist who may undertake varying patterns of activities in the community, and will obviously have a range of types and levels of impact. But the same group of tourists doing the same things may have a differential impact depending on the characteristics of the community they are visiting. Some communities are far more robust than others, while others have specific needs that tourism can help address.

Proposed Methods

Holistic Framework

In comparing the impacts of events there are two options for defining a good outcome; a relatively strong performance compared with other events, or a strong performance in comparison with some *a priori* defined benchmark levels of impact. In initial assessments the comparison with other events is likely to be most suitable and useful in determining appropriate levels for future employment of benchmarking.

An important goal of any TBL reporting framework is that any attempt to synthesise the results should be conceptually simple and that it treat the impacts in a comparable manner. As mentioned earlier, the problem with some previous synthesis attempts is that economic impacts were measured in monetary terms while other impacts were measured in a less tangible manner. There is reason to believe that when evaluations are presented in such a manner, the audience is likely to adopt the numerical component which is simple to process and compare. There is a tendency to ignore the qualitative evaluations, which are “vague” in comparison.

Potential Indicators

The critical success factor in holistic event evaluation is in developing indicators that are simple to measure yet provide a valid and reliable indication of the impacts under consideration and some example indicators are identified below. As mentioned in the literature review, there are established and agreed upon methods for assessing the economic impact of events. When economic modelling is used, the generally accepted indicators are the direct and indirect contribution to value added (that is the value of new economic activity introduced because of the event) and the direct and indirect contribution to employment (the number of jobs supported or created by the event). The calculation of these measures requires collection of expenditure data from visitors and event organisers, the definition of the scope of the destination, and the application of an appropriate multiplier technique to estimate indirect effects.

Economic Indicators

However, in an effort to keep the proposed method simple, and avoid the need for economic modelling, a series of simpler indicators is proposed which facilitate comparison across events of different sizes in different communities. The first indicator proposed below looks at the benefit cost ratio to the host region by expressing the net income to the region resulting from the event as a ratio over the expenditure necessary to host the event. The second indicator provides a measure of the yield of the visitors by comparing them to domestic overnight visitors. The final proposed indicator takes into account the size of the community by expressing the net benefits per person in the host destination population. These indicators would be standardised then summed to form an index.

- Benefit / Cost Ratio = Net visitor expenditure + Net event expenditure / Net additional public sector investment (grants) + Net private sector investment (sponsorships)
- Average visitor trip expenditure / Average domestic overnight trip expenditure
- Net benefit per head of population

Environmental Indicators

Similarly, there are established indicators of environmental impact associated with an event. These would be compared with average consumption/generation/recycling figures to establish whether the event has a lesser or greater than average impact on environment. These scores would be standardised, summated and inverted, so that a higher score represented a less detrimental impact on the environment.

- Energy consumed at the venue
- Energy consumed in transport to the venue
- Water consumed at the venue - waste water recycled
- Waste generated at the venue – waste recycling

Social Indicators

As referred to earlier, the most commonly used indicator of social impacts to date has been host community perceptions. However, a raft of other indicators can also be incorporated. These would be measured, standardised and summated to provide an overall index for social impact

- Resident perceptions of impacts on quality of life
- % of locals who attend the event
- Crime reported associated with event / crowd management incidents
- % of local businesses contracted to supply goods and services to events
- Efforts made to reduce negative externalities e.g. extra public transport provided
- Traffic counts OR dollar value of time lost in traffic (as measured in Burns, Hatch & Mules, 1986)
- Value of access to new facilities developed
- Value of access to facilities denied to locals during event
- Quantity and quality of media exposure
- Locals who volunteer at event – skill development, social opportunities, altruism
- % locals employed in event
- Involvement of local children in event – promotion of interest in event theme

Standardisation

The standardisation of the scores could be with reference to either fixed or moving averages. The former approach facilitates comparison over time as the reference remains constant; however, factors such as inflation and changing performance expectations in terms of social and environmental impacts would gradually render the fixed average obsolete. Additionally, although standardisation against an average allows for the potential of negative performance scores (on indicators where a negative score is possible), this is not evident in the standardised score because the absolute value is lost in the standardisation process. Clearly it will still be necessary to report the absolute values for each indicator while the synthesis diagram will be most useful for comparative purposes. It will also be necessary to consider the weighting applied to each indicator, whether this should be equal, as implied at present, or whether a higher weighting should be given in some cases.

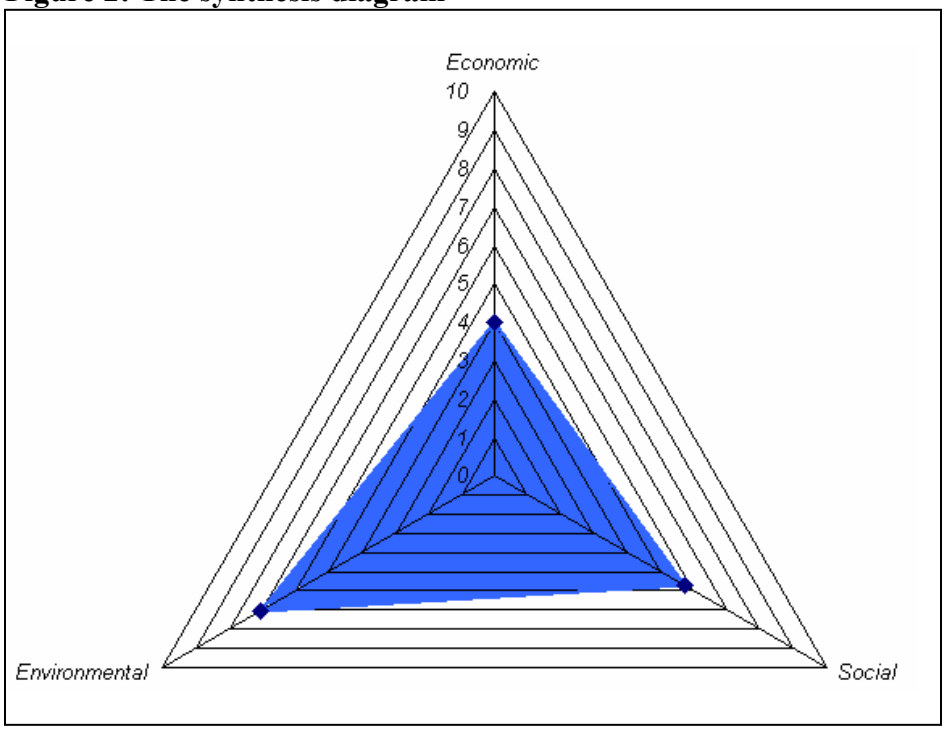
The Synthesis Diagram

The synthesis diagram is a radar chart defined by a number of axes radiating at equal angles from a central point. The number of axes relates to the number of dimensions being assessed in the model, in this case, three. However, the chart can accommodate the inclusion of additional dimensions of event impact should these be considered appropriate.

To draw the chart, scores for each of the components are plotted along the relevant axis, and these points are joined by straight lines creating a geometric shape. In the three component example, a triangle is the resultant shape as shown in Figure 2. The triple bottom line impact of the event can then be expressed by the ratio between the area of

plotted triangle and the area of the theoretical maximum defined by the outer limits of the diagram.

Figure 2: The synthesis diagram



Component Scores

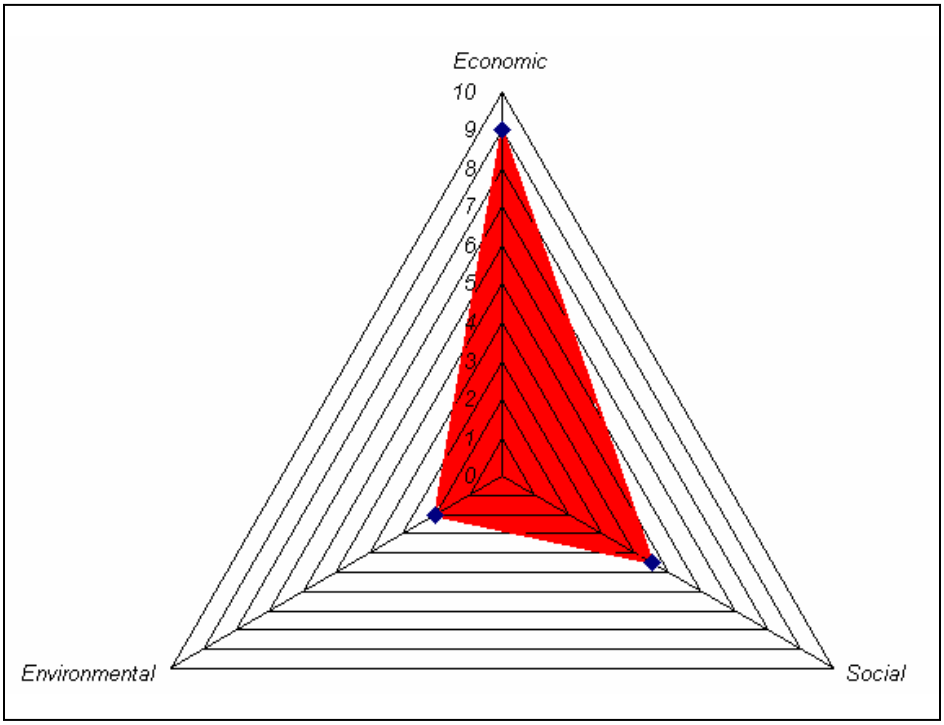
As seen in Figure 2, the scale used to plot each component score ranges from zero to ten. Use of this simple scale facilitates calculation of the area of the triangle whilst the removal of monetary values reduces the temptation to revert to an economic emphasis. Standardising the scale in this way requires reference to an average value for each component.

Overall Performance

Calculating overall performance is then a simple matter of applying the basic rules of geometry to calculate the area of the triangle representing the impact of the event and compare this to the theoretical maximum implied by the area of the triangle delineating the outer edges of the diagram. In Figure 3, the area of the theoretical maximum triangle is 130units^2, while the shaded triangle has an area of 39.3 units^2. It therefore fills 30.2% of the area defined by the boundaries of the diagram.

The absolute meaning of this proportion is questionable, particularly until a definitive set of indicators and theoretical maximum levels of these indicators has been agreed upon. However, the measure is useful in assessing the relative impact of different events. For example, Figure 3 displays the assessment of another event that rates more highly on economic indicators but slightly lower on social indicators and much lower in terms of environmental performance (such a pattern might describe a major motorsport event). The area defined by this triangle is 22.5% of the theoretical maximum area.

Figure 3: Another event example



Discussion and conclusion

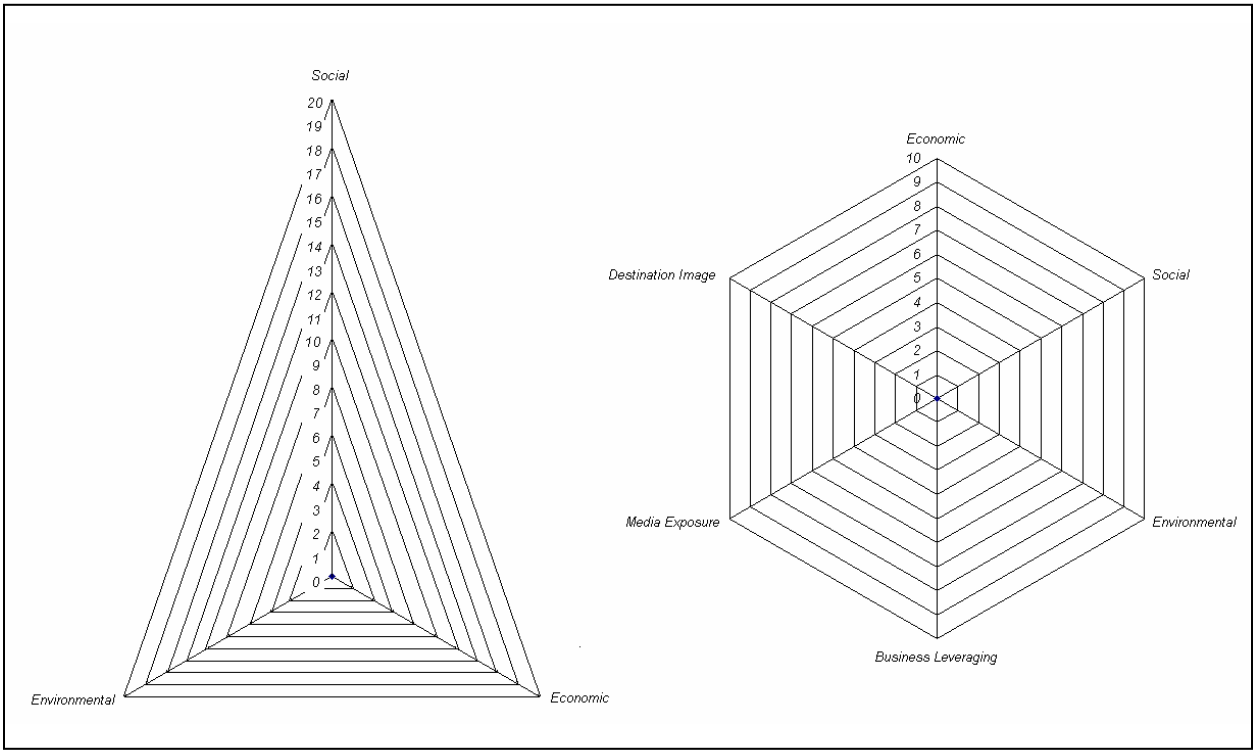
The above discussion presents an embryonic method for synthesising event impacts assessed using the discipline based "silo" approach. The result is a simple single proportion which describes the overall impact of an event. However, like any output, this measure is only as good as the inputs used to calculate it. Substantial future work is required to identify the most appropriate indicators to include in the model and the benchmark levels. These should be developed in consultation with relevant stakeholders such as local communities and the government departments concerned with event planning and management.

The key challenge is to ensure that there are an adequate number of dimensions used to provide an holistic evaluation of the impact of the special event. Having done this, it is crucial that the scales used to measure each of the dimensions truly embrace the different components of that measure and are standardised in such a way that they allow comparison between events and provide a means for comparing the impact on the different dimensions that does not distort the final result.

The technique is flexible enough to incorporate varying emphasis should the circumstances demand this. For example, if an event is being staged in a socially disadvantaged area then greater importance may be placed on social benefits that may be derived by stretching out the social impact axis. Similarly, as already referred to, the technique has the flexibility to incorporate additional components such as longer term

impacts (assuming acceptable indicators of these can be identified). Figure 4 gives examples of these.

Figure 4: Examples of extensions to the basic model



There is an increasing acceptance of the fact that events have impacts that extend well beyond economics and that there is a need to evaluate the impact of special events in a much more holistic fashion. However, there is a substantial gap between this recognition and the development of measures that facilitate such a holistic assessment.

Whilst a framework has been proposed in this paper to provide a multi-dimensional assessment of the impact of events, much work is needed to test this framework and to determine whether it will apply to all event types and under what conditions. A series of case studies will be required to take this work to the next level and substantial interaction with key stakeholders will be essential in attempting to establish standardised measures of impact.

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Unlocking The Triple Bottom Line Of Special Event Evaluations: What Are The Key Impacts?

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Abstract

Government agencies are using special events as strategic tools to promote and brand destinations. Amongst host communities, though, there appears to be growing unease about the continued use of economic assessments to justify the staging of events. Momentum is building for a triple bottom line (TBL) approach, which would evaluate the economic, social and environmental impacts. What is needed though is a suite of indicators, which would underpin a TBL framework and account for a range of event-specific impacts.

The aim of this paper is to establish what key impacts are currently being used in event evaluations, which will provide a basis for the development of the indicators. In order to achieve this, an analysis of 224 special event publications was undertaken. A list of 20 key impacts was derived from the publications, 13 economic, six social and one environmental. In addition some general trends were identified in the literature. The next stage of the research will use a Web-based Delphi study of event experts to suggest indicators for the impacts. The development of a TBL evaluation tool will aid decisions about which events merit support and enable benchmarking of event performances over time.

Introduction

Worldwide, many destinations are using special events as part of their destination marketing strategies as they have the potential to attract visitors to the destination, gain media exposure, build destination branding and leverage economic benefits (Carlsen, Getz & Soutar 2000; Jago, Chalip, Brown, Mules & Ali 2002). Moreover, some destinations, for example, Victoria, Australia, have strategically turned the staging of events into a competitive advantage. As a result of these economic imperatives, special events evaluations have been largely focused on economic and marketing outcomes. Compton and McKay (1994, p. 33) claimed that many of these economic impact analyses 'are undertaken not to find the true impact, but to legitimise the event's public support'. Hence, there is often criticism of the government for its support of events, with critics declaring 'that the benefits do not exist or are exaggerated, or are not really benefits' (Burgan & Mules 2000, p. 47).

Therefore, there appears to be growing unease and scepticism amongst host communities with the use of narrow economic evaluations, particularly as these assessments have been used by government agencies to justify the continued support of many events.

This paper builds on previous work, which has called for a broad-based method for the evaluation of the impact of special events. Previous studies have identified what criteria should be used in an event evaluation (Carlsen, Getz & Soutar 2001) and that a triple bottom line (TBL) approach is an appropriate model for a broad-based framework (Fredline, Raybould, Jago & Deery 2004; Hede, Jago & Deery 2003; Sherwood, Jago & Deery 2004, 2005). In addition, a framework has been proposed that illustrated how the TBL dimensions can be integrated to gain an overall assessment of the impact of an event (Fredline et al. 2004). What appears to be lacking though, is a set of event-specific indicators, which would provide standardised measurements for each of the TBL dimensions, enable benchmarking of a range of different events, and therefore, underpin the type of framework proposed by Fredline et al. (2004). This is the objective of the broader research project from which this present study is drawn. The aim of this paper is to present the initial step in this project, which was to establish what key impacts were being used in event evaluation research. This was achieved through a comprehensive analysis of special event impact-related literature, which was sourced from academic journals and conference proceedings. The first section of the paper examines pertinent literature that has focused on the development of a broad-based approach to evaluation. In the second section, the method is outlined in terms of how the literature was gathered for the study. The results of the literature analysis are then revealed, which is followed by a discussion of the implications of the research. The final section presents some general conclusions.

Special Events Evaluation – Beyond Economic Impacts

Early in the development of special event evaluation research, it was recognised that more than just economic impacts needed to be considered. For example, Ritchie and Beliveau (1974) maintained that events not only had economic impacts, but they affected the attitudes and lifestyles of people within the host destination. Moreover, there was a psychological limit to the number of visitors that the event could handle, which, if transgressed, may lead to alienation of the local population. Similarly, an economic study by Della Bitta, Loudon, Booth and Weeks (1978, p. 12) claimed that the home stays by some of the crew (usual for a Tall Ships visit) fostered 'greater understanding and goodwill among people of different nations'.

Building on previous research, Ritchie (1984) published a seminal article that proposed a conceptual framework for the evaluation of hallmark events. Six types of impacts were identified, namely, economic, tourism/commercial, physical, socio-cultural, psychological and political, as well as the nature of the variables to be measured and the associated problems with data collection and interpretation. Considering the relative immaturity of special events research at that time, the framework appeared rather advanced. Ritchie (1984) maintained however, that it was only a beginning, and concluded that there was a need for a more comprehensive approach to the evaluation of the impact of hallmark events than was being used at the time.

The methods for a broader evaluation became more rigorous, and, according to Hall (1989, p. 7), the study conducted by the Centre for South Australian Studies on the 1985 Adelaide Grand Prix (Burns, Hatch & Mules 1986) 'represented one of the first attempts to provide a thorough analysis of the impact of a special event'. In the study, Burns and Mules (1986, p.5) suggested that it would 'be useful to have a standard format by which the events may be evaluated and compared with each other'. The authors maintained that a framework was needed that established the nature of the costs and benefits involved in staging a special event. The framework included social costs such as traffic congestion, time lost due to traffic detours, property damage, vehicle thefts, noise and accidents. The social benefits were described as 'psychic income', which represented the 'feel good' impact that local residents felt as a result of the event being staged in their city despite some of the inconveniences such as increased traffic and noise and general disruption to normal daily routines. In terms of the development of special event evaluations, the Adelaide Grand Prix study represented one of the first attempts at a cost-benefit analysis, which considered both economic and social costs and benefits. Faulkner (1993) outlined a framework for the development of a more systematic approach to evaluating the impacts of hallmark events. The author based the framework on that of Ritchie (1984), but modified the impacts to be economic, tourism and environmental and social. Faulkner (1993, p. 18) noted that 'the monitoring and evaluation of environmental and social impacts of events has generally been perfunctory or non-existent'. The study by Faulkner (1993) also suggested methods for data collection so that the impacts could be monitored over time, but the study fell short of proposing how the impacts could be integrated into a broad-based framework.

More recently, the idea of a more generic and broad-based method for the evaluation of events has gained momentum. Getz (2000, p.21) claimed that 'there is a need for more standardised methodology for evaluating events and their impacts; more comprehensive methods and measures of value must be used'. Carlsen et al. (2001, p.83) concurred and recognised that 'a standardised model for evaluating tourism events has never been proposed in Australia, despite the need for such a model', and that the lack of a standardised approach limits the comparability between event evaluation results. By consulting with a range of industry experts, via a Delphi study, Carlsen et al. (2001) attempted to reach a consensus about which criteria should be employed in any pre or post event impact evaluation. Even though the criteria that were proposed in this study covered each of the three 'silos', the study did not address how the impacts could be operationalised into a holistic evaluation framework, as is the aim of the present study.

Dwyer, Mellor, Mistilis and Mules (2000, p.32) developed a framework for evaluating and forecasting the impacts of special events that 'enables an estimation of the contribution to a destination of different types of events/conventions in different locations'. The framework considered 'tangible' impacts such as visitor expenditure and free publicity as well as social impacts and 'intangible' economic impacts. A weighting system that attempted to indicate the size of impacts using 'plusses' and 'minuses' was proposed. The significance of this approach was that the evaluation moved away from using dollar figures to measure impacts, however, despite the framework encapsulating 'intangible' and 'tangible' impacts, it neglected to include any environmental impacts.

The conceptual link between TBL and the evaluation of special events has been made by a small number of authors. Hede, Jago and Deery (2002) noted that an emerging area of literature was concerned with the evaluation of the economic, social and environmental perspectives of events. Moreover, they maintained that this may be a reflection of the increasing use of TBL evaluation and reporting in the wider corporate world. The application of TBL reporting was also suggested as an appropriate method for evaluating special events by Sherwood, Jago and Deery (2004). In a study of a large sample of event impact assessments, Sherwood Jago and Deery (2005) found that despite the call from researchers to broaden the evaluation method, in reality this had not appeared to be the case. Fredline, Raybould, Jago and Deery (2004) also advanced the notion that a TBL-style approach was an appropriate way forward for a more holistic evaluation of the impact of special events. A conceptual framework was proposed, which could integrate a number of impacts and enable an overall measure of the impact of an event to be represented. This approach has particular merit, but this paper argues that its success is dependant on the development of a robust set of event-specific indicators, which are needed to underpin the framework. The first step in this process (and the aim of this study) is to determine what key impacts are currently being used to evaluate special events.

Method

There have been previous studies that analysed a range of special event publications (for example, Formica 1998; Getz 2000; Harris, Jago, Allen & Huyskens 2000; Hede et al. 2002) in order to identify the underlying trends. In contrast, the aim of the present study was to undertake a deeper analysis of a specific area of the event management literature, namely, publications that focused on event impacts. The intention was to elicit the key impacts that were cited in these publications, and then use these impacts as a basis for developing a set of event-specific indicators. Although there are other areas of research, for example, environmental, cultural, social or health, it was felt that the event management literature would provide a sound basis for deriving a list of event-specific impacts, especially given the broader aim of the project. The next section of the paper outlines how the literature was sourced, the analysis that was undertaken and what results were revealed.

Refereed Journal Articles

Refereed journal articles were gathered from a range of sources. The primary source of literature was from tourism and leisure-related journals. A starting point was the journals that were included in the study by Hede et al.(2002): *Annals of Tourism, Research*, the *Journal of Travel Research*, *Tourism Management*, *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, *Tourism Analysis*, the *International Journal of Tourism Research* and the *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, *Event Management: An International Journal* (formerly *Festival Management and Event Tourism*), *Journal of Leisure Research*, *Leisure Management*, *Managing Leisure* and the *Journal of Hospitality and Leisure Marketing*. The journals were sourced in electronic and hard copy versions.

In addition to the above journals, the following electronic databases were used to source articles related to event evaluation and event impacts: *ProQuest, Ingenta,*

Business Source Premier and *Leisure Tourism- Cabi Abstracts*, as initial searches revealed that they contained the journals that were most pertinent to the study. As not all journals and not all issues of journals were available in electronic form, hard copies were also accessed. In addition, as each article was read the references were checked for relevant articles that may have been missed in the previous two methods. The Web sites of some of the publishers of the journals were also used as a means to find related publications. Only peer reviewed publications were included in the analysis. Table 1 shows the journals that were used to source the publications.

Table 1 Source Journals for Event Impact Publications

Journals	**Number** n=182	**%**
Event Management: An International Journal/Festival Management and Event Tourism	63	34.6
Journal of Travel Research	15	8.2
Tourism Management	11	6.0
Current Issues in Tourism	8	4.4
Pacific Tourism Review	8	4.4
Tourism Economics	8	4.4
Annals of Tourism Research	6	3.3
Journal of Sport Management	5	2.7
Journal of Sport Tourism	4	2.2
Journal of Vacation Marketing	4	2.2
Journal of Tourism Studies	3	1.6
Visions in Leisure and Business	3	1.6
International Journal of Tourism Research	2	1.1
International Journal of Urban & Regional Research	2	1.1
Journal of Applied Recreation Research	2	1.1
Journal of Cultural Economics	2	1.1
Sport Marketing Quarterly	2	1.1
Tourism Recreation Research	2	1.1
American Business Review	1	0.5
Annals of Leisure Research	1	0.5
British Journal of Sociology	1	0.5
Community Development Journal	1	0.5
European Planning Studies	1	0.5
Geoforum	1	0.5
Impact Assessment and Project Appraisal	1	0.5
International Journal of Advertising	1	0.5
Journal of Advertising Research	1	0.5
Journal of Convention & Exhibition Management	1	0.5
Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing	1	0.5
Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management	1	0.5
Journal of International Consumer Marketing	1	0.5
Journal of Park and Recreation Administration	1	0.5
Journal of Sustainable Tourism	1	0.5
Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing	1	0.5
Leisure Information Quarterly	1	0.5
Leisure Studies	1	0.5
Managing Leisure	1	0.5
Managing Service Quality	1	0.5
Planning Perspectives	1	0.5
Service Industries Journal	1	0.5
Sociology of Sport Journal	1	0.5

South African Journal of Economics	1	0.5
Sport Management Review	1	0.5
The Australian Economic Review	1	0.5
The Journal of Development Studies	1	0.5
The Review of Policy Research	1	0.5
Tourism Analysis	1	0.5
Tourism Geographies	1	0.5
Urban Affairs Quarterly	1	0.5
Urban Studies	1	0.5

Conference Proceedings

As well as the above journals, a number of peer reviewed conference proceedings were also searched for relevant articles. The ones that were deemed most likely to contain event-related publications are shown in Table 2 below.

Table 2 Conferences Proceedings Sourced

Conference	Number n=42	%
Annual Council of Australian Tourism and Hospitality Educators' Conference	15	35.7
Events and Placemaking Conference 2002	12	28.6
Events Beyond 2000: Setting the Agenda	10	23.8
Convention and Expo Summit	3	7.1
Quality management in urban tourism: Balancing business and environment	1	2.4
Tourism: State of the Art II International Scientific Conference	1	2.4

Results

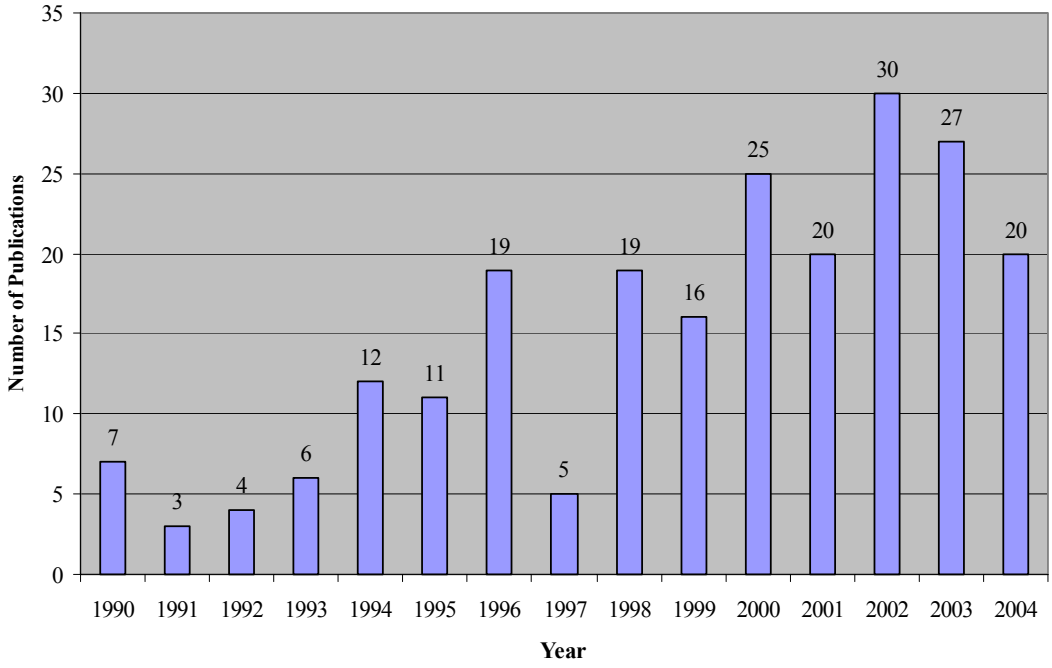
From the combined searches, a total of 224 relevant publications were gathered for the study, which comprised of 182 journal articles and 42 conference papers. In contrast, Formica (1998) found 65 articles and Hede et al. (2002) 150. The publications were analysed in three ways. Firstly, the research focus of the articles was noted, and secondly, an analysis was undertaken on the context of the events within the articles. That is, where the article presented an empirical study, the context of the event was categorised in terms of the type, location and theme of the event. Lastly, and most pertinent to the study, an analysis was undertaken to determine which impacts were being used in the event impact literature. The results of these analyses will be presented in this section.

Temporal Distribution of Publications

As the results show in Figure 1, there appeared to be a general increase in the number of publications across the years included in this study. This supports the findings of Hede et al. (2002; 2003). The three most fertile years in terms of research publications on events were 2000, 2002 and 2003. The most likely reason for the spikes of 2000 and 2002 were that in those years a dedicated event conference was held in Sydney, Australia. In contrast, there were a comparatively low number of

publications in 1997. An explanation for this is that during this year the journal *Festival management & event tourism: an international journal* changed over to *Event management: an international journal*, and a number of issues were held over until the following year. These findings are consistent with those of Hede et al. (2002; 2003), which tracked the broader trends in special event research from 1990-2003.

Figure 1 Special Event Publications 1990-2004



Research focus and type, location and theme events

The breakdown of the articles in terms of their research focus is revealed in Table 3. It can be seen that by far the most frequent focus was on economic impacts, with nearly 30% of the publications dealing with these impacts. The second most common focus was social impacts, with just under 20% of articles that were concerned with these impacts. The next two most common types of research focus were tourism impacts and event management. It is worth noting that only 5% of articles focused specifically on event evaluation. It is also revealed that there was a paucity of articles that focused on the environmental impacts, as the search uncovered only two publications that dealt with the environmental component of events.

A general analysis of the publications was also undertaken in regard to the context of the event, as presented in an empirical study. As shown in Table 3, where the type of event was discernable in the research (n=181), there was a relatively even spread across the four criteria. The criteria were taken from the typology of events that was developed by Jago and Shaw (1998). Similarly, in terms of the location of the events featured in the publications (n=162), there was an even split between those that were staged in the city (51.2%) and those that were staged in a regional setting (48.8%). Contrastingly, where it was possible to determine the theme of the event (n=168),

there appeared to be some differences. By far the most commonly cited theme was sporting (59.5%), whilst the second most common theme for analysis was cultural events (29.2%).

Table 3 Analysis of Special Event Publications

Trend Analysis	Criteria	Number	%
Research focus	Economic impacts	63	28.1
n=224	Social impacts	44	19.6
	Event management	30	13.4
	Tourism impacts	29	12.9
	Research/Methodological issues	20	8.9
	Planning/Urban development	16	7.1
	Event evaluation	11	4.9
	Visitor impacts	9	4.0
	Environmental impacts	2	0.9
Type of event	Minor event	50	26.5
n=181	Festival	48	27.6
	Hallmark event	42	23.2
	Mega-event	41	22.7
Location of event	City	83	51.2
n=162	Regional	79	48.8
Theme of event	Sporting	100	59.5
n=168	Cultural	49	29.2
	Entertainment/spectacle	19	11.3

Extracting the Key Impacts

The second and major part of the study focused on a content analysis of the impacts that were cited in the publications. The aim was to derive a list of the key impacts that were currently used in special event evaluations. Initially, three broad categories were used to code the impacts, namely, economic, social and environmental, and within each of these a sub-category was used to indicate whether the impact was of a negative or positive nature. After an initial pilot testing of 30 articles, the schema was modified, based on the framework proposed by Ritchie (1984), as the number of different impacts continued to increase. After another 30 articles were analysed, more modifications were made, and the final framework is shown below in Table 4. Ritchie's (1984) framework was developed for hallmark events and has been cited in a large number of event impact-related articles in the last 20 years. In addition, it was felt that the types of impacts were relevant to other types of special events as outlined by Jago and Shaw (1998). Similar to Ritchie's (1984) framework, the schema considered that impacts could be either positive or negative.

Table 4 Impact Framework

Type of impact	Nature of impact	Category of impact
Economic	Positive	State/National
		Local
	Negative	
Tourism development	Positive	Tourism industry
		Tourism enterprise
	Negative	Tourism industry
		Tourism enterprise
Commercial	Positive	Industry-wide
		Enterprise-specific
		Event-related
		Sponsorship
	Negative	Industry-wide
		Enterprise-specific
		Event-related
Sociocultural	Positive	Community development
		Improvement in quality of life of residents
	Negative	Community diminishment
		Reduction in quality of life of residents
Psychological	Positive	Destination marketing
		Residents perceptions
		Visitors perceptions
	Negative	Destination de-marketing
		Residents perceptions
		Visitors perceptions
Physical	Positive/Negative	Built environment
		Natural environment
Political	Positive/Negative	

Source: Adapted from Ritchie (1984)

Collapsing of the Impacts

The analysis of the 224 publications revealed a pool of 326 possible impacts. Such a large number of impacts was very cumbersome and needed to be reduced to a manageable size. It became apparent from the data that many of the impacts were similar except for subtle nuances. Initially, duplicate impacts were identified so that they could be combined into a single impact. This resulted in the reduction of the number of impacts by a marginal amount, therefore a more comprehensive collapse was needed. Firstly, the impacts that were cited most frequently were categorised as 'leading' impacts, and those impacts that were cited less often were categorised 'lesser' impacts. Secondly, the 'lesser' impacts were sorted according to their similarity with the 'leading' impacts. The third step was achieved by collapsing the 'lesser' impacts into the 'leading' impacts. During this step, some of the descriptors of the 'leading' impacts were modified to reflect the impacts that had been absorbed. As a result, the pool of possible impacts was reduced from 326 to 96. Following the collapse, a discussion was held with an expert panel to give an objective opinion concerning the direction that the research was taking.

This number of impacts was still deemed to be too large, and a second collapse was undertaken, in a similar method to the first. As a result of the second collapse, the pool of possible impacts was reduced from 96 to 20. This number of impacts was

deemed appropriate given the next phase of the research, discussed later in the paper. The list of impacts was then re-sorted into its former schema of economic, social and environmental (see Table 5).

List of Special Event Impacts

The list of impacts corresponded with the research focus of the publications, in that economic impacts were by far the most dominant impact cited in the publications. Of the 20 impacts listed below, 13 were economic, six were social and one was environmental. As revealed in Table 5, destination promotion was by far the key impact as it was cited in 81.7% of the publications. The other economic impacts that were cited in over 40% of the publications were economic benefits, visitor expenditure and employment opportunities and skills development. In terms of the social dimension, impacts relating to community pride were the major impact cited, with nearly half (47.8%) of the publications citing related impacts. Negative impacts featured highly in the publications and the two most cited economic impacts were those relating to the costs of staging (30.4%) the event and damage to reputation of destination (21.4%). The negative social impacts were those that resulted from a sudden influx of tourists such as overcrowding, congestion and noise (33.5%) and crime and vandalism 25.4%). Despite only two publications focusing on the environmental impacts, a number of publications (20.5%) referred to the affect that events have on natural resources. It should be noted that this impact represents both positive and negative environmental impacts that arise from the staging of special events.

Table 5 List of Impacts from Special Event Literature

Special event impacts	Number of publications citing impact	% of publications
Economic (positive)		
Destination promotion	183	81.7
Economic benefits	111	49.6
Visitor expenditure	102	45.5
Employment opportunities and skills development	99	44.2
Development of tourism industry	87	38.8
Legacy of infrastructure and facilities	80	35.7
Business development and investment opportunities	72	32.1
Capital expenditure on construction of facilities	40	17.9
Corporate sponsorship	28	12.5
Economic (negative)		
Costs of staging event	68	30.4
Damage to reputation of destination	48	21.4
Inflation	42	18.8
Under-utilisation of infrastructure	27	12.1
Social (positive)		
Community pride	107	47.8
Improvement in quality of life of host community	80	35.7
Celebration of community values	73	32.6
Social (negative)		
Overcrowding, congestion and noise	75	33.5
Crime and vandalism	57	25.4
Disruption of lifestyle of residents	49	21.9
Environmental		
Affect on natural resources	46	20.5

Discussion

There appeared to be a general increase in the number of event impact-related studies over the research period, particularly between 2000 and 2003. This result was in line with the findings of Hede et al. (2002). Harris et al. (2001) maintained that the number of texts, journals and academic conferences that are either wholly or partially inclusive of special events research, are evidence of the growth of the field. The results of this study support this assertion, specifically in terms of the area of event impacts. The major research focus for the publications was on economic impacts, which supports the findings of Formica (1998) and Getz (2000). Moreover, a number of these articles were descriptive in nature, and contained discussions about the methodological issues associated with event evaluations, such as the use of multipliers and estimation of visitors' expenditure. This was similar to the findings of Formica (1998). Although these publications did not include empirical event evaluations they contributed to the overall discussion concerning the impact of events on the host destination.

There was a large number of publications that focused on the social impacts of events, which could suggest that this area is becoming increasingly of interest to social researchers, particularly from 2000 onwards. These publications covered a range of issues including place identity (for example, De Bres & Davis 2001; Derrett 2002), impact on residents of urban redevelopment (for example, Atkinson & Laurier 1998; Chalkey & Essex 1999; France & Roche 1998; Hiller 1998; Olds 1998; Roche 1994) and attitudes and perceptions of local residents to the staging of events (for example, Cegielski & Mules 2002; Deccio & Baloglu 2002; Fredline & Faulkner 2000, 2002; Mihalik 2000; Tiyce & Dimmock 2000; Xiao & Smith 2004). In terms of measuring the social impact of events, studies by Delamere (1997; 2001), Delamere, Wankel and Hinch (2001) and Fredline, Jago and Deery (2002; 2003) have proposed a range of scales, which measure residents attitudes towards the social impact of events and festivals. The implications for a TBL evaluation of an event are that the model proposed by Fredline et al (2004) would need to aggregate quantitative economic and environmental measures and qualitative social measures. Norman and MacDonald (2004) suggested that from an accounting perspective this was one of the major challenges associated with operationalising the TBL.

It was noted by Hede et al (2002) that there was a research gap in regard to literature on both social and environmental evaluations. In contrast, this research found this to be the case only in regard to environmental evaluations. The difference may lie in the larger variety of journals that were used for the present study. Nevertheless, there is agreement that there is a paucity of publications that address the environmental impact of events, a view supported by Harris and Huyskens (2002). Even though a small number of publications recognised the environmental impact of events (for example, Bramwell 1997; Sherwood et al. 2004), the only two publications that specifically focused on this aspect were the studies by May (1995) and Harris and Huyskens (2002), both of which considered the environmental impacts of Olympic Games. In terms of measuring the environmental impacts, Harris and Huyskens (2002) maintained that the events should encourage appropriate recycling and waste management behaviour, as well as highlighting innovative environmental practices and techniques. Recently, a number of resources have been developed that assist event organisations to monitor recycling and waste management at events such as the

Waste Wise Events toolkit (EcoRecycle Victoria 2005). Further research could assess the level of take up of this resource by event organisations. Moreover, with the general acceptance and maturity of economic impacts, and the more recent focus on the social impacts, the development of indicators to measure the environmental impact of events could hold the key to unlocking the TBL evaluation of special events.

Hede et al. (2002) found that special events literature appeared in a range of journals in a number of fields that included tourism, economics, leisure, hospitality and history. This present study also found that there were a number of journals from the sport and geography discipline that contained articles relating to the impact of events. In short, the results may suggest that the most likely type of publication found in this area would be one that focused on the economic impacts of a sporting event. The question remains, though, does this indicate that the field of special event evaluation has matured?

Towards a TBL Evaluation

There has been a call for a broad-based method for evaluating the impact of special events, and momentum appears to be building towards a TBL-style approach. The operationalisation of the TBL by businesses shows that this is an appropriate way forward for the special events industry as it provides a framework for incorporating economic, social and environmental measures (Sherwood et al. 2004). One of the assumptions of a business, however, is that it operates as an on-going concern. In contrast, special events are short term in duration and are sometimes only staged once in a particular destination. As such, events have a distinct intensity and variety of impacts on the host destination. The question is, if an event is only staged once, is it at all necessary to measure its sustainability? According to Bramwell (1997, p. 14), the short duration of special events 'certainly may discourage concern for sustainability'. Nonetheless, this paper argues that this should not preclude evaluating special events from a TBL perspective.

As stated earlier, this study represents the first stage of a larger project, which aims to develop a broad-based framework to evaluate the impact of special events from a TBL perspective. The second stage of the project is to conduct a Web-based Delphi survey of event experts to allow the experts to suggest indicators to measure the impacts. A similar study was undertaken by Carlsen et al. (2001), however, the present study differs in a number of ways, namely, the survey will be administered online, the Delphi panel will include local government and event practitioners, and the aim is to develop only post-event indicators. The Delphi survey will be administered over three rounds. In the first round of the study, the aim is to allow the panel members to rate and rank the list of 20 key impacts. The second round will allow the panel members to suggest event-specific indicators for each of the impacts, and in the third round, experts will be asked comment on the suite of indicators. In the third stage of the project, the TBL model will be field-tested on a number of special events in Australia.

Conclusion

There is growing support from the wider community and event researchers for a broader approach to the evaluation of the impact of special events. It has been suggested that a TBL framework that incorporates the economic, social and environmental dimensions is an appropriate method. There is also a need to aggregate these TBL measures into a holistic framework that will reveal an overall measure of the impact of an event on the host destination. The development of a suite of event-specific indicators is needed to underpin such an approach. The identification of the key impacts that are currently being used represents the first step in the process. For some time, tourism organisations have been locked into a narrow evaluation of the economic impacts. The integration of social and environmental measures may unlock this status quo. Failure to consider the social and environmental impacts may result in a misrepresentation of the long-term contribution that an event makes to the host community. This approach will also result in the ability to benchmark event performances over time. The results will aid in the decisions about which events merit initial or further support, which, in turn, would help to underpin a more sustainable events industry.

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Research and Evaluation of 'Communities Together' Festivals and Celebrations Scheme 2002-2004: Building community capacity*

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This presentation will focus on selected findings of the 'Research and Evaluation of the Communities Together: Festival and Celebration Scheme 2002-2004' (VicHealth, 2002) conducted by the Centre for Popular Education, UTS.

This funding scheme is a VicHealth initiative that sought to contribute to the mental health and wellbeing of communities. It supports community based and controlled festivals and celebrations. Priority was given to disadvantaged communities and activities that fostered inclusion and valued diversity.

VicHealth funded a multisite evaluation of 20 festivals. The evaluation project found evidence that community based celebrations do positively contribute to the mental health and wellbeing of communities. That is, collectively there were opportunities for communities to utilise local strengths to work together to create and manage community celebrations that:

- enabled people to engage in activity they found enjoyable and meaningful;
- were creative and allowed people to express themselves and to showcase their skills;
- provided an opportunity for people to socialise;
- created new networks and groups;
- led to bonding within groups;
- created or strengthened relationships between communities, differing subcommunities and between organisations and subcommunities including subcommunities often marginalised by the mainstream;
- fostered skill development (eg artistic, event management, technical) and provided people with practical experience in creating community based initiatives; and
- fostered dialogue across communities.

Having said this there was evidence that this did not occur for all groups and individuals equally for all the community celebrations involved in this research. The ability to achieve the above was moderated by the context in which the celebrations occurred. More specifically:

- the history of the community(ies);
- the purpose of the community celebration;
- the model(s) of practice adopted;
- the skills of the organisers in event management, community development (ie inclusive practices), facilitating creative processes;
- level of engagement (ie deep, active and ongoing or passive and short term); and
- societal influences.

In addition, these community celebrations were sites of learning about the nature of the community (it's people, the shared landscape, their cultures and traditions and contemporary life experiences).

This presentation will:

- Discuss the methodology adopted for this research and evaluation; and
- focus on the research findings on how celebrations contribute to the development of community capacity (in particular to plan and implement community based activities and to build relationships).

Introduction

This paper will focus on selected findings of the 'Research and Evaluation of the Communities Together: Festival and Celebration Scheme 2002-2004' (VicHealth, 2002) conducted by the Centre for Popular Education, UTS.

The Communities Together: Festival and Celebration Scheme 2002-2004 funding scheme is a VicHealth initiative that sought to contribute to the mental health and wellbeing of communities. It supports community based and controlled festivals and celebrations. Priority for the 2002-2004 period was given to disadvantaged communities and activities that fostered inclusion and valued diversity.

Twenty festivals and celebrations were involved in the qualitative, multisite evaluation. The evaluation project found evidence that community based celebrations do positively contribute to the mental health and wellbeing of communities. That is, collectively there were opportunities for communities to utilise local strengths to work together to create and manage community celebrations that:

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Method

Qualitative research methodology was adopted as it allowed for a flexible, multimethod approach (Lincoln & Denzin, 2003), one that was responsive to differing dynamic contexts in which the festivals and celebrations were held. Further, it allowed the researchers to adopt an interactive role with the research participants, one that invited them to reflect on 'their' practice (Springett 2001). This in turn, enabled a 'deeper' exploration of processes.

A multisite approach was adopted. Twenty community celebrations were selected to achieve variation in types of community celebrations (eg size, purpose, artistic styles, interest); range of communities represented (eg age, ethnicity, gender, disability); mix of rural and metropolitan community celebrations and potential to be involved in more than one evaluation cycle.

Depending on the timing of each community celebration the evaluation consisted of either a retrospective study of a community celebration already completed or prospective analysis incorporating one or more celebration cycles. A third approach was a combination of both.

Data collection involved a combination of semi-structured interviews, observation, review of documentation, a workshop with festival organisers; and participation in the funding assessment panel and was influenced by access to a community, availability of people to participate and resources.

Research Findings on community capacity building

Marmot and Wilkinson in their research on social capital (1999) argue that meaningful participation by community members in festivals and cultural celebrations and other civic activities can be important building blocks in building the capacity of a community.

> *"It became a vehicle through which residents learnt new skills, met new people, and were awakened to the possibility of what their community can achieve when everyone works towards a common goal."* report, Carisbrook

The Communities Together Scheme focused on investing in community celebrations that celebrate local strengths and using local knowledge and skills to do so. It is also sought to build the capacity of communities to plan, implement and evaluate community-based initiatives and to foster relationships across communities.

Across the community celebrations participating in the evaluation there was evidence that capacity was developed at an individual, organisational and community level.

For some this was by default while for others it was an important priority from the outset.

There was evidence that learning and skill development had occurred for individuals and communities within a particular celebration cycle and / or across several celebration cycles.

For example, there was evidence that community celebration organisers and artists and volunteers gained skills in how to plan, promote and manage the logistics of an event.

> *"The young people who organised the event learnt everything there is to know about event management. Funding applications, sponsorship, in kind donations, budgeting, promotions and advertising, meeting protocol, deadlines. VIP protocol, bookings for travel/accommodation and itineraries, service provider liaison, book keeping, venue décor, follow up business such as reporting and handover to next team".* final report Lead on… Thong on the Roof

> *"CERES staff train community leaders in planning, management, administration, marketing and publicity, production (eg setting up, stalls, cooking materials etc)." festival organiser, CERES*

> *"The festival has created a skills database containing details for festival supporters, artist, performers and volunteers. Support is provided in developing skills in risk management, audience development, writing funding submissions etc."* community cultural development worker, Horsham

> *"Mentoring has enabled my son to learn more about directing and producing performance events."* Koori parent, Horsham

> *"Built the local skills in event management (ie managing a large event, liaising with local, national and international media*)." volunteer organiser, Ouyen Raindance

> *"Art Is… has been a catalyst. It has trained a lot people. There is confidence within the community in planning and running events. Recently Horsham was successful in putting on a concert for JJJ. This drew on the people involved in Art Is… pulled off JJJ because of our skills and experiences*." director, Art is…

Informal learning opportunities occurred in most festivals for organisers and selected participants. Formal learning opportunities were a core strategy in several festivals. For example, Art is…, Mt Evelyn Festival and the Cooking Stories Festival adopted more active skill exchanges between professionals and volunteers with the explicit purpose of building, retaining and replacing skills sets within the local community. This included event management, administration, technical and artistic / creative skills.

> *"The events coach has become a stroke of genius in getting people on board, he had guided, supported people and affirmed people who've been involved before."* community worker and organiser, Mt Evelyn

> *"I employ people from each group as well, and we have what we call a learning agreement."* community cultural development worker, Cooking Stories

The educational value for participants around issues (and not just information on services and organisations) was recognised in several festivals.

> "*Great because it teaches young people about culture and food without them having to rely on books but through real life experiences."* volunteer, CERES Harvest Festival

> *"It was a great experience, very new to me and I learnt stuff about other countries and styles of different music."* student and participant, Art Is…

> *"…promotion culture in positive way…people see and learn"* Koori artist and resident, Art Is…

There was evidence that people gained knowledge and skills in how to work with each other (ie social skills, team building, negotiating and decision making in group situations) as part of an organising committee as well as learning more about the community (ie whose voice dominates and who is silenced, what people value) and the cultures of particular sub communities. For example, Broadmeadows Health Service and the Community Development Coordinator in particular learnt about the local Turkish, Arabic and Koori communities. Community workers and artists in Maryborough learnt about communities of long term unemployed and those on pensions.

> *"The festival makes me feel good, it makes me learn more and get involved with people. And also getting to know other people. …had to be a leader to organise all these different people, which I think is hard, and I learned from him about it. We had to learn teamwork, which is a good thing."* cultural teacher, CERES

> *"Well, I believe there is always a situation, you can learn from it in many ways. I believe that it is one of the best ways to learn something about a group or a community… Questionnaires, whatever it is, might not get the right answers. You might get answers, but at the end of the day it will reflect only the numbers, it will not*

reflect the human side of the things, which is very, very important, I believe." community leader

The learning was two way with local communities learning about the local services and agencies.

"There has been increased use of the service by participants including one very shy Koori man who previously had not stepped foot in the service." community development worker, Broadmeadows Health Service

Festival organizers when asked to reflect upon their practices sited many examples of where their involvement in coordinating their community celebration taught them a great deal about qualities such as commitment, patience, tolerance and understanding.

There were many examples where the skills gained by volunteers led to other opportunities to be paid to take on similar roles and for some even ongoing paid employment.

"We now have local people who can deliver our sound and lighting" community development worker, Art Is…

A review of the volunteering program at CERES (2004) highlighted that volunteers in the CERES festivals were being upskilled and as a result they get other work (eg production and logistics). For example, one volunteer involved in administrative work got a job at SBS. Skills development was also exhibited by volunteers in other festivals.

"Skills gained were extraordinary." volunteer organiser, Ouyen Raindance

"Skills have led to a range of employment and other roles (eg teaching in the arts, cultural development officer, professional photographer, events co-ordinator and director, promotions roles, artistic director positions, ...roles within regional arts Victoria (eg the Board and the management and artistic programming teams for the Regional Arts Australia Conference 2004), setting up successful graphic design and textile import businesses, co-ordinating other arts projects and events, and photography work for the local newspapers." director, Art Is…

"...we've seen personal growth happening right through, not only just from this event, though definitely from organising it but right through, her involvement, in the times she's been involved in the project. Not just because of her involvements in the project but also because of her extension into the community itself... the community then recognises that that person has those skills and draws on them more." community worker, Maryborough

Case Study of a young Koori artist in Horsham

I started a traditional Aboriginal dance group in 1995. Over the years I have learnt how to perform and give an audience what they want…I've leant how to make screen sets, films, to use sound equipment and improved my dancing skills. It's a good thing for the boys (all under the age of 15)…It keeps them occupied… they can practice their culture. We can show the community what is here and what we can do. Involvement will continue and has led to other work opportunities, so many gates…Helped get me full time work as part of the Harrow cricket exhibition. Given me skills and confidence. I have had the experiences of dancing and performing in front of 500-800 people… A lot of locals cheer us on… when I walk down the street they ask 'what have you got planned' …they are excited…they love the boys…Have met a lot of people around town, played didge in some bands….Didge with band and choir was hard. Learnt to organise my actual show though.

Many of the festivals drew upon local resources to plan and implement their festivals and celebrations. This involved people with professionally recognized skills and volunteers with an interest or experience in particular areas.

The degree to which the community celebration development and delivery was community owned and controlled was an important aspect of practice examined. There was variation in the degree to which each community drew on local resources to create, organise and deliver the community celebration. Some festivals were primarily a product of local volunteers. Smaller festivals would pay for expenses and perhaps some artist input. Often the medium sized festivals drew on people with professionally recognised skills (often locals) who were paid for their contribution. The largest festivals were managed by professionals who would coopt the support of local volunteers (eg Big West)

On the surface non professional based community celebrations could be defined as 'more community controlled' than those managed by the paid professional. However, there were good examples where the paid professional was sensitive to identifying and bringing in groups who were perhaps marginalised within the community. Local community development workers often took on these roles in smaller settings.

There was a high level of volunteerism in the festivals. This is despite a sometimes difficult broader community context.

> *"People have less and less time available to commit to organising the festival. Particularly in a voluntary capacity. During drought time it is particularly difficult to involve people…added costs to travel to meetings…need to be more available for paid work."* director, Art Is….

The community celebrations led to increased membership for local groups.

> *"The interest by a younger generation in community groups was viewed as essential for their continuation as many of the groups were reliant on people who were now in their 60s and 70s. Only 3 or 4 old people were on local committees. Now there are 30 to 40 people, mostly middle aged."* event manager, Ouyen Raindance

People appreciated the opportunity to do something for their community or to use skills they were not currently using.

> *"So I feel like I have the skills, so at the festival I got to show this a bit." cultural teacher* CERES

> *"Pleasure to use my skills in a community context."* new migrant and volunteer, CERES Harvest Festival

Tensions did occur between volunteers and paid workers. There were examples of disagreements around who was responsible for what and what benefits (if any) volunteers should receive (ie free meals, free entry).

> *"The story of volunteers is at the heart of festival organising (equity between volunteer groups, clarity about benefits and expectations, provide opportunities for ongoing involvement, flexibility and self-praise is important)."* event manager, CERES

There would appear to be several skills sets required in creating celebrations that achieve the aims of the CTS. These include:

1. community development (eg enabling others to be involved and participate in a way that is meaningful for them)
2. event management (eg organisational aspects such as venues, media, risk management)
3. planning and evaluation
4. administration (eg budget management)
5. creativity and artistic skills
6. interpersonal skills (eg communication, networking, negotiation, public speaking)
7. technical skills (eg use of selected equipment)

> *"…need to have your creative side of the brain happening but you also need to have a handle on the figures and the management of the people and I do a lot of most of the promotions and publicity as well and sponsorship, you know your brain just gets divided into so many pieces."* director, Art Is…

Different communities demonstrated different capacities for each of these. Sometimes communities relied on one or two individuals to provide leadership. There were differing

knowledge, skills and experience exhibited by those in a leadership role and this influenced the 'feel' of the community celebration.

The community celebration organisers exhibited differing understanding, experiences with and capacity to undertake, community cultural development. Some communities had access to (or had the resources to buy in) people with a high level of skill in this area who are able to provide leadership about how to adopt a community development approach.

Celebration organisers exhibited differing understandings of what it is to work 'with' people, what is meaningful engagement and hence the degree opportunities were created for people to be involved in their own terms. For some, conceptual input or contribution to an artistic product conceived by an artist by community members was identified as meaningful engagement. Others with skills and experience in community development were more inclined to adopt ways of working that enabled the co-creation of art and for some enabled the communities to conceive and implement the entire celebration themselves.

Further, they exhibited excellent technical knowledge and skills (eg event management, administration, marketing), and engaged in critical self reflection. There was a strong sense of craftsmanship about their work.

Many practitioners expressed how they worked in isolation from their peers. All appreciated the opportunity to learn from their peers and to have time for self reflection. Several community celebration organisers we spoke to exhibited differing levels of self reflective practice.

Several of the experienced practitioners exhibited deep and active reflexive practices around the intention, form and content of the community celebration. This enabled them to change approaches in response to community changes, current tensions and capacity. Those participating in the active mentoring, coaching or informal learning exchanges with experienced practitioners were supported to engage in deeper reflexive processes.

All could clarify what they would not do again. In particular, in relation to events that did not engage a group they wanted to and the event management aspects of their practice. There were numerous examples provided of logistical problems that were encountered overall and with particular activities that would need to be addressed in future activities (eg venues too small or event too spread out, lack of equipment, food running out, technical problems with equipment, scheduling issues, not enough preparation time, people who withdrew at the last minute, need for more volunteers). These logistical problems did lead to frustration for individuals and in some instances led to conflict and 'damaged' relationships or contributed to poor perceptions about the celebration. The employment of a festival coordinator was seen as critical by some to the success of the logistical organisation and the smooth running of the festival.

Many dreams were bigger than what could be executed, so many initiatives were subsequently modified.

"We only did a quarter of what was planned…What we really learnt is that we need more dedicated time to make it happen." organiser, Where the Heart Is

There was surprise amongst first time community celebration organisers with regard to the time and commitment required to get these things up and happening.

"Never been that tired in my life." manager, health service

"It took a lot of energy to get it up and running. Never done before. I was shocked". "

"Very hard work…required a lot of carefully planning...a lot of hours. More than I ever thought." organiser, Snowy Errinundra Festival

"Bit worn out. So much effort, so many things, didn't justify it." celebration organiser, Bealiba

Giving people confidence was an important outcome mentioned by many celebration organisers and community observers.

"*Learnt can do this….gave people confidence.*" community worker, community worker, Maryborough

For others the community celebration was an initiator for ongoing commitment.

"It is one of the few community committees people are elected (ie compete) to get involved. It has a lot of energy." director, Community Health, Orbost

There were examples where an activity initiated as part of a community celebration continued on an ongoing basis (eg yoga classes, farmers markets, choirs, touring performances and exhibitions, art activities, ongoing dinners, catering business). The Fringe Feast has since led to the Atherton Estate forming an arts committee which will develop systems to cope with arts projects coming onto the site.

Skills gained from the community celebration experience have been transferred to other contexts. For example, the residents of Ouyen have since successfully fought the Victorian State Governments' plan to build a toxic waste dump 5km out of town.

As cited by McQueen-Thomson, James & Ziguras (2004) work by Stern and Seirfert (2002) highlight that there is a link between strength of community and levels of cultural activity.

Communities such as Natimuk were a good example of 'creative communities'. Research by Florida (2003) found that creative people cluster in centres of creativity and also where they like to live. The capacity of the Natimuk community to create and stage

a large scale performance was exceptionally high, particularly for a rural community of 500 people.

However, it also has to be acknowledged that this has evolved over time and linked to it sitting within a broader supportive structure.

> *"Part of the reason of why they have the legs they have now is because of the work of the 'Art is...' festival in building some of that community capacity to pull together that stuff and encouraging community and artists and giving people that right to step beyond their boundaries ...to nurture people to actually do that from its conception…why it can stand alone now rather than where it sat earlier*." community development worker, Horsham

Recognising that each community has a differing capacity is an important part of the community building process. While the Natimuk community has a high capacity to facilitate arts based activities due to the nature of climbers (many of whom are artists attracted to Mt Arapalies), conversely 'Where the Heart is' was put on by health workers for the homeless. As highlighted by the Manager of the Royal District Nursing Service while they would "…*love to hand over to Homeless Persons Foundation. But they are in an embryonic stage… this is something we will have to work towards over time."*

Some communities had not seen festivals and celebrations as a vehicle for building community. They tended to sit outside of, or disconnected from other activities happening in the area. This was potentially a lost opportunity. Other community celebrations were organised by groups or agencies who did not have capacity to provide support beyond the festival itself.

> *"Initiating relationships with communities meant that you learn about many of their needs. These needs might have to do with employment, emancipation through social awareness, education etc. My role becomes very challenging when I can see important needs during the process of the festival development that I cannot meet. There is barely the time to put the festival together often writing grants for another project while delivering an event so it is impossible to follow up leads that you identify as being able to help people beyond the community celebration you are working on…The role sometimes felt very limited to event management, I had to pull back from my initial wider networking which is so necessary to create long term meaningful community development and change – to truly empower communities. The festival is very meaningful, however to sustain that meaning you need to have a great deal of lead up time and follow up time. But in a community centre like CERES where your job relies on you sourcing external funding [I was always chasing funding] I think that it is just not possible to sustain the community development part of the event without leaving big holes in the process."* multicultural worker in the CERES festivals team

For many of the communities the community celebration arose out of, or actively sought, relationships with other community building initiatives. For example those driven by

government departments such as officially recognised leadership programs as Connecting Confident Communities, learning town programs (eg Mt Evelyn) or by community workers (eg Art Is…) or health agencies (eg community health services). The celebrations at Loddon Prison were part of the 'healthy prisons' movement while the Atherton Estate is involved in an urban renewal program.

> *"This event hangs off the other things we do, building a town centre, community leadership, it creates a focus on the town and therefore is part of the Township plan. This is one way that combines these things, because often 'Learning Town' can seem abstract."* organiser and community worker, Mt Evelyn

Having access to ongoing funding support was seen as important. Success in one year in getting funding can generate enthusiasm and energy that can be subsequently devastating if there is no further support. Those communities that exhibited greater capacity (ie in grant writing, experience in conducting festivals) demonstrated they were skilled at attracting larger amounts of funding.

While support was provided by local government for public liability and permission to hold the events, several local government agencies did not have a cultural development agenda (ie it is not valued and hence resourced) or identify festivals and celebrations as a community building tool. Several of those new to managing community celebrations mentioned they would have appreciated more active support.

> *"Local government in region is not supportive of community builders initiative or smaller communities. The focus in on* (the main centre) *and bigger projects. They do not have a community cultural development position. It is difficult to get support for community work."* community worker

The success of community celebrations was used by some communities to demonstrate to local government the role of the arts in building community, leading to more active support of the arts over time.

It is important to recognise the physical capacity of some communities. In rural towns in particular, many communities did not have spaces for people to congregate, or those spaces were in disrepair. The festivals in many instances celebrated newly created or renovated spaces (Dunnolly Heart and Soul, Celebrating Carisbrook) or highlighted the need for community spaces (eg Berringama, Lucyvale, Wabba Bash, Bealiba Autumn Festival). Several small communities have since sought to enhance the public spaces they have available (eg repairing halls, providing seating).

It is important to recognise that capacity building at a community level shifts and evolves over time.

> *"The volunteer coordinator is leaving which will leave a huge void that will be difficult to fill. She just had all the skills and experience in looking after*

volunteers, recruiting, the whole process we could hand over to her. She did such a brilliant job." director, Art Is…

"…problem with drivers, leaders move on…" community worker, Maryborough

The Mallacoota Arts Festival is an example of where a small local festival became a large scale tourist festival. The demands of meeting an annual large scale arts festival with a focus on the production of large major performances on this small community led to a 'burnt out' and divided arts community and a festival that many local people did not identify with or want. The influx of large numbers of tourists (and a particular type of tourist) was resented by some within the community. Subsequently the festival was compounding divisions within the community. The recent VicHealth funded festival sought to support a small scale festival with a focus on community engagement. The comparative success led the organisers to revalue small, intimate festivals.

"One of the most important things is participation and community involvement and that's what we got this year. People were saying there was no pressure and they had time to go and do what they wanted to do. It was like the festivals of old, back in the 1980s when organisers were able to enjoy themselves." festival organiser

Research findings on partnership development

VicHealth (2003) makes a distinction between the purposes and nature of partnerships. Partnerships are seen to range on a continuum from networking through to collaboration.

Networking involves the exchange of information for mutual benefit. This requires little time and trust between partners.

Coordinating involves exchanging information and altering activities for a common purpose.

Cooperating involves exchanging information, altering activities and sharing resources. It requires a significant amount of time, high level of trust between partners and sharing turf between agencies.

Collaborating includes the above activities and enhancing the capacity of the other partner for mutual benefit and a common purpose.

Each festival could demonstrate networking partnerships that were created or reinforced within each festival. Many celebrations exhibited coordination and cooperative partnerships. A few demonstrated collaborative partnerships.

For example, the range of activities involved in the **Nati Frinj Festival** required several agencies to *coordinate* activities to create a common program including the Lutheran

Church, CWA, Art and Craft Shop, Historical Society, Red Cross, Natimuk Bush Hospital Appeal, Tennis Club, Football club and Natimuk Kinder.

Cooperation was demonstrated between agencies and artists (eg art exhibition in the Lutheran church) and by different agencies in managing the events (eg Lions Club, Nati Hall committee).

Cooperation and *collaboration* was exhibited between the Art Is… festival and Nati Frinj in enabling the Nati Frinj to become a stand alone event and between artists and organisations in the creation of the *space and place* performance (artists, representatives from the climbing associations, Country Fire Authority, Natimuk primary school who participated in workshops in animation, the choir and shadow puppetry).

The **Snowy Errinundra Festival** was an example of cooperation between traditionally hostile groups.

Interviews with health workers and community representatives about the Broadmeadows **Celebrating Difference** activities identified that *cooperation* occurred in producing each event. Cooperation was even facilitated within each cultural group between different organisations (eg within the Turkish and Aboriginal communities).

> *"New synergies have been created between organisations (eg within Turkish community)."*

Co-ordination occurred between the health service and the Aboriginal and Turkish organisations. Relationships were established with key leaders in these communities.

> "*Trust and reliability were established through working together."*

These relationships have been accessed for other activities (eg partnering the elderly Italian group with KODE school).

Networking occurred between the new asylum seekers and those with Temporary Protection Visas and several community organisations as part of the **Cooking Stories** project. All groups were introduced to the Asylum Seekers Welcome Centre in Brunswick. Some of the community workers for the participating groups developed relationships and have since worked together (eg on other festivals and community activities). The Afar community was introduced to Footscray Community Arts Centre and decided to have their festival at that venue. As a result of the profile gained from this project the Afar community share an office with other members of the African community in Footscray. Several Afghani women have joined a cultural catering business.

Several festival organising groups actively sought to build relationships with individuals, groups and organisations with each new celebration cycle. For example, Thong on the Roof started with the young people involved in Lead On but the next year moved to more

marginalised young people (eg Koori community)). These partnerships generally involved cooperation and collaboration.

> *"It was fantastic to have new groups involved this year such as the East Timorese community from the Red Cross Asylum Seekers program and the North Yarra Vietnamese community. We made connections with new cultural cooks from Brazil, El Salvador, India, Japan and Italy."* report, CERES Harvest Festival

> Art Is…has actively fostered a relationship with the Koori community and developing local artists. *"First time have a local indigenous boys' dance group…see little boys do indigenous dance… see their development over time… well accepted now by the community."* performer, Horsham

> The One Voice project created *"strong relationships with HRCC, media, Uni, schools, U3A, HUB, arts community, Wesley PAC, Goolum Goolum, Werrimul, Tourism Centre, Natimuk climbing community and Nexus."* director, Art Is …Horsham

Existing relationships across organizations were often utilised to get things happening. Several community celebrations exhibited they were also a vehicle for developing new ones (ie between individuals and organizations).

> *"Everything is about relationship….if you got them if you don't things will be difficult …don't know where to go."* organiser, Carisbrook

> *"I know what to expect and I've established much stronger connections with community."* director, Art Is…

> *"Through planning get so much more than the celebration, get networks, build trust."* community development worker, Broadmeadows Health Service

For example, the festival organiser of the Cooking Stories project is a very experienced practitioner who had a long-standing relationship with many of the communities involved. Because of the trust that had been established with them she was able to get things happening quickly.

This compares with the Fringe Feast adopted by the Melbourne Fringe who did not have this prior relationship. A great deal of time was spent developing a positive trusting relationship. The time that was invested in this meant the project had to be renegotiated and scaled back.

> *"The initial response of the Neighbourhood Advisory Board was a little suspicious of the intentions of the Fringe, and they shared fears of the Fringe reputation for radical behaviour spreading onto the estate."* director, Melbourne Fringe

The practitioners involved in this project soon recognised the need to modify what can be achieved and how many people can be engaged in the short term and the need to develop a relationship for the longer term. "*Now we are well placed to do something in the next couple of years."* director, Melbourne Fringe

The importance of respecting relationships was noted.

> "*…my work's very much about continuity and skilling people up…You just can't blow in, you know, give everybody a fabulous time – or a rotten time, as the case sometimes it is, cause people fight when a bit of money comes into communities – and then blow out again without leaving something behind."* community cultural development worker

Agencies such as community health services have relationships across communities which enable people to work together. For example, leadership for the Snowy Errinundra Festival was provided by community health.

> *"The centre has strong and neutral connection to all the sub communities (ie greenies, timber workers, business people). We interact with everyone…have trust. They knew we should act in the best interests of the community."* director, Community Health, Orbost

There were cases where involvement in this community celebration developed relationships that could be drawn upon for other activities.

> *"…we did draw on the experience of an artist involved in another VicHealth project…we used her knowledge base about how to do events. She was happy to help. Her involvement in this helped her other role as an artist on that project…she got better results, people were 'more comfortable with her and her project'."* organiser, Carisbrook

The Flying Feathers initiative in Eurora had benefits for the events organiser in her role as community worker and it also enhanced her relationship with the local high school.

Where the Heart Is…

The community celebration built and reinforced relationships between colleagues working within the Royal District Nursing Service and between that agency and with others and redefined their relationships with their clients.

"A strong advantage has been that the existing networks within the health and housing sectors are well established and these were the networks which activated so successfully in a relatively short time to form the collaborations required to organise the festival. The workers and agencies are practiced at responding immediately and practically to

challenges and opportunities and this was evidenced in their participation and the contributions of funding and goods."

Different agencies took responsibility for different areas of activity and cooperated in managing the festival. The festival provided a common activity to work on:

"Captured imagination and struck a chord with service providers and others."

"Gave focus across positions."

"Team building within the homeless persons' team and the broader housing sector. So next time hope to have greater structure, to draw in others."

"Increasing numbers would show up to the planning meetings. Usually they drop off. People were committed to the idea and the activities. Having said this do recognise it was driven by a core group of people and leadership of two people."

Social interaction between health workers and homeless persons is often limited to interactions at the place of emergency accommodation, meals programs and through contact with health and welfare agencies. The health workers recognised that the festival "*...built connections with clients, amongst ourselves…being people."*

"…not just about finding a bed…it is creative output. More participation and of an artistic type rather than speaking about housing, this or the other."

"See workers and clients engaging. This changes the relationship between worker and clients. They are equal…alongside each other."

"Good for clients and agencies as on the same level."

Conclusion

Through a qualitative approach, this study has identified the potential contribution community controlled celebrations can make to local community building. The VicHealth partnerships model was a useful tool in identifying the nature of the partnerships demonstrated within each festival.

This process has also identified a number of potential indicators for future evaluations. These are summarised in Table 1.

Table 1: Potential individual, organisational, community capacity building indicators for community celebrations and festivals.

Individual	*Organisational*	*Community*
Learning new information	New membership to existing groups	Increased ability to access skills and resources within the community
Self reflection opportunities	Provision of formal and informal learning opportunities	Trial activities within festival / celebration context
Access to formal and informal learning opportunities leading to skill development (eg planning, promoting, managing events; creative and artistic skills, community development, technical, planning and evaluation, administration, interpersonal skills)	Increased ability to access skills and resources within the group	Increased creative capacity of the community
Experience and confidence	New or existing groups demonstrate ability to work together	Creation and management of whole of community activity
Employment	Learning culture	Continuation of community activities
	Advocacy about the value of community celebrations	Interest and action in other community initiatives (eg community celebrations, provision of physical resources)

This research also identified additional indicators in relation to meaningful activities; cultural development (including self expression, creativity and showcasing local skills); social connection and inclusion; and valuing diversity. These can be accessed from the full report available at www.vichealth.gov.au

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Economic Evaluation

The Economic Performance of Special Events: A framework for comparison

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Abstract

In an attempt to identify the key indicators of the economic performance of special events and then to develop measures for these indicators that will facilitate comparison between events, an assessment of 105 event evaluation reports from around Australia was undertaken. Whilst the analysis of this extensive range of reports provided some general trends as to patronage and visitor expenditure profiles, the fact that there was minimal consistency between reports in terms of the type of data that were collected and how data were analysed, reduced greatly the benefits that could be derived from this analysis.

This paper proposes a draft template to enable the comparison of special event economic performance data. Further, in order to operationalise the draft template, it is recommended that feedback on this template be sought from all state and territory tourism organisations (STOs). This paper discusses the processes for adopting this template..

Background

Over the last two decades, there has been increasing recognition of the important impacts that special events can have on host destinations (see for example, Jago, Chalip, Brown, Mules and Ali, 2002; Nicholson and Pearce, 2000). Although the impacts of special events are diverse, the overwhelming focus of attention has been on the economic impacts of events and research by Formica (1998) and Getz (2000) confirms this trend. Much of this focus is attributable to the fact that government agencies have been the predominant financial sponsors of special events and these agencies need to justify their financial support of events by demonstrating the resultant economic benefits for the host destination. Research such as that by Sherwood, Jago and Deery (2005) provides some support for this trend.

Despite the fact that economic evaluation techniques have been around for generations, there has been a great diversity of approaches used in the special event sector, many of which have grossly overstated the impact of such events. Work by Burgan and Mules (2000), Dwyer, Mellor, Mistilis and Mules (2000) and Dwyer, Forsyth and Spurr (2005) has provided detailed discussion of the diversity of methods and variables used in the economic evaluation of events. In recent years there has been increased interest in seeking an approach to evaluate the economic impact of special events in a consistent manner that will allow for the comparison of an event's performance against itself over time and against other similar events (Carlsen, Getz

and Soutar, 2000; Getz, 2000). Organisers of special events and funding agents need to be able to decide which events to support and one factor in this decision is the economic performance of events. The key objective of this study is to provide a framework that will enable economic performance indicators to be developed so that the economic performance of events can be measured and compared.

Aims of the Study

As stated above, the major objective of this study is to identify key indicators of the economic performance of special events and then to develop measures for these indicators that will enable comparisons to be made between events. As illustrated by the research undertaken by Burgan and Mules (2000) and Carlsen et al (2001), there is a need for a consistent method of comparison to evaluate events. Given this objective, the aims of this study are to:

- Identify key indicators of economic performance based on previous events;
- Determine measures for these indicators;
- Provide a template for measuring and comparing events based on these indicators;
- Develop a model, which can be used as a pre and post-event assessment of the economic impact of special events.

This study seeks to establish a framework to facilitate the comparison of various economic aspects of special events. This is so that it is possible for organisers to gain an increased understanding of how a particular event compares with a similar event across a range of criteria. It is not the objective of this study to assess the various techniques that are used to estimate the economic impact of special events.

It was intended that these aims would be achieved through the STCRC research project entitled "*Managerial Decision Making in Tourism Special Events: The Development of Models through a Longitudinal Study*" that was undertaken in partnership with Tourism Victoria and the City of Melbourne. In operationalising this project over three years, different dimensions of event impacts were explored using case studies chosen to meet the specific needs of industry partners. Whilst this advanced knowledge in assorted areas of event evaluation, there were not sufficient cases explored within each type of event to permit generalisations about the economic impacts of events to be made. Thus, it was decided to undertake a meta-analysis of event evaluations in order to identify the key outcomes of economic evaluations of events.

Method

Special Event Evaluation Reports

The study sought to capture as many reports as possible on various types of economic evaluations of special events. In order to ensure that the collection of reports used to underpin this study was as comprehensive and as broadly-based as possible, support was sought from each state and territory tourism organisation (STO). As so many of the events that are staged in Australia receive some level of support from the various STOs, many event evaluation reports are commissioned by the STOs and stored within their offices. Whilst most STOs agreed to support the study, each made clear that many of their event evaluations were "commercial in confidence" and could not be made available for the study. The Web sites of the STOs and special events organisations were also searched for event evaluations but relatively few reports were sourced via this medium. A few academics who have collected event evaluation

reports over the years were also contacted in order to obtain access to these reports. Although there have been a number of pre-event evaluations conducted over the years, these were excluded from this study due to well-publicised concerns suggesting that pre-event evaluations are often over-stated.

Special Event Evaluation Criteria

As the key objective of this study was to identify the evaluation criteria that can best be used to rate the economic performance of events, it was decided to establish a wide range of evaluation criteria that would guide the extraction of information from the various evaluation reports. Since this was a meta-analysis of evaluation reports, it was recognised that few, if any, of the reports included in the study would identify all of the variables listed in the study. The criteria used in this study are presented in Table 1.

Table 1 List of Key Variables Extracted from Reports

Date of Report	
Event Details	Event type
	Event location
Profile of Attendees	Total attendance
	Total attendees
	% Attendees from host area
	% Attendees from outside host area
	% Attendees from intrastate
	% Attendees from interstate
	% Attendees from overseas
Expenditure Profiles	Daily expenditure for intrastate attendees
	Duation of stay for intrastate attendees
	Daily expenditure for interstate attendees
	Duation of stay for interstate attendees
	Daily expenditure for overseas attendees
	Duation of stay for overseas attendees
Economic Contribution	Total expenditure attributable to event (direct inscope expenditure)
	Contribution to state economy (GSP)

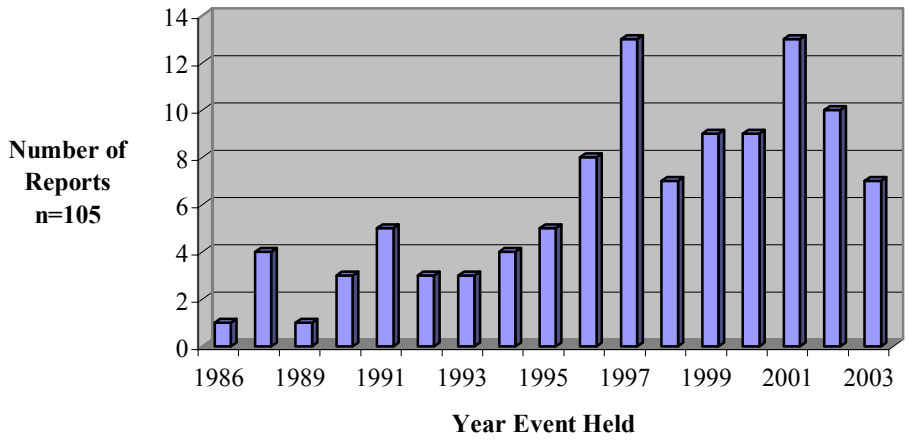
Each report was manually examined and the data were entered into a spreadsheet containing all of the variables listed in Table 1. Few of the reports contained more than 30% of the total number of criteria included in the study.

Results

One hundred and five reports were collected for analysis. The dates of the reports ranged from 1986 to 2003, as shown in

Figure 1 with most (77%) being published between 1995-2003.

Figure 1 Number of Reports and Year of Event



Types of Reports Collected

The vast majority of reports that were included in this study were full evaluations. In some instances, however, it was only possible to obtain an Executive Summary for the event and these were included provided that they contained at least some of the data needed for the study. As the reports included in the study were undertaken by many different consultants in different settings for a range of client needs, the data contained within them varied greatly. It was often quite difficult to identify some of the variables that were being sought in the study and some assumptions had to be made.

Different results from each report

As the reports covered a period of 15 years, it was not surprising that there were inconsistencies in the variables used in the analysis. This is despite the maturity of economic evaluations as a tool for assessing the impact of special events.

How the data appeared in the reports

The data appeared in the reports in a wide variety of formats. The Executive Summary usually contained some information but there was a lack of detail in this area. Most of the relevant information was contained in the *Economic Impact* section of the reports. A lot of the information was not very clearly set out and a considerable amount of reading was needed with some data appearing in unexpected places. In addition, no reports contained all of the variables. For example, some reports contained a percentage breakdown of Visitor Origin but did not reveal the Total Attendees, which degraded the usefulness of the data. A standard format for reporting would make the process considerably easier.

Event Categorisation

In order to explore more fully the consistency of key economic criteria, it was decided to subcategorise events based on two dimensions, namely, type and location. Events were divided into 'sport' and 'cultural' events and 'capital city' versus 'regional' for location. The 105 reports were divided into these categories as presented in Table 2.

Table 2 Special Event Categories used in Analysis

Capital City Sporting (CS) n=59	Regional Sporting (RS) n=21
Capital City Cultural (CC) n=16	Regional Cultural (RC) n=9

Clearly, there are other categorisations that could be considered in the future, but these were not included in this study. Such other categorisations could include:

- Participative versus spectator;
- Capital city versus regional city versus regional;
- Sporting versus cultural versus community.

A summary of the analysis of the reports considered as part of this study is contained in Table 3. Please see the cautionary notes after Table 3.

Table 3 Summary of the Analysis of Economic Reports

		Capital City - Sporting n=58	Capital City - Cultural n=16	Regional - Sporting n=21	Regional - Cultural n=9
Profile of Attendees	Total Attendance[a]	195,570	94,993	129,963	21,014
	Total Attendees	67,267	147,415	56,638	13,240
	% Attendees from Host Area	55.7	83.0	49.9	18.5
	% Attendees from Outside Host Area	38.4	18.8	40.7	94.4
	% Attendees from Intrastate	31.3	4.1	57.0	50.0
	% Attendees from Interstate	32.2	25.5	24.6	27.0
	% Attendees from Overseas	24.7	4.2	3.3	4.5
Expenditure Profiles	Daily Exp For Intrastate Attendees[b]	64.46	87.25	92.69	67.64
	Duration of Stay for Intrastate Attendees	4.5	2.0		2.2
	Daily Exp for Interstate Attendees[b]	168.71	99.56	130.11	96.16
	Duration of Stay for Interstate Attendees	7.1	6.0	5.8	4.7
	Daily Exp for OS Attendees[b]	189.72	108.72	141.46	95.59
	Duration of Stay for OS Attendees	10.4	15.5	7.4	7.3
Economic Contribution	Total Expenditure on Event	13,176,763	4,516,875	6,313,362	1,309,677
	Contribution to State Economy (GSP)	31,916,323	14,221,693	26,805,269	1,752,549

a = Inlcudes multiple visits
b = Excludes cost of tickets

Cautionary Notes Regarding Figures in Table 3

As indicated earlier, few of the reports included in this study contained data for all variables and thus the averages for each variable reported in Table 3 generally came from the arithmetic means of data from different sets of reports. This means that the addition of the percentages of visitors from different origins do not add to the total percentage of visitors from outside the host area. It also leads to the obviously flawed result that the 'total attendance' for city cultural events is less than 'total attendees'.

In some reports on events held in capital cities, intrastate attendance included residents living in the capital city whilst in others, this group of attendees was classed as local residents separate from intrastate visitation. Indeed, a study of the same event in two separate years applied different definitions to the way these data were reported.

The percentage of international attendees to many of the events included in the study, particularly those in capital cities, appeared to be grossly overstated. This led to the amazing result that nearly 25% of attendees at city sporting events were from overseas. Admittedly, the international attendance figure was generally only quoted at the mega events, such as the Australian Open Tennis and the Formula One Grand Prix, but even so, the result appears inconsistent with conventional wisdom.

These problems reinforce the need for a consistent approach to definitions and the range of variables reported.

Analysis of Data

Profile of Attendees

It can be seen in Table 3 that the average number of attendees at sporting events is larger than the average number of attendees to cultural events and that the number of repeat attendances for sporting events is higher. This is not surprising given that sporting events are often held over a number of days with elimination matches leading up to a final. Not surprisingly, the average attendance numbers for events held in capital cities were higher than for events held in regional areas. Sporting events appear to attract a larger percentage of their patronage from outside the host area than do cultural events.

Expenditure Profiles

In general, the average daily expenditures of attendees at sporting events exceeded those at cultural events. This occurred for both interstate and international attendees and would likely have been the case for intrastate attendees as the average daily expenditure figure for capital city sporting events seems incorrect. The average daily expenditure figure for regional sporting event attendees even exceeds the daily expenditure profiles for capital city cultural event attendees reinforcing the dominance of sporting events in this area.

Analyses of the 2002 National Visitor Survey (NVS) and the 2002 International Visitor Survey (IVS) were undertaken to compare the expenditure profiles of event-related tourists. A summary of the results of these analyses is included in Appendix A where it can be seen that the daily expenditure profiles from the Bureau of Research (BTR) surveys are less than those derived from the reports included in this study. It is also interesting that for intra-state and inter-state attendees, the daily expenditure profiles for attendees to cultural events exceeds that of attendees to sporting events, which is the generally the reverse of the finding in this study. The duration of stay is

also much shorter for intra-state and inter-state attendees in the results of the BTR surveys but the length of stay for international attendees based on the 2002 IVS was an order of magnitude higher than was obtained in this study. However, this latter finding is likely a function of the way that the question was asked in the IVS whereby attending the event was part of the visit not necessarily the driving force for the visit.

Duration of Stay
For intrastate and interstate attendees, attendees at sporting events tended to stay longer than did attendees at cultural events. However, for international attendees to capital city events the trend was reversed with cultural event attendees spending on average 50% longer at the destination than did sporting event attendees.

Total Expenditure on Event and Contribution to State Economy (Gross State Product)
For both total expenditure on the event and gross contribution to state product, sporting events made a much bigger contribution than did cultural events. This would be due largely to the facts that the number of attendees at sporting events tended to be higher than at cultural events and the average daily expenditure profiles were higher.

Discussion
Although over 100 event evaluation reports have been analysed as part of this study, it has been difficult to establish benchmarks with high degrees of confidence in the different categories because the studies measured so many different variables. Few of the variables appeared in more than a handful of the studies, which has made comparing and averaging difficult.

Despite this, however, a few trends have been highlighted. Sporting events appear to attract higher visitation than cultural events and their patrons tend to stay longer and spend more per day. Not surprisingly, events held in capital cities rather than regional areas also attract greater visitation and generate higher expenditure profiles.

For event organisers and event funding bodies, there is substantial merit in being able to benchmark the performance of an event against other events in its class. If it is found that an event is 'under-performing' compared to other similar events, it highlights the need for a remedial strategic response or ultimately, perhaps, the decision to discontinue with the event. Benchmarking data will also allow organisers to predict with more accuracy, the likely performance of a particular class of event prior to it being staged. This may help in deciding what type of events to support in particular regions.

In order to operationalise a benchmarking facility, it is essential that a template be developed and adopted that will enable key data points to be collected in a consistent fashion that will underpin comparisons. Whilst individual studies will likely collect additional data for various reasons, it is crucial that a minimum set of variables be measured in all studies to allow for comparison. Ideally, there would then be an electronic database that would allow the data from various studies to be added to the database in return for a comparison of how the event compares to others in its class. In this way, the database would be continuously updated thus improving its ability to benchmark a more diverse range of studies over time.

In collecting data for this study, discussions have been held with each STO regarding the establishment of a standard template for the collection and comparison of economic-related event data and there appears to be substantial 'in-principle' support for the concept. Not surprisingly, one of the provisions for support would be that confidentiality in relation to individual events in using the database be guaranteed. Clearly, the suggested data collection template and collection process would need to be ratified by the various states and territories.

As a starting point, a data collection template is presented in Table 4. This would need to be discussed with the various potential stakeholders around the country and modified based on the feedback received. Having been through an extensive analysis of a significant collection of event evaluation assessments, the authors of this report believe that there are substantial benefits to be derived for the event sector overall by adopting a widely accepted evaluation template.

Conclusion

The economic characteristics of special events have been measured in so many different ways that it is very difficult, if not impossible, to make any meaningful comparison between events. Without the ability to compare event performance, it is very difficult to develop good practice benchmarks for events that will encourage event organisers to improve their performance over time.

The matrix of economic variables identified in this study provides a starting point for event organisers to consider the performance of their events in a way that will facilitate comparison. Once there is broad agreement on the set of variables that need to be measured, it will be possible to set up a database that will allow organisers to compare their events against others in the same category.

Table 4 Draft Event Performance Template

State or Territory				
Location	Capital	Provincial City	Other Regional	
Time of year	1Q	2Q	3Q	4Q
Type	Sport	Cultural	Wine & Food	Community
Style	Spectator	Participant	Television	
Entry	Ticketed	Free	Mixed	
Total Attendances				
Total Attendees				
Average Daily Expenditure				
Average Duration of Visit				
Number of local attendees				
Local Daily Expenditure				
Number of intrastate attendees				
Intrastate Daily Exp				
Ave Intrastate duration of visit				
Number of interstate attendees				
Interstate Daily Exp				
Ave Interstate duration of visit				
Number of international attendees				
International Daily Exp				
Ave International duration of visit				
Direct inscope expenditure for host city				
Direct inscope expenditure for host state				

Appendix A
(Analysis in this Appendix undertaken by Dr Liz Fredline)

2002 National Visitor Survey (NVS)
Definitions:
Event attendance: where the main purpose of visit was "entertainment/ attending special event" or "sport spectating"

Daily expenditure: total expenditure / sum of all stopover nights / number of persons in travel party

Interstate: main destination state not equal to state of residence
Intrastate: main destination state equal to state of residence

	Type of Event	N	Average length of stay	Mean	5% trimmed mean	Median	Standard Deviation
Intrastate	Sport	253	2 days	$85.12	$57.41	$50.62	196.92
	Cultural	368	2 days	$85.63	$73.36	$55.00	96.73
	TOTAL	621	2 days	$85.42	$66.75	$53.17	145.94
Interstate	Sport	164	4 days	$114.03	$97.57	$71.25	137.83
	Cultural	126	4 days	$142.69	$122.84	$92.21	155.79
	TOTAL	290	4 days	$126.48	$107.60	$82.88	146.34

2002 International Visitor Survey (IVS)
Definitions:
Two alternative definitions of event attendance were used:

1. If activity undertaken was "attend festival, fair or cultural event" or "attend organised sporting event"
2. If another reason for visiting was “sport-watching” OR “attending a festival or carnival influenced the visit”

Daily expenditure: total expenditure / number of people reporting expenditure / nights in Australia

Using definition 1

	N	Average length of stay	Mean	5% trimmed mean	Median	Standard Deviation
Festival	1642	102 days	$95.53	$82.79	$72.96	108.86
Sporting Event	1366	78 days	$109.78	$95.39	$76.00	111.32
TOTAL	2613	83 days	$103.04	$88.96	$74.30	112.82

Using definition 2

	N	Average length of stay	Mean	5% trimmed mean	Median	Standard Deviation
Festival	109	40 days	$125.96	$103.22	$86.46	141.88
Sporting Event	115	14.5 days	$163.65	$148.38	$115.69	142.95
TOTAL	215	27 days	$144.76	$125.62	$94.54	143.72

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Economic Impacts and Benefits of Sport Events: A CGE Perspective

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Abstract

Current practice is to measure the economic impact of events through the use of multipliers which are derived from Input-Output (I-O) models. These models are based on unrealistic assumptions which lead them to estimate positive economic impacts on spending brought about by sports events but fail to measure important negative economic impacts. The use of misleading measures of economic impact is likely to result in a significant misallocation of resources in funding and promotion of such events and in the provision of infrastructure to support them. The authors have applied a Computable General Equilibrium (CGE) model of the Australian and New South Wales state economies to examine the Qantas Australian Grand Prix. The results are compared with projections using an I-O approach. The CGE approach also enables the net benefits of an event, as opposed to its 'impacts', to be measured. The paper concludes with comments on how assessment of sport events can be improved generally.

Keywords: Special events, economic impacts, computable general equilibrium modelling, net benefits

Introduction

Special events are highly sought after internationally and also in many states and regions in Australia. Governments are prepared to offer generous funding incentives to attract events, and they are prepared to spend big on upgrading the facilities needed for the events. In some cases they are prepared to enter expensive bidding wars to secure footloose events. Events give prestige and enjoyment, but probably the main reason why governments are so keen to promote them is because they are seen as major generators of economic activity and jobs.

In Australia individual governments spend substantial amounts to attract events. Several have set up events corporations, charged with winning events for a region or state. Local governments also are actively promoting events in their regions, sometimes providing funding or incentives, and also assisting event promoters to gain state funding.

The amount of financial support provided for events may be large compared to the revenues generated by these events. Moreover, to win events, governments often also fund major upgrades to infrastructure. While this may have lasting benefits for users in the future, the timing of infrastructure construction, together with the standard and cost, would probably not be warranted if the event were not taking place.

This paper argues that there are three serious weaknesses in the way sport events are assessed: first, use of the standard Input-output (I-O) technique of assessment yields exaggerated economic impacts of sport events, resulting in support for events which do not deliver the projected changes in output and jobs; second, there is a failure to distinguish between the impacts on output and jobs, and the net benefits which this increased economic activity brings; and third, since the benefits to one region are often at the expense of other regions, it may well be the case that events are supported that produce benefits locally but disbenefits to a wider area.

Event Impact Assessment

The economic evaluation of events, such as sporting or cultural events and festivals, is now widespread (Crompton and Mackay 1994, Crompton 1995, Delpy and Li 1998). These event evaluation studies are used in the policy arena - it is usual for event promoters to seek financial assistance from governments, and to highlight the economic impacts when doing so. Events are now often seen as promoting economic activity, and are regarded in a positive light because of this. Studies come up with various measures of impact: impacts on gross output, impacts on Gross Domestic or Regional Product, “contributions to economic activity”, jobs created. Often these impacts are misleadingly referred to as a measure of “benefits” for the event (Ingerson and Westerbeek 1999; Ryan and Lockyer 2001).

Remarkably, except for some isolated sceptics (Lee 2001; Matheson 2002; Matheson and Baade 2003), claims of large, and sometimes enormous, economic impacts or benefits from events have been uncritically accepted. Events are almost always evaluated using I-O or multiplier models, which yield estimates of increases in economic activity well in excess of injected spending (Crompton 1999; Crompton, Lee and Shuster 2001). Some

states and events corporations provide guidance for the evaluation of events and while these identify what expenditures should and should not be counted, and how they should be incorporated, to date they have tended to accept the I-O methodology rather uncritically. I-O models estimate the positive economic impacts on spending brought about by changes such as sport events. However they do not measure the equally real negative economic impacts. A sport event brings additional demand to the economy - as this demand is met, additional output and jobs are created. However, the process does not end with the positive effects. I-O analysis essentially assumes that all resources and inputs are provided freely, and that no resource constraints exist. In real life economies, when more resources are required in one area of the economy, they are drawn away, at least in part, from productive activities elsewhere in the economy. Prices of inputs and wages get bid up, and other activity is discouraged (Dwyer, Forsyth and Spurr 2004, 2005). Events evaluation is one of the few areas left in which I- O models are still used for evaluation and policy advice purposes.

Computable general equilibrium (CGE) models are supplanting I-O modelling to estimate the impact on output and jobs of a change in spending (Dwyer, Forsyth, Madden and Spurr 2000; Dwyer, Forsyth and Spurr 2004). CGE models essentially incorporate I-O sectors, but they also incorporate the other parts of the economy, thereby addressing the failings of I-O analysis. CGE models are now used extensively in many economies to assess the impacts on economic activity of policy changes, such as tax reforms, or external shocks, such as export booms (Yao and Liu 2000; Harrison, Jensen, Pedersen and Rutherford 2000). In some countries, Australia for example, they have completely supplanted I-O analysis for most forms of impact evaluation (Dwyer, Forsyth, Spurr 2004). They are now being used increasingly to analyse tourism issues internationally (Zhou, Yanagida, Chakravorty and Leung 1997; Adams and Parmenter 1999; Blake and Sinclair 2003; Woollett,Townsend and Watts 2001; Dwyer, Forsyth, Spurr and Ho 2005; Dwyer, Forsyth, Spurr and Ho 2003). There has been some use of them in analysing the impacts of events - for example the Sydney Olympics (NSW Treasury / Centre for Regional Economic Analysis 1997), and Dwyer, Forsyth and Spurr (2005) - but to date, the use has not been extensive.

The use of a CGE model in event assessment can be illustrated. The model used was a development of the Monash MMRF multi regional model, specially adapted to enable detailed modelling of tourism issues. It consists of a New South Wales (state) model, a Rest of Australia (RoA) model and an Australia wide (ie NSW plus RoA) model (Dwyer, Forsyth, Spurr and Ho 2005). At the request of the Sustainable Tourism Cooperative Research Centre, the authors compared the different results of using CGE and I-O analysis in estimating the economic impacts of a special event. For this purpose, they undertook an event simulation using the size and expenditure pattern characteristics of the Formula 1 Grand Prix held in Melbourne. The total expenditure injection of this event was $51.25m. The results were compared to the estimated impacts for the same event using I-0 analysis. The event was assumed to take place in New South Wales. The I-O model, embedded within the CGE model, yielded much larger multiplier values, and thus correspondingly larger projections of impacts on output, GSP, and employment than the CGE model. The results are shown in Table.1

TABLE 1: I-O AND CGE OUTPUT, GSP AND EMPLOYMENT MULTIPLIERS FOR NSW AND RoA, FOR A LARGE EVENT HELD IN NSW (SHOCK= $51.25 MILLION)

	I-O Model			CGE Model		
Macro variables	**NSW**	**RoA**	**Aust.**	**NSW**	**RoA**	**Aust.**
Change in real output ($million)	111.96	8.1	120.1	56.70	-32.24	24.46
Change in real GSP/GDP ($million)	38.90	4.4	43.3	19.41	-10.61	8.80
Change in employment (number of jobs)	521	71	592	318	-189	129
Output multiplier	2.2	0.16	2.3	1.2	-0.3	0.9
GSP/GDP (or Value added multipliers)	0.8	0.09	0.8	0.4	-0.2	0.3
Employment multiplier (per million dollar)	10.2	1.4	11.6	6.2	-3.7	2.5
Change in Net Real Benefit				4.73	-3.01	1.73

Source: Author simulations

The results are discussed in detail in Dwyer, Forsyth, Spurr and Ho (2005). They may be summarized thus:

● The CGE simulations reveal that the net impact of an event in one state can have a negative effect on the economic activity in other states. I-O modelling projects a much greater impact on real output and Gross Product in both the event host state and Australia as a whole, as compared to CGE modelling.

● The projected increase in employment using the CGE model is less than I-O estimates for both the event host state and the nation. The I-O model projects increased employment in the rest of Australia (exclusive of the host state) whereas the CGE model projects relatively large job losses in the rest of Australia.

● The CGE model projects reduced output and employment in several industries in the host event state including some industries that might be regarded as closely associated with tourism - Motor Vehicles, Water Transport and Transport Services, Rail Transport, Communications and Insurance. In contrast, the I-O modelling of the special event projects a positive or zero change in real output and employment in all industries.

Measuring Benefits, Not Outputs

The changes in outputs (such as in GDP) which are estimated to flow as a result of an event are often described as the "economic benefits" of the event. This may just be loose talk, but it certainly makes events look more attractive than they really are. When a study estimates that "benefits" of $43m will flow as a result of an event which will come about if a $2m subsidy is given to it, it looks like a very attractive deal. In fact, it may be a very poor deal, because "benefits" may not mean what they seem.

Economic 'impacts' are not economic 'benefits'. "Net benefits" are a measure of the value of the gain in economic activity less the cost needed to enable this extra activity. Additional output requires additional resources and inputs, which must be costed out before a measure of net benefit is obtained. Neither CGE nor I-O models produce, as part of their normal outputs, measures of net economic benefit. They typically report changes in the gross value of output, as measured by GDP or GSP - they do not subtract out the additional cost of factors needed to produce this additional output. CGE models, however, can be constructed to do this. Some are constructed with an explicit measure of economic welfare, which forms an integral part of the model. Alternatively, a standard model can be adapted to produce, as part of its output, an estimate of net benefits - the cost of additional inputs is subtracted from the value of the additional output. This latter approach was used here.

As indicated in Table 1, the net benefit to NSW from hosting the Grand Prix type event, which brought an additional $51.25m in spending into the state, is estimated to be $4.73m. This is much less than the addition to Gross State Product of $19.41m. The net benefit to Australia from this event is estimated to have been $1.73m, which is less than the change in GDP of $8.80m. If policy decisions are to increase overall economic welfare, it is this measure of benefits which should be compared to the cost of the event. If a $2m subsidy is needed to make the event happen, and there are no other costs or benefits, the net benefit from increased economic activity will need to be at least $2m (and the change in GSP or GDP much greater than this) for the subsidy to be worthwhile. This is seen not to be the case given the results in Table 1. If other costs result from the event (eg. due to environmental externalities), the real net benefits figure may well be lower. There could also be positive externalities working in the opposite direction - e.g. in generating economic activity and job maintenance or job creation. If subsidising sport events is to be regarded as an investment to produce benefits, it should be judged according to cost benefit criteria.

Three Neglected Questions

Since the above issues are generally neglected in special events evaluation as it is practised internationally, a likely consequence is serious distortions in spending priorities, and the funding of events that fail to deliver positive net economic benefits. To make informed decisions about events policy, governments need to know the answers to the following questions:

● How much will the event add to economic activity and jobs after accounting for inter-industry effects?

● Is the event likely to produce net economic benefits, and if so, how much is it worth subsidising? and,
● To what extent do the benefits of the event come at a cost to other jurisdictions?

Impacts on Economic Activity

Special events are often sold as a means of increasing local economic activity. In the USA, the local impacts of a large number of events have been estimated using IMPLAN which is described as 'an Input-Output modelling system that builds its accounts with secondary data collected from a multitude of federal government agencies that were originally collected for other purposes' (Crompton 1999: 46). However, this 'cost effective means of producing local Input-Output models' does not overcome the conceptual disadvantages of the I-O technique.

The term 'local economic activity' has a clear meaning if an event is taking place in a rural city, some distance from the capital city or main centre of economic activity. Here there is a distinct local economy. However, when the area under consideration is a suburb of the main city, or close to the main city, there is really no "local" economy. Suburbs of large cities do not have their own local economies, separate from the urban, and indeed, State economy.

There is a case for using I-O models to estimate local impacts of events in cities which are separate from the main centre of the economy, such as in rural cities. CGE models are rarely available at this level of detail, but also, the assumptions which I-O analysis makes - that all inputs are in elastic supply to the area - are approximately met. An event in a rural city will draw much of the resources it needs from outside the area - resource constraints do not limit the expansion of economic activity by very much. If the event is held in a major centre of activity, the resource constraints will be critical as the resources needed in the area hosting the event will be drawn from other parts of the city.

Thus, in working out the local impacts of an event that is hosted by a rural city, with a definable local economy, I-O analysis may be useful. It will yield an overall measure of the increase in economic activity taking place within the borders of the area as a result of the event. Some qualifications must be noted, however.

First, in a restricted local area, such as a rural city, the displacement effects are likely to be greater than in the main centre of economic activity. Consider accommodation: an event will lead to a boom in accommodation demand, and the local accommodation supply will be tightly constrained. There is excess demand, prices are increased, and other potential visitors go elsewhere. I-O analysis generally will not include these effects

Second, while economic activity, including household incomes, within the area will increase, some of this will have only a peripheral impact on the local economy. During the event, labour and services from outside the region will be hired in - this will count as increased economic activity within the area, though it will not have any real impact on it, since the incomes earned will be mainly spent outside it.

Benefits and Costs

As noted above, the benefits from an event are not the same thing as the increased value of output in the area. Very often, the increase in benefits will be much lower than the value of the additional output. Additional resources and inputs must be supplied to enable the additional output to be produced, and these resources are costly. Additional economic activity within a rural city will provide benefits, in the form of additional profits to local businesses, additional wage payments and greater tax receipts perhaps, but these will be much lower than the value of the additional outputs.

An event may also leave a legacy of facilities, such as improved roads or better sports arenas, which will be of value in the future. The value of these need not show up in increased measured economic activity. Some events require that public facilities, such as parks, be alienated - this has a cost that should be counted. The event itself may create traffic congestion and noise, both of which are external costs that should be taken into account.

Events may generate tourism flows for some years on as a result of raising the profile of a city or region. These effects are difficult to measure, though they could be quite real. Additional tourism increases economic activity, and this can lead to additional economic benefits. These can be estimated as described above. (They were not included in either the I-O or CGE runs compared in the Formula 1 Grand Prix case study above.)

Further, and most significantly, events provide benefits to those who attend them. Once upon a time, events were actually put on for this reason. Motor sports lovers enjoyed seeing the Bathurst 500, football fans enjoyed the game, and music lovers were pleased to go to the concert. With many events, what patrons are willing to pay to attend the event exceeds what they are required to pay to attend - there is a net gain to the patrons from the event being available. In short, the monetary value of the benefits exceeds the revenues that the organisers are able to collect from the patrons, even with quite sophisticated pricing structures. This will be especially so when prices are held down intentionally to enable a wide cross-section of the community to attend, not just the well off. When tickets are in short supply and are rationed, this indicates that the benefits to patrons exceed the revenues collected from them by some margin. It is a comment on the way event evaluation has developed internationally that what is likely to be the main source of benefits of an event is so often ignored, while dubious calculations of impacts on economic activity are presented as measures of "economic benefits".

To judge whether an event is worthwhile in overall economic terms, it is essential to conduct a cost benefit analysis. Some local residents may experience increased household income from the event, but increased incomes may well come largely as a result of additional work done, and work effort has a cost. In addition, there may be disruption and environmental costs that need to be considered. The local government may have to upgrade infrastructure at a cost. These costs and benefits must be considered along with the benefits arising from increased economic activity. By undertaking such a study, a local government can gain a measure of how much an event is contributing by way of net benefits to the community, and, on this basis, make a judgement on whether it is

worthwhile to assist and attract the event. Measures of gross changes in the value of output, such as those produced by I-O analysis, even if accurate, tell us very little about whether, and by how much, the event is a benefit to a local area.

Costs to Other Jurisdictions

If the perspective of a local government is to be taken, it is only the local effects of the event that are relevant. However, higher level governments will be interested not just in the impact in the local area, but also the impacts on the state and nation. An event may increase economic activity substantially within a local area, but its net impact on the economic activity within the state will normally be much less, and conceivably negative. The impact on national output will be even less than this, and it is more likely to be negative. Economic activity in one area is increased at the expense of activity in other areas. This is evident from the discussion above in terms of the interstate effects of events. An event in New South Wales may well increase GSP in that State, but will normally decrease it in the rest of Australia. The net overall impact for the whole of Australia will be uncertain prior to generating the results.

To determine whether the benefits from an event come at a cost to other jurisdictions, requires that an estimate of the economic impact, and of the net cost or benefit, be made for regions or jurisdictions other than the host region. Naturally, a region that is contemplating encouraging an event (perhaps winning it from other states) will be primarily or solely interested in the net benefit to itself. The extent to which other states gain or lose is of limited interest to it. From a national perspective however, it is desirable that the cost to non-host states be estimated. This is particularly important if the federal government is deciding whether or not to subsidise an event located within one state.

The impacts on non-host jurisdictions can be estimated quite readily using the CGE approach, and from these, the costs and benefits can be estimated. For most events, the main cost or benefit to other states will come about through their impacts on economic activity. A multi-regional CGE model can be employed to measure the impact on GSP of non-host states, and the net cost or benefit from this change in economic activity can then be calculated. There are unlikely to be any significant environmental costs or benefits for non-host states. There is another source of benefit however, and sometimes this could be significant. This is the benefit that the patrons from one state enjoy when visiting other states to attend an event. Queensland gains an economic benefit when Brisbane Football fans visit Sydney to attend a game. With estimates of travel costs and ticket prices, along with interstate visitor flows, it would be a straightforward matter to make an estimate of these benefits using measures of consumer surplus.

Conclusions

It is acknowledged that there is often a wider set of objectives which are sometimes associated with the hosting of sport events which are not so amenable to being addressed

in a purely economic evaluation. These might include the promotion of local (city or national) pride or raising external awareness of the host region or country with a view to building local or national spirit and cohesion, attracting investment or immigration, or providing community enjoyment. Sometimes, of course, individual or party political ambitions will be involved. Considerations of this sort may well be the primary motivators behind the hosting of events, sporting or otherwise. Even in these cases, however, estimates of economic impact are often used to help justify the use of public subsidies and such evaluations should be soundly based.

Good economic evaluation of events is a precondition for good decision-making regarding resource allocation. The best practice approach to measuring the impact on economic activity, and in particular, on output (GSP or GDP) and employment is to use a CGE approach regardless of the size of the event, and for analysing impacts on both the nation as a whole, and on the host state. Furthermore, it is important to also use a CGE approach to estimate the impacts on the rest of the host state and the nation - the effects outside the local area should not be ignored.

Estimation of the economic impacts is only part of the evaluation story. If funds are to be provided to assist an event, it is necessary that the cost of these funds be compared to the benefits from the event. The event should be subjected to a cost benefit calculation. We have demonstrated above that it is straightforward to adjust the output of CGE analyses to produce a measure of net benefit where the cost of additional inputs is subtracted from the value of the additional output. In the cost benefit calculation, these net benefits should be added to the other benefits of the event, such as those enjoyed by patrons over and above the prices they pay for entry. Notwithstanding measurement difficulties, other 'intangible' benefits, and costs, such as environmental and disruption costs, should also be added in to form a complete picture. With this information, it is possible for the decision-maker to make a judgement of whether the economic benefits of the event are greater than the costs, and to judge also whether the event would represent the best use of the funds when funds are limited and alternative calls on funds exist.

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Exploratory Market Segmentation at the Gold Coast Wintersun Festival

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Abstract

Most event economic impact studies treat expenditure by visitors as homogeneous, despite the fact that survey information from the same studies often reveals differences between market segments in terms of the amount and pattern of their expenditure, and their tourism behaviour.

This paper uses survey information from the 2004 Wintersun Festival on Queensland's Gold Coast to segment visitors according to their usual place of residence. It is found that visitors' engagement with the event and their direct expenditure are related to their usual place of residence. Visitors who travel further tend to engage more with the event, stay longer in the host destination, and spend more than those who only have to travel short distances to the event.

Introduction

Much of the research on patrons at special events has focussed on their expenditure, usually as part of an economic impact study (Fredline, et al, 2004). Some of the early events that received this treatment in Australia were quite unique (Formula One Grand Prix, 1985; America's Cup Defence, 1986-87) and as the events industry was in its infancy, there was little tendency to treat patrons as comprising a "market".

Economic impact studies of events abound (Hatch, et al, 1986; Dwyer, et al, 2000; Brown, et al, 2002). The methodology for such studies has been fine-tuned over the years, and consists of using a survey of event visitors to estimate the amount of expenditure that such visitors bring to the destination because of the event. Most economic impact studies are macro in focus, with the objective being to justify Government funding for the event in terms of the total dollars that the event brings into the host destination.

As the events industry has matured, interest has developed among researchers in issues such as management, marketing, and strategy. For example, Coughlan and Mules (2001) investigated sponsorship recognition and recall at an event, and Grant and Paliwoda (1998) looked at segmenting patrons at an arts festival into psychographic clusters.

Segmentation is common in general tourism marketing (Weaver and Lawton, 2002, pp. 176-202) and may be by origin, socio-demographic status, behaviour, or personality. Different segments are thought to react differently to different marketing communication channels, messages and images. However, different segments may also display different expenditure propensities and may therefore have different levels of economic impact. While most economic impact studies of events would have collected the data to enable at least segmentation of economic impact by origin, we were not able to find any examples of literature where this had been done.

The present paper proposes to do this for an event that has been running on an annual basis since 1988. This continuity, when combined with a high level of repeat patronage, suggests that the event can be treated as a product, albeit an evolving one, with its patrons being a set of consumers amenable to market analysis. The paper explores a geographic segmentation to see if the behaviour of patrons differs according to their usual place of residence and how this might relate to economic impact.

The Event

The Wintersun Festival has been held annually in June each year on Australia's Gold Coast, and dates back to 1988 as a rock and roll music festival. Since 1998 the event has had a theme based around nostalgia for the music, cars, clothes and dances of the rock and roll era from 1955 to 1970, and is aimed at the baby boomer market (see Mules, 2004).

The Festival has grown in terms of both crowd size and in terms of variety of entertainment. Economic impact studies in 1998 and 2004 have estimated crowd sizes at

10,000 and 53,000 respectively (Fredline et al, 1999; and Ayling and Mules, 2004) and direct expenditure attracted to the Gold Coast at $1.2 million and $13.8 million respectively.

The core of the event is the Saturday and Sunday of free street entertainment on the streets of Coolangatta. This comprises numerous bands playing rock and roll music, dance competitions, displays of street cars and hot rods, and a Grand Parade through the main streets. Ticketed musical events, typically at night, are organised by the various hotels and clubs in the area, and these commence up to a week before the core weekend.

The growth of these events in the lead up to the core weekend has been a deliberate strategy of the organisers in order to encourage a longer stay by visitors, particularly by people who travel long distances to be at the event. Thus while many patrons from Brisbane may find a day trip to be convenient, patrons from Sydney would find a weeks' holiday on the Gold Coast attractive if they had a reason to arrive early in the week.

The Research Question

Given the proximity of the event to Brisbane, a city of some 1.4 million people only two hours by car from the festival location, one might have expected a considerable promotional focus on this market. However, the closeness of Brisbane enables residents from there to visit the Festival as a day trip, thereby substantially reducing the potential economic impact on the Gold Coast. Thus one research question is whether Brisbane residents exhibit day-trip tendencies, or at least stay for fewer nights than patrons from other origins.

A second question revolves around Sydney residents. Given the distance from Sydney to the Gold Coast, and the above-mentioned strategy of the Festival organisers to make longer stays attractive, one might expect Sydney based patrons to exhibit longer stays and attend more performances. On the other hand, 2004 saw the growth in discount airline operations in Australia, with the Sydney-Gold Coast route emerging as a major market for the low cost carriers. Cheap airline tickets would have made the Gold Coast more of a short-break destination for Sydney residents.

In early 2004, various discussions were held with the event organisers that revealed that they were thinking in terms of different geographical markets, as well as different product markets (cars/music, for example). It was decided to conduct a survey of patrons at the 2004 event in order to revise the 1998 study of economic impact, and to use the opportunity presented to investigate geographical differences in the market.

With a limited research budget, and with the prime research question being economic impact, there was limited scope to carry out a detailed market segmentation study. Nevertheless, the survey did enable various responses to be classified according to broad geographical origins of the respondents, and for tests of differences in behaviour to be identified.

The Data

Visitors to the Festival were contacted over the three-day core of the event from Saturday 12 June to Monday 14 June 2004. The Monday was a public holiday. Surveying was done using a combination of face-to-face interviews during the event, and post-event telephone interviews based on contact details gathered at the event.

Some 20 postgraduate students at Griffith University were employed as interviewers. They were given pre-event training, and each morning of the three core days, an onsite supervisor gave them a briefing before interviewing commenced for the day.

The site comprises two blocks for approximately one kilometre along the beachfront. To manage the respondent interception process, this area was divided into 20 zones, with one student being assigned to each zone. Within each zone, every sixth passing respondent was intercepted and was either interviewed on the spot, or was asked to participate in the post-event telephone interview. A lottery prize incentive was used to increase the response rate. The field supervisor monitored the data collection and re-assigned interviewers as crowd numbers dictated.

Table 1 shows the response pattern. Note that Gold Coast residents were not interviewed, in keeping with the normal practice of excluding local residents' expenditure from the economic impact on the grounds that it is switched from other activities within the region. In the end, some 203 face-to-face interviews were completed. Of the 675 respondents for whom telephone details were collected, 482 successful telephone interviews were completed, making a total sample size of 685.

Table 1: Survey Response Details

	Number	%
Refused	719	31
Gold Coast residents	574	24
Face-to-face	203	9
Collected phone numbers	675	29
Already interviewed	168	7
Total approached	2,339	100

The survey questionnaire comprised mainly tick-the-box type questions, plus expenditure questions which were disaggregated according to type of expenditure such as Transport, Accommodation, Food and Beverages, Shopping, etc. Expenditure attributable to the event comprised that by people who made a trip to the Gold Coast specifically for the event, plus that by people who made an extra trip over and above other Gold Coast visits because of the event, plus those who were already on the Gold Coast but extended their stay because of the event.

Results on Economic Impact and Origin

The survey questionnaire asked respondents for their normal place of residence, and for ease of response and analysis this was done on a five-region basis for Australian visitors. International visitors comprised only 0.6% of the total, resulting in a sample size that was too small for analysis.

For Australian visitors, the breakdown in key aggregates is shown in Table 2. Brisbane is the nearest large city to the event (1.4 million people, and approximately 100 kilometres), and while accounting for 31% of visitor numbers, only accounts for 18% of aggregate expenditure. This implies that if an objective of the Festival is to generate economic impact, marketing effort should be directed to other than Brisbane. In general, when an event is held in or close to a large city, the residents of that city are a good source of crowds but not dollars, since they are unlikely to incur accommodation expenditure.

Table 2: Australian Visitors and Expenditure by Origin

Origin	No. Visitors	Visitors %	Aggregate Expenditure $m.	Aggregate Expenditure %
Brisbane	11,494	31	2.47	18
Other Qld	8,833	24	3.62	26
Nth NSW	3,193	9	0.73	5
Other NSW	7,929	21	3.88	28
Other Aust	5,907	16	3.05	22
Total	37,356	100	13.75	100

At the other extreme, visitors from Australia other than Queensland and NSW accounted for 16% of visitor numbers but 22% of expenditure. In fact a chi-square test determined that the distribution of expenditure across geographical origins was significantly different from the distribution of visitor numbers (calculated chi-square 11.98, critical value at 5% significance = 9.49). The general point is that in order to maximise economic impact, marketing effort is better directed at regions further away from the event than close to it, provided that the event is perceived to provide benefits in excess of the travelling costs.

Further light on the relationship between visitor origins and expenditure is revealed by average per person expenditure detail shown in Table 3. Brisbane and Other NSW are the two regions closest to the Festival site, and visitors from these regions exhibit the lowest expenditure per person per day, and the lowest length of stay.

Visitors from Other NSW, which includes Sydney, had the highest expenditure per person per day, but visitors from Other Australia had the highest length of stay. The data exhibit the well-known positive relationship between distance travelled and length of stay (Bull, 1995, p.46). If people have to travel long distances they attempt lengthy stays in order to spread their higher travel cost over as many days as possible.

Table 3: Tourism Expenditure Behaviour of Wintersun Visitors

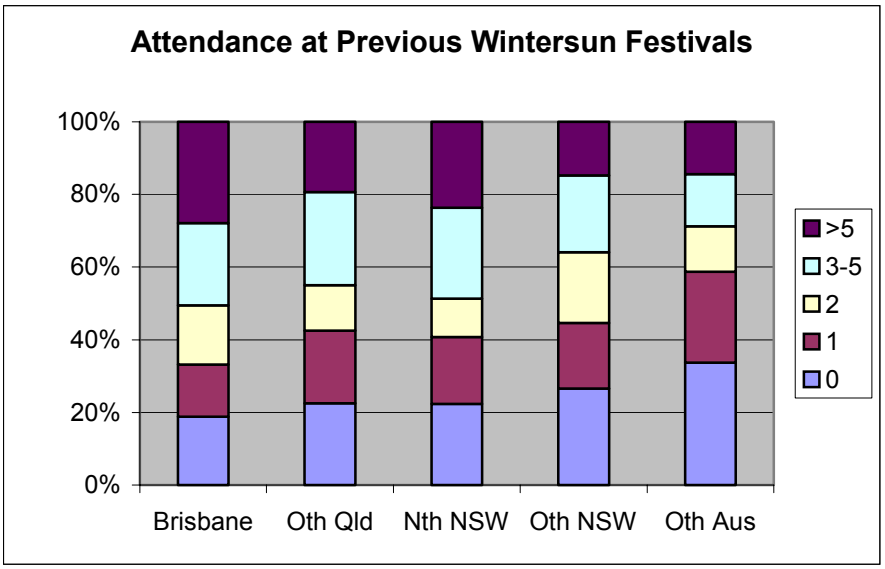
Origin	Average Expenditure per Person $	Average Length of Stay, nights	Average Expenditure per Person per Day
Brisbane	214.70	3.28	65.38
Other Qld	409.69	4.39	93.32
Nth NSW	228.51	3.51	65.05
Other NSW	489.20	5.99	81.72
Other Aust	516.64	6.90	74.85

In terms of generating economic impact, the organisers' strategy of providing entertainment in the lead up to the core weekend to attract the longer staying visitors from Other NSW and Other Australia appears to be successful, as some 50% of aggregate expenditure is generated from these two regions. The appendix shows that expenditure on accommodation by residents from these two regions amounted to $2.26 million out of total direct expenditure of $13.89 million, i.e. 16%.

Results on Behaviour and Origin

The Wintersun Festival is predominantly a free event and does not have a significant marketing budget. It relies a lot on word of mouth promotion by people who have been to the event in previous years, and upon repeat visitation. Figure 1 below shows how repeat visitation varies with origin.

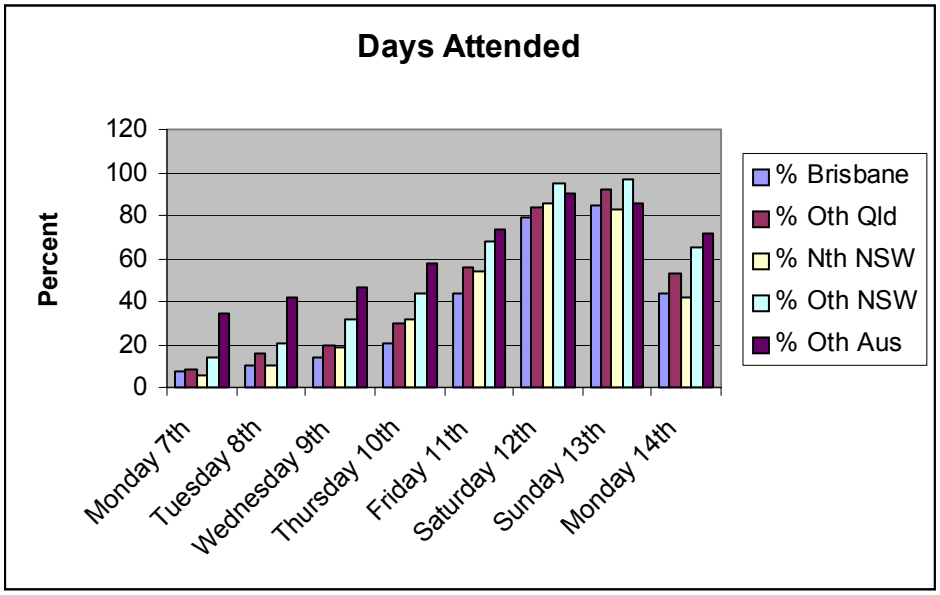
Figure 1



The closest markets (Brisbane and Nth NSW) had the highest repeat visitation with 28% and 24% respectively having been more than five times previously. Those furthest away

had the lowest repeat visitation with Other NSW and Other Australia showing 27% and 34% respectively of visitors who had never attended before. It is worth noting that over all origins, at least 60% had been to the event at least once before.

Figure 2



Given the strategies of the organisers in trying to attract holidaymakers to the Festival by providing entertainment in the lead up to the core weekend, it is of interest to see how attendance each day varied with visitor origin. This is shown in Figure 2 above, with the core weekend being Saturday 12th to Monday 14th.

It is seen that visitors from Other NSW and Other Australia were dominant from Monday 7th to Thursday 10th, but by Friday 11th, people from other origin regions had caught up. The Monday and Tuesday in the lead up were particularly popular with visitors from Other Australia, but less so with people from Other NSW, with over 40% of the former attending events on Tuesday 8th alone. The general message seems to be that if the event can be portrayed as a week long celebration, rather than just a weekend festival, it can be marketed as a holiday/vacation attraction, and patrons will make the festival part of a week's holiday.

Finally we looked at how attendance at various key components of the Festival was related to origin. The results are shown in Table 4. It appears that patrons from Brisbane and Nth NSW had generally lower attendances than people from other regions. Participation in virtually every key event by people from Other NSW appear to be the strongest. Further research is needed to understand this phenomenon.

Table 4
Attendance at Key Events, %

Event	Brisbane	Other Qld	Nth NSW	Other NSW	Other Aust
Saturday car show	64	73	58	74	71
Saturday street parade	73	75	78	87	80
Saturday street bands	76	83	76	92	88
Saturday car cruise	55	61	46	66	61
Sunday Church service	14	21	16	21	13
Sunday car show	68	77	72	83	74
Sunday street bands	78	83	71	88	79

The Sydney Market

Many aspects of Australian life are heavily affected by what happens in Sydney, because of that city's population size and wealth. With respect to the Wintersun Festival, the Sydney market is particularly poignant because:

1. Sydney was the birthplace of the Australian rock and roll music industry in the 1950's.
2. Sydney is part of our research region "Other NSW" which was characterised by high attendance at all major Festival events, high length of stay, and the greatest level of aggregate expenditure.
3. The emergence of airline competition in Australia in 2003-04 has meant cheap flights between Sydney and the Gold Coast, a route that has sparked intense price competition.

Sydney residents might be expected to spend more, because of generally higher incomes, and possibly attend more events because of the history of Sydney's association with the theme of the Festival.

A postcode analysis of the survey responses showed that out of 128 responses from Other NSW, 55 were from Sydney. This is not a sufficiently large sample size to enable any detailed expenditure comparisons. However, comparisons of other characteristics are shown in Table 5.

Table 5: Comparisons Between Sydney and Other NSW

	Sydney	Other NSW
Mean previous attendance	2.38	2.45
Mean length of stay (nights)	5.99	5.47
Mean event attendance %	73.79	73.10
Mean days attended	6.53	6.78

The only characteristic in Table 5 for which Sydney respondents had a significantly different result from Other NSW was for length of stay where Sydney residents were slightly higher. However, this slightly longer length of stay is not translated into greater attendance at Festival events, and we can only speculate that Sydneysiders are choosing to do other things during a holiday on the Gold Coast.

Despite the finding that the Sydney market does not appear to be significantly different from the Other NSW market, further research into this market is warranted. The sheer population size of Sydney suggests that there are efficiencies in promoting the Festival to the right demographic and psychographic segment in Sydney. The existence of cheap, direct air travel also sets Sydney apart from Other NSW, although this may work against the generation of economic impact.

Conclusions

This paper has investigated geographic market segmentation at a music-based festival. The analysis is only exploratory, and further research at other events is warranted before any conclusions can be reached. At the event being studied, it does appear that there are significant differences in behaviour according to origin of the attendees. In particular, it appears that the further people travel to attend the event, the longer they are likely to stay and the more they are likely to spend. They also appear to be more involved in the event, by attending more days and more components of the festival.

Thus a strategy of marketing the event as part of a week's holiday, rather than a short break, to patrons in specific geographic segments would appear to be beneficial in achieving longer stay visitors, high occupancy and significant economic impact. Further research is needed into the communication strategies needed to effectively reach the appropriate demographic and psychographic segments in the origin markets.

Appendix: Estimated New Expenditure in the Gold Coast Region Attributable to Wintersun

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	Brisbane	Other QLD	Northern NSW	Other NSW	Other Australia	Overseas	**Total**
Accommodation	852270	1253792	183418	1322306	939498	28133	**4579417**
Meals, food and drink not inc in accommodation	813031	1032359	268210	1132179	958039	36693	**4240511**
Event tickets	90290	109924	30210	141720	161092	0	**533236**
Expenditure whilst at the event	227743	263578	52230	160695	94837	9898	**808981**
Other entertainment costs	62780	86275	20246	119687	138613	22233	**449834**
Transport	144020	372344	83154	456171	551616	12690	**1619995**
Personal services	20699	15636	0	39384	18800	600	**95119**
Any other expenditure	256963	485035	92104	506558	189084	34817	**1564561**
Total	**2467796**	**3618943**	**729572**	**3878700**	**3051579**	**145064**	**13891654**

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Economic and Tourism Impacts of Events

Identifying Business Development in Event Networks: A network analysis approach

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Abstract

Special events have often been regarded as a means to develop regional economies and communities. However the assessment of event impacts has often relied on the study of economic outputs as opposed to the process of economic development. There has been little regard for examining how businesses develop through participation in an event. This study utilises network analysis to identify and examine the interaction between businesses resulting from the development of a regional festival and further identifies the types of outcomes that are possible from this interaction.

Using the Northern Rivers Herb Festival, in Lismore, Australia, the study utilises multiple case studies to identify and examine the inter-organisational network structure that developed as a result of the event. It then identifies some of the characteristics and processes of this network through which networks foster business development.

The findings of this study suggest that event organisers and stakeholders can utilise network analysis as a tool to examine the relationships within their own *event network*. Further, the use of network analysis allows examination of the network's capacity to foster business development. Both structural and relational characteristics of the network were examined, with both elements displaying characteristics that can be managed. These include maximising the density, durability and weak ties of the network to involve the appropriate actors and maintain functional communications with them.

A network perspective provides a useful tool for analysing both social and economic relations within the *event network*. This is a new perspective, but one that suits the festival context well. Network analysis provides a way of analysing certain outcomes of the festival such as business development. However, the adoption of a network perspective for analysis of other aspects of event management also has great potential.

Introduction

Special events have often been regarded as a means to develop regional economies and communities. Traditional assessment of events emphasises economic, environmental and social outcomes with little regard for how these outcomes occur. This paper seeks to describe how businesses develop through their involvement in an *event network.* While previous research has focussed on the development of business in other respects (O'Sullivan and Jackson:2002, Mitchell and Wall:1986, Muthaly, Ratnatunga, Roberts, and Roberts:2000), this paper focuses on the development of an effective event network and the positive business development outcomes that can occur as a result.

The objectives of this paper are to demonstrate that;

1. Business development occurs through the development of a distinctive network for the purpose of an event,
2. Business development occurs as a result of participation and interaction in effective networks,
3. Business development (as a result of network participation) occurs through product development, improved supplier relations, improved customer relationships and improved product distribution.

Implications for event managers include a greater understanding of how a network can be managed to foster business development and improve community/business relations. Similarly, it is hoped that event managers and researchers may adopt network analysis as a descriptive tool to examine and interpret the structural and relational exchanges in an *event network.*

These three issues are explored in relation to a study recently completed at the 2003 Northern Rivers Herb Festival (NRHF) in Lismore, Australia where multiple case studies were used to examine the various stakeholders in a regional festival network. The festival is an annual event, first created in 2001 by the Lismore Chamber of Commerce with substantial funding and support provided by Lismore City Council and other industry partners. The event supported the council's strategic direction of the region as expressed in Lismore City Council's Economic Development Unit's *2001 Strategic Plan* (LCC:2001) and provided an opportunity for the local community to celebrate and learn more about the local region's burgeoning herb industry. The vision of the event was to 'promote the culture of natural living, incorporating herbs and related products, cuisine as well as environmental sustainability' (LUO:2001). As such the event encouraged participation from a range of local industries and businesses as well as arts performers and other community groups. It has been successful in drawing audiences of approximately 10,000 people from both the local area and other generating regions in NSW and QLD.

Literature

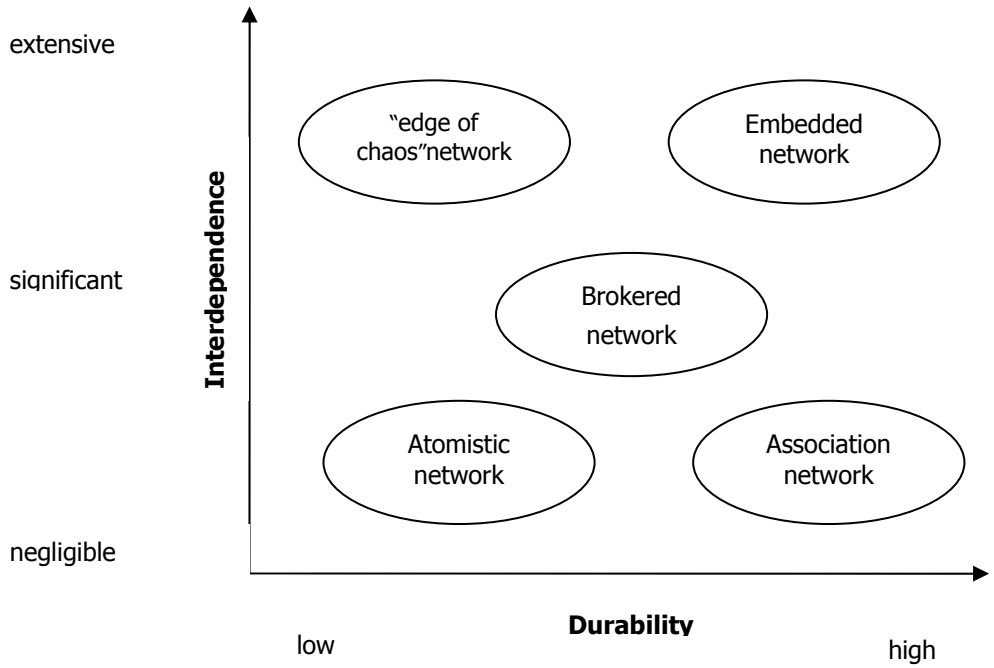
In recent years attention has been given to adopting a more balanced approach to event evaluation inclusive of a range of methodologies that will assist in providing multiple disciplinary contributions (Getz:2000:13). There has been a predominance of academic research in the area of economic impact and with respect to establishing best practice methodologies (Burgan and Mules:2000, Crompton *et al*. :2001, Getz:1997, Crompton and McKay:1994, Allen *et al*.:2002). However, within the study of economic impacts, the role of business networks has not yet been identified. Assessment of economic value is almost solely based upon visitor expenditure, often utilising multipliers to extend the direct expenditure beyond the obvious direct benefits (Burgan and Mules:2000:46). Less direct impacts related to businesses such as innovation, networking, cost reduction and customer and supplier relations are not well defined or researched. While it is

commonly observed that a regional event provides a community with economic, social and cultural advantages, research into business development opportunities provided by inter-organisational linkages has been neglected, with only a few studies available (O'Sullivan and Jackson:2002, Muthaly *et al*.:2000). Rarely do these studies examine the interaction between various business and community stakeholders. Nor do they qualify the potential for business development that this interaction can create. Research in other disciplines has, at times, adopted a network perspective to assist in identifying and examining these issues.

Networks

In simple terms, a network is a group of individuals or organisations, known as actors and nodes, connected by ties or channels. In recent studies, network analysis has diverged from its roots in sociology to be utilised across a range of diverse disciplines and contexts, such as political policies (Pforr:2002), business, industry and supply networks (Gerlach:1992, Nohria and Eccles:1992, Saxenian:1991, Anderson *et al*.:1994, Powell *et al*.:1996, Rowley:1997, Nijkamp:2003), health care/public administration (Milward and Provan:1998) and technology (Kodoma:2000). As an indication of the scope of network analysis, Oliver and Ebers (1998) reviewed 158 articles from four leading journals from 1980 to 1996 that related to any aspect of inter-organisational networks. While networks can take a multitude of forms, Ebers (1997:4) suggests simply that, if more than two organisations are linked through such networking relationships as alliances, consortia, subcontracting, outsourcing or other cooperative arrangements, they constitute an inter-organisational network. A typology of networks is offered by Heracleous (2003:187) whose work is directed 'toward orienting debates regarding the nature, potential motivations for, and consequences of networks…'. His typology is based on two dimensions, as shown in Figure 1 below, interdependence and durability. The combination of these determines the capacity of the network.

Figure 1 - – Heracleous' Typology of Network Structures



Source: Heracleous (2003:190)

The typology identifies certain types of networks based on these dimensions. It assists in further understanding the concepts presented in network theory and in contrasting some of these against each other. As later demonstrated in the results of this study, it is suggested that an *event network* fits well with Heracleous' brokered network, where there are medium levels of durability and inter-dependence, and the network is "brokered" or mediated by a coordinating unit.

The business networks resulting from, or contributing to, a festival's development are an entity in themselves that has the potential to exist before and after the event. They hold potential as economic activators and catalysts for social change. Networks have been clearly identified in the literature as being linked to numerous factors that assist business development, including information exchange, cost reduction and new technology development (Cox *et al.*:2003, Tracey and Clark:2003, Bower:1993, Kandampully:2002). To date studies have not explored these elements within the event context with the exception of consideration by Stokes (2004), Hall *et al.* (2003), Larson (2002) and Long (2000).

The focus of this study is on those businesses and organisations that see a festival as an opportunity for business development. This could occur through product development, supplier relations, customer relations and marketing development, publicity, sponsorship and, importantly, the opportunity for the development of a greater 'network' of business contacts.

Method

Network analysis offers a new method by which to examine the interactions between businesses and other community groups in an event context. While many approaches are possible, this study adopted a structural approach to network analysis, where the result is an examination of the structural and relational characteristics of the network.

Beyond the examination of the network itself, interviews with key stakeholders provided in-depth information on the types of business development that have occurred through participation in the *event network*.

Network Analysis

The use of multiple case studies allowed data collection from numerous stakeholders in an *event network*. The methodology provides meaningful and insightful data that are typical in this type of qualitative research. Further, the use of case studies to collect data for network analysis is a common approach used successfully by a number of researchers including Pavlovich (2003), Madhavan *et al.* (1998) and Liu and Brookfield (2000) to name a few.

The data were then used in analysing structural and relational aspects of the network. The following section describes this process and, as such, presents a proposed methodology for studying events through network analysis. Knoke and Kuklinski (1988) identify the issues involved within sampling and measurement as well as those concerned with boundary specification. These issues were considered in relation to an event network resulting in the following methods.

Boundary Specification

Similar to the idea of a research study's 'scope', the boundary of a network analysis places restraint on the research so that a more manageable process can be undertaken. Laumann *et al.* (1982 cited in Knoke and Kuklinski :1988) present two common approaches, that of the realist approach, where the researcher uses the boundaries set by the actors themselves (e.g. who is a part

of our family), and that of the nominalist approach, where the researcher nominates the boundaries based upon his or her own conceptual framework. For the purpose of this study, the boundaries were set by a 'realist approach', where the Festival Coordinator nominated who is involved in staging the festival.

Sampling Procedures

While numerous researchers have contributed greatly to providing a sampling methodology, more recently the concept of ego-centred networks has evolved with Greve and Salaff (2003) and BarNir and Smith (2002:223) who suggest that 'the network of a focal individual is determined by the group of persons whom that individual defines as constituting the network of contacts'. While this does not present a satisfactory strategy for all network analysis, it does provide a very suitable tool for *event network* analysis where the Festival Coordinator is the focal individual from whom the network can be defined and sampled.

Having established the boundary setting and sampling procedures, the actors that were relevant to each other for the purpose of staging the festival could be selected for the study's population. The focal individual of the study is the Festival Coordinator who has assisted in determining the group of contacts which she defines as constituting the network of contacts. Further discussions revealed that these contacts fit well into a number of stakeholder groups described by Allen *et al.* (2002). As shown in Figure 2, a simple diagram was drawn to illustrate the existence of those groups and their relationship to the Festival Coordinator.

Figure 2 - Relationship of Stakeholders to Festival Coordinator

Source: Author

In essence this created the basis of an *event network* where channels and ties connect individuals to the Festival Coordinator for the purpose of staging the event. What was yet to be discovered were the interrelationships between the stakeholders and the existence of other nodes and actors. To facilitate this discovery, a list of contacts provided twenty potential participants who could be interviewed for their involvement in the *event network.* They were selected for their potential for business development as witnessed at previous festivals by both the festival coordinator and the researcher.

Data collection

A series of interviews were scheduled where data were collected using tape recordings and written notes. The interviews were based around a series of ten questions that allowed open-ended

responses aimed at gaining an insight into the network structure and dynamics that foster business development. Frequently, the interviewees continued the discussions and contributed more data to the interview beyond these initial questions, often providing information in the form of stories and narratives about their experiences in the festival network. The questions were divided into blocks that aimed to provide data on the important elements of the study and address the research objectives. The first block of questions relates to identifying the characteristics of a network that has formed as a result of the development and staging of the NRHF where analysis can be made of the network actors and the channels/ties, centrality, durability and density of the network structure. The questions collect data on the type of business or organisation that the participant works for and which node of the network they belong to. It also established the other nodes that they connect with, the types of channels used to make those connections, regularity of contact and importance of that connection. The second block refers to the second research objective, identifying the types of business development that have occurred. The third block relates to objective three, to identify any predominant processes or important elements of the network that have facilitated the development of business innovations. In particular, the questions aim to identify where other parties were involved in the development of the business at the festival.

Stakeholders and Nodes

The list of participants was classified into stakeholder groups derived from the event stakeholder analysis identified by Allen *et al.* (2002) and then adapted to the identification of a network. These stakeholder groups become the *nodes* of a network – each reliant on the central coordinating unit for direction and consultation towards the development and staging of the festival. It was recognised that each node would have numerous *actors* that were drawn together in the node by a common objective or set of behaviours. The nodes, stakeholders and final participants are shown in Table 1. The participants and the researcher noted that four of the twelve participants did not fit well into the pre-existing stakeholder groups, instead identifying clearly as their own node in the network. The results of the study provided twelve extensive transcripts from the stakeholder nodes listed in Table 1. These transcripts were analysed to identify the characteristics of the NRHF network and the issues arising from comparison of the individual cases.

Table 1 - Description of Network Nodes

Node	Stakeholder as identified by Allen (2002)	Final 12 participants Coded for presentation
Herb Industry Participant (e.g. grower, seller etc)	Supplier	Herb Industry Participant
Arts community	Performer	Dance Performance Coordinator
Sponsor	Sponsor	Sponsor
Government Dept	Not identified	Lismore Events Coordinator
Tourism Industry Reps	Tourism Industry	Lismore Visitor Information Centre
Convention Organiser	Not identified	Convention Organiser
Stall-holder	Stall-holders	Stall-holder A Stall-holder B
Festival Coordinator	Coordinator	Festival Coordinator Vendor Coordinator
Regional Cuisine	Not identified	Regional Cuisine Coordinator
Food Specialist	Not identified	Food Specialist

Source: Author

Presentation of results

In presenting the results a combination of qualitative narratives and discussion was presented with 'visual representations' in the form of a sociogram as shown in Figure 2. The results allowed an overall picture of the event and its propensity for business development as well as identification of the nodes that were most useful in business development processes. The approach used by this

study followed Pavlovich (2003), Burt (1992), Bengtsson and Kock (1999) and Milward and Provan (1998).

Results

The results demonstrate abundant business development activity across many nodes of the network, often assisted by the interaction and dependency on other nodes and actors. To analyse this further the network is examined in relation to its overall structure and its individual characteristics. The results presented here analyse the characteristics of the network as reviewed in the literature, including actors and nodes, positions and status, channels, durability and density.

Actors and nodes

Network analysis relies upon the assumption that *'*any actor typically participates in a social system involving many other actors, who are significant reference points in one another's decisions*'* (Knoke and Kuklinski:1988). An actor, therefore, is the basic unit of a network, that is, a person participating in a social system. If that actor belongs to a social group, such as offices, gangs, social clubs, etc, these groups are referred to as nodes.

In this case, the Festival Coordinator and/or other festival stakeholders drew actors into the NRHF network through selection and invitation. They enter as invited guests, committee members or suppliers, sponsors, performers and stall-holders. Additionally, they can enter the network voluntarily where entrepreneurial businesses see an opportunity for sharing information and meeting up with other businesses. One stall-holder recounts his reasons for participating,

> I met up with some people from [another local small food business] who we met at one of the regional cuisine projects and we hit it off well and a couple of other people who are in a similar situation to us but a little more advanced than us in their marketing. That's one of the other bonuses of the regional cuisine is that networking. We don't see ourselves as competitors even if we might be producing similar stuff, we see this as an opportunity to promote regional product. We share marketing stories. For example, [another local small food business] and ourselves have decided that Casino is not a great market and we shouldn't be wasting our time … this may change down the track … little things like that we share…she told us about an outlet in Brisbane which is fantastic and we told her about how good a local outlet is that she hadn't thought of going there.

An event such as the NRHF is distinctive in terms of the actors it draws into the network, in part because of the agricultural theme. The actors are from diverse industry backgrounds in agriculture, performing arts, local government and community groups to name a few and are often drawn from inter-state or distant regions. This diverse mixture of community and industry representatives presents a mix of actors that are quite different to those described previously, such as supply networks (Harland *et al*.:2004, Bower:1993), industry networks (Liu and Brookfield:2000, Saxenian:1991) or other types. It is a unique mix of actors all attuned to the same goal of producing an event of short duration, which celebrates many aspects of the community. Many of the businesses are at early stages of development, drawn to the event by the experience they gain. The regional cuisine coordinator explained the purpose of the event for them;

> The skills they learn in marketing and the market research they can carry out is really important at events like this. It is like taking baby steps then taking bigger ones. [You attend this festival] and then start doing it outside the region. What I have noticed with the new companies is that they base it in their town and then build wider and wider

> circles. Those companies that don't do the local festival now have done it in the past and they've saturated their local community and now they are selling beyond that.

The actors in the network displayed an interesting mix of characteristics, which reflects their position within a network. Some demonstrated tendencies to be entrepreneurs; actively engaged in developing their business through interaction with new suppliers and new customers. They also were observed to use these contacts to assist in creating and refining new products. Other actors were loners, or pioneers who had less participation in the network before and after the event. They displayed a 'heads down' attitude that reduces their willingness to participate in network activities and, as such, reduced opportunities for inter-business collaboration. One of the 'pioneer' participants explains his attitude to network participation,

> Small business owners have little time available to joining 'groups' ... the outcomes from associations etc is not that useful ... and really it comes down to being too busy, a lot of these things that are set up for looking at this, that and the other, I find them hobbyish. In the end you end up having to do everything for yourself and once you start down that path you think damn it I'll just keep doing everything by myself.

Strategies to engage pioneers in network activities were often more complicated than for entrepreneurs who may respond to a simple newsletter. Other prominent actors include a range of 'coordinators' such as the Dance Performance Coordinator and the Regional Cuisine Coordinator. These people displayed qualities of being organised, energised people with large databases of contacts that they used in their work for the festival. These types of actors assisted in the creation of a more efficient and effective network.

Positions and Status

Positions, or social roles, represent a person's place in society where this is usually associated with a person's job or community standing. Status is associated with a position that carries special rights and duties as defined by the pattern of relations with other actors in the network (Knoke and Kuklinski:1988). For example, a mayor occupies a position in society that carries rights and duties as associated with their status. The NRHF network demonstrated a varied mix of positions and status.

Some actors bring certain levels of status to the network. The Festival Coordinator is an obvious example of this, but also nodes such as Local Government and Sponsors assume, and are given, high levels of status. As suggested by Brass and Burkhardt (1992), this is accompanied by influence and power which, in this case, have an impact on the outcome of the event. Status appears to be increased where nodes are well coordinated structures, as demonstrated in the cases of Regional Cuisine and Tourism. Alternately, loose structures have less status in the network, as demonstrated by the nodes of the Herb Industry and Stall-holders. Similarly, status appears to be increased in nodes where there is greater permanency, such as Tourism and Local Government. The inclusion of certain actors with high levels of status provided benefits for the festival in terms of credibility and access to funding from government, but may also have influence on the outcome of the event. The event offered opportunities for small start-up businesses to interact with large businesses of higher status. This interaction resulted in business development through the opening of new lines of distribution and finding buyers for smaller producers.

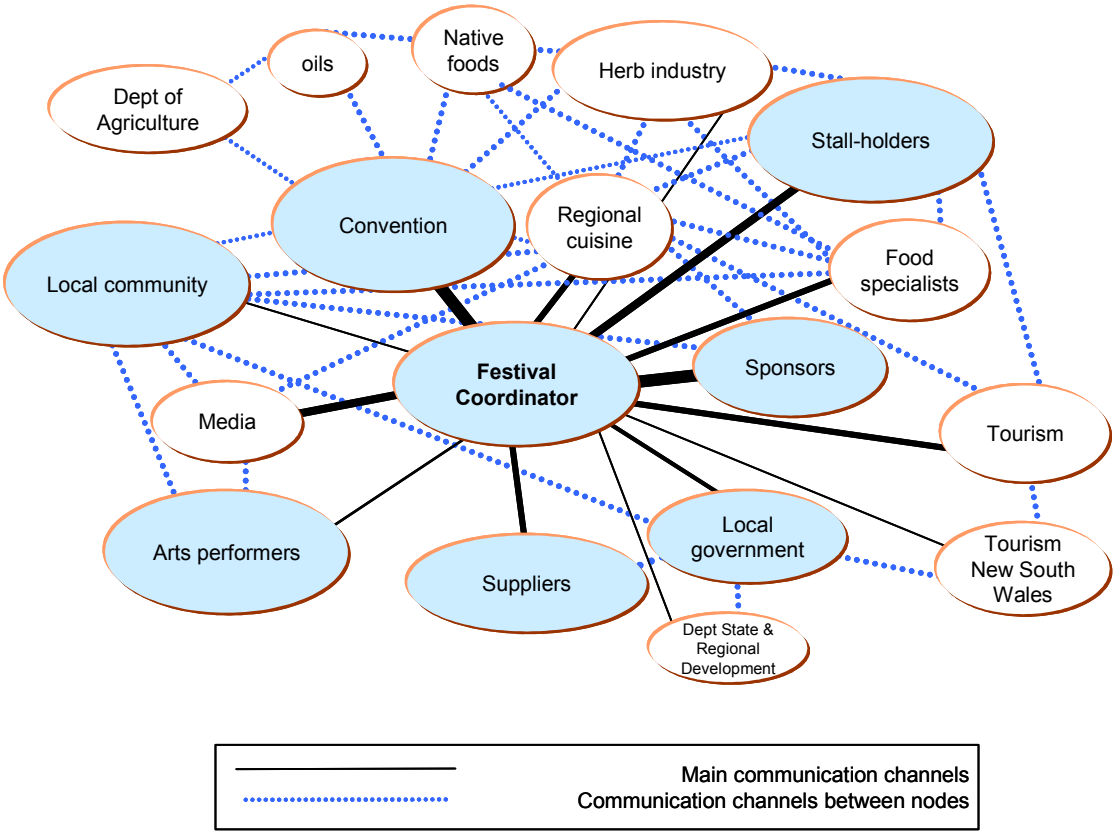
Channels

Channels are formal and informal structures through which information flows. In the case of the NRHF they form a maze of linkages throughout the network, as shown in Figure 3. Overall, the NRHF demonstrated a medium level of dependency between the actors as suggested by Heracleous (2003) in a brokered type of network. Actors were dependent on each other for physical resources, but importantly for performing the tasks they were set on time. There was, for

example, a big dependency on the supply of services such as waste, security and staging, in order that other actors could perform the tasks they needed to.

While it was not possible to trace all channels of communication, the channels with the highest levels of activity became quite evident, such as the Convention and Regional Cuisine nodes. Similarly, those with less communication and transactional activity are also identifiable. Figure 3 illustrates the strength of communication through the differing weight of the lines, highlighting the differing levels of strength in a relationship. The weight of lines is illustrative, where participants have indicated that they are highly dependent on the resources and commitment of other nodes, or where communication/coordination between nodes was very important.

Figure 3 – Network Illustration of the Northern Rivers Herb Festival 2003



Source: Author

Each node acts as a hub for information dissemination. Individuals in every node will 'spread the word' about the festival to friends, relatives, work colleagues and other associates and this will assist the Festival Coordinator in promoting the event. In the case of the NRHF, it was very useful for the Festival Coordinator to recognise the importance of the regional cuisine network, which acted as a strong hub for communication to its member base. Through the use of this hub, the Festival Coordinator gained credibility for the event, secured quality stall-holders and other cuisine professionals. Acknowledgement and understanding of the role of network channels is thus an important concept for the Festival Coordinator.

Durability

Network durability refers to 'the extent to which the network persists in the longer term, and with broadly similar participants – in terms of both the structure and the content' (Heracleous :2003: 187). The study of the NRHF found that the existence of other networks is highly influential on the *event network* and often the boundaries between networks are too interwoven to clearly decipher.

As demonstrated by the Regional Cuisine and Local Government nodes, there can be no doubt that some of the relations persist before and after the festival for numerous purposes, including other industry events, other festivals and in the course of normal business. It is immediately apparent that the *event network* is not durable and is disbanded each year. However, the existence of the *event network* supports and reinforces existing networks, providing them with a further opportunity for interaction. For the purpose of business development, the extension of business networks is important to maintaining supplier relations, cooperative marketing efforts and resource sharing.

Overall the network could be said to have moderate durability. Some nodes such as the Food Specialists, Regional Cuisine, Tourism and Local Government continue in other forms for other purposes and come back together for the following years' festivals. As suggested previously this matches well with observations by Heracleous (2003) in identifying a brokered network where moderate levels of durability can be expected.

The unique feature of a regional festival such as the NRHF is its ability to develop new channels across different industries, and forge business development as a result. As an example, the results from this study show cross-pollination has produced new ways of retailing cuisine-based products through tourism outlets in the region. The maintenance of these channels between the herb-based businesses and tourism was initiated at the festival, but now continues past the duration of the event. Similarly, other event managers may also be able to identify specific channels that could benefit from ongoing relations. For example, benefit could be gained from encouraging relations between artists and food processors, where art designs can be used as labels and for marketing.

Density

Density often refers to the 'completeness' of the network or the extent to which all possible relations are present (Mitchell:1969 cited in Scott:1991). This is a popular relational element for analysis as it has important behavioural consequences for both individual actors and the network as a whole. Figure 3 clearly demonstrates the more highly dense areas of the NRHF network as being those connected with the herb industry itself and in particular those connected with the Regional Cuisine node. Actors have indicated that other ties to social networks and business networks assist in contributing to the density of the NRHF structure. The implications of creating a very dense network are that high levels of trust and reciprocity allow less litigious relations to occur. Agreements with performers and some suppliers are not constrained by complex contracts and legal processes, allowing more efficient operations as suggested by Ebers (1997).
One celebrity chef at the festival recalled his experience in this way,

> The organiser knows me well and just allowed me to get on with the job of organising all the supplies and materials I needed for the day. There wasn't much need for on-going communication between us.

The examination of density has several other aspects such as norm diffusion, efficiency and collectivism that may be useful in the examination of other event networks, as explored by researchers such as Rowan (cited in Rowley:1977), Galaskiewicz and Wasserman (1989) and Rowley (1997).

Network Summary

This examination has provided analysis of the structural and relational aspects of the NRHF network and has indicated how the development of business occurs as a result of these interactions. Results suggest that it is useful to assess certain characteristics of the network structure, within which numerous outcomes are observable. Table 2 summarises the observations of each characteristic of the NRHF network and the observed result for business development.

Table 2 – Outcomes and results from network interaction

Network characteristic	Observed action	Outcome	Business development result
Actor and positions	Inclusion of a variety of actors from previously established sub-networks or hubs	Provides optimised information flows and the potential for information sharing	New information received to improve products, marketing and services
	Inclusion of entrepreneurs in event networks	Increased potential for matching products with markets	Product and marketing development
	Encourage a variety of weak ties to participate in event activities	Draws in new ideas from outside the normal range of experience	Product and marketing development
Density	Existing hubs and networks were used for managing parts of the event	Utilisation of existing levels of trust and reciprocity	Less litigious arrangements for performing artists and others (cost reduction)
		Increased commitment and resources from more areas of the community	Cost reduction and resource sharing
Durability	The durability of the network is limited by its short time frame	The event network disbands	Loss of momentum for on-going product and marketing development
	Sections of the event network continued in their previous guise	Allows easier reconstruction of the event network each year	Businesses encouraged to develop new products for the next year
	Some attempt had been made to extend the durability of the event network.	Allowed some corporate knowledge to transfer to the next event	Reduced costs from wastage of resources
Channels	Channels were created across industries as a result of the event network	Innovative ideas, products and distribution channels were created	New products and distribution channels created.

Some simple examples, collected from the interviews, assist in illustrating the ways in which interaction within the network has assisted business development. Local industry is prompted to design, create, perfect and manufacture products and services to take to the festival. In the case of the 2003 NRHF, there is evidence of numerous types of business development (a full discussion of results is provided in Mackellar:2005). The most obvious of these relate to the development of new products and markets in food where, for example, new types of chilli paste have been created as a result of feedback from festival audiences and introduction to new suppliers. Similarly, stall-holders describe how the festival was used as a new way to launch a product into the local community. The festival provided a new type of temporary retail outlet or shop front in which they could raise brand awareness and allow potential customers to meet with them and taste their products. In a further example, the opportunity for local chefs to interact with stall-holders created opportunities to meet new local suppliers of herb produce. One participant confidently recognised

innovations that had occurred to her business as a result of her interaction with the community at the festival. As a result of being involved in the festival over a number of years, the business has worked on finding an innovative way to provide a 'health check system' at the festival that will entice new customers. Many of the developments have extended beyond the timeframe of the festival assisting in the on-going development of businesses in the region.

Discussion

The collaboration within the festival environment offers a unique opportunity to do business, where months of planning result in a one-off opportunity to present a product or service, test new ideas and interact with new and existing customers. This network offers the opportunity for spontaneous interaction between businesses and an opportunity to see the products and services of other businesses who may be competitors or allies. It offers participants in the network an opportunity to utilise each other's resources and thereby strengthen the ties between them (see Granovetter:1985). The study has shown that, above all else, network interaction has been a key component in developing business products, services and processes at this festival. The festival, if designed to optimise its network, can contribute to the regional growth of a diversity of businesses. The strategies used to achieve this relate to the selection of actors, channels, hubs and existing networks through which it can encourage interaction and participation in business building activities. The inclusion of strong existing networks draws upon existing knowledge, status and relationships.

Conclusion

The aim of this study was to illuminate how an event network can facilitate business development through product development, improved supplier relations, improved customer relationships and improved product distribution. Examining the development of a network for the Northern Rivers Herb Festival has allowed a study of structural and relational aspects that assist in this process and provide certain outcomes. Additionally, there is some evidence to show that the strategies of the festival coordinator had some influence over the results of this business development, and that the conscious creation of an effective event network can assist in fostering such developments.

The qualitative nature of the research makes generalisation of results minimal, especially in relation to the type of festival under study, which could be described as an industry/community event. Other types of festivals will no doubt have differing stakeholder nodes depending on those involved. The level of business development evident at other types of festivals may be lessened, or heightened as a result of this fact. Furthermore the use of a network approach provides a static perspective of a fluid and ever-changing phenomenon. While the snapshot provides a useful analytical tool, the changing dynamics of a network limit the generalisations of this study to other *event network*s.

There are, however, significant implications for stakeholders such as local government and state government financiers in gaining an insight into the impact of festivals on local industry. In this case, it has become apparent that a festival offers the impetus to initiate the business development process as well as to continue the momentum of existing networks and business relationships. Other methodologies may assist in further defining and expanding on these impacts.

Additionally, the results of this study suggest that event stakeholders and organisers can utilise network analysis as a tool to examine the relationships within their own *event network* and the outcomes of those relationships in business development. This type of research may assist in defining the outcomes of a festival as opposed to the economic outputs.

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Evaluating Socio-economic Impacts of Sport Tourism Events: Case studies from Durban, South Africa

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Abstract

The City of Durban is aggressively utilising sport events as part of a broader tourism strategy to enhance its image and stimulate economic development. Durban is currently being marketed as "South Africa's Playground". Successful recurring events in Durban include the Comrades Marathon, Durban July and the Mr Price Pro, amongst others. Durban has also made an attempt to utilise consistent methodologies for evaluating the impacts of events funded by the City.

This paper critically examines some of the challenges faced when conducting event research in a transforming South Africa by focusing on research, conducted over a three year period, on three significant sport events in Durban: the Comrades Marathon, the Durban July (premier horse-racing event) and the Mr Price Pro (the longest standing international surfing event). These events provide excellent case studies for comparative event impact analysis since they are popular events held at popular tourist destinations. Furthermore, it is contended that the case studies will sufficiently reflect a cross-section of experiences contrasting institutional dynamics, sport event types as well as socio-economic and spatial contexts.

Introduction

Sport tourism has been identified as a niche product and the White Paper on the Development and Promotion of Tourism in South Africa noted the following in further developing the tourism product in South Africa: "encourage the development of sport tourism and encourage the provision of facilities, training, marketing and promotion to give emphasis to the development of this segment of the industry" (South Africa, 1996: 40). However, the lack of academic discourse in the area of sport tourism, particularly with regard to measuring the impacts of sport event tourism, despite its growth as a niche market within the last ten years remains. The National Events Strategy developed by South African Tourism and the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism in 2002, noted that while sport tourism events have undoubtedly contributed positively towards tourism growth and the economy of our country, the extent and nature of these impacts have not been properly understood nationally. If managed and co-ordinated effectively, a well thought out sport tourism event strategy has the potential to bring numerous benefits to host cities and nations. These benefits include the enhancement of destination image, attracting high yield tourists and repeat visitors, driving economic development and improving the quality of life of residents.

Key aspects under examination in this paper relate to trends emerging from an analysis of primary data collected as well as an assessment of the research processes, including methodologies adopted and research funding mechanisms. This study underscores that event evaluation and research capacities is developing a multi-faceted undertaking, and includes skills development, adopting and creating appropriate technologies and tools, the development of supportive institutional frameworks (including the development of public-private sector partnerships), as well as developing a culture of research and evaluation within the event tourism sector amongst the various stakeholders. The case studies of sport tourism events in Durban are used to demonstrate the relevance of event research as well as to underscore some of the challenges of conducting socio-economic impact research in a South Africa.

This paper briefly examines the importance of sport tourism, especially in South Africa and in Durban more specifically, and sport tourism research. A brief background to the three case studies is presented, together with the methodology being adopted in Durban to conduct socio-economic impact assessments. An analysis of socio-economic data of three major sport events during a three-year period (2002-2004) is undertaken. Additionally, key findings and implications of the studies in relation to sport tourism research as well as promoting and sustaining sport tourism in Durban, South Africa are provided. Finally, some recommendations and concluding remarks are made.

In the light of the above, the following research questions frame this paper:

- What are the socio-economic impacts of selected sport tourism events in Durban?
- What are the challenges confronting research pertaining to sport tourism events in South Africa generally and Durban specifically?

Importance of Sport Tourism

Numerous studies indicate that event-driven tourism (including sport events) has the potential to be a powerful social and economic force (Auld & McArthur, 2003; Turco, Swart, Bob & Moodley, 2003; Gursoy, Kim & Uysal, 2004). As Shaw and Williams (2002) indicate, it has the power to contribute towards negative social, economic and environmental impacts, especially in the host destinations. Some of the negative impacts include economic leakages, cultural exploitation, social exclusion of certain groups and individuals, social problems such as increased prostitution, environmental degradation, and noise pollution. Additionally, it is likely that the spatial and temporal concentration of sport tourism events lead to a similar pattern in the distribution of the available jobs and because of the seasonal nature of the employment, only people who are close by are able to benefit from it. Also, economic benefits leveraged from events tend to be concentrated in the hands of a few rather than distributed among the general populace. In particular, the accommodation and hospitality sectors tend to accrue direct benefits associated with tourism events. Notwithstanding its potentially negative consequences, tourism events have come to be closely associated with promoting destinations and contributing to economic development.

Sport tourism is one of the fastest growing segments of the tourism industry (Delpy, 1996), and a relatively new focus in destination planning. It is now widely recognised that major events contribute significantly towards increasing tourist traffic and driving economic development in a region. As a result hosting and bidding for events have now become integral components of the overall tourism product of many cities, and organizations have been established whose sole mandate is to develop and manage event strategies on behalf of the city such as the DEC and Durban Africa in Durban.

Delpy (1998) suggests that sport tourism entails the predetermined or incidental participation or attendance of sports based activities, by individuals or groups outside their home environment. Kurtzman and Zauhar (1997) note that sport tourism activities can be categorized into five unique areas, viz. resorts, cruises, attractions, tours and events. This paper will focus on sport events as a category of sport tourism. Smith (2003) asserts that sport tourism offers multiple profit opportunities including travel, accommodation and subsistence spend, gate money, television fees, advertising revenue and franchised goods. As articulated, “Sport marketing is not just about selling a game – it is about selling places and people” (Smith, 2003: 100).

South Africa, since the first democratic elections in 1994, has experienced a dramatic increase in tourism, attributed in part to hosting a number of higher profile sport events. The marketing of sport events has become particularly important in an effort to achieve growth in the tourism industry. In a recent study conducted by Grant Thorton Kessel Feinstein (GTKF, 2001) concerning tourism internationally and on South Africa’s eastern seaboard, indications are made of opportunities for tourism expansion and regeneration in Kwazulu-Natal. According to World Trade Organisation figures up to 1998, leisure, recreation and holidays account for 62% of all international trips taken, and sun and beach tourism remain the most important segment of world tourism, with sun and beach trips increasingly being combined with other activities such as sports, nature and culture

(cited by Tourism Working Group, 2001). Durban is well suited to maximise on this tourism potential.

The Durban city is favourably positioned to become one of the major tourist destinations in South Africa, Africa and the continent. In this regard, it is important to highlight the resources that this location has to capitalize on becoming "South Africa's Playground" (Durban's position statement) and to support intentions to reposition Durban as South Africa's premier tourist destination which will become internationally known as an "attractive, crime and grime free tourist precinct of international quality standards" (MXA, 1999:15). The physical setting of Durban in terms of its 88km stretch of beaches, natural vegetation, adequate existing infrastructure, prime tourist accommodation, climate and cultural diversity is its main asset. The diversity of the local population in terms of race, ethnicity and religion makes for a unique cultural experience. Durban's variety of cuisine and ethnic (especially Indian and Zulu cultures and traditions) groups are particularly well known. This often results in Durban being a "must visit" destination for both national and international tourists. Durban currently has 40% of the country's domestic tourism market and 27% of the foreign market (Saayman, 2000). This translates to roughly 4 million domestic visitors and 300 000 international visitors. Tourism is an important sector in Durban and adds 24% to the local economy with a major concentration of tourist activities and attractions along the coast (Durban Metro, 2001).

Sport and event tourism have gained prominence in the last five years and have recently begun to play a central role in profiling Durban. Major annual events have become a trademark of Durban. The socio-economic impact assessments indicate that a sizable proportion of tourists come to Durban specifically for the sport events. In line with the national government's focus on sport tourism, many leading cities in South Africa are utilizing sport events to attract tourism as a result of increasing competition among destinations.

In terms of the management of event tourism in the city, it is important to briefly summarize the role of the DEC. The DEC is an initiative that was borne from the recognition that major events contribute significantly towards increasing tourist flow and driving economic development in the region. The DEC is a joint venture between Durban Metro, Durban Africa (the city's tourism marketing authority) and major sponsors in the region. The vision of the DEC is to utilise events to position Durban as "South Africa's Playground".

Turco et al. (2003) assert that understanding consumption patterns, socio-economic characteristics and desirous activities relating to tourists are important to ensure appropriate and effective tourism marketing, planning and development. Targeting the right tourists is central to stimulating economic development in a city. This entails matching tourists' aspirations with tourism products or attractions offered in the city.

Importance of Sport Tourism Research

In order to ascertain whether the DEC is meeting its objectives of raising the profile of Durban and stimulating economic development by utilising events to attract tourists, the

evaluation of events funded by the DEC is critical. Turco et al. (2003) argue that in South Africa, there has been a dearth of research in the area of sport tourism. It is generally agreed that in order for events undertaken by the DEC to have a significant and sustainable impact on the citizens of Durban specifically, and on the region generally, greater emphasis on research is required.

Sport events supported or promoted by the DEC provide an in-field laboratory experience for future employees within South Africa's sport tourism industry in that they will be exposed to various data collection techniques whereby event organisers can evaluate their services in order to better serve consumers in the future. The body of literature on event evaluation is extensive and distinct with four themes emerging as significant and timely to event managers: customer satisfaction research, sponsorship evaluations, economic impact assessments and host perceptions of event impacts (Turco, Riley & Swart, 2002). Tourist satisfaction is critical to the success of any sporting event. However, little research has been published on this topic. Cunnigham and Taylor (1995) note that more advancements have been made in producing higher quality and more marketable events than in the manner in which the events affect the guests.

The highly competitive nature of sport event production has led more corporates to demand that event organisers demonstrate the value or return on investment (ROI) resulting from the sponsorship. The City has also acknowledged the importance of ROI for its funding of events. Thus, economic assessment studies are critical for future planning of events. Until recently, sponsorship effectiveness studies were uncommon. Reasons for this included difficulty in measuring the return on investment, undeveloped measurement techniques and the high cost of research. Sponsorship assessment techniques now employed include audience research (on-site and mailed surveys, on-site and phone interviews), attitude/image change studies (longitudinal tracking survey instruments), feedback from trade (employee response), market share data (compare effectiveness of marketing strategies to determine which works best), sales data and measured media coverage (Cunningham & Taylor, 1995). Researchers of large-scale events have measured the effectiveness of promotional efforts through spectator recall and recognition studies. Previous research in this area has focused on on-site special event surveys on spectators' awareness of advertisers' products or services (Turco et al., 2003).

Brief Background to Case Studies and Socio-Economic Impact Assessment Methodology Used

The Comrades Marathon (CM) is one of South Africa's largest sporting events and is internationally recognised as one of the world's greatest ultra-marathons. The CM is held in June and includes a premier international road race from the province's capital, Pietermaritzburg to the coastal city of Durban (the race alternates annually between the up run from Durban and the down run from Pietermaritzburg) and the Comrades Experience (Expo) which is held at the Durban Exhibition Centre prior to the event over three days. The Vodacom Durban July (VDJ) is South Africa's premier horse racing event and is supported by a festival of social and fashion side events. Twelve horse races

are on the schedule with the VDJ being the highlight and main race. The Mr Price Pro (MPP) is South Africa's largest professional surfing competition. The event is held during the July vacation period on Durban's Golden Mile beach. The MMP is part of Vodacom Beach Africa, Durban's anchor winter season event.

The DEC was one of the main sponsors of the event and the organisers of the winter season as a whole. For each of the events the DEC commissioned impact studies to assess the events' potential benefit to the stimulation and increase in tourism and its concomitant socio-economic impacts on the Durban economy. This paper utilises the research findings from these studies. The main objectives of the studies were:

- To estimate the total number of people attending the events.
- To evaluate the perceptions and spending patterns of attendees (including participants) at the event.
- To establish the costs incurred and revenue generated for the Durban economy from the events by interviewing key stakeholders (sponsors, informal traders and stallholders) and organisers of the events.

To achieve the above listed objectives of the study, the methodology adopted included the implementation of questionnaire surveys with a spatially based random selection of people attending the events to ascertain information on issues such as spending power, perceptions of the events and respondents' demographic profiles. Purposive sampling of respondents was conducted during the entire duration of the events. Face-to-face interviews were conducted. In the case of the participants of the CM, telephonic interviews were also conducted from a list that was randomly generated by the organisers of the event.

In addition to the questionnaires, estimates of the number of people attending the events were undertaken at MPP and the CM, both open events. Getz (1997), Turco et al. (2002) and Smith (2004) illustrate the complexities of undertaking crowd estimates at open events. Furthermore, they indicate a range of methods than can be used to undertake volume counts which include turnstile counts, vehicle counts and crowd estimates. The most reliable indicator of crowd estimates is the use of aerial photographs which are generally expensive and only suitable for a single outdoor site (Burgan & Mules, 2000). Due to budgetary constraints, at the MPP and CM crowd estimates were undertaken at specific times of the day and extrapolated for the entire day. It must be noted that due consideration was not given to daily multiple or repeat attendances. As Burgan and Mules (2000) highlight, this is a complicated methodological concern. However, it is believed that for the purposes of this study the crowd estimates are reflective of the attendance figures at the two events. At the VDJ, crowd attendance was obtained from the organisers of the event derived from ticket sales and complimentary tickets issued.

Discussion of Results Derived from Socio-Economic Impact Studies

This section summarises some of the key findings of the socio-economic studies conducted during 2002 to 2004 on the CM, MPP and VDJ events held in Durban and

supported by the DEC (see Bob & Moodley, 2002a; 2002b; 2002c; 2003a; 2003b; 2003c; KMT, 2004a; 2004b; 2004c).

Estimates of Number of People Attending the Events

Attendance at the events during the three year periods are presented in the Tables below for the different events.

Table 1: Attendance figures for Comrades Marathon events

	CM		
	2002 (down run)	2003 (up run)	2004 (down run)
Overall volume counts	76 416	123 374	48 000
Estimates of actual number of people attending	44 951	84 615	25 263
Number of participants	12 167	13 374	12 059
Percentage of international tourists	5%	1.75%	5%
Percentage of domestic tourists	47.7%	57.75%	49%

In terms of the Comrades Marathon, crowd estimates were undertaken at the Expo as well as the start or end of race venue in Durban depending on whether it is an up run or down run.

Table 2: Attendance figures for Mr Price Pro events

	MPP		
	2002	2003	2004
Overall volume counts	980 872	1 175 520	1 133 160
Estimates of actual number of people attending	306 523	511 095	472 150
Percentage of international tourists	6.6%	3.25%	2.9%
Percentage of domestic tourists	53.7%	25%	36%

Table 3: Attendance figures for Vodacom Durban July events

	VDJ		
	2002	2003	2004
Attendance figures (ticket sales and comps)	47 288	52 000	56 000
Percentage of international tourists	1%	3%	2%
Percentage of domestic tourists	46.5%	19%	27%

Overall, the attendance figures illustrate that these events attract significant numbers of attendees and participants, especially in the case of the Comrades Marathon. Furthermore, the events attract tourists, especially domestic tourists.

The largest volume counts were recorded at the MPP event. The case studies also reveal that sport events attract tourists. However, what is evident in the South African context is that the proportion of domestic tourists is noticeably higher than international tourists. This indicates that in developing contexts sport events can play a major role in promoting domestic travel which is central to the sustainability of tourism as an industry. The results also indicate that sport events with a larger number participants (such as the CM and MPP) attract more tourists, especially domestic. This is expected since many of the participants are from South Africa and often have friends and family accompany them.

Economic Evaluation

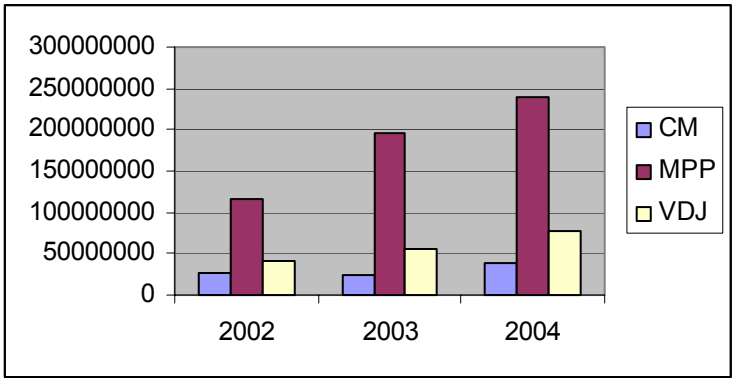
The direct economic impact of the events on the Durban economy was measured by the direct expenditure of people attending the events. This included their daily spending as well as the accommodation costs of tourists attending the events. The majority of the respondents (in excess of 85% at all events) spent money during the events. The purchases were primarily on food and refreshments, clothing and arts and crafts. Thus, sport events can generate a platform for economic opportunities, especially in the small business sector. For example, at the MPP there were numerous stalls that were operated by individuals from the small business sector. Additionally, the organisers targeted businesses from previously disadvantaged backgrounds. Thus, this study supports Chalip and Leyns' (2002) assertion that local business leveraging is the key to unlock economic benefits associated and/or expected of sport events. Table 4 and Figure 1 below illustrate some of the key economic findings.

Table 4: Paid accommodation usage (in %), average length of stay of tourists (nights) and leverage ratio

	CM			MPP			VDJ		
	2002	**2003**	**2004**	**2002**	**2003**	**2004**	**2002**	**2003**	**2004**
Paid accommodation usage	28.5	27.5	34	25	14.5	19	19.5	6	10
Average length of stay of tourists	4.2	4.1	4	5	5.1	6.1	3	4	5.2
Leverage ratio	1:42	1:83	1:137	1:126	1:100	1:120	1:203	1:278	1:255

Paid accommodation usage was highest at the CM event followed by the MPP. It is interesting to note that the average length of stay of tourists is not congruent with the number of days of the event. For example, VDJ is a one-day event but the average length of stay is similar to the other multiple day events. This may be linked to the fact that the VDJ attracts higher income tourists.

Figure 1: Tourists' daily spend and accommodation expenditure generated attributed to the event (in Rands)



It is important to note the significantly higher expenditure generated figures for MPP can be attributed to the event being part of Vodacom Beach Africa. The events contributed significantly to the Durban economy and encouraging tourist stay in the city which was beneficial in particular to the accommodation industry. An important aspect considered in the studies is that of leverage in relation to the funds contributed by the city via the DEC or Durban Africa. Leverage refers to the ratio of public sector input against private sector response. To calculate the leverage ratio of the public sector input against the private sector response entails the calculation of a ratio that indicates the amount of money accrued to the private sector with every Rand spent by the public sector. In this respect the estimated amounts that are considered are the total revenue generated by peoples' daily expenditure and from the accommodation industry directly attributable to the events. The events have a relatively high leverage ratio and return on investments (ROI) for the city which ranges from 1:42 to 1:255. It is interesting to note that the one-day event (VDJ) has the highest ROI for the city, in excess of 1:200.

In terms of calculating leverage ratios it is important to note that these figures are estimates using only daily expenditure at the events and accommodation costs. Other variables having multiplier effects such as transport, financial transactions, product suppliers and guided tours were not included in the analysis. These are critically important aspects in terms of overall impact but the collection of the data can dramatically increase leverage costs. It is argued that utilising daily expenditure and accommodation costs provides a good indicator of ROI and economic impacts of an event.

Demographic Profile of People Attending Events

Although the research findings indicate that generally the majority of people attending sport events are male (Table 5), this is more reflective of the gender of the respondents rather than an indication of the gender profile of people attending the events. It is typical that when a couple, family or group is approached to respond to a questionnaire, adult males usually assume the role of the respondent when available. However, some studies (for example, MXA, 1999) attribute the greater concentration of males to females to the idea that men feel safer to go to the events, especially at night, given the high perception of crime. However, it also needs to be noted that the support and participation of sport is highly gendered. This is especially discernible at professional levels. Thus, the prevalence of male spectators and participants is similar to trends throughout the world. Additionally, the participants in the sport events tend to be male. However, a steady increase in female respondents over the years is clearly noticeable, especially at the CM events. This may be due to women's increased interest in sport activities, especially in terms of supporting teams and participants.

Table 5: Gender of respondents (in %)

	CM			**MPP**			**VDJ**		
	2002	**2003**	**2004**	**2002**	**2003**	**2004**	**2002**	**2003**	**2004**
Male	75.3	52.5	36	51	46.25	45.3	62.5	56	54
Female	24.7	47.5	64	49	53.75	54.8	37.5	44	46

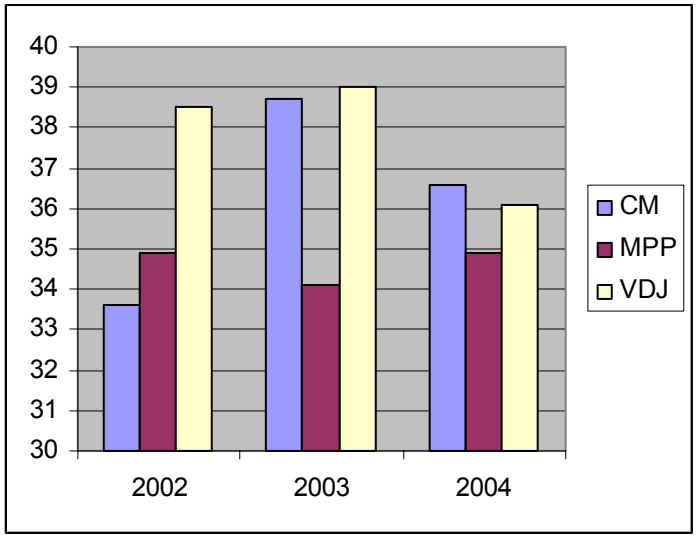
Historical racial categories remain important components in terms of understanding tourism patterns in Durban as well as monitoring transformation. The dominance of Whites at most of the sport events remains, especially given the fact that marathons and surfing in particular have historically been generally White sports (Table 5). The VDJ has a significant promotion of Indian attendees. The trends in terms of race are also reflective of the location of the events in Durban which has, for example, the largest population of Indians outside India. However, during the past decade, a shift in racial composition is discernible with more and more non-White people, both locals and tourists, supporting and participating in sport events (Turco et al., 2003). There remains the perception, however, that the sporting needs of non-Whites are inadequately addressed.

Table 5: Historical racial category of respondents (in %)

	CM			MPP			VDJ		
	2002	**2003**	**2004**	**2002**	**2003**	**2004**	**2002**	**2003**	**2004**
African	23.3	27,75	18	24	12.5	7.8	7.5	27	11
White	48.2	13.75	48	45	35.25	46	41	28	27
Coloured	11	43.75	14	10	40.25	17.3	6	12	6
Indian	17.5	14.75	20	21	12	29	45.5	33	56

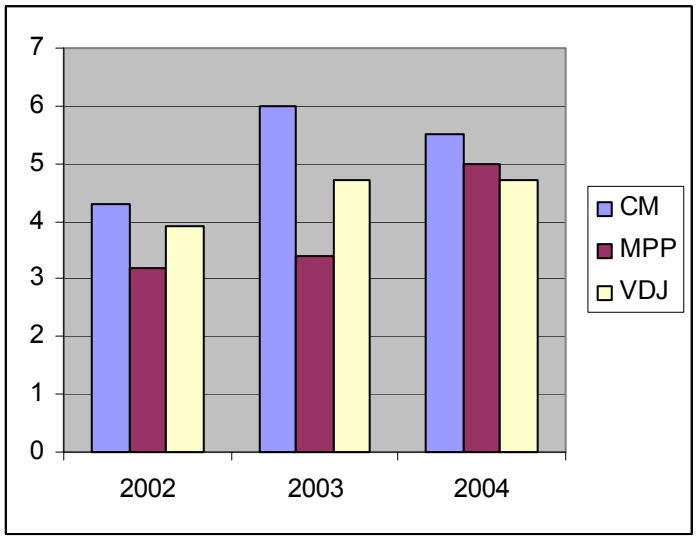
The socio-economic studies suggest that in addition to the participants/athletes there are two major age groups attracted to the sport events. The average age of respondents ranged from 33 – 39 years. The middle-aged, family group as well as a relatively high percentage of students were in attendance.

Figure 2: Average age of respondents in years (in %)



The average immediate group size of people attending the events is illustrated in the Figure below. Clearly, the events are generally attracting a range of social groups. The majority of the groups are made up of families and/or friends at all the events. Many were supporters of participants at the MPP and CM.

Figure 3: Average immediate group size of respondents



It is important to note that many of the socio-economic studies conducted indicate that the overall organization of sport tourism events lacks family-orientated (especially children) activities. The importance of family groups is suggested by DRA (1999: 14):

> It must be borne in mind that although (family) groups represent smaller percentages of beach-goers in terms of the sample, their potential as units of consumption are significant in that they not only represent more people, but also more dependents who they are spending money on particularly children.

Single persons attending the events are also on a decline as groups of friends and/or family members are more noticeable. The sport events are social places for young adults, especially among locals.

The permanent places of residence of the respondents are presented in the Table below. It is important to point out that Durban's local populations are big supporters of sport tourism events and activities. At all events, the majority of supporters were locals followed by visitors from other South African provinces. The findings also illustrate that this group spends on average as much or more than tourists at the event. Sport events contribute significantly to Durban's primacy in relation to domestic tourism in South Africa.

Table 6: Permanent place of residence of respondents (in %)

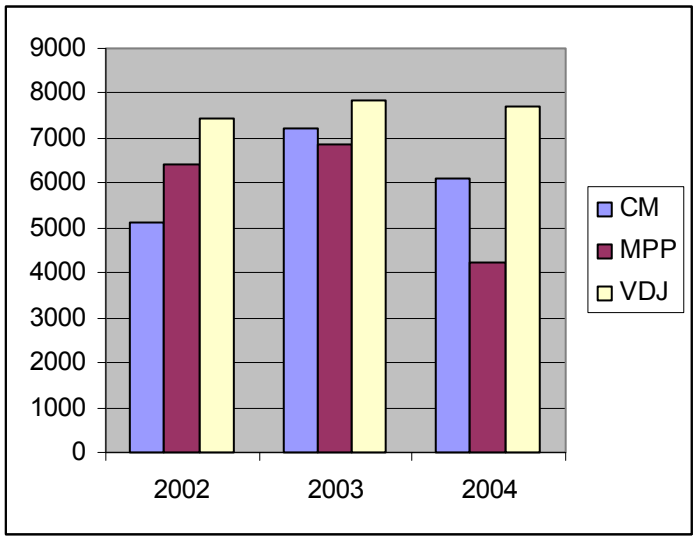
	CM			**MPP**			**VDJ**		
	2002	**2003**	**2004**	**2002**	**2003**	**2004**	**2002**	**2003**	**2004**
Durban	47.3	40.5	46	38.3	71.75	61.1	52.5	78	71
Other KwaZulu-Natal (KZN) areas*	5.5	11.75	9	31.3	12	13.5	21.5	6	10
Other South African provinces outside KZN	42.5	12.25	49	22.4	13	22.5	25	13	17
Foreigners	3	11	5	6.6	3.25	2.9	1	3	2

*Province-based visitors

Occupation and income levels

At all events, the main occupational categories among the respondents were professionals, administrators/managers, artisans/technicians and sales/marketing. Students were also attracted to the events, especially the MPP and CM. The composition of people at sport tourism events tended to change depending on the time of day and year the event is held, the specific location of the event and the type of sport event. The events thus tend to attract specific groups of people that should be considered in terms of marketing and the planning of activities. The average incomes of respondents are illustrated in the Figure below.

Figure 4: Average income levels of respondents (in Rands)



There was a range of income groups that visited the events. The average income of respondents ranged from slightly more than R4 000 to less than R8 000. The average incomes also correspond in part to the type of sport event since some sports are expensive to participate in. There is significant differentiation in terms of the income levels and the type of sport events. VDJ, for example, attracts individuals from higher income groups. This is a ticketed event and people attend mainly to place bets on horse races. Also, the CM attracts significant proportions of middle and upper income runners who can afford to participate in the sport. A significant proportion of those people who are attracted to the events are part of the "free spending" (individuals or families with disposable incomes) prime target market. This bodes well for the economic leverage of sport tourism events as these groups are more likely to have disposable incomes which result in an increase in spending at the event and, in the case of tourists, in Durban more generally.

Understanding income differentiation is important because it reflects the need for different types of accommodation options and activities to be available. Furthermore, income is much more likely to be a determinant of general tastes and preferences for environmental attributes and amenities as well as activities than race or gender. As such,

it is probably income and age differentiation, more than anything else, that deserve consideration in differentiated sport tourism planning.
The common modes of transport used by visitors to come to Durban were the use of private vehicles, airplanes, mini-bus taxis and buses. The primary mode of transportation to the events for respondents was private vehicles.

Factors Influencing Decision to Attend Events

The main influencing agents in order of importance and averaged over the three year period, as indicated by the respondents interviewed for the three events, are presented in the Table below.

Table 7: Main influencing agents

CM	MPP	VDJ
Participants (50.6%)	Word of mouth (34%)	Annual event (36%)
Annual event (41%)	Radio ads (28.4%)	Word of mouth (28.2%)
Television (33.2%)	Television (21%)	Television (26.3%)
Word of mouth (24%)	Newspapers (9.4%)	Newspapers (12.3%)

The majority of the respondents across the three events cited knowledge of events (either as participants themselves or being informed by others) as main influencing agents. This suggests that positive experiences at the event are key to attracting attendees, thus playing a major role in marketing the event. Also, the events themselves are becoming established, annual events with a good track record.

Types of activities attendees attracted to

The vast majority of all respondents at all events (more than 80%) stated that they would attend the events if they were held again. This is indicative of the high levels of satisfaction at and enjoyment of the events. Furthermore, sport tourism events that are linked to multiple activities and that are held in popular tourist spots such as the beachfront draw significantly more people. A case in point is the Mr. Price Pro that is linked to the Vodacom Beach Africa festival. The CM and the VDJ also have peripheral activities (such as Expos, fashion shows, parties, etc.) linked to the main events.

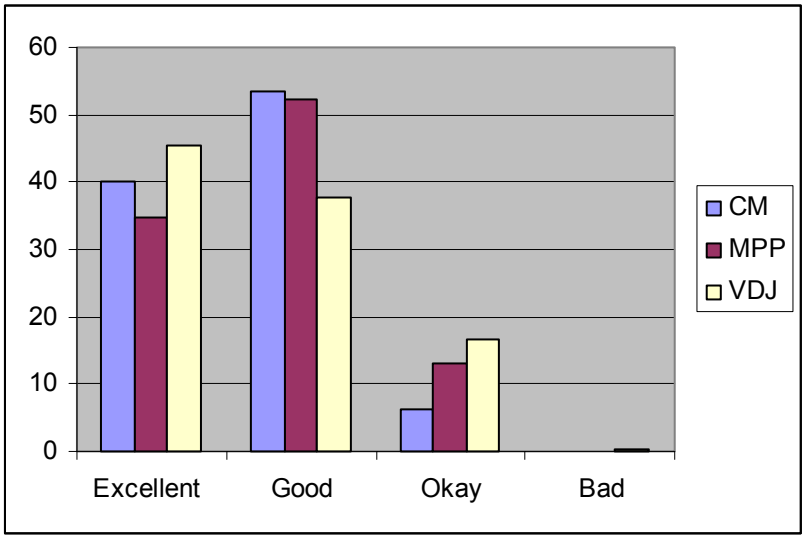
Sponsor Identification and Perception

An important component of the study was the identification of sponsors by respondents. A significant proportion of the respondents (more than 90% at all events) was able to identify at least one sponsor of the event. In general the main corporate sponsors such as Vodacom, Mr Price and MTN were identified indicating that sponsors were certainly benefiting from sponsoring the event, especially in relation to visibility and event association. It is interesting to note that Durban as a major sponsor was poorly recognised as a sponsor at all events. This may be attributed to inadequate branding at events or Durban choosing to provide greater platforms for corporate sponsors to ensure long-term sustainability of the events.

Perceptions / Attitudes of the Events and the Durban Unicity

The respondents' ratings of their event experience averaged over the three years are presented in the Figure below.

Figure 5: Average ratings of event experience



Very few respondents at CM and VDJ (less than 1% to 4%) experienced problems at the event. Problems generally related to parking and transport congestion, overcrowding at events, and incidents of muggings and hijackings. At MPP significantly more respondents experienced problems at the event. This could be linked to MPP being part of Vodacom Beach Africa, the largest beach festival in Africa that attracts in excess of 1 million people over a ten-day period. The main problems experienced were lack of parking facilities, traffic, harassment by street children, muggings and overcrowding.

Table 8 below presents the main positive and negative features of Durban identified by the respondents. It is clear that the responses underscore problems experienced by respondents and indicate key areas which require attention by the city and other event tourism stakeholders.

Table 8: Positive and negative features of Durban

Positive features of Durban	Negative features of Durban
Beaches	Crime/lack of security
Weather/climate	Street children/ beggars/vagrants
Friendly people	Litter/dirt
Events/entertainment	Overcrowding
Diverse cultures	Inadequate facilities
Casinos	Insufficient parking
uShaka Marine World (in last year)	

As is evidenced from the Table above, respondents indicated that the most important positive features of Durban as a tourist destination were the climate and the beaches. The main and dominant negative feature is crime.

Research Challenges and Opportunities

It is clear that results from the socio-economic impact assessments provide valuable information to inform future planning of events in relation to critical issues such as sponsorship leverage, attendee perceptions and spending patterns, advertising and marketing of events, assessment of branding and positioning strategies, attracting businesses and investments, and overall strategic decisions. However, conducting event research in Durban and South Africa more generally faces several challenges discussed below.

Large-scale sport tourism events present several methodological challenges for researchers as they are typically held over several days, involve multiple events and venues, and attract large spectator crowds. Multiple entrance/exit points, concurrent event schedules as well as the uncertainty of sport competitions further compound the challenges. Another concern is that pertaining to the training of fieldworkers. To minimise selection bias, researchers should thoroughly train interviewers on appropriate sampling protocol and approach techniques, have interviewers rotate from interview site to site after completing a predetermined number of interview attempts, and closely supervise new interviewers ensuring that they adhere to sampling procedures so that valid information may be collected. In terms of the studies conducted for the DEC, trained graduate students from the University of Durban-Westville were fieldworkers who conducted the interviews. This collaboration was effective in providing income generating and capacity-building opportunities for students, especially from historically disadvantaged groups. However, often events coincide with students' academic commitments which create several problems for the researchers.

In terms of sampling, daily attendance figures must be adjusted to account for individuals who attend for more than one day. Open access events make spectator attendance counting difficult. Researchers have used aerial reconnaissance photos with field survey data on spectators and event square footage figures to determine attendance at open-access sporting events. Since greater sample sizes often lead to additional time and financial costs, the researcher must decide how much variability s/he is willing to accept in the study. These concerns are particularly pertinent in the Durban context where the budget for research is usually limited. Despite this serious limitation in terms of volume counts, it must be underscored that Durban is the only city in South Africa that consistently evaluates events. Thus, given, the enormous political and social redress pressures on the city's budget, allocating resources for event research is laudable.

Selection of location as well as days and hours of operation to sample event spectators must control for sampling bias and assure generalization of results to the total population of spectators. Research methods should be tailored to the specifics of the event and not be standardized. The purpose of the study, nature of the sport event, time, and the human

and financial resources of the research organization dictate the most practical data collection methods. However, care must be taken to design and implement survey research methods that will negate the aforementioned contaminants to validity.

A neglected aspect of sport tourism research is resident's perceptions of sport tourism. Much has been written on tourists with relatively little about those who stage attractions or the residents of the community where the event takes place. Large-scale sport events should examine the contributory social impacts on residents and their reactions. Examples of social costs include traffic congestion and crowding, crime, trespassing, disruption in daily schedules, litter and noise pollution.

Access to potential respondents and venues are also a problem experienced by researchers. As illustrated by Smith (2004), it is extremely difficult to survey attendees of events in informal situations where they can be easily distracted. Furthermore, often respondents lack the knowledge required, especially in relation to expenditure patterns. Additionally, often organisers of events do not support the research being undertaken since they view it as a city policing tool. Their resistance to the research takes many forms including denying access to research or not responding to stakeholder questionnaires. At each of the event semi-structured interviews are conducted with stallholders and informal traders at the events. Additionally, sponsor and organiser questionnaires are administered. In most instances sponsors and organisers do not respond in a timely fashion and often only do so if "threatened" by the city to withhold portion of funds. It is imperative that the importance of tourism research is understood by all stakeholders and a more facilitative research environment and culture be developed.

Research for comparative purposes also poses the additional challenge of ensuring methodological consistency. As Smith (2004) asserts, there is a requirement for a core set of questions whilst needing to modify the survey to fit the uniqueness of each event. Thus, the need for replication and standardisation of methodologies (Getz, 2000) becomes paramount if data is to be used for comparative purposes. Comparative analysis is central to ascertain what works as well as trends and patterns. It is this type of research that is likely to inform policy development as well as event planning and management.

Conclusion

The socio-economic impact assessments of the events under study indicate that they were generally successful, contributing significantly to the Durban economy and the tourism industry more specifically. The results also illustrate that sport tourism events have the potential to contribute significantly to local economies as well as market and profile destinations. Additionally, sport events such as the MPP benefit considerably from being part of a larger event such as Vodacom Beach Africa.

During recent years major sport events such as the CM, soccer matches and Vodacom Beach Africa have developed a huge following and provide a platform to re-vitalize Durban as South Africa's premier tourism and entertainment destination. This study thus supports international best practice identified by KMPG (2000) that indicates that

festivals and events play a key role in successful positioning and branding. The sport tourism events calendar can be a major tool for target marketing. This article has attempted to provide a clearer understanding of the tourist and visitor markets as well as examine the socio-economic impacts and challenges of sport tourism, especially in relation to research, in Durban.

The consistent and systematic collection of data on events provides the basis for comparative analyses on specific events as well as between events, as illustrated in this paper. This can be a critical tool to inform future sport tourism planning. As indicated by Turco et al. (2003), it is imperative that a database be developed that tracks and monitors sport tourism events. This will allow for comparative analyses and will be useful in developing tour packages and marketing sport events during specific times and in relation to specific locations. The changing profile of people supporting and participating in sport tourism events needs to be monitored continuously and integrated into planning and marketing strategies. This will entail market research to examine trends as well as investigate concerns.

The data available as a result of the socio-economic impact assessments provide a remarkable opportunity to evaluate how to improve (and maintain) sport tourism as a product and to inform any major marketing campaign. This is particularly true for major national and international events. An integrated rather than event specific marketing strategy of sport tourism events needs to be encouraged to enable the pooling of financial and human resources informed by critical and analytical research.

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Major Sporting Events - Are there any long-term tourism impacts?

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Abstract

Many cities that apply for major sports events seem to be taking for granted that they automatically will generate substantial income for the host region. Several analyses have documented positive effects from hosting the event (Brunet, 1995; Chalip, 2002; Kang and Purdue, 1994; Preuss, H. 2004; Ritchie and Smith, 1991; Spilling, 2000).

Ritchie and Yangzhou (1988) distinguish between economic, tourism/commercial, physical, socio-cultural and finally "psychological and political" impacts, which can be related to the following aspects:

- Enhanced international awareness and knowledge of the region
- Increased economic activity
- Enhanced physical facilities and infrastructure
- Increased social and cultural opportunities.

Nevertheless, it is important to bear in mind that positive impacts do not follow automatically from each and every event (Crompton,1995). There are many factors that influence the impacts and the value of them for the host destination(s). These factors can vary substantially region-wise, and so can the economic impacts. The event-history contains successes as well as failures in terms of economic impacts for the host destination.

This paper concentrates particularly on the long-term impacts – and with special attention to tourism. The term *long-term* here refers to the period before as well as after the main event, and which take place "outside" the short-term period. It will analyse what factors influence the impacts from the perspective of the host destination. By means of microeconomic theory it also discusses the welfare economic gains and losses related to the impacts – both for local residents and producers.

The main research questions are:

- What infrastructure is required by host cities of major sporting events?
- What are the potential welfare economic gains and costs?
- Which factors influence the magnitude and distribution of these impacts?
- Is there a rationale for the public sector to support the hosting of major sporting events?

Included in the paper is a presentation of the results and experiences from some empirical studies.

1. Introduction

Many cities that apply for major sporting events take for granted that they will automatically generate substantial income for the host region – both on a short- and long-term basis. However, experiences have shown that the connection is more complicated. This paper concentrates particularly on long-term impacts. Its main objective is to analyse what it takes to host events of a large scale and if the efforts are worth their price. Do the benefits outweigh the costs? Some empirical second results will be presented. However, it is not our ambition to present a complete list of results and experiences from each and every major sporting event. Instead the results should be read as examples that illustrate which and how specific factors can influence the size on long-term impacts.

The main research questions are:

- What infrastructure is required by host cities of major sporting events?
- What are the potential welfare economic gains and costs?
- Which factors influence the magnitude and distribution of these impacts?
- Is there a rationale for the public sector to support the hosting of major sporting events?

The next section discusses the difference between short- and long-term impacts, and then clarifies the categories of tourism impacts that can occur. It then discusses the requirements in infrastructure. This is followed by a discussion of economic impacts that such activities can generate. This includes impacts for the tourism industry but also for local residents. The final section discusses whether there is a welfare economic rationale for the public sector to support the hosting of sporting events financially.

2. Background and definitions

According to Hall (1994), internationally recognised hallmark tourism events such as the Olympic Games or World Championships can have a substantial enduring impact on the growth of international travel to the host region. However, it is important to bear in mind that even if an event creates positive impacts on one occasion, this does not guarantee that it automatically will be as successful when hosted in another region. Local conditions vary, and thus also the ability to reap economic fruit from hosting sporting events.

In recent years, a number of studies have investigated various potential long-term impacts from major sporting events. These include empirical studies from previous events (Chalip, 2002; Andranovich, Burbank and Heying, 2001; Spilling, 2000; Teigland, 1996; Brunet, 1995; Kang & Purdue, 1994; Kirchner, C., 1980; Schulmeister, 1976). Some have focused on promotion effects (Ritchie & Smith, 1991; Larsson Mosberg, 1996, Bamossy and Stephens, 2003). Others have analysed what it takes for host cities to take advantage from any promotion effects (Karlis, 2004; Preuss, 2002; Leibold and Van Zyl, 1996).

2.1 Definitions

The size of sporting events can vary substantially, and so can the economic impacts. Gratton, Dobson and Shibli (1999) grades events from A to D, on the basis of their ability to generate economic impacts.

- *Type A includes irregular, one-off, major international spectator events generating significant economic activity and media interest (e.g. Olympic Games).*
- *Type B includes major spectator events, generating significant economic activity, media interest and part of an annual domestic cycle of sporting events (e.g. FA Cup Final).*
- *Type C is irregular, one-off, major international spectator/competitor events generating limited economic activity (e.g. international championships in sports that only attract moderate interest).*
- *Type D includes major competitor events generating limited economic activity and part of an annual cycle of sporting events (e.g. National Championships in most sports).*

This paper will mainly concentrate on events of type A. These are also known as *Hallmark Events,* which are identified by the following characteristics (Ritchie, 1984):

> *Major one-time or recurring events of limited duration, developed primarily to enhance the awareness, appeal and profitability of a tourism destination in the short and/or long-term. Such events rely for their success on uniqueness, status, or timely significance to create interest and attract attention.*

The concept *long-term* covers the impacts that occur as a consequence of the event – but which take place outside short-term period. Short-term here refers to the period immediately before, during, and after the main event. One can say that the long-term period begins with the bidding for the event and ends at some point in the future yet to be determined (Kang & Perdue, 1994). The pre-event period is often overlooked in discussion on long-term impacts. Nevertheless, the activities during the preparation period can generate considerably activity, which also can include tourism effects.

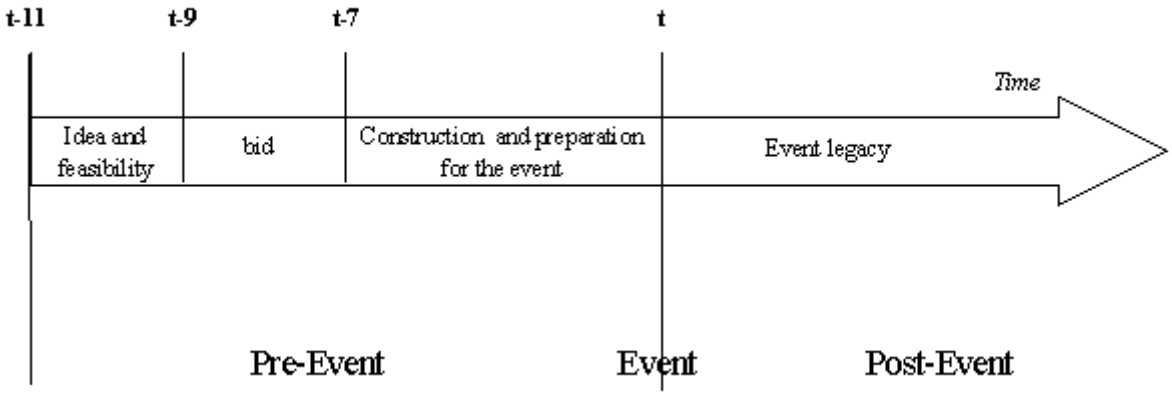


Fig. 1: Stages of the long-term period

Fig. 1 illustrates the time pattern for the Olympics Games – from the very early "idea-stage", to many years after the Games are finished. As seen, the duration can be many years – even decades. The host is elected seven years ahead of the Games. Before that, however, the city is only one of several candidates. In this period it also has to spend resources on promoting its candidacy, but without knowing whether these efforts will pay off or not.

The procedure in Fig. 1 is not identical for each and every event, but most hallmark events go through a long period of preparation. Some uncertainty will prevail regarding the duration of

the post-event period, which depends on whether it creates a legacy. If new facilities that stimulate inbound tourism are established – then the post-event period can last for a very long time.

The World Tourism Organization defines tourism as:

> *Activities of a person travelling to a place outside his or her usual environment for less than a specified period of time with a main purpose other than the exercise of activity remunerated from within the place visited (World Tourism Organization, 1991, p. 3).*

The phrase "*exercise of activity remunerated from within the place visited*" was meant to exclude migration for temporary work (Turco, Riley and Swart, 2002). However, this definition of tourism can exclude impacts in the *grey zone* between tourism and temporary immigration. As an example, mega events might require some temporary import of labour, e.g. for the construction of sport facilities, particularly when hosted in smaller cities with a low self-sufficiency rate. Such activities can generate valuable revenues for the local tourism industry, assuming the workers stay at local hotels. Thus, some flexibility should be applied when defining tourism impacts. If not, substantial revenues could be omitted.

Categories of tourism

In this context, we will distinguish between *direct*, *indirect* and *induced tourism.* Note that such an application of the terms is different from multiplier studies where the three categories refer to income and/or impacts (not tourism). See Fletcher (1989) for a detailed presentation of this matter.

Direct tourism refers to activities that are directly related to the event, but conducted before or after the *short-term* period. This will mainly be related to the preparations – for example building new arenas and/or upgrading of the existing infrastructure. Different from the short-term impacts, which occur during the event period or shortly before or after, the long-term impacts take place before or after this period.

Indirect tourism covers visitors that are attracted as a result of the promotion effects and can attract *leisure travellers* as well as *business travellers*. The latter group also covers so-called MICE delegated (Meetings, Incentive, Congress, Exhibitions), which is a group that in general has higher expenditures than any other group of travellers (Chalip, 2002).

Induced tourism refers to the effects that occur if the destination becomes a more popular place to locate business in. The hosting of an event can create an awareness of the region as a dynamic area and hence attract people and companies to settle in the region. It can also create a more entrepreneurial climate and through this stimulate the development of existing firms and the starting up of new firms (Spilling, 2000). Upholding relations with trading partners is a normal activity of many firms – and this in turn will generate inbound tourism, mainly from business travellers.

However, these impacts do not follow automatically from being awarded the events. Hosting them might require substantial investments in facilities, and the next section will discuss these requirements in detail.

3. The supply side – structural requirements

3.1 Hard infrastructure changes

Every city has a different infrastructure. Once in a while, changes in the environment (industrialisation, immigration, wars, etc.) or "festivals" (e.g. world exhibitions, royal events, sporting events, etc.) can trigger large impacts on urban development. These help form the history and structure of each city in different ways.

Impacts on urban structure

Major sporting events create impacts in different areas that themselves can have an impact on urban development (Fig. 2). Urban functionalism demands that cities fulfil four functions; *Housing, Labour, Recreation* and *Transportation* (Siebel, 1994). Major sporting events have the potential to develop the urban structure in all functional areas.

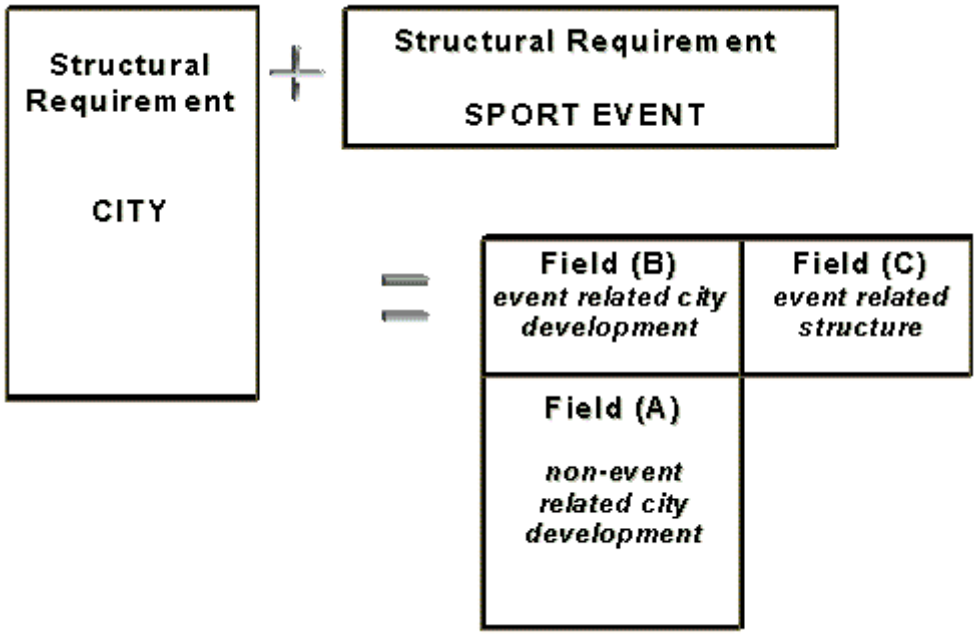


Figure 2: City development and development through large sporting events (Preuss, 2002)

Depending on its structure, some cities can stage major sporting events without a need of change, while others will have to invest substantially. Figure 2 shows three fields where investments can be necessary. ***A*** is the city development that is planned irrespective of the sport event. ***B*** is the structure needed for the sport event, which in any case is planned for the development of the city. ***C*** is the structure that is necessary just for the sport event and is not included in the city's long-term development plan. It is crucial if field ***C*** **i**s so expensive that field ***A*** and ***B*** are negatively affected or slowed down. In case field ***C*** is too large and develops a structure which is not needed in the long-term, then one should be extra careful with bidding for a large sport event. At least if the main objective is to reap long-term economic fruits. Hence, upcoming sporting events create different developmental pressures. Therefore it is important that a city compares its existing long-term development plan with the

necessary event-related structural requirements before it starts to bid and exposes that weakness. Nowadays, many large sporting events generate revenues that cover the operational costs, but not the investments (Preuss, 2004). Hence, most investments have to be financed by public or private entities, sometimes through public-private partnership. However, if a sport event is able to expedite municipal development in a desired direction, a bid can be justified or even needed.

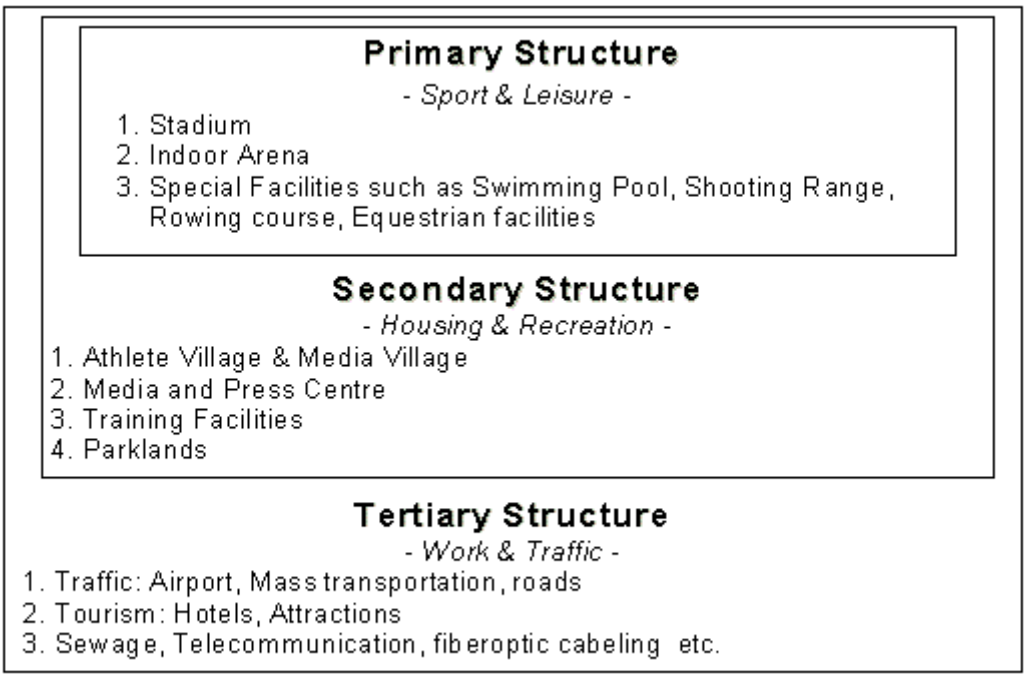


Fig. 3: Primary, secondary and tertiary structural demands of sporting events on cities

The *primary structure* is often built for the sole purpose of hosting the sport event. Therefore it is important to plan the post-event utilization. The construction of stadiums started at the beginning of the 20th century, which is why big cities today often have stadiums. However, these are not sufficient nowadays concerning size, atmosphere, service and hospitality facilities. Modern sport arenas are no longer only functional buildings, but create urban stages for extravaganzas. Since the 1950s sports halls were built in cities. However, today many of them are in deplorable conditions compared to modern arenas. Special sport facilities (e.g. for swimming, shooting, rowing or biking) are often not available in cities if they are needed for large scale events, for example the Olympics. State of the art technology enables the construction of temporary facilities. While this is not new for spectator seating, it is for the facilities. However, the demand for primary structures is an important impact for the development of cities. Modern facilities create an urban living memorial that preserves symbols that are a visible memory of the "festival" for citizens and tourists for decades.

The development of the *secondary structure* is often affected by multi-sports events. In particular it is the function "Housing". For Olympic Games, for instance, whole neighbourhoods are constructed for the athletes and media representatives. In general, the construction of villages results in a gentrification of this part of the city in contrast to the previous use of the area. Additionally, the secondary structure covers the function "Recreation". The arrangement of several sport facilities in one city is often accomplished

through sport parks. These parks offer not only a diverse high quality sport and cultural program for prosperous spectators, but also spaces for "sports for all", recreational and leisure areas through parkland and service infrastructure around the facilities.

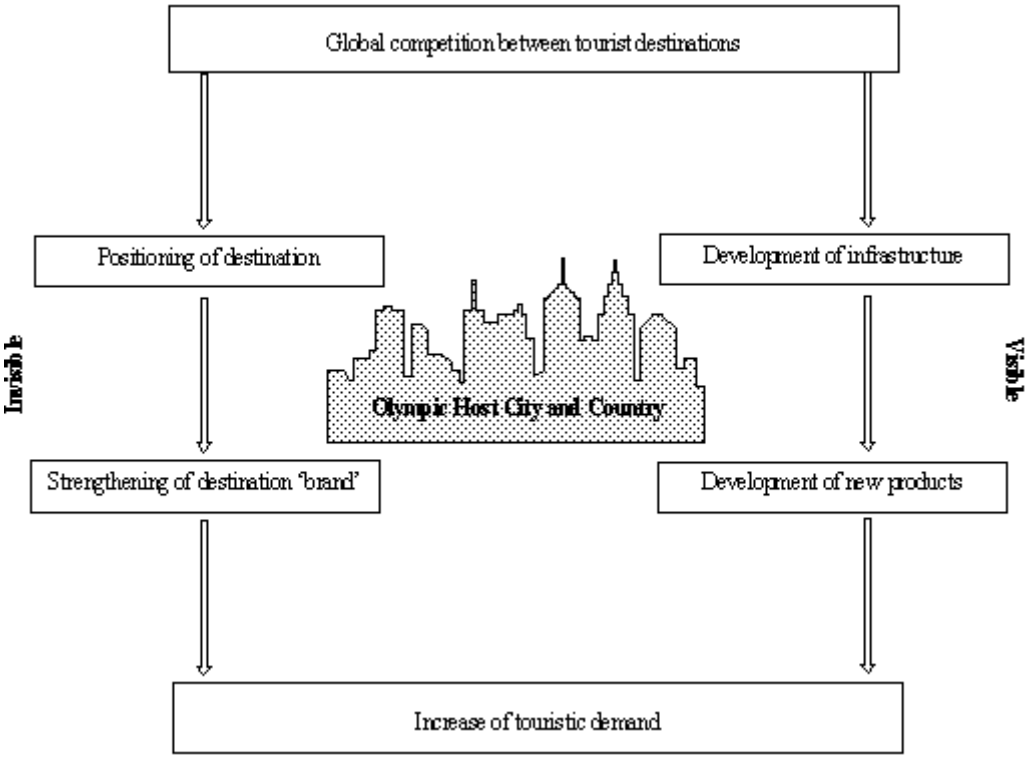
The *tertiary structure* covers all parts that are important to stage large sporting events. This includes tourism structure. Tourists arrive at the airport or train station, stay in hotels, use public transportation, and enjoy the city by night. To set up that structure both "Labour" gets created and "Traffic" is affected. In most cities the tertiary structure, which is necessary to stage single-sporting events, is in existence. Events such as Olympic Games, the Football World Cup, the World Formula One Racing Championships and the Americas Cup have come to assume an increased significance in urban renewal strategies (Essex & Chalkley, 1999). These huge events create decisive impact on tertiary structure for almost all cities.

3.2 Soft infrastructure changes

For tourism, three skills can be trained through the hosting of a major sport event:

a) Human resources for service: training of hospitality for volunteers, additional staff for hotels.
b) Skills to win more competitions for congresses and fairs and other sporting events.
c) Skills to provide a safe environment: Volunteers improve their skills to detect insecure situations by their training for the mega sport event. The local police receive better equipment and the overall network of security works better by setting up a network with national and international anti terrorist forces.

These factors guarantee the quality of the new tourism products, while the hard infrastructure is often necessary to establish the new "tourist product" at all.



Source: Modified from Keller (2001, p. 30).

Figure 4: Potential 'tourism legacy' for a host city/region

The left side of Figure 4 shows how a destination can be positioned through mega sporting events. It should be the aim for a host city or host nation to strengthen its brand, in particular to make the tourist profile more interesting. The right side shows the location factors. Tourism infrastructure, such as parks, pedestrian zones, sports facilities, public transportation, tourist attractions or the airport will often improve through major sporting events and in particular hallmark events. Additionally, soft location factors such as more skilled service personal in the tourism industry or tourism related knowledge and networks in sports that support winning other events after the major event is over. Finally it is of importance for the long-term, that new or upgraded "tourism products" will be developed: for example, the attraction of additional sporting events, fairs or exhibitions, festivals or concerts staged in the new facilities and congress centres.

A strengthened image, increased awareness, new and upgraded infrastructure and additional tourist products, such as those in Barcelona and Sydney (Boyle, 2001, p. 5), combined with soft factors of a good service quality have a great potential to increase tourism in the long-term. However, to what extent depends on the ability to use the promotion effects to leverage tourism.

Organisers of sporting events only have restricted control over the factors that influence the *long-term tourism impacts*. Both the production of the tourist product and the image of the destination will be influenced by the city and the broader environment, as seen in Fig. 5.

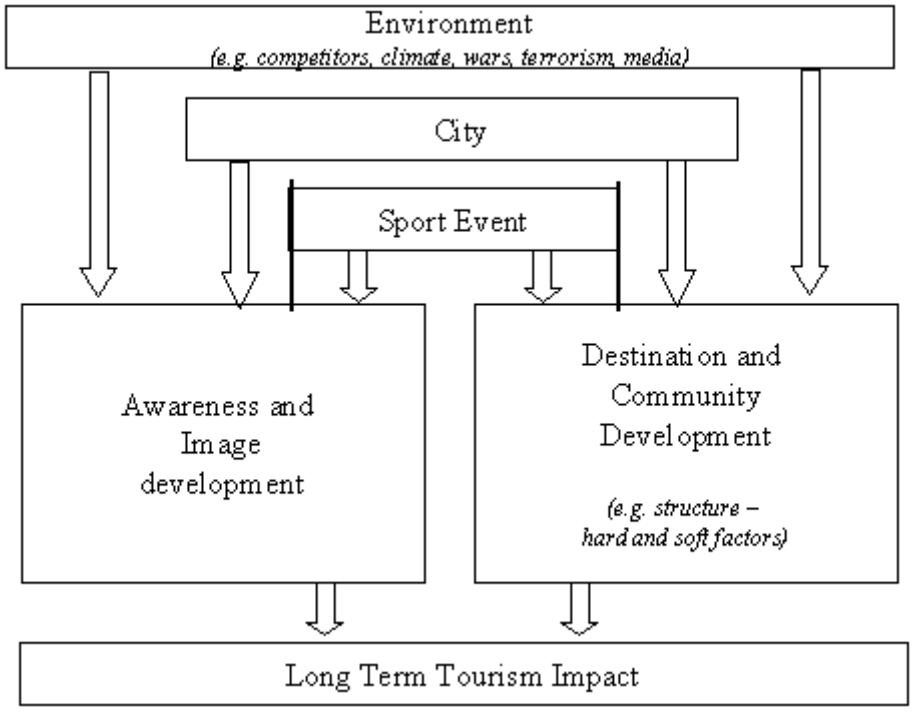


Figure 5: Factors influencing the outcome of tourism related city development

The event is a short time flash in the history of the city. Preparing a mega sport event, however, takes several years and immense investments. The event changes infrastructure, but only that which is supposed to be needed in a long-term development. Additional infrastructure (field ***C*** in Fig. 2) should be constructed temporarily or reconstructed to serve other purposes after the event. Awareness will be influenced by the image transported, which in turn is influenced by event organizers.

The city needs an infrastructure not just to serve what is necessary for the event (field ***A*** in Fig. 2). Additionally, not all the event related structure can serve tourism. For example, there are telecommunication requirements, housing for athletes and media etc. that are required for the event. Cities should plan for post event tourism and also construct that infrastructure that is needed but not for the sport event, such as museums, tourist attractions, shopping malls etc. (field ***A*** in Fig. 2).

The environment is the most unpredictable factor. Wars, economic crises and other events can have considerable impacts. Even if a certain image impact is most likely to be transported through the sport event, the environment can change it. There is terrorism and crime that can result in tourists trying to avoid a destination or reduce travelling in general, such as the "September-Eleven" effect. There is for example the SARS-epidemic that decreased tourism from China to Australia etc. There can also be political behaviour that might spoil the image, or organisational problems that cause media representatives to write badly about the city. Natural disasters, such as the Tsunami that hit several Asian nations at the end of 2004, represent another example.

4. Welfare economic impacts from inbound tourism

Inbound tourism can cause welfare economic impacts within the host region in several ways. This is not confined to revenues received by local producers and the public sector, but also to local residents. Bear in mind that many tourist-goods are also purchased by local residents, for example local transport and restaurant meals. Hence, any price increases in goods and services that are caused by post-event tourists will influence the welfare of local residents.

In order to illustrate the welfare economic consequences in the local economy, we will now present a simplified model. Here, we imagine the tourism-product to be one single product, which of course if a strong simplification. Furthermore, we also assume that the supply side only consists of local producers.

The situation is illustrated in Fig. 6, where D_0 represents the initial demand curve, curve while S_0 is the initial supply curve. P_0,Q_0 represents the market equilibrium at this stage. This gives a producer surplus equal to the aeP_0-area, while the consumer surplus is equal to the P_0eh-area. However, as the group of consumers both includes local residents and tourists, the entire consumer surplus is not a regional benefit. Hence, only the proportion that devolves to local residents is a part of the regional socio-economic surplus.

Let us now imagine that the event stimulates tourism so that there is a shift in demand from D_0 to D_1. This brings about a new equilibrium in P_1,Q_1. The producer surplus increases with an area equal to the P_0egP_1-area, while the consumer surplus is reduced with an area equal to P_0efP_1. Firstly, this reduction hits tourists that otherwise would have come to the region, but now stay away due to higher price level. Secondly, it also hits local residents that are crowded out from the market because of the price increase. Hence, a proportion of the growth in the producer surplus is only an internal transfer from local residents, and not any additional regional gain.

The next stage in the process is a positive shift in the supply curve – from S_0 to S_1. We can imagine that producers in the tourism industry become more optimistic and thus invest more,

for example in new hotels and restaurants. This lowers the price, with P_2, Q_2 being the new equilibrium. It is a coincidence that the new price, P_2 is equal to the initial price P_0. If the shifts in demand and supply had been different, the two prices would also have been different. This new solution "repairs" the reduction in consumer surplus that occurred in the former case. Hence, the consumer surplus of local residents will now be at the same level as it was initially. The net effect on the producer surplus is uncertain because of two contradictory effects. The shift in the supply curve reduces the price, which in itself reduces income. On the other hand, more products are being sold. Hence, the net effect depends on which of the two effects are strongest. However, compared to the P_0,Q_0-solution, the producer surplus will increase.

At the last and final stage, a negative shift will occur in demand. We can imagine the promotion effects diminish some time after the event. In order to avoid overloading the figure with curves, we let the demand-curve shift back to its original position, so that $D_0 = D_2$. Another (and may be more likely) alternative would be to almost shift back to the original position. In the new equilibrium, P_3,Q_3, the producer surplus will be lower than at any other solution, while the consumer surplus will be higher than in the initial solution. In other words, the over-investments reduce the profit of local producers compared to the original situation before the event.

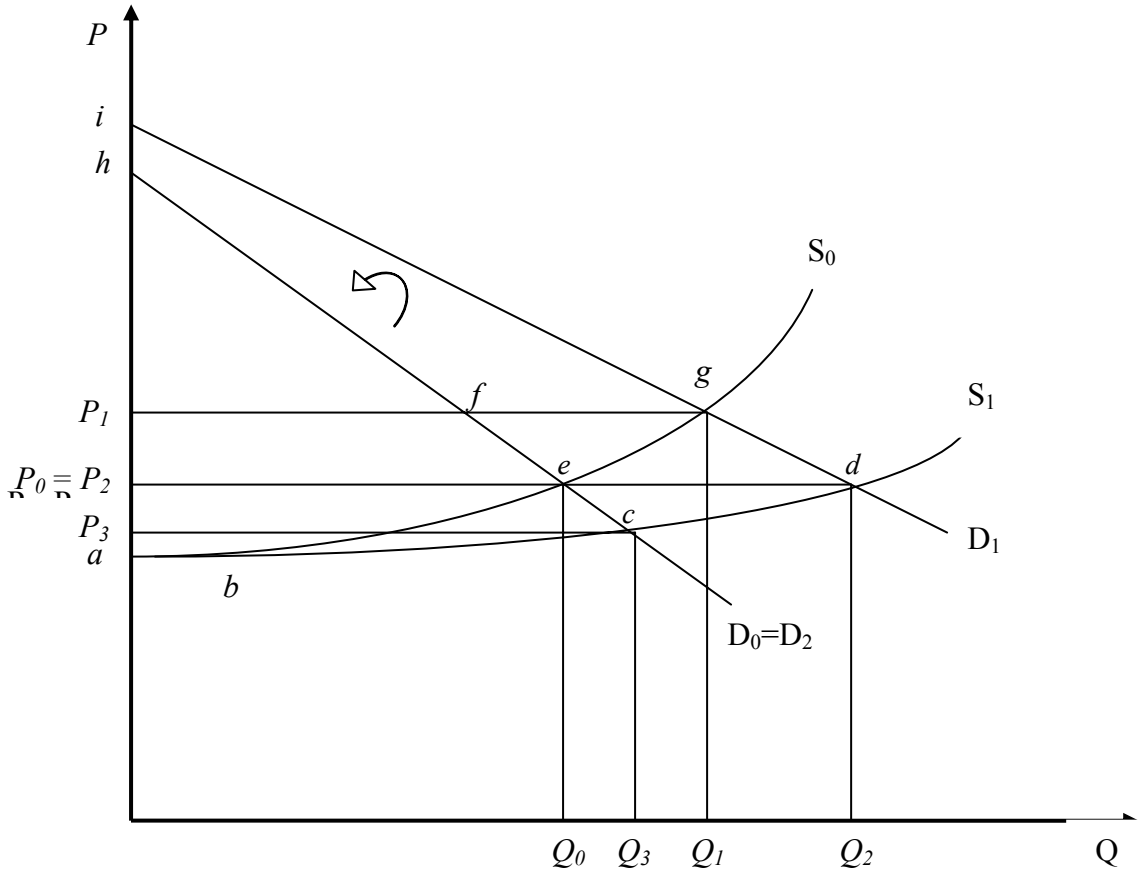
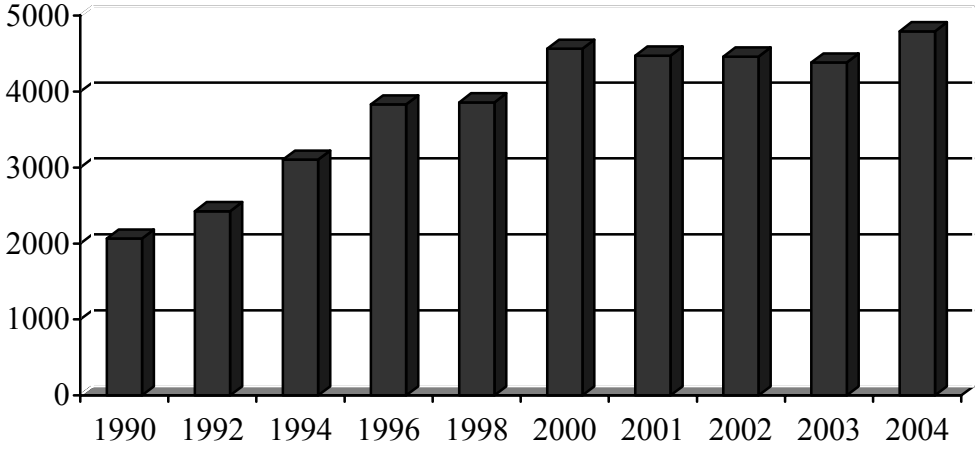


Fig. 6: Demand and supply - tourist products

The development that is elaborated in Fig. 6 is not unusual. Increase in long-term tourism demand from sporting events has been documented on several occasions. Seoul and Barcelona both experienced such effects after hosting the Summer Olympics (Kang & Perdue, 1994; Hyaun, 1998; Brunet, 1995). Australia had a steady growth in inbound tourism during the years leading up to the 2000 Olympics, as seen from Fig. 6. This, however, also includes the 1990-1993 period, which was before Sydney was elected as host. The figure also shows a slight decrease for the first three years after the Games. New South Wales (the host state), experienced a stagnation for the first two years after the Games in terms of number of foreign visitors, but a slight increase in bed-nights. Of course, one has to be careful with crediting the Olympics for any growth as well as decrease. As mentioned above, international tourism was hit by the SARS-epidemic and the September 11 effect during the first post-Games years, which are both likely to have affected inbound tourism to Australia. Sydney benefited from substantial growth in MICE-activities, according to Chalip (2002).

Figure 7: Inbound tourism to Australia (1000-visitors)
(source: Bureau of Tourism Research Australia)



Calgary and Albertville also experienced increases in post-event tourism following the Winter Olympics, but to our knowledge it is unclear whether this was due to the Olympics or other reasons (Richard & Friend, 1995; Teigland, 1996). Lillehammer, the host of the 1994 Winter Olympics, enjoyed increases in both pre- and post- event tourism. However, here the post-event impacts turned out to considerably lower than what was predicted before the event.

The character of *induced tourism* makes such activities difficult to identify. Nevertheless, there are indications of some cities being successful. Barcelona was ranked as the 11th most attractive city in Europe in order to locate a business in 1990 and as number 6 in 2000.[1] Atlanta has succeeded in attracting major corporate offices to the region[2]. The same applies to Lace Placid which hosted the 1980 Winter Olympics. Lillehammer, on the other hand, has not been able to attract new businesses following the 1994 Winter Games – at least not to the

[1] Sananhuja, Ramon (2002): *Barcelona – An Olympic City – The city strategy 10 years after the Olympic Games in 1992*. Paper presented at: The International conference on "Sporting events & Economic Impact", Copenhagen, Denmark, April 2002
[2] travel.utah.gov/Olympic_Marketing_Focus.prn.pdf

extent they hoped. (Spilling, 2000) This illustrates that it takes more than a mega event to persuade private companies to relocate their activity to cities that have only a few thousand inhabitants.

The profitability of long-term impacts also depends on the activity at the supply side, as was illustrated in Fig. 5. Too many investments resulting from too much optimism can reduce the profitability considerably. Indeed, recent event history contains several examples of substantial growth at the supply side. One example was Barcelona, where the tourism industry went through a period of reduced profitability in the first years after the 1992 Games, due to the growth of hotels, despite a strong growth in demand (Brunet, 1995). However, this was outbalanced by positive long-term effects throughout the 1990s. Sydney experienced a growth of 40 % in hotel rooms during the five years leading up the Games[3]. This has not been accompanied by an equivalent growth in inbound tourism as seen in Table 6. The Lillehammer-Games is an excellent example where unrealistic optimism caused over investments in the local hotel sector. These investments have reduced the profitability in the post-event period considerably (Teigland, 1996).

Facilities where production has *economies of scale* advantages

The extra demand that is generated by sporting events can generate welfare economic advantages for goods and services where the production has economies of scale advantages. This is illustrated in Fig. 8, which refer to a model where the demand side is split in two categories; namely local residents and tourists.

Variables:
MR_{L+T} = Marginal revenues (from local residents and tourists)
MC = Marginal costs
AC = Average costs
D_L = Demand-curve local residents
D_{L+T} = Demand-curve local residents and tourists
Q_L = Quantity purchased by locals
Q_{L+T} = Quantity purchased by locals and tourist

For such goods, the shift in demand from (additional) tourists can make the production profitable. The market equilibrium, and hence also the welfare economic effects, depend on the price policy of the producer. A profit maximising company will adjust the production so that the marginal revenues, MR_{L+T}, equal the marginal costs, *MC*, at price-quantity solution of P_1,Q_1. The result of this is a *local consumer surplus* equivalent to the triangle P_1ab and a producer-surplus equivalent to $(P_{L+T} - AC)*Q_{L+T}$.

As another alternative we can imagine that the objective of the producer is to maximise the production, given the budget constraint (break-even). This could be the case for products that are supplied by the public sector. If so, the total production will be at Q_2, of which Q_{2L} will be sold to local residents. Such a solution reduces the price to P_2 and increases the (local) consumer surplus to P_2cb. Since the producer makes no profit in the break-even solution, the consumer surplus represents the entire welfare economic surplus.

[3] Financial Times, Australia, 28 August, 2000

Irrespective of which price policy the producer adopts, it is the demand from tourists that makes it possible to produce such goods without having to subsidise the producers. Indeed, it is thanks to the tourists that local residents will be offered goods and services that they otherwise would have to consume outside the region.

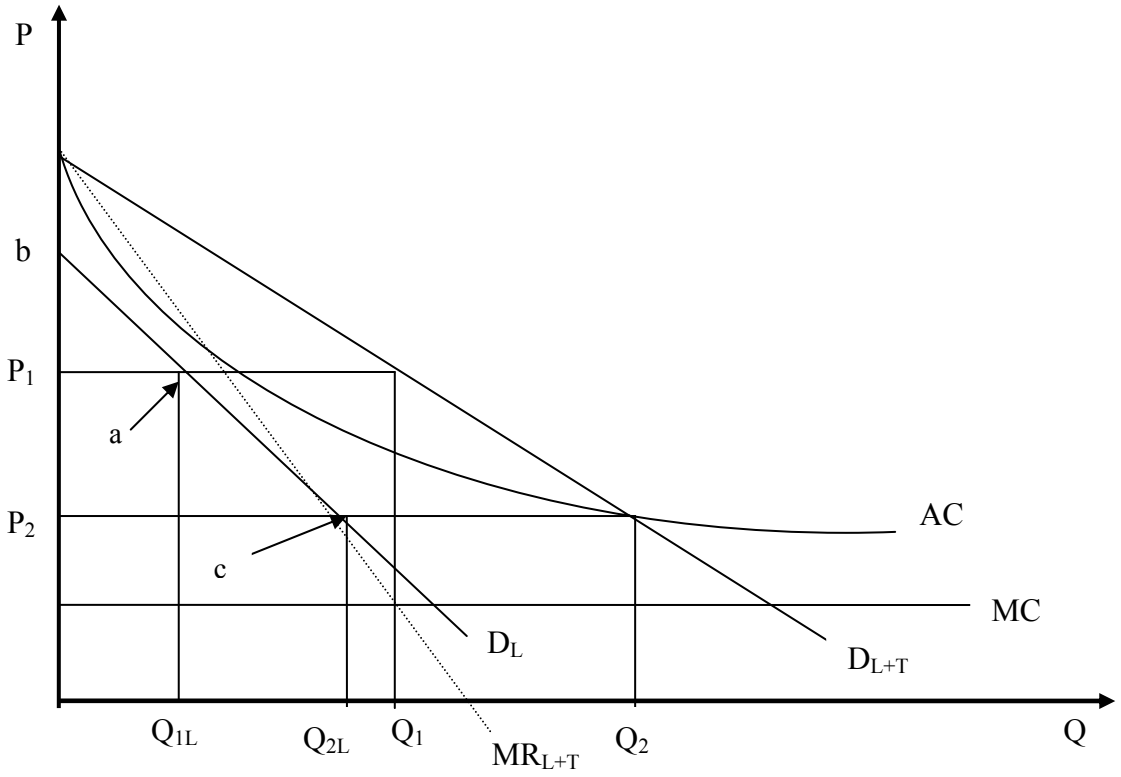


Fig. 8: Economies of scale production

There are several examples of such facilities, which can cover all the three fields in Fig. 2. This includes event related structure, for example building new or upgrading existing sport facilities. Additionally, it can also include investments in city development, for example the upgrading of local transport systems. Sydney, Atlanta, Barcelona, Seoul, Lillehammer, Montreal and Münich all spent substantially on infrastructure measures in connection with their hosting of the Olympic Games.

However, while some cities have benefited considerably from such investments, others have not. As in the former figure, it cannot be taken for granted that the increase that is generated by the event is permanent – at least not on the level that is necessary to cover the investment costs. Some event organisers seem to be overoptimistic with respect to the number of post event effects that will follow after the main event. Hence, there is obviously a risk of negative shifts in demand, as illustrated in Fig. 6.

In general, it is international sport governing bodies that elect the hosts of such events. In recent years, the competition has become very fierce as the numbers of applicants have increased. Thus, establishing stadiums and other sport facilities does not guarantee that the destination will be elected as the host of major sporting events in the future. As an example, Lillehammer has three times applied unsuccessfully for FIS's Alpine-skiing World Championship after hosting the Winter Games in 1994.

South Korea built ten new stadiums for the 2002 World Cup soccer finals at a total cost of US$ 1.5 billion. The stadiums had a seating capacity of between 40,000 and 68,000. This is far beyond the average attendances at the domestic professional soccer league in Korea (average 3,000 spectators). Since the 2002 FIFA World cup, only five of the ten stadiums have been used regularly. Japan, the co-host of the 2002 FIFA World cup finals built seven new stadiums and refurbished three others – at a cost of US$ 2.9 billion. However, the average crowd for Japanese J-league matches so far has been 16,000, while the stadiums have capacities varying from 42,000 to 70,000 seats (Sir Norman Chester Centre for Football[4]; Jones Lang Salle, 2001).

The main ice hockey arena at the 1994 Winter Games had a capacity of 12,000 seats, which is more than 50% of the local population. Similarly, the indoor skating arena in a neighbouring city, which was also built for the Olympics, had a capacity that exceeds the capacity needed in a city of 20,000 inhabitants. Albertville**,** which is the same size as Lillehammer, also had to tear down many of the arenas that were built for the 1992 Winter Games.[5] In Barcelona, the diving and baseball facilities had to be torn down because of under-utilisation. In Atlanta, the Olympic track was torn up shortly after the Games, while the Olympic stadium was converted for professional baseball in order to generate sufficient revenues to survive. Also the Olympic swimming venue has struggled to meet its operating expenses. In Sydney, the two main stadiums constructed for the Games will require 200 events per year to cover costs – more than double the rate of bookings in 2001 and 2002. Sydney's Olympic swimming pool is so expensive to rent that the national championships were scheduled for an alternative (and cheaper) Sydney venue (Chalip, 2002). These examples clearly illustrate the gaps between the capacity that is needed for the event and the post-event period. As seen, this is not confined to small cities, but also to world metropolitans.

Are sporting events a job for the public sector?

The tourism industry differs from other economic activities regarding what it is that makes it an industry. Indeed, it is the tourists that tie the producers together to be an industry. They purchases several (not one) products from a range of different suppliers. This also means that a complementary relationship exists in demand. As a consequence the producers will originate market externalities for each other. If one of them attracts more tourists, the income of other producers also increases. However, when such externalities occur, the aggregate profit for all producers will not be maximised unless the actions at the supply side are coordinated. Individual profit maximisers will not take into account whether their actions can initiate market externalities for other producers.

Many facilities and attractions that attract tourists are not operated by firms within the tourist industry. Indeed, one example of this is sporting events, which can generate considerable revenues given the rights circumstances. However, a large proportion of these revenues will be received by bodies other than the event organisers. The potential event organiser will emphasise its own income and costs – not the market externalities for other industries, when deciding whether to apply for it or not. Therefore, events that could have been profitable for the destination as a unit can get lost – if potential event-organisers expect to be unable to cover the costs.

[4] www.le.ac.uk/footballresearch/resources/ factsheets/fs12.html
[5] www.nationmaster.com/encyclopedia/Albertville

Many of the impacts that the events can create fall into the category of *public goods.* Such goods are characterised by the *non-rivalling* and *non-excluding* criteria. As an example, there is no internal rivalry related to the promotion of the host destination. If one hotel benefits from it, this does not prevent other hotels from doing the same. It will be impossible to exclude local hotels to benefit from this promotion. The same applies to other impacts that benefit others, for example improvement of city-related infrastructure. All local residents and industries will benefit from an upgrading of the city's local transportation, for example extending (or building new) railways, new roads, improving the airport, and similar efforts.

The financing of such investments, however, can be hit by the *free rider* problem, which can make it difficult to establish procedures to finance such efforts among those that benefit from the impacts (Olson, 1971). For profit maximising producers the ideal solution will be that others take the responsibility of financing the costs. However, if this motive characterises all producers, the production of the goods and services that create these impacts will be under-optimal.

This potential conflict between individual and collective rationality represents a rationale for governmental intervention, for example by subsidising sporting events. On the other hand, the prospect of receiving financial support provides local representatives with motives to exaggerate the benefits when reporting to the governmental sector, hoping that this can bring in more support. This is also an example of *asymmetric information,* a phenomenon that is well-known from the principal-agent theory. Many governments aim to stimulate the economy across the entire nation and thus support activities that generate positive economic effects. In an ideal (rational) world, however, the government would only be willing to support the activity as long as the aggregate socio-economic return exceeds the socio-economic costs. The destination, however (as a unity) – wants to adjust the production so that the returns exceed the costs the destination pays itself – not including the costs that are paid for by the government. This provides local actors with motives to exaggerate the positive impacts when predicting the benefits that can occur from hosting the event.

These elements explain why the idea of hosting major sporting events often receives overwhelming support from applicant destinations as well as from firms that expect to benefit from them – particularly the local tourism industry. As documented by Crompton (1995) among others, many pitfalls exist that can give a false impression that events are more beneficial for the host region than they really are.

However, it is not an easy decision for the governmental sector to decide which activities to support, and by how much. On one hand, there is the risk of being too restrictive and hence prevent events that could have been profitable for the region. On the other hand, by not taking into account that some actors will benefit from exaggerating the positive impacts, there is a risk that too many events will receive too much support. Balancing these two contradictory effects can prove difficult.

5. Concluding remarks

Many cities will have to spend substantially on upgrading their infrastructure to host major sporting events. Although the events can create welfare economic gains, for example through long-term tourism impacts, this does not guarantee that the benefits will automatically exceed the costs. Mega events such as the Olympics and World Cup soccer finals will require

extremely expensive investments, in sport related facilities as well as in non-sport city-related facilities. There is obviously a risk that the investments in sport facilities become so large and expensive that investments in city related requirements are slowed down. This particularly applies to cities of a small size, which often find it extremely difficult to meet the peak demand during the event. Some might be able to offload the peak demand by means of temporary facilities. However, it is important that potential host cities compare their existing long-term development plan with the necessary event-related structural requirements before bidding on major events. Large sporting events might generate revenues that cover the operational costs, but not the investments.

It is well documented that major sporting events can stimulate short-term inbound tourism. Indeed there can also be long-term effects, given the right circumstances. Such impacts will benefit local hotels and restaurants as well as other industries that serve tourists. In addition, it can provide local residents with more goods and services where the production has *economies of scale advantages*. This applies to products that require expensive investments, and where the demand from locals is insufficient to cover the costs at any level. In that way, local residents can be offered goods and services they otherwise could only have consumed outside the region.

However, there are many factors that can trip up the long-term effects. Some will be influenced by decisions taken by actors that are directly and indirectly involved in the event. It is important to bear in mind that the promotion effect created by the event will not last forever. Attracting more tourists in the post-event period might require considerable investments, for example in new facilities and also an upgrading of the local infrastructure, which in turn can make the city a more attractive place to locate new business in.

However, one also finds examples where inbound tourism has been hit by unforeseen incidents, for example the *September 11 effect* and the SARS-epidemic. Applicants to major sporting events should bear in mind that such uncertainties are a part of the picture. This also makes the investments in tourism promotion efforts risky. In addition, some event organisers seem to have unrealistic expectations about the promotion effects that such events can create.

Finally, there is a rationale for public sector to support the hosting of major sporting events. This is based on objectives of avoiding market failures that are related to the financing of public goods. Although sporting events can be beneficial for the host region as a whole, the actors that benefit most can be driven by free-rider motives – which in turn can make it difficult to finance the costs of hosting them. This represents a welfare economic rationale for the public sector to support the event financially. However, the prospect of financial support from the public sector also provides local actors with motives of exaggerating the benefits.

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Event Evaluation Studies and Techniques

Methodological Considerations in Pretesting Social Impact Questionnaires: Reporting on the use of focus groups

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Abstract

In recent years there has been a shift in focus towards greater recognition of the social consequences of events. Most of this research has resulted in the innovative development of empirical scales to measure resident perceptions of social impacts. The instruments that are used in these studies are well reported within the literature. However, it has been found that there is limited reporting of the methodological tools used for pretesting these instruments. It is argued in this paper that there is a requirement for more detailed accounts of pretesting techniques to be included in methodological reporting. In doing so, the method of data collection can be assured and other researchers can readily replicate the studies. This is important, as an understanding of phenomena will progress more productively if researchers are able to follow, and build on, other empirical analyses.

This paper focuses on the methodological reports of social impact event studies to demonstrate this issue. Therefore the paper has four aims. First, a review of methodological frameworks within the existing literature for pretesting social impact instruments is presented. Second, the paper details the use of Focus Groups as a tool for pretesting social impact questionnaires on two community music festivals. Third, the results of the pretest are presented in terms of the changes made to the questionnaire items based on pretest feedback. Fourth, the benefits and limitations of this technique

Keywords: Pretesting questionnaires, Focus group techniques, social impact studies

Introduction

In the past five years there has been a greater appreciation for the range of social impacts that an event has on its host community. The study of social impacts resulting from festivals and events is necessary because of the important role that these impacts play in the overall success of a festival (McDonnell, Allen & O'Toole, 1999; Hall, 1993). Getz (1997), Delamere Wankel and Hinch (2001), Douglas, Douglas and Derrett (2001) have argued that negative social impacts arising from festivals and events such as, traffic congestion, parking problems, and overcrowded local facilities, serve to disrupt the lives of locals for the duration of the festival or event. While social problems which occur as a consequence of the festival or event, such as crime and vandalism, represent decreasing levels of safety for the host community, and can result in a growing level of local hostility towards festival and event visitors and negativity towards the festival or event (Delamere et al, 2001; Douglas et al, 2001).

In small communities, where the local residents play a significant role, as both host and participant, social impacts can be important in determining the level of support for the festival from the resident population. A lack of consideration given to the social impacts of an event can result in a dissatisfied local community, which is likely to create negative implications for the success and long-term sustainability of the event.

Acknowledging that there are other methods available for studying an event's social impacts, this paper will focus on the use of questionnaires, and the related needs for pretesting. In order to measure resident perceptions of the social consequences of festivals and events research has focused on the innovative development of empirical scales (Fredline, 2000; Delamere et al, 2001; Fredline, Jago & Deery, 2003; Small & Edwards, 2003). These scales are incorporated into questionnaires which seek to measure residents' perceptions of social impacts. It is common for first drafts of questionnaires to comprise ambiguous, loaded, or double-barrelled questions, lack important variables or response options, and be too lengthy (Aaker, Kumar & Day, 2004). In order to overcome these problems a pretest of the questionnaire is recommended. The "objective of the questionnaire pretest is to identify and correct these deficiencies" (Aaker et al, 2004, p. 328). Pretesting refers to "a trial run with a group of respondents to iron out fundamental problems in the survey design" (Zikmund, 2000, p. 273). Therefore pretesting becomes an important part of any study to ensure methodological and content validity. Essentially, pretesting is conducted to "ascertain how well the questionnaire works" (Hunt, Sparkman, & Wilcox, 1982, p. 269). It enables the researcher to determine if categories, items, and questions are valid and reliable. Essentially the researcher is checking to see if the tool works (Jennings, 2001).

Pretesting then, is important as without this step, a number of serious problems may arise including poor data collection, wasting of valuable resources, time and respondent contribution and analysis and conclusions will have limited value. Additionally, if others are to replicate and build on existing studies then it is important that they have access to all the information about those studies. This paper argues that equal importance be placed on the reporting of pretest methodologies as for reporting

the final instruments used. As Sherwood, Jago and Deery state "this area (social impact evaluation) has not yet reached the critical mass of economic evaluations" (2004, p. 681). Therefore, with social impact evaluations of festivals and events in their infancy it requires researchers to report the full methodological tools and outcomes that were utilised in their studies. Reporting on pretesting methodology will make an important contribution to the development of social impact evaluation tools as other researchers are able to replicate, test and improve on existing methods and instruments. At this point, it is important to differentiate between a pretest and a pilot study. Whilst a pretest examines the functioning of a specific research instrument, a pilot study is actually a small scale test of some aspect of the research design (Zikmund, 2000).

This paper has four aims. First, it presents a review of methodological frameworks reported within the existing literature for pretesting social impact instruments. Second, the paper details the use of Focus Groups as a tool for pretesting social impact perception questionnaires on two community music festivals. Third, the results of the pretest are presented in terms of the changes made to the questionnaire items based on pretest feedback. The changes made to the questionnaire on the basis of the pretest feedback are detailed. Finally the benefits and limitations of this technique as a methodological tool for pretesting social impact questionnaires are discussed.

Pretesting Social Impact Instruments

Although there are a number of methods available for researchers wishing to study the social impacts of festivals and events, a growing area is that which uses social impact scales. This literature was reviewed to identify the types of methods used for pretesting social impact perception instruments, and the level of detail in the reporting of those instruments. Studies on social impact scale development have been conducted and reported by Fredline (2000), Delamere et al (2001), Fredline et al (2003) and Small and Edwards (2003). These scales were developed in response to the growing concern for increased standardisation of methods and measures in understanding residents' attitudes to festivals and events (Delamere, 1997; Sherwood, Jago & Deery, 2005).

Delamere et al (2001) built upon existing tourism impact literature to develop a Festival Social Impact Attitude Scale (FSIAS). This scale was developed with the aim of providing for "the measurement and interpretation of resident perceptions of social impacts of community-based festivals" (Delamere et al, 2001, p. 12). The authors reported pretesting the scale using "63 Recreation Administration and Tourism Studies students from Malaspina University-College in Nanaimo, British Columbia" (Delamere et al, 2001, p. 14). They explained that ethics approval was obtained and cover letters and consent forms were distributed to the 63 participants, identified using a convenience sample method. However, the paper does not describe the specific methods used to conduct the pretest, for example, mail survey, personal interview etc. It only mentions that students were instructed to "respond to the scale items in the context of a festival with which they were familiar" (Delamere et al, 2001, p. 14). The authors provided a discussion of the analysis conducted on the pretest data and stated that they were concerned that the pretest sample may be quite

different to those respondents who would take part in the final study. Consequently they ran a second pretest on the scale items, using "118 Recreation and Leisure Studies students from the University of Alberta in Edmonton, Alberta" (Delamere et al, 2001, p. 17). This sample was given the same instructions and they ran the same analysis on the results, however, again they did not describe the tool that was used to pretest the questionnaire. As a result, future researchers are not informed as to an appropriate method for pretesting the same or a similar instrument in another study.

Fredline (2000) developed an instrument used to investigate "the ways in which local residents react to the staging of a major sporting event within their community" (p. iv). The instrument consists of three parts that measure 1) the overall impacts of the event, 2) the specific impacts of the event, and 3) the independent variables (including contact with tourists, participation, identification with the theme and demographic variables). Fredline (2000) reported on a pilot test of this instrument. "A pilot test of 100 respondents was undertaken using the same sampling methods intended for the main survey" (Fredline, 2000, p. 71). However there is no detail provided on the methodology that was used to pilot the questionnaire. The reader is able to infer details from the method section including: that the pilot study drew its 100 respondents from the state electoral rolls using disproportionate stratified random sampling; and it may be assumed that the pilot was carried out via a mail survey, since this was the intended method for the main survey. There is some discussion of the findings from the pilot test with respondents reporting confusion surrounding the wording of several questions and commenting that the format of the questionnaire was "cluttered and confusing" (Fredline, 2000, p. 71). Based on these findings, changes were made to the instrument, including the wording used and a change in format from portrait to landscape, to address the concern for its cluttered appearance (Fredline, 2000).

Fredline et al (2003) developed an instrument based on Fredline (2000) to compare the social impacts of three medium to large-scale events. This study was undertaken with the aim of testing and validating "an instrument that can be used to compare the social impacts of a variety of events" (Fredline et al 2003, p. 23). Because the 2003 study was replicating Fredline (2000) the authors state that limited attention was given to the pretesting process as their instrument "drew very heavily upon an instrument that was used successfully in previous research (Fredline, 2000; Fredline & Faulkner 2002), and they considered there to be no need to employ an extensive pre/pilot testing phase" (Fredline et al, 2003, p. 30). However, they say that the instrument was pretested with "an appropriate group for comprehension and ease of completion" (Fredline et al, 2003, p. 30). Consequently researchers are not appropriately informed as to the method used to pretest the instrument, who the 'appropriate group' of respondents were, or how they were selected.

Small and Edwards (2003) developed a questionnaire and scale now referred to as the Social Impact Perception scale (SIP). The questionnaire and scale were developed to measure residents' perceptions of the socio-cultural impacts arising from community held festivals and events. The instrument was piloted on a small community festival in the Southern Highlands of New South Wales. The method for conducting the final instrument was the Delphi technique and there is extensive detail provided as to the piloting of the instrument. However, little information is provided on the pretesting of

the questionnaire. For the pretest they state that the questionnaire was undertaken by "four colleagues, from the tourism program at the University of Western Sydney and a sample of 10 community members from the Southern Highlands" (Small & Edwards, 2003, p. 585). They go on to say that these 10 respondents were not included in the final Delphi panel. Although extensive detail is provided on the development of the questionnaire, they do not say what method was used for pretesting the questionnaire, nor as a result, comment on any changes that were subsequently made to the questionnaire. Again future researchers are ill informed as to an appropriate method that could be used for pretesting an instrument that measures the social impacts of festivals and events.

The review of these studies is not meant as a criticism of each author's work but to demonstrate that there is a lack of reporting of the methods used for the pretesting of these scales. Consequently, it makes it difficult for future researchers to evaluate the usefulness of these methods or to replicate and build on these earlier studies. In support of this argument this paper will now report on pretest methodology which was used for a wider study that examines the socio-cultural impacts arising from two Australian community based festivals; one in Western Australia (A) and the other in Victoria (B).

Pretesting the Social Impact Perception Scale

The aim of this research was to pretest the Social Impact Perception Scale (SIP) developed by Small & Edwards (2003). The pretest was designed to address the five fundamental issues of pretesting as suggested by Hunt et al (1982); (1) what items should be pretested?, (2) who should conduct the pretest? (3) what method should be used for the pretest? (4) who should participate in the pretest? and (5) what is an appropriate sample size for the pretest?

What items should be pretested?

According to Aaker et al (2004) there are two categories of items to be pretested. First, items pertaining to the questionnaire itself, including questionnaire length, layout, format, and readability. Second, individual questions should be tested. Here the researcher should be looking for loaded, ambiguous, and double-barrelled questions, missing response options, relevance, and unintentional biases. The pretest focused on testing for respondent interest and attention; whether the flow of the questionnaire was clear and logical; that the length of the questionnaire was suitable; that instructions were clear; that response formats did not have too high a degree of difficulty; that the formatting and layout of the questionnaire was appealing; and that the wording of questions as well as their intent was clear (Aaker et al, 2004).

Also important, was to test for content validity of questionnaire items. That is, the items were relevant to the particular case being studied. As the questionnaire was developed through a literature review and a previous study (Small and Edwards 2003) there was a chance that some items would not be relevant for these two communities. Therefore respondents in the pretest were further instructed to consider whether the items outlined in the questionnaire were relevant to their festival and community. As the same questionnaire was to be applied across both communities, it was essential for the moderator to be mindful of the possibility that items which applied to one

community, may not apply to the other community. Therefore, it required the moderator to monitor all item changes, for potential differences between each community, and if required, to raise them for discussion in the latter part of the focus groups.

Who should conduct the pretest?

It is important that the person who conducts the pretest has knowledge of the wider research study, the specific instrument being pretested, and be the most comfortable with the instrument being pretested. As the study contributes to the fulfilment of a doctoral thesis, the pretest was conducted by the doctoral candidate. They are the most familiar with their own research and the instrument, and are closest to the research study being undertaken.

What method should be used for the pretest?

Hunt et al, (1982) suggest that the pretesting of a questionnaire should be conducted via personal interviews, regardless of the final administration method for the questionnaire. "Personal interviews enable the interviewer to notice reactions, hesitations, and other cues by the respondent that could not be obtained via telephone or mail" (Hunt et al, 1982, p. 270). These plus other benefits can be gained where interviews are conducted with groups of people. Focus groups are a flexible tool that can be used in a variety of contexts and within a range of research paradigms. Focus groups are regarded as being particularly effective in capturing complexities within a given context and to explore how participants value and define key concepts, in their own words (Thomas 2004). According to Gomm (2004) "the hallmark of focus groups is the explicit use of group interaction to produce data and insights that would be less accessible without the interaction found in a group" (p. 172). Thus, group discussion was identified as being the most efficient way to test an important aspect of the questionnaire; the relevance of impact items for each community.

According to Aaker et al (2004) when using focus groups as a pretest tool "three to four group sessions are usually sufficient" (p. 198). They argue that this is because a great deal is gained from the first session, while subsequent sessions may produce more information, but with less that is new, rather, "much of what is said has been heard before, and there is little to be gained from additional focus groups" (p. 199). One afternoon and one evening focus group were held in each community. A neutral location was used to hold the focus groups. In one community they were held in the conference room of the local tourism bureau, and in the other, they were held in the meeting room of a local hotel. Who participated, how many participated, and how participants were chosen are addressed in the following sections on 'who should participate in the pretest' and 'sample size of the pretest'.

A requirement for conducting successful focus groups is to have a skilled moderator. This is because the moderator has to deal with the issue of group dynamics. Along with knowledge of the topic, the moderator needs to be able to control the interview process so that all participants can express themselves in order that one or a few people do not dominate the discussion, more introverted people are encouraged to speak, and all important topics are covered (Mertens, 1998). Ensuring that all participants are equally involved in the discussion process, allows differing values,

points of view and ideas to emerge, as opposed to the views of dominant individuals which may not be representative of other community groups.

The focus groups were conducted using a round table layout, and light refreshments were provided. Each focus group session ran for between one and a half to two hours. The moderator began by welcoming all participants and overseeing introductions. The participants were provided with an overview of the research project. The moderator explained the need for pretesting, why participants were invited, and the format in which the focus group would run. Following this, information sheets and consent forms were distributed, signed and collected before the focus groups were officially underway.

According to Aaker et al, (2004) when conducting an interview pretest, the researcher can choose one of two approaches; a debriefing or protocol approach. In the protocol method, "the subject is asked to 'think aloud' as he or she is filling out the questionnaire" (Aaker et al, 2004, p. 329). In the debriefing approach, the questionnaire is administered to respondents in the same way as is intended for the full-scale study (Aaker et al, 2004). It was decided to use the debriefing approach in the focus groups for two reasons. First, because there would be a number of participants in each focus group, asking them to think out loud could result in a confusing and distracting atmosphere. Second, the final instrument would be a self-complete questionnaire mailed to respondents for completion on their own. Therefore, it was determined that it would be more beneficial to ask participants to complete the questionnaire similar to the way in which it was intended for the full-scale study. Conducting the debriefing approach, within the focus groups, involved a number of stages.

First, participants were provided with a copy of the social impact questionnaire, clearly labelled as a "draft only". Second, they were specifically instructed not to ask the moderator for help, but instead to make note where they felt confusion or difficulty with a question. Third, the moderator observed the participants as they completed the questionnaire and made note of behaviour that indicated confusion, difficulty, or uneasiness with the questionnaire. The moderator looked for facial expressions that might represent confusion, and also body language including people leaning back into their chairs, 'stopping to think', scratching their heads etc which may indicate that participants had an issue with some aspect of the questionnaire. Fourth, participants were timed in order to make note of the maximum and minimum amount of time it took to complete the questionnaire.

Following completion of the questionnaires, the moderator 'debriefed' respondents. The debrief was based around the items that had been identified for pretesting, and included questions regarding the length and format of the questionnaire, difficulties understanding question wording or how to respond, and clarity of instructions. Each focus group was tape recorded.

The flexibility of focus groups implies that "the set of topics covered may change after each focus group experience" (Aaker et al, 2004, p. 200). If a question is failing to generate useful information, it may be dropped from subsequent focus groups. Additionally, should a new idea emerge from early focus groups, it may be added as

an item for discussion in the focus groups that follow. This allows for the development of ideas, concepts, and impacts that are specific to respondents, rather than predefined variables. As the focus groups progressed it was decided to tag questions and impact items that did not hold meaning for participants. These would be removed from the questionnaire but discussed separately later in the focus group to ensure that there was consensus in them being modified or deleted. This was necessary, as focus groups were being held in different communities and it was decided not to make assumptions about potential responses in subsequent focus groups in a different community.

Who should participate in the pretest?

According to Aaker et al (2004) pretest participants should be representative of the target population to whom the final questionnaire will be distributed. As local residents within each of the festival communities for this research are the target population, it was necessary for pretest participants to come from these local communities. Whilst it is important that pretest participants are representative of the wider community that will eventually receive the questionnaire, it was also critical to this study, that pretest participants were able to comment on whether the items outlined in the questionnaire were relevant to their festival and community. Therefore it was necessary for pretest participants to have knowledge of the festival in order to allow them to do this. Since local residents and stakeholders from the community also participate in the festival as volunteers, these community volunteers represented an ideal source of focus group participants. In this way, it would ensure that the content of the questionnaire was relevant to the festival and community being studied.

Although focus group participants were selected from a limited source, in this case the volunteer database, any resultant bias is only a problem if the researcher is unaware of it. That is, it is only a problem if "you interpret what you hear in the focus groups as representing a full spectrum of experiences and opinions" (Morgan, 1988, p. 45). This however did not pose any problem since the researcher was fully aware of the source of her participants and any biases that the position of the festival volunteer might create.

The organising committees of each festival were responsible for the recruitment of participants for the focus groups. The organising committees were asked to randomly select from their volunteer database between ten and twelve participants for each of the two focus groups, to be conducted in each community. It was hoped that this would ensure enough participants showed up on the day. Additionally, having the organisers responsible for recruitment allowed the researcher to avoid any breach of privacy laws that would result from personal details of volunteers being provided to a third party.

Sample size for the pretest

Typically only small samples are needed when conducting a pretest, although this will vary depending on the instrument to be tested (Aaker et al, 2004). The size of a focus group "should not be so large as to be unwieldy or to preclude adequate participation by most members nor should it be so small that it fails to provide substantially greater coverage than that of an interview with one individual" (Merton et al, 1990, p. 137).

Typically, focus groups will have between six and twelve participants (Goodrick & Emmerson, 2004). Researchers will often over-recruit participants for a focus group due to the difficulties of ensuring that all participants will turn up on the day (Morgan, 1988). Therefore, it was decided to aim for a group size of up to twelve participants. In community A, there were ten confirmed participants for each of the two focus groups. On the day, eight and nine participants turned up to the afternoon and evening sessions respectively. In community B, there were eight and nine confirmed participants for the two focus groups. Both the afternoon and evening sessions ran with six participants each. A total of fours sessions were held; two in each community.

Outcomes of the Focus Group Pretest

The comments from participants in the focus groups were used to refine the SIP questionnaire. The focus groups revealed a number of issues that required changes to four out of five sections of the questionnaire. Section A consisted of open-ended questions, and they remained the same following the pretest. The only change in this section was that a definition of social impacts was added to one of the questions. Section B contained 35 social impact statements, and it was this section that underwent the most changes. Of the 35 impact statements, six were significantly reworded, eight were deleted and fifteen new impact statements were added to the questionnaire. These changes are illustrated in tables 1, 2 and 3, which show the items that were reworded, items that were deleted, and new items added into the final questionnaire respectively.

Table 1: Items reworded for inclusion in the final questionnaire

WORDING IN THE PRETEST	WORDING IN THE FINAL QUESTIONNAIRE
• The festival encourages too many visitors to my community	• During the festival there were more visitors to the community
• There is a greater police presence during the festival	• The presence of police during the festival was adequate
• Traffic was congested during the festival	• During the festival there was increased traffic in the community
• The festival brings the community together	• The festival contributed to a sense of togetherness within the community
• During the festival there will be increased opportunities for crimes in the community	• Crime in the community increased during the festival
• During the festival there will be increased drinking and/or rowdy behaviour	• There is increased rowdy and delinquent behaviour during the festival

Table 2: Items deleted following the focus groups

ITEMS DELETED FROM THE QUESTIONNAIRE
▪ Public transport services will be congested during the festival
▪ The festival will contribute to increased business opportunities for locals following the festival
▪ The festival will encourage an increase in the future use of existing recreational and leisure facilities by locals
▪ The staging of this festival will encourage the restoration of existing public buildings
▪ During the festival, public facilities (such as toilets, parks etc.) will be maintained at a high standard
▪ The festival will encourage the local community to take an interest in the region's culture and history
▪ Locals will be more aware of the cultural activities available in their community following the festival
▪ Locals will be more likely to take part in future cultural activities of their community as a result of the festival

Table 3: New items added into the final questionnaire

NEW ITEMS ADDED TO THE FINAL QUESTIONNAIRE
▪ The festival provided local residents with increased opportunities for cultural experiences
▪ The festival provided local residents with opportunities to host family and friends from out of town
▪ A diverse range of people from the local community attended the festival
▪ The festival provided opportunities for local residents to display their musical talents
▪ The festival provided fundraising opportunities for local community groups
▪ During the festival, noise levels in the area surrounding the festival venues were increased
▪ Road closures and redirections during the festival inconvenienced locals
▪ There is a sense of community ownership of the festival
▪ The festival helps to show others why the community is unique and special
▪ The festival gives the community an image which encourages tourism to the region
▪ Underage drinking occurred during the festival
▪ The use of prohibited substances increased during the festival
▪ Community groups worked together to achieve the goals of the festival
▪ The festival provided opportunities for members of the community to develop new skills
▪ Community identity is enhanced through the festival

Section C included cluster variables and section D was made up of variables relating to demographic information. Both these sections underwent similar changes. The wording of several questions was modified in order to avoid ambiguity, and at the request of focus group participants, extra response options were added. The order of these two sections was also rearranged to improve the flow of questions. Section E, contained space in which respondents could make any final comments. On request, the number of lines left for comments was increased from nine to eighteen.

Changes to wording were made after the first group so that the moderator could test for clarity in future focus groups. Because it was important for each group to be tested on the original impact items, changes to impact items were not made until the completion of all focus groups in both communities. However, following the first focus group in community A, the moderator kept a list of the impact items that participants wanted deleted or added and raised them for discussion, if they had not already been identified by the subsequent focus groups. Consistent with Aaker et al (2004) following the first two focus groups much of what was said, in later focus groups, had been heard before.

Benefits

The focus group approach, adopted in this study for pretesting the SIP questionnaire, had several benefits. By employing the debriefing approach, it allowed for respondents to complete the questionnaire, as they might in the final study. The pretest served as a practice run for the social impact questionnaire. The researcher was able to watch each person complete the questionnaire on their own, and gauge how residents might react if they were to do the same questionnaire at home. In this way, the focus groups allowed for an evaluation of the questionnaire design. The debriefing that followed, enabled the moderator to bring together each respondent's individual experience with the questionnaire to be examined within a wider group discussion. Each participant was able to explain any problems they had and could build upon the responses of other group members. Sharing responses and issues in this way, resulted in new ideas and connections being made between participants, enabling a greater emphasis being given to participants' viewpoints.

This discussion resulted in valuable suggestions for improvement to the questionnaire. It was important having community members who were involved with the festival to provide comment on the relevance of social impact items to their community. This allowed for the tailoring of a questionnaire, to one that is relevant to each community being studied. The process was also time efficient, as to hold 29 individual interviews would have taken a minimum of 29 hours, whereas the four focus groups entailed a maximum of eight hours.

Additionally, a sound rapport was established between the moderator and the participants, which had a positive flow on effect as participants had a sense of collaboration and went on to discuss their experiences with others in the community. As a result, the researcher was invited to comment on the study, in the local radio and newspapers, facilitating greater awareness of the research within these communities. Later, when the researcher returned to the field to observe the festivals, a sense of welcome, involvement, and belonging ensued.

Limitations

Focus groups as a pretest tool hold some limitations. The setting can be a somewhat artificial one. However, in this study it was found to provide an atmosphere of importance, that participants were involved in something meaningful which worked in the moderator's favour. In two different focus groups, there was a dominant individual, which at times tested the moderator's group management skills, in order to not allow responses to be socially biased. There was also the potential for the researcher as moderator to influence participants (Phillimore and Goodson, 2004). The moderator was aware of this limitation and took every precaution to allow participants to rationalise their views, and to probe participants, on areas that were unclear to them..

Conclusion

This paper, through a review of methodological reports on event impact scale development, has demonstrated that whilst there have been a number of social impact scales developed, and reported within the literature, the methods employed to pretest these instruments are not being reported. Given the importance of pretesting, not only to validate these instruments, but to allow for easy replication of these studies, it is necessary for greater discussion of pretesting methodologies to be included in the reporting of this research.

To address this gap, this paper outlined the use of focus groups to pretest an event social impact perception (SIP) questionnaire. The focus group technique for pretesting this questionnaire was beneficial in identifying inadequacies relating to questionnaire design, content, administration and applicability. As a result the design and layout of the questionnaire was altered significantly in response to focus group feedback.

A number of important benefits were gained from using the focus group technique. Focus groups facilitated an environment in which respondents were able to fully understand the options available to them and provide a depth of response that assisted the researcher to realise the aims and objectives of the study. Focus group participants were able to discuss the meanings that they attributed to items within the questionnaire, which enabled the researcher to eliminate, clarify, or modify ambiguities and wording issues for the final questionnaire. Participants were able to identify those items that they perceived were not relevant to their community to be deleted from the scale, or alternately identify items that were relevant, and which should be included in the scale. Consequently the pretest methodology assisted the researcher in developing a scale, which reflected the perceptions and experiences of the community in which it was to be applied, rather than being driven by pre-existing items.

The methodological soundness of research methods is a key factor in all studies. Detailing the methodology used to pretest questionnaires ensures that methodology is transparent to the academic community and researchers can be assured of rigour in the methodology. If greater reporting of pretesting methods is conducted, it will enable replication and theoretical advancement by assisting future researchers to further develop these scales, either through refinement or addition. Although focus groups are only one method that can be utilised in pretesting social impact scales, this paper has identified there are a number of benefits to its application which can assist in developing a methodologically sound and content valid research tool.

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Testing of a Compressed Generic Instrument to Assess Host Community Perceptions of Events: A case study of the Australian Open Tennis Tournament

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Abstract

The assessment of the impacts of tourism and events, as perceived by the host community, has received increasing attention in recent years, and several researchers have worked on developing scales for this purpose (See for example Lankford & Howard, 1994; Ap & Crompton, 1998; Delamere, 1997).

Scale development is a complex procedure if the purpose is to be able to demonstrate the validity and reliability of the measure, and there are often conflicting aims that necessitate trade offs in terms of the characteristics of the scale. For example, in an effort to ensure content validity, many resident perception scales include large numbers of items. However, lengthy and cumbersome scales often seem daunting to respondents and low response rates may be the result. Additionally, they may encourage response set; that is, a tendency to lapse into patterns of response rather than genuinely reading and reacting to the questions.

There is increasing interest amongst both public and private sector event managers in the assessment of the social impacts of events in accordance with the growing emphasis on triple bottom line reporting. However, most of the recently available social impact assessment methods are either unwieldy or lack content validity. This report presents the results of a study in which one of the aims was to develop a compressed generic instrument to evaluate the impacts of events on the host community and to facilitate comparisons.

The compressed scale development procedure has been previously reported (Fredline, Jago and Deery, 2002, 2003b), therefore, this paper presents the results of a test of the scale in a case study at the Australian Open Tennis Tournament 2003. This study was funded by Australia's Sustainable Tourism Cooperative Research Centre.

The compressed instrument was administered via a telephone interview of local residents in the Melbourne region. A very high level of positive perception was observed in the community with regard to this event, and unlike previous case studies on other events, almost no negative sentiment was reported. In other respects though, the results have substantial commonality with previous research using a much longer scale. This implies that the compressed instrument retains the content validity of the longer version but demonstrates a substantial improvement in parsimony.

Additionally, qualitative data also collected have been analysed to further explore the social impacts, which appear to be associated specifically with this event.

Introduction

Academics from a range of disciplines have long had an interest in exploring and understanding host community perceptions of the impacts of tourism. Many case studies have been undertaken in the past few decades in a range of settings and particularly with reference to developing countries. However, it is only relatively recently that the tourism industry itself, in the form of destination management organisations (DMOs), has demonstrated an interest in so called "social" impact assessment, that is, the impact of tourism on the quality of life of residents. This recent interest is driven by the trend toward triple bottom line reporting, which is based on the premise that organisations should not only report on the economic bottom line, but also the impact they have on the environment and society. In discussing the social impacts of tourism, many organisations include cultural impacts and this inclusion will be made here also.

Whilst academic research is often driven by esoteric ambitions of knowledge for knowledge's sake, DMOs have more pragmatic research needs with less emphasis on depth. DMOs would like to be able to measure social impact in a quick (and inexpensive) fashion, using a technique that facilitates simple comparisons of different destinations, and to track changes in a single destination over time. Thus the long and unwieldy instruments that have been developed by some academic researchers are inappropriate in this context.

This paper presents an attempt to move academic research in a direction that is consistent with the needs of the tourism industry. An instrument containing a 42 item scale, which had been previously tested in a range of case studies, was compressed into 12 items and administered via a telephone interview rather than via a self-complete postal survey as had previously been used. This paper presents the results of a Sustainable Tourism Cooperative Research Centre study using the new instrument in Melbourne following the Australian Open Tennis Tournament in 2003. At the end of the results section the results from the new scale are compared with those from earlier case studies using the longer scale.

Literature Review

Scale Development

Over recent years, a number of scales have been developed to assess the impacts of tourism on host communities although many of these were produced for specific case studies. Little emphasis was given, therefore, to developing a generic scale that could facilitate comparison of tourism impacts across a range of different types of tourism and in a variety of destinations. An additional criticism was the fact that many of these scales were developed with little obvious consideration of validity and reliability. While these early scales were useful in the exploratory context in which they were applied, the measurement error associated with them is unacceptable when attempting to apply complex multivariate modelling techniques. This review provides a brief history of scale development in the context of tourism impact assessment used as a basis for the scale development processes reported in the method and results section.

Many early scales in this research field used Likert type measures asking respondents to agree or disagree with an "attitude" toward or "perception" of tourism (see for example Belisle and Hoy, 1980, Liu and Var, 1986, Fredline and Faulkner, 1998). However, this approach creates a level of ambiguity in interpretation (Ap & Crompton, 1998). If a respondent agrees with a positive perceptual statement, it does not necessarily imply that they are happy about the impact to which it refers or that brings benefits to them or the community. An additional difficulty with this approach is that the identification of attitudes toward tourism does not adequately identify management strategies. Rather, effective tourism management involves the development of strategies to ameliorate the negative impacts of tourism on residents' quality of life and to promote the benefits. Thus the critical issue in assessing the impacts of tourism is an understanding of the affect on quality of life rather than just attitudes or perceptions of tourism.

Recognising this, several researchers in the late 1990's began using scales that were more complex than the earlier Likert type measures. Ap and Crompton (1998) developed a two-part scale based on the principles of Fishbein's (1963) Attitude Model, which proposed that the measurement of an attitude should comprise a multiplicative function of belief and affective components. Thus the wording of the Ap and Crompton scale was as shown in Table 1, asking respondents to rate the level of change, then their level of like or dislike of this change. The score then used as a dependent variable in analysis was the product of the two parts of the scale.

Table 1: Wording of Ap and Crompton (1998) scale

PART A	Rate the level of change in the impact	1 Large Decrease	2 Moderate Decrease	3 No Change	4 Moderate Increase	5 Large Increase
PART B	Rate your level of like or dislike of this change	1 Dislike	2 Somewhat Dislike	3 Neither Like or Dislike	4 Somewhat Like	5 Like

Around the same time, Lindberg (1995) developed a scale with similar properties. It also comprised two parts, the first asking respondents about the extent to which a range of items had changed because of tourism. The second part asked about whether they liked or disliked the change on a five point scale as shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Wording of Lindberg (1995) scale

PART A	How has tourism changed the item?	1 Large Decrease	2 Moderate Decrease	3 N o Change	4 Moderate Increase	5 Large Increase
PART B	How do you feel about the change caused by tourism?	1 Dislike it a lot	2 Dislike it a little	3 Neutral	4 Like it a little	5 Like it a lot

A third scale developed during this period formed the basis of the current study. Fredline (2000) developed a scale for use in assessing the impacts of tourism events (although the form of the scale has subsequently been applied in a general tourism context (Fredline, 2002). This scale had three parts; Part A assessing the direction of change, Part B assessing the impact on personal quality of life, and Part C assessing the impact on the community as a whole. It was Ross (1992) who suggested the need to differentiate personal from community level impacts. His research demonstrated

the potential for residents to perceive these levels quite differently, thus by separating them, further ambiguity is removed from the scale creating a measure with less error.

Table 3: Wording of Fredline (2000) scale

PART A	What direction has the impact occurred in?	Increased Decreased No Change Don't Know		OR		Worsened Improved No Change Don't Know		OR		Agree Disagree Don't Know		
PART B	What effect does this have on you personally?	-3 Very Negative	-2		-1	0 No Effect	+1		+2	+3 Very Positive		
PART C	What effect does this have on the community as a whole?	-3 Very Negative	-2		-1	0 No Effect	+1		+2	+3 Very Positive		

In the latter two scales, the dependent variable is simply the rating of impact ranging from very negative to very positive. Variations of this scale have been applied in an events context in a number of case studies with between 40 and 45 items developed from the literature on event impacts and from the analysis of qualitative data gathered during each iteration.

Scale Validity and Reliability

A key issue in developing a scale is that the measure has sufficient validity to minimise measurement error. Measurement is never error free, especially in the social sciences where the association between constructs and observed variables is often imperfect (Blalock, 1968). However, efforts must be made to keep error as low as possible because excess error makes it very difficult to identify the important relationships between variables.

Construct validity, which is one aspect of the internal validity of the study, refers to the issue of whether the scale actually measures what it is intending to measure (McBurney, 1994). That is, would scores on the scale accurately reflect relevant variation in the concept supposedly being measured? To ensure construct validity it is important to word questions as precisely and unambiguously as possible using language that has a consistent meaning across all possible respondents. The early Likert type scales employed in tourism impact assessment would have had low construct validity because of the lack of clarity in what was being asked of the respondent. One aspect of construct validity is referred to as content validity, that is, the extent to which the full domain of the concept is measured. If some aspects of the construct are omitted from the scale, then it cannot claim to fully measure the construct. Thus, there is an inevitable trade off between content validity and the parsimony of a scale.

Reliability is another desirable characteristic of a scale, that is, the ability of a scale to produce consistent results on repeat applications assuming no change in the concept being measured (Moser & Kalton, 1972). Reliability can best be confirmed through multiple iterations, but ensuring validity is an important step in the process as a scale lacking validity will never be highly reliable.

With these issues in mind, and driven by the aim of the study which was to progress toward the development of a compressed generic instrument to evaluate the impacts

of events and facilitate comparisons, the next chapter outlines the methods used to collect and analyse the data.

Case Studies

This paper primarily reports the results of a study on the Australian Open Tennis Tournament, however, in the final section comparison is made with earlier case studies on the Australian Formula One Grand Prix, the Melbourne Moomba Festival and the Horsham Art Is… Festival. A brief description of each of these events is provided below.

Australian Open Tennis Tournament

The Australian Open has been held for over ninety years. Originally it was staged at different venues around Australia. However, in 1972 it was decided that the event should be held in the one city, and Melbourne was chosen to hold the annual event.
It is staged in January of each year at Melbourne Park and in 2003 there was a crowd over 500,000 people attending the event. It is one of the four global Gram Slam Tennis tournaments held in each year and is therefore considered to be a highly prestigious event.

Australian Formula One Grand Prix

The Australian Formula One Grand Prix has been staged annually in Melbourne since 1996. It is a four-day event featuring qualifying, practice and support races on the first three days and the main Formula One Race on the final day (a Sunday). In the early years there was some opposition to the staging of the event in Albert Park and a number of local residents formed a vocal protest group known as "Save Albert Park". This group still exists, however, in recent years there has been far less publicity relating to their activities.

Melbourne Moomba Festival

The Melbourne Moomba Festival is an outdoor festival held over the Labour Day weekend in March in the city centre. It was first held in 1954 and the origins of the word 'Moomba' come from an Aboriginal word meaning 'Lets get together and have fun'. The festival features a street parade, street parties, a fireworks display, water-skiing competitions on the Yarra River, and fair-ground attractions.

Horsham Art Is… Festival.

This annual event in Horsham is a ten day community celebration offering a diverse range of activities. The event has continued to grow since 1996, and showcases performing and visual artists from the Wimmera region, and from around the state of Victoria. The festival involves artists from all genres and involves exhibitions, dance and music performances. It is a community-based festival aimed at broadening community participation and audience experience.

Method

Population

The population of interest for this study was defined as residents of Melbourne; however, given that the Melbourne telephone directory (White Pages) was used as a sampling frame, inclusion in the sample was in fact contingent on being listed in this publication, so those without phones or who opt for an unlisted number have no

chance of being selected. However, given the high level of telephone ownership (it is estimated that in excess of 80% of households have listed contactable household telephone connections (ABS, 2003)), this is seen as an adequately representative sampling frame. No data were available on the proportion of unlisted numbers in the region.

Administration

The survey was administered 4-5 weeks after the event had taken place using a telephone interview to complete a questionnaire comprising 20 questions. It took approximately 10-15 minutes to administer, and participation was encouraged using an incentive, which was the opportunity to win a $100 shopping voucher.

Sampling

A systematic sampling procedure was used to select residents from the Melbourne telephone directory. A random number generator was used to select pages from the directory and the first name at the top of the right column on that page was selected. This number was telephoned and interviewers were instructed to, where possible, alternate between speaking with males and females until a total of 300 interviews had been completed.

Instrument Development

The instrument was developed based on previous research, which has been well documented in CRC technical reports (Fredline, Deery & Jago, 2005a, 2005b) and other academic publications (Fredline, Jago & Deery, 2003). These data were collected at three events in 2002; namely, The Australian Formula One Grand Prix in Melbourne, the Melbourne Moomba Festival, and the Art Is… Festival in Horsham, Victoria.

As outlined in the introduction, the main objective of this part of the study was to develop and test a compressed generic instrument for measuring the social impacts of a range of events. There are two issues that had to be addressed; the appropriateness of a generic instrument, and the appropriateness of compressing the instrument. The instrument that had previously been used contained over 40 items, was complex to administer, and has not yielded high response rates. However, a compressed instrument can only have utility if it meets appropriate levels of validity and reliability.

Despite some differences in the level of impacts perceived in regard to different events (Fredline, Deery & Jago, 2005b), there is evidence to suggest an overlap in the types of impacts associated with quite different types of event. This supports the appropriateness of the use of a generic instrument to the extent that it implies that unique, tailor-made instruments are not necessary for different types of events.

Additionally, exploration of the covariance between items in the three data sets suggested that similar patterns existed across each sample. The 42 items were then factor analysed using Principal Components Analysis with Varimax rotation. This explained 53.4% of variance across six factors. While the analysis demonstrated high correlation between some groups of items, for example issues relating to disruption and community injustice loaded strongly together, a decision was made to keep these separate because they are conceptually quite different to each other. Collapsing them together would have resulted in a wordy item that some respondents may have

regarded as being multidimensional. With these results at hand, the research team was able to compress the items into 12 logical groups which are presented in Table 4.

Table 4: Items derived for compressed scale

ENTERTAINMENT	The EVENT gave REGION residents an opportunity to attend an interesting event, have fun with their family and friends, and interact with new people.
ECONOMIC BENEFITS	The EVENT was good for the economy because the money that visitors spend when they come for the Event helps to stimulate the economy, stimulates employment opportunities, and is good for local business.
COMMUNITY PRIDE	The EVENT made local residents feel more proud of their city and made them feel good about themselves and their community
REGIONAL SHOWCASE	The EVENT showcased REGION in a positive light. This helps to promote a better opinion of our region and encourages future tourism and/or business investment.
PUBLIC MONEY	The EVENT was a waste of public money, that is, too much public money was spent on the event that would be better spent on other public activities.
DISRUPTION TO LOCAL RESIDENTS	The EVENT disrupted the lives of local residents and created inconvenience. While the event was on, problems like traffic congestion, parking difficulties and excessive noise were worse than usual.
COMMUNITY INJUSTICE	The EVENT was unfair to ordinary residents, and the costs and benefits were distributed unfairly across the community.
LOSS OF USE OF PUBLIC FACILITIES	The EVENT denied local residents access to public facilities, that is, roads, parks, sporting facilities, public transport and/or other facilities were less available to local residents because of closure or overcrowding.
MAINTENANCE OF PUBLIC FACILITIES	The EVENT promoted development and better maintenance of public facilities such as roads, parks, sporting facilities, and/or public transport.
BAD BEHAVIOUR	The EVENT was associated with some people behaving inappropriately, perhaps in a rowdy and delinquent way, or engaging in excessive drinking or drug use or other criminal behaviour.
ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACT	The EVENT had a negative impact on the environment through excessive litter and/or pollution and/or damage to natural areas
PRICES	The EVENT led to increases in the price of some things such as some goods and services and property values and/or rental costs.

These items were used as the basis for the new scale. For each item, respondents were asked whether they agreed or disagreed with the statement, then whether the impact affected their personal quality of life and the community as a whole. If they perceived an impact, they were then asked to rate this in terms of its direction (positive or negative) and intensity (slight, somewhat or large).

A range of demographic and other profiling variables were also incorporated into the instrument.

Qualitative Items

In addition to the quantitative scales in the instrument, respondents were also asked to answer three open-ended questions relating to their first impressions of the events, and their perceptions as to the most positive and negative impacts. These questions were presented at the beginning of the interview so that respondents were not influenced by the material presented in the scale.

RESULTS

As previously mentioned, this study builds upon research undertaken in 2002 on three other Victorian events: the Formula One Grand Prix, the Moomba Festival, and the Horsham Art Is… Festival. The initial portion of this results section reports the host community perceptions of the Australian Open Tennis tournament including overall perceptions of impact, specific impacts, and a cluster analysis used to segment the sample based on perceptions of impact. This is followed by a comparison of this event with those investigated earlier.

Overall perceptions of the Australian Open Tennis Tournament

Before specific impacts were presented, respondents were simply asked about the impacts of the event overall. As shown in Table 5, 43.5% of the respondents perceived no personal level impact while 55.4% rated the personal impact as positive. At the community level, 78.7% rated the impact to be positive. Very little negative sentiment was recorded.

Table 5: Ratings of overall impact on personal and community quality of life

	Very negative -3	-2	-1	No effect 0	+1	+2	Very positive +3	Mean	Std. Dev
Did the Australian Open Tennis 2003 have any affect on your personal quality of life?	0%	1.0%	0%	43.5 %	11.0 %	21.7 %	22.7%	1.21	1.27
Do you think the Australian Open Tennis 2003 affected the community as a whole?	0%	0.7%	0.7%	20.0 %	17.3 %	35.3 %	26.1%	1.64	1.13

Specific Impacts of the Australian Open Tennis Tournament

With regard to specific impacts, Table 6 presents the summary of responses. It is interesting to observe that the mean scores (which were measured on a scale ranging from -3 to +3) indicate almost no perception of negative impacts.

Table 6: Summary of responses to specific impacts

	PART A			PART B	PART C
	Agree	Disagree	Don't Know	Personal Impact Mean	Community Impact Mean
ENTERTAINMENT: The Australian Open gave Melbourne residents an opportunity to attend an interesting event, have fun with their family and friends, and interact with new people.	94.0%	3.3%	2.7%	0.92	1.53
PUBLIC MONEY: The Australian Open was a waste of public money, that is, too much public money was spent on the event that would be better spent on other public activities.	6.7%	80.3%	13.0%	-0.02	-0.04
ECONOMIC BENEFITS: The Australian Open was good for the economy because the money that visitors spend when they come for the Event helps to stimulate the economy, stimulates employment opportunities, and is good for local business.	95.3%	2.3%	2.3%	0.38	1.52

DISRUPTION TO LOCAL RESIDENTS: The Australian Open disrupted the lives of local residents and created inconvenience. While the event was on problems like traffic congestion, parking difficulties and excessive noise were worse than usual.	20.6%	66.9%	12.5%	0.02	-0.10
MAINTENANCE OF PUBLIC FACILITIES: The Australian Open promoted development and better maintenance of public facilities such as roads, parks, sporting facilities, and / or public transport.	56.0%	15.1%	28.9%	0.38	0.97
BAD BEHAVIOUR: The Australian Open was associated with some people behaving inappropriately, perhaps in a rowdy and delinquent way, or engaging in excessive drinking or drug use or other criminal behaviour.	11.4%	78.3%	10.4%	-0.03	-0.03
COMMUNITY PRIDE: The Australian Open made local residents feel more proud of their city and made them feel good about themselves and their community	80.3%	5.3%	14.3%	0.70	1.45
ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACT The Australian Open had a negative impact on the environment through excessive litter and/or pollution and/or damage to natural areas	3.3%	89.0%	7.7%	0	-0.01
REGIONAL SHOWCASE: The Australian Open showcased Melbourne in a positive light. This helps to promote a better opinion of our region and encourages future tourism and/or business investment.	97.7%	1.0%	1.3%	0.48	1.53
PRICES: The Australian Open Tennis 2003 led to increases in the price of some things such as some goods and services and property values and/or rental costs.	29.0%	27.0%	44.0%	-0.02	-0.06
COMMUNITY INJUSTICE: The Australian Open was unfair to ordinary residents, and the costs and benefits were distributed unfairly across the community.	6.7%	68.7%	24.7%	-0.02	0
LOSS OF USE OF PUBLIC FACILITIES: The Australian Open denied local residents access to public facilities, that is, roads, parks, sporting facilities, public transport and/ or other facilities were less available to local residents because of closure or overcrowding.	15.1%	66.2%	18.7%	0	-0.10

The most strongly perceived positive impacts at a personal level were entertainment, pride, the showcase effect, economic impact and maintenance of facilities (see Table 7). The same five impacts were most highly rated at the community level although the order varied slightly. At the community level, entertainment, the showcase effect and economic benefits are all rated at a very similar level, while entertainment and pride are seen to be clear frontrunners as personal level benefit.

Table 7: Most strongly perceived personal and community level impacts

	Personal Mean	**Community Mean**
ENTERTAINMENT: The Australian Open gave Melbourne residents an opportunity to attend an interesting event, have fun with their family and friends, and interact with new people.	0.92	1.53
COMMUNITY PRIDE: The Australian Open made local residents feel more proud of their city and made them feel good about themselves and their community	0.70	1.45
REGIONAL SHOWCASE: The Australian Open showcased Melbourne in a positive light. This helps to promote a better opinion of our region and encourages future tourism and/or business investment.	0.48	1.53
ECONOMIC BENEFITS: The Australian Open was good for the economy because the money that visitors spend when they come for the Event helps to stimulate the economy, stimulates employment opportunities, and is good for local business.	0.38	1.52
MAINTENANCE OF PUBLIC FACILITIES: The Australian Open promoted development and better maintenance of public facilities such as roads, parks, sporting facilities, and / or public transport.	0.38	0.97

Community Segmentation

In an effort to identify groups within the community with differing perceptions of the Australian Open, a cluster analysis was undertaken using the perceptions of the impacts on personal quality of life ratings. Based on previous research it was expected that either three or five clusters would emerge (with positive, unconcerned and negative perceptions being represented in distinct clusters). However, as the descriptive statistics in Sections 4.1 and 4.2 show, very little negative sentiment was expressed toward this event. Solutions ranging from two to five clusters were inspected, and no negative group was evident. Therefore, the two-group solution was selected as the most appropriate to describe the data set in a thorough yet parsimonious manner.

A two stage clustering procedure was used with an initial hierarchical phase followed by a non-hierarchical analysis seeded with the centroids observed in the first phase. As shown in Table 8, the two resultant clusters are clearly identifiable as a positive group and an unconcerned group. The positive group has high mean scores for all the positive impacts of the event and scores close to zero for the negative impacts. The unconcerned group has scores close to zero across all impact statements.

Table 8: Mean impact ratings for each cluster

	Unconcerned	Positive
	n=197	n=102
Entertainment	0.2	2.2
Public Money	0.0	0.0
Economic Benefits	0.1	1.0
Disruption	0.0	0.0
Maintenance of Public Facilities	0.0	0.7
Bad Behaviour	0.0	0.0
Community Pride	0.1	1.6
Environmental Impact	0.0	0.0
Regional Showcase	0.1	1.2
Price	0.0	0.0
Community Injustice	0.0	0.0
Loss of Use of Public Facilities	0.0	0.0

These groups were then profiled in terms of the independent variables measured in this study; namely, identification with the theme, attendance, age and gender.

As shown in Table 9, a strong relationship was observed between cluster membership and identification with tennis as a spectator sport. Over 80% of the positive group indicated an interest in watching professional tennis, while the unconcerned group were much more likely than expected to have no interest in the sport. Additionally, positive cluster members were more likely to be keen recreational tennis players. Similarly, positive cluster members are far more likely to have attended the event in 2003, while unconcerned cluster member are likely to have never attended.

Table 9: Profile of cluster members

Variable	Response	Unconcerned	Positive
Identification with Tennis as a Spectator Sport $\chi^2_{(4)} = 52.0$, $p<0.05$	I am an avid fan of professional tennis, and always try to attend or watch tournaments on TV	**12.2% ↓**	**41.2%↑**
	I am interested in professional tennis and see it when I can	32.5%	40.2%
	I am not particularly interested in professional tennis, but I enjoy seeing it when it is in Melbourne	26.9%	14.7%
	I am not interested in professional tennis but I sometimes attend or watch it because family or friends are interested	16.2%	**3.9% ↓**
	I have absolutely no interest in professional tennis or the associated festivities, even when it is held in Melbourne	**12.2% ↑**	**0% ↓**
Identification with Tennis as a Participatory Sport $\chi^2_{(4)} = 26.5$, $p<0.05$	I am an keen recreational tennis player who plays regularly and is involved in club competition	7.1%	14.7%
	I am an keen recreational tennis player who plays regularly but not in any formal competition	**1.0% ↓**	**12.7% ↑**
	I occasionally play tennis socially	15.8%	16.7%
	I used to play recreational tennis but have not played in recent years	40.8%	32.4%
	I have absolutely no interest in recreational tennis	35.2%	23.5%
Attendance $\chi^2_{(6)} = 174.8$, $p<0.05$	Never attended	**47.2% ↑**	**9.9% ↓**
	Attended previously but not in 2003	40.1%	39.6%
	Attended in 2003	**12.7% ↓**	**50.5% ↑**
Demographics			
Age $\chi^2_{(2)} = 4.3$, $p>0.05$	18-44 years	41.6%	43.1%
	45-64 years	35.0%	43.1%
	65 years and over	33.4%	13.7%
Gender $\chi^2_{(1)} = 0.5$, $p>0.05$	Male	35.5%	31.4%
	Female	64.5%	68.6%

Proportions are reported within columns
↑denotes a standardised residual of greater than 1.96
↓denotes a standardised residual of less than -1.96

Qualitative Data from the Australian Open

As referred to in the method section, three qualitative questions were asked at the beginning of the interview. The responses were therefore unaffected by the material in the scale and represent the unprompted impressions of respondents. The first question asked interviewees to provide a word or brief phrase which first came to them when they thought of the tournament. As Table 10 shows a wide range of responses was observed.

The most common response was simply a neutral statement about tennis as a sport, followed by the mention of either a specific player's name, or some reference to players generally. Lleyton Hewitt was referred to 24 times, while Andre Agassi was mentioned 11 times. About 10% of respondents made some reference to the timing of the event being over the summer during the holidays in January.

Just under 10% made some simple positive statement about the event, while an additional 8.7% provided a statement which suggested that they were interested and involved in the event. About 5% mentioned that the venue plays host to the event, and a similar number referred to the sun or hot weather which typically occurs in Melbourne at this time of year.

A small proportion of respondents recalled sponsor names (some who had sponsored previous events rather than the most recent year), and some made reference to the size and scale of the event. Finally, a very small number commented that that had no interest in the event.

Table 10: First word or phrase

Category	Example	f	%
Neutral statement	*"Tennis", "ball boys"*	69	23.0
Specific player name or generic reference to players	*" Hewitt", "Agassi, "World's top players"*	64	21.3
Timing of event	*"Summer", "January", "Christmas holidays"*	31	10.3
Positive statement	*"Exciting", "enjoyable"*	28	9.3
Interest and involvement	*"Looking forward to it", "watching it on TV"*	26	8.7
Negative statement	*"Boring", "overcrowded"*	17	5.7
Venue	*"Melbourne Park", "The Tennis Centre"*	16	5.3
Heat / sun	*"Hot weather"*	14	4.7
Specific sponsor name	*"Kia"*	11	3.7
Size / scale of event	*"Big event", "international", "lots of people"*	11	3.7
No interest	*"Not interested", "don't follow tennis"*	9	3.0
TOTAL RESPONSES		296	

Open Ended Positive Comments

Following this, respondents were asked to identify what they thought to be the most positive impacts of the event. Multiple responses were allowed and these were coded into categories as shown in Table 11. The comments in each category were then examined in terms of whether they were made by positive or negative cluster members. The proportional split in each category was deducted from the overall proportional split (expected value) to calculate residual scores shown in Table 11. A negative residual indicates that the cluster members were less likely to provide a comment in that category while a positive residual indicates a greater likelihood than would have been expected. Positive cluster members were more likely to provide comments about community pride, development of the tennis facility, and the entertainment benefits of the event. Unconcerned cluster members were more likely to provide no comment.

Table 11: Open ended comments about positive impacts

Category	f	%	Positive Cluster residual	Unconcerned Cluster residual
Tourism / Economic benefits	131	43.7	-1.2	1.2
Entertainment	88	29.3	12.6	-12.6
Regional showcase	63	21.0	4.1	-4.1
Promotes sport	39	13.0	4.5	-4.5
Development of Tennis Facility	6	2.0	16.0	-16.0
Community Pride	4	1.3	41.0	-41.0
Other	31	10.3	1.5	-1.5
None	35	11.7	-25.4	25.4
TOTAL RESPONSES	397			

Multiple responses were allowed so total adds to more than sample size
The relationship could not be evaluated using the Chi-square statistic because the multiple response format violates the assumption of independence of the observations.

The most common response category related to tourism associated directly with the event and the economic benefits this brought to the community. Some examples of this type of comment appear below.

> *"Good for the Aust economy - people from overseas coming here and spending money at the event and around town, news coverage overseas"*

> *"Trade benefits, tourism, local business increase in trade, visitors spend at Open and has a flow on effect, creates jobs for locals while Open on"*

The next most frequently mentioned benefit related to the entertainment aspects of the event. Comments such as those below reflect the sentiments of many respondents.

> *"Chance for us to go to an international event to see spectacular tennis"*

> *"Can take children to a safe place, outing without worrying about bad language or behaviour like you get at football or cricket, good atmosphere, everyone happy and smiling"*

> *"Good tennis to watch, great way to socialise"*

> *"In the city a perfect setting, 1st class event, watching good people play, good entertainment"*

Reference was also made to the "showcase effect" that large scale events such as the Australian Open are thought to have. It is interesting to note that such a large proportion (21%) of respondents had this impact top of mind and referred to it with no prompting considering that it is quite an intangible long term potential impact, rather than an immediate reward.

> *"Australia on show, world aware of Australia, puts Melbourne on the map"*

> *"Melbourne getting a good name for hosting a great event"*

> *"Great advertising for Melbourne"*

Another benefit frequently mentioned was the potential of the event to promote tennis as a sport, particularly to children, to encourage healthier, more active lifestyles. Some respondents made similar comments about the promotion of appropriate values such as good sportsmanship to children.

> *"A lot of interest in playing tennis after the Open, wanting to join clubs, good exercise"*
> *"Good role models for young children to see"*

> *"Promotes Australian tennis, Family watched it together. My children play tennis and it gave them an opportunity to watch young stars"*

> *"Local club players will improve their game, watching how the professionals play, international event, great for Melbourne"*

"Inspires young people to play sport, Very good for young people to see discipline both of players, much more strict now"

A few respondents mentioned the development of the tennis centre as a positive impact of the event.

"The new Vodafone arena is fantastic"

While many of the comments implied an increase in community pride, especially those relating to showcasing the region, only a small number of respondents specifically referred to pride.

"Something to be proud of, beautiful to watch"

"I'm proud it is in Melbourne, very well run, professional"

A range of other comments were made which did not really relate to the impacts of the event. These included references to the nice weather that was experienced, the fact that Lleyton Hewitt was ranked as world number one at that time, and the quality of the tennis that was played.

A small proportion of respondents (11.7%) were unable to identify any benefits without prompting.

Open Ended Negative Comments

The same process was followed for the negative comments, as reported in Table 12. It is interesting to note that the largest category of response was actually that there were no negative impacts associated with the event, with 44% of respondents reporting this. The residuals show that it is actually the positive cluster members who are more likely to make certain negative comments relating to crowding, heat, and prices. These are negative impacts most likely to be experienced in attending the event, which, as shown in Table 9, was far more common amongst positive cluster members. Thus it is logical that positive cluster members would be more concerned about these issues than unconcerned residents who tended not to attend the event.

Table 12: Open ended comments about negative impacts

Category	f	%	Positive Cluster residual	Unconcerned Cluster residual
Prices	36	12.0	13.2	-13.2
Heat	27	9.0	14.1	-14.1
Disruption	21	7.0	-0.7	0.7
Crowding out	16	5.3	22.3	-22.3
Bad Behaviour	12	4.0	-0.7	0.7
Security fears	8	2.7	3.5	-3.5
Other	60	20.0	1	-1
None	132	44.0	-6.7	6.7
TOTAL RESPONSES	312			

Multiple responses were allowed so total adds to more than sample size
The relationship could not be evaluated using the Chi-square statistic because the multiple response format violates the assumption of independence of the observations.

Where specific impacts were mentioned, only small proportions mentioned these, with the greatest being complaints about prices particularly of tickets and food and beverage at the venue.

> *"Too expensive for the average person, too many tourists buying all the tickets, food and drink too expensive, costs too much money to go"*

> *"Difficult in obtaining good economical seats, too many celebrity types getting better seats than the public"*

The second most frequently mentioned problem was the heat, which is really beyond the control of event organisers except to the extent that they may have some power to change the timing of the event or provide other mitigating strategies such as shaded seats.

> *"Some days too hot, not enough seats in shade"*

> *"Held at the wrong time of the year, too hot for players and crowds"*

There were several comments relating to disruption caused by traffic congestion.

> *"Lot of congestion around tennis centre when driving to city for work"*

Similarly, crowding was an issue for some. Mostly this was within the confines of the event venue, but some respondents reported feeling crowded out of public spaces such as the city and public transport.

> *"Too many people, the event has got too big like other sports. Don't like having to queue for tickets"*

> *"Crowding the public transport system for commuters"*

A few comments were made about bad behaviour, either by players or fans.

> *"Unsportsmanlike behaviour by some of the players its sets a bad example for the kids"*

> *"Listening to the noisy group of spectators -- some of them obviously drunk"*

This Australian Open in 2003 followed a number of international incidents and there were concerns discussed in the media that large scale events may be a target for terrorist attacks. Several respondents referred to the fear of this as a negative impact of the event.

> *"The fact that some people were worried about a terrorist attack on a sporting venue"*

A range of other comments were made which did not really relate to the impact of the event on the community. For example, some people were upset that specific players

did not win the tournament, others made negative comments about commentators. Some felt it disrupted normal television viewing, or that it clashed with the cricket.

It is clear from the number of issues reported in each category that, generally speaking, there was a perception that the positives of the event outweighed the negatives, and this is consistent with the quantitative data presented earlier.

Comparison with Other Events

As mentioned previously, this study built on earlier research using similar methods to assess the impacts of other events, which facilitates comparison of host community perceptions across events of different themes. As shown in Table 13, the four events were rated overall as having a similar level of community benefits. However, when rating personal benefits, Melbourne residents seem to perceive the Australian Open Tennis Tournament as being substantially more beneficial than do the residents sampled for each of the other events.

Table 13: Comparison of mean overall impact ratings across events

	Grand Prix	Moomba	Art Is…	Aust. Open
	n=279	n=181	n=97	n=300
Personal Impact	0.35	0.41	0.72	1.21
Community Impact	1.36	1.43	1.54	1.64

Because the earlier studies used the full 42 items, these were summed and averaged as appropriate to facilitate comparison with the data collected at the Australian Open. The nature of the wording for the one item, Loss of Use of Public Facilities, was such that comparison was not deemed appropriate; therefore, this item is omitted from Table 14.

As shown in the table, there were six impact dimensions on which the events were found to vary. The Grand Prix was perceived to have a more substantially negative impact in terms of its opportunity cost, that is, the event was not always seen as the most appropriate use of public money. It was also seen as being more disruptive than the other events, with Moomba being seen as less disruptive than the Grand Prix, but more disruptive than the other two events. The Grand Prix was also perceived as being more unfair than the other events in that it was seen to affect different groups on the community in different ways. On the other hand, the Grand Prix was perceived as producing a substantially higher level of benefit with regard to the development and maintenance of public facilities.

The Moomba festival was perceived as being the worst event in terms of being associated with bad behaviour and was also seen as having a negative environmental impact. The Grand Prix was also perceived as having a more negative impact on the environment than either the Art Is… Festival or the Australian Open Tennis.

Table 14: Comparison of mean specific impact ratings across events

			Grand Prix	Moomba	Art Is...	Aust Open
			1	2	3	4
Entertainment	personal	$F_{(3,676)} = 3.9$, $p > 0.002$	0.64	0.68	0.81	0.92
	community	$F_{(3,640)} = 3.1$, $p > 0.002$	1.25	1.41	1.50	1.53
Public Money	**personal**	**$F_{(3,729)} = 10.2$, $p < 0.002$**	**-0.27_{234}**	**-0.01_{1}**	**-0.01_{1}**	**-0.02_{1}**
	community	**$F_{(3,717)} = 9.2$, $p < 0.002$**	**-0.38_{234}**	**-0.05_{1}**	**-0.01_{1}**	**-0.04_{1}**
Economic Benefits	personal	$F_{(3,592)} = 1.3$, $p > 0.002$	0.40	0.22	0.43	0.38
	community	$F_{(3,573)} = 1.8$, $p > 0.002$	1.48	1.29	1.28	1.52
Disruption	**personal**	**$F_{(3,598)} = 20.3$, $p < 0.002$**	**-0.37_{34}**	**-0.26_{4}**	**-0.06_{1}**	**0.02_{12}**
	community	**$F_{(3,572)} = 57.3$, $p < 0.002$**	**-1.13_{234}**	**-0.69_{134}**	**-0.20_{12}**	**-0.10_{12}**
Maintenance of Public Facilities	**personal**	**$F_{(3,638)} = 8.0$, $p < 0.002$**	**0.71_{24}**	**0.27_{1}**	**0.55**	**0.38_{1}**
	community	**$F_{(3,621)} = 8.7$, $p < 0.002$**	**1.36_{24}**	**0.74_{1}**	**0.99**	**0.97_{1}**
Bad Behaviour	**personal**	**$F_{(3,504)} = 12.1$, $p < 0.002$**	**-0.13_{2}**	**-0.40_{134}**	**-0.13_{2}**	**-0.03_{2}**
	community	**$F_{(3,498)} = 21.4$, $p < 0.002$**	**-0.31_{24}**	**-0.73_{134}**	**-0.07_{2}**	**-0.03_{12}**
Community Pride	personal	$F_{(3,743)} = 0.4$, $p > 0.002$	0.75	0.64	0.67	0.70
	community	$F_{(3,722)} = 4.6$, $p > 0.002$	1.15	1.10	1.06	1.45
Environmental Impact	**personal**	**$F_{(3,655)} = 14.8$, $p < 0.002$**	**-0.23_{4}**	**-0.39_{34}**	**-0.07_{2}**	**0.00_{12}**
	community	**$F_{(3,643)} = 37.3$, $p < 0.002$**	**-0.49_{234}**	**-0.86_{134}**	**-0.14_{12}**	**-0.01_{12}**
Regional Showcase	personal	$F_{(3,735)} = 0.5$, $p > 0.002$	0.45	0.42	0.56	0.48
	community	$F_{(3,710)} = 2.7$, $p > 0.002$	1.37	1.26	1.34	1.53
Price	personal	$F_{(3,445)} = 2.5$, $p > 0.002$	-0.06	-0.17	-0.03	-0.02
	community	$F_{(3,432)} = 0.6$, $p > 0.002$	0.04	-0.08	0.01	-0.06
Community Injustice	personal	$F_{(3,477)} = 5.0$, $p > 0.002$	-0.20	-0.07	-0.04	-0.02
	community	**$F_{(3,472)} = 33.8$, $p < 0.002$**	**-0.73_{234}**	**-0.26_{1}**	**0.03_{1}**	**0.00_{1}**

Discussion and Conclusion

The results demonstrate the high level of support amongst Melbourne residents for the Australian Open and the perception of substantial benefits and few costs associated with the event.

As referred to at the outset, one of the aims of this study was to advance the development of a compressed generic instrument to assess the "social" impacts of events, that is, the impact that events can have on the quality of life of local residents. Data collected at three case studies using a well tested instrument with apparent construct validity, were analysed using Principal Components Analysis to inform the development of a compressed (12 item) scale. This scale was then tested in a new case study, and the results compared with those using the longer scale. Observed differences appeared to be associated more with variation in the contexts of the case studies than in the measurement properties of the scale. The evidence suggests that the new scale is an effective indicator of the impact of events on the quality of life of local residents.

Implications

The key implications from this study are that the use of a generic instrument is appropriate in assessing the social impacts of tourism and that some of the trends are similar between events. For example, it would appear that while respondents may perceive the personal impacts of events as marginal to them, their responses suggest that the impacts on the community are substantial. The study also provides confirmation of the validity in using a more compressed research instrument. This provides an opportunity for event organisers to measure and monitor the social benefits and costs of their events. The instrument also presents a tool for tourism planners in prioritising those events for funding.

Limitations

All the case studies used to develop this instrument were undertaken in Australia and while it might be appropriate to employ this scale in similar Western contexts, it is likely that other issues might be relevant in other regions such as developing nations and developed Eastern countries.

The limitations of the administration methods, and the potential biases that may be introduced into the sample should also be considered in the interpretation of the results.

Future Research

Further refinement and testing of the validity and reliability of the scale could be achieved through additional cases studies in a broader range of destination and event contexts.

Although the compressed scale represents a substantial reduction from its predecessor, it is possibly still longer than would be ideal for fast, inexpensive data collection by DMOs or event organisers. Some consideration has been given to the development of a very succinct instrument (with as few as 5 questions in total and no specific impact scale) which could be used to monitor community perceptions on a regular basis with periodic application of the compressed version to identify specific impacts of concern. This version would obviously require field testing to evaluate its construct validity.

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A Comparative Approach to the Analysis of Event Audiences

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Abstract

Knowledge of demand and audiences is important when undertaking an evaluation of events and impacts. A case study approach to event audience research is most common, however this paper argues that advancing our understanding of event visitors requires a more systematic approach, yet comparative case studies are rare. The paper critically evaluates the rationale for a comparative approach to event management research. A comparative analysis is presented, drawing on data from a visitor survey conducted at three contrasting events held in Wellington, New Zealand (part of the *Innovation in New Zealand Tourism Through Improved Distribution Channels* project at Victoria University of Wellington).

The approach follows on from Nicholson and Pearce's work (2000, 2001) by comparing the characteristics of audiences across different events; it also extends their research by comparing events that take place in one location and time of year, and also contrasts audiences between different performances *within* one festival. This paper concludes that whilst there are similarities, event audiences are not homogenous and different events will attract different profiles of attendees. This has important implications for those programming and marketing events, as well as considerations for event operations, and industry benchmarking.

The research suggests that more systematic comparative work, both in profile research and other areas, will enable these commonalities and differences in events to be better understood. At the same time, the heterogeneity of events means the paper also makes the case for the continuing need to undertake research at individual events.

Introduction

An appreciation of the demand for events is fundamental to our understanding of event visitors, their motivations and behaviours, and has implications for evaluating the impacts of events and for event planning and management. However, whilst profile data on an event's audience is routinely collected as part of empirical research, this generally takes a case study approach and primarily tells us about who has attended that single event. The ability to generalise findings is limited by the uniqueness of each event and differences in methodologies used by individual studies. To synthesise this knowledge we need to look at where commonalities and differences between events and types of events can be found. To this end, the purpose of this paper is two-fold: first, to argue that a comparative approach to events research can advance our understanding of events and visitors; and second, to apply a comparative approach to an evaluation of event audience profiles.

The paper draws on data from a visitors survey conducted at three contrasting urban events in Wellington, New Zealand in summer 2004: a professional sporting tournament - the New Zealand International Sevens; a participation sporting event with free entry for spectators - the Wellington Dragon Boat Festival; and a cultural festival - the New Zealand International Arts Festival. The interviewer-administered survey collected comparable data on the profile of event attendees and the distribution channels they used to find out about the event and purchase tickets; this paper concentrates on presenting the visitor profile data. A core set of questions was present in each questionnaire; however, modification was required to fit the uniqueness and staging of each event. By using a similar, but adapted, questionnaire, data on audiences can be compared *between* the events. The differences and similarities in terms of visitor characteristics will be discussed; variables considered are gender, age, employment status, repeat/first-time attendance, group size, local residents/tourists and purpose of visit for tourists. The inclusion of the Arts Festival also enables comparison *within* an event. The survey was conducted at eleven different performances, including music, theatre and dance; each attracting a distinct profile of attendees. Whilst segmenting the respondents into individual sub-events necessarily reduces the sample size in each category (and thus the statistical significance of the findings), it is worthwhile as it demonstrates the diversity of event audiences.

A Comparative Approach to Event Visitor Research

Much destination-based research on events focuses on the single case study: an in-depth analysis of one event, in one location, at one point in time. This focus is not surprising given that the purpose, and finance, for research often originates from the individual event organiser or funder. However, whilst case studies have an important role to play in a relatively new area of research such as events (Allen, 2000), the authors of case study research themselves often recommend a more comparative approach in their concluding comments (for example, Thrane, 2002). Limitations of the case study approach mean that ability to generalise the findings and establish a bigger picture is limited (Nicholson and Pearce, 2000). Case studies can be culturally specific (Kay, 2004) and each study may use different definitions of key concepts and measurements, and the methodological approach of each will be unique. This can lead to large errors when calculating economic impacts (Harris and Jago, 2000) or difficulties for event organisers trying to benchmark their operations against others (Goldblatt, 2000). A reliance on a case study approach therefore brings challenges for comparability: can the findings from that one particular event be applied more widely and contribute to the development of theory? What can the organisers of another event learn from these single works? This is not to say that single case studies do not have value, but that researchers and event practitioners need more

understanding about how events are similar and different, so that we can be more assured of our ability to generalize and compare between individual examples.

To overcome some of the limitations of the single case study, a number of researchers have taken a comparative approach to investigating events. Notable examples of visitor research taking this comparative approach are Auld and McArthur (2003), Lee and Crompton (2003), Mowen, Vogelsong and Graffe (2003), Nicholls, Roslow and Dublish (1999), and Nicholson and Pearce (2000, 2001); these studies are summarised in table 1. Nicholson and Pearce are key advocates of a systematic comparative approach, which they see as involving:

> "…the investigation of a problem in two or more places (or points in time), using a common research design so that equivalent data may be systematically collected, analysed and interpreted, and common findings produced and interrelated in order to address a general question or set of questions." (2000: 237)

Their own research is a comparative analysis of the profiles (2000) and motivations (2001) of visitors to four rural events (two food and drink festivals, an air show, and a country music festival); these were selected on the basis of size, ability to attract tourists, and to give variation in the type of event. Their analysis of visitor profiles concluded that whilst there were some similarities between the events, overall the differences were more significant: "event-goers do not appear to constitute a single, homogenous market; rather, different events appear to attract different audiences" (2000: 251). A similar pattern emerged with motivations, concluding "…event organisers cannot readily and reliably draw on the patterns of demand observed at other events, even if these are of a similar nature" (2001: 460).

The ability to compare between events, using data collected in the same, or similar way, is a significant advantage of multiple case studies. Mowen*, et al.* (2003) used a mailback survey to collect data at three separate events run by one local public body. The research had been prompted by previous studies failing to examine whether crowding is perceived differently across different events or venues. The findings established that "crowding was not uniformly perceived across different kinds of events, nor across different types of event subzones[1]" (p.71). A comparative analytical approach was also taken by Nicholls*, et al.* (1999) in their research on brand recall and preferences by spectators at two professional sporting events; Auld and McArthur's (2003) evaluation of the economic impact of four sporting events; and Lee and Crompton's (2003) comparison of the attraction power and spending impact of three festivals during a coastal resort's shoulder and off-season months.

Even less attention has been given to comparing potential differences within festivals or other events with multiple sub-events. An exception is Crompton and McKay's (1997) research on motives of visitors to Fiesta San Antonio. A sample of 16 events were selected from 60 non-sporting events within the festival on the basis of the size of the event, estimated proportion of residents and non-resident visitors, time of the week and day, and category of event[2]. Analysis by category found that although there were significant differences in relative importance of visitor motivations between the events, overall there were "pervasive similarities of motives across different events" (p.436).

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[1] Subzones: areas offering consistent types of event opportunities, e.g. main stage area, children's area, concession area.

[2] Categories: parades/carnivals, pageants/balls, food orientated events, musical events, and museums/exhibitions/shows

Table 1: Comparative Studies of Event Visitors

Study	Major issue addressed	Data collection method	Case study events	Characteristics of the Event					
				Types of events	Frequency of events	Duration of events	Location of events	Organisers	Time of year
Auld & McArthur (2003)	Expenditure/ economic impacts	On-site intercept survey	Hurricanes versus Bulls Super 12 rugby match (n=289) Formula Ford & Vee 30th Anniversary (n=287) Horse Racing (n=261) World Jet Sprints (n=224)	All professional sporting	Reoccurring	1 or 2 days	All Manawatu region, NZ	Different	All summer (March)
Lee & Crompton (2003)	Attraction power and spending impact	On-site intercept survey	Springfest (n= 1,447) Summerfest (n=1,238) Winterfest (n=1,564)	All community-based festivals	Reoccurring	2 four-day events 1 two-moth event	All Ocean City, Maryland, USA	One public sector council	Shoulder and off-season
Mowen, Vogelsong & Graffe (2003)	Perceptions of crowding	On-site intercept for contact details Mail out/mail back survey	Emerald City Folk Festival (n=181) Art & the Park (n=197) BugFest (n=123)	All community events	All annual	1 or 2 days	All Cleveland, USA	One public sector organisation	All summer
Nicholson & Pearce (2000, 2001)	Profile & motivations	On-site intercept survey	Marlborough Wine, Food and Music Festival (n=457) Hokitika Wildfoods Festival (n=179) Warbirds Over Wanaka (n=460) NZ Gold Guitar Awards (n=200)	2 food and wine festivals 1 air show 1 country music festival	Three annual, 1 biannual	2 one-day events 1 three-days 1 ten-days	All rural, spread across South Island of NZ	Different	Summer and autumn (Feb-May)
Nicholls et al (1999)	Brand recall and brand preference	On-site intercept survey	Ryder Open Golf tournament (n=562) Lipton Open Tennis tournament (n=200)	Both professional sporting	Annual	Not stated	Both Miami, Florida	Different	Spring (Feb/March)
This research	Tourism distribution channels	On-site intercept survey	New Zealand International Sevens (n=420) New Zealand International Festival of the Arts (n=955) Wellington Dragon Boat Festival (n=301)	2 sporting (one professional, one participation) 1 cultural festival	2 annual 1 biannual	2 two-day events 1 three-week festival	All Wellington, NZ	Different	Summer (Feb/March)

Another comparative approach is to sample visitors to a range of events, where the actual events themselves are not important in their own right. For example Boo, Ghiselli and Almanza's (2000) study of consumer perceptions of food services recruited participants on-site at local, country and state fairs and festivals in Indiana. Interestingly, rather than this approach making generalisations more straightforward, the authors limit the applicability of their findings, suggesting that they are specific to the individual state and cannot even be generalised nationally. In a different approach, Minor, Wagner, Brewerton and Hausman (2004) recruited participants off-site and asked respondents to visualise a recently attended musical event; the subsequent evaluations of satisfaction were therefore from "a number of individual performances across several genres, which increased the generalisability of the data" (p.13). Comparative case studies have also been adopted by researchers of organisational aspects of events management, using either identified events (for example, Derrett, 2003), or unnamed cases (for example, Frisby and Getz, 1989; O'Sullivan and Jackson, 2002; and Lade and Jackson, 2004).

Studies that take a comparative approach bring their own challenges, not least methodologically. A central concern is to what extent can, or should, the research instrument and sampling approach be replicated in each case. Whilst keeping the research approach, and thus the data collected, consistent across the events is desirable, in practice it is rarely achieved. In relation to visitor surveys at events, Smith (2004) found that whilst minor modifications may be needed to questions to tailor the survey to the specific event context, the largest variations are usually found in the survey administration, and sampling procedures, due to the individual venue layout, time schedule, and the nature and atmosphere of each event. Obviously, if data is collected in different ways this will have implications for the comparative analysis of the data and the conclusions drawn.

If the aim of a comparative study is to generalise from the specific cases, then attention also needs to be given to selection of the events used. Table 1 illustrates some of the characteristics where the above comparative visitor studies have selected similar and distinctive cases: factors include event theme, scale, location, organisation, and time of year. The identified studies generally have a high degree of homogeneity between their selected case studies, a similar theme (e.g. sporting events) within the same destination (Auld and McArthur, 2003; Nicholls*, et al.*, 1999), and even run by the same organisation (Lee and Crompton, 2003; Mowen*, et al.*, 2003). Studies may also deliberately select events with a distinguishing characteristic: the nature of the event (Nicholson and Pearce, 2000, 2001) or time of year (Lee and Crompton, 2003).

A Comparative Analysis of Event Visitors

These previous works have shown that a comparative approach brings both advantages and challenges for the researcher. As an extension of these studies and as an illustration of the need for a comparative approach, the remainder of this paper will focus on comparing the profile of visitors at events. First, a sample of visitor profiles from published research will be reviewed to evaluate the range of profile data collected and demonstrate how it can be analysed comparatively, including the limitations of utlitising the data in this way. Second, empirical data will be used from three events to demonstrate how events can be studied comparatively.

An understanding of the nature of demand for events is important for both event organisers and tourism promoters, particularly given the competitiveness of the sector (Nicholson and Pearce, 2000). A profile of attendees can provide event organisers with a better understanding of their consumers; this can aid decisions in funding, marketing, event programming, logistics, and impact evaluation. Whatever the ultimate focus of the project, most research of event visitors will collect data to provide a descriptive profile of respondents. Table 2 analyses eleven articles which report profile information and illustrates common characteristics gathered in research with event attendees. In terms of demographics, all the studies reported the gender and age profiles of their respondents. Other characteristics that are collected include occupation and/or employment status, highest level of educational attainment, household income, dependent children, marital status, and origin of visitors[3]. Of the sampled studies only Nicholls *et al.* (1999) reported ethnicity. Data is commonly also collected on trip characteristics, for example, Daniels, Backman and Backman (2004) recorded days attended (at a multi-day event), length of stay, accommodations, and party size. Data on group features often includes both size and type[4]. For reoccurring events, a further variable is whether the respondent has previously attended. Visitors may be subdivided into different groups on the basis of their involvement in the event, for example, Breen, Bull and Walo (2001) divide their respondents into competitors, spectators and officials. Other profile characteristics begin to focus more on the study's research objectives, for example dietary requirements (Boo*, et al.*, 2000) or membership of related organisations (Nicholson and Pearce, 2000).

Whilst an understanding of demand is important, this basic profile data alone is usually insufficient to provide enough complexity for planning and evaluation purposes. Other behavioural and attitudinal data (Kay, 2004), such as motivations, visit behaviour and expenditure, are required to enable more detailed market segmentation to take place. Nevertheless, at a basic level, such profile data can be used to compare and benchmark between events. By demonstrating differences between, and within, events in terms of the profile of visitors, this paper establishes the need to also take a comparative approach when analysing other aspects of event demand. Basic profile data can form the basis for deeper analysis; for example Lee, Lee and Wicks (2004) use nationality as one of the ways of segmenting festival motivations, suggesting that "…motivations may not be homogenous between domestic and foreign visitors, indicating differentiation of their marketing strategies" (p.61). The demographic profile of spectators can also be valuable information for sponsors and brand advertisers (Nicholls*, et al.*, 1999).

The challenges of going beyond the individual event and benchmarking between events can be illustrated by looking at the two most commonly used variables: gender and age. At a simple level, data can be compared for different events in an attempt to identify commonalities. Figure 1 presents data on the gender of event visitors provided in the eleven studies of event visitors identified in table 2. Broadly these

[3] Origin of visitors is recorded and reported in different ways, usually respondents are asked for their place of residence; this may be reported as specific places (Xie, 2004) but more commonly is aggregated into types of visitors, for example intrastate, interstate, overseas (Taylor and Shanka, 2002) or simply tourists/non-tourists (Nicholson and Pearce, 2000).

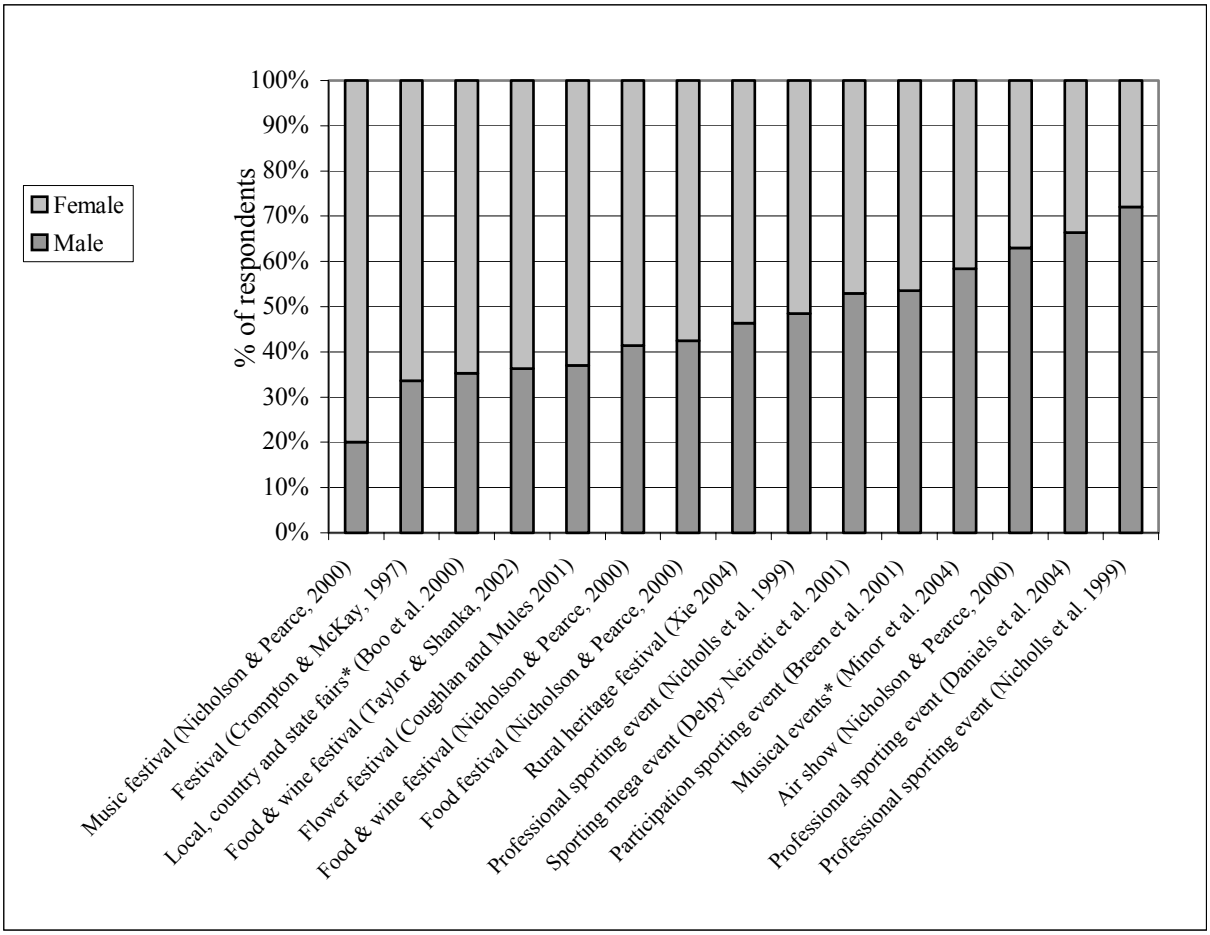
[4] Group types may include family/friends, partner, tour group, work associates, alone (Taylor and Shanka, 2002).

Table 2: Profile characteristics reported*

Study	Focus of research	Demographics								Origin	Trip characteristics									Other		
		Gender	Age	Occupation/employment status	Household income	Education	Marital status	Dependent children	Ethnicity	Place of residence	Repeat/first-time attendance	Group size	Group type	Accommodation	Transport	Length of visit	No. of days attended (multi-day events)	Main reason for visit	Expenditure	Type of involvement	Membership of related organisation	Dietary requirements
Daniels et al. (2004)	Economic impacts	✓	✓		✓	✓				✓		✓		✓		✓	✓		✓	✓		
Minor et al. (2004)	Audience satisfaction	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓														
Xie (2004)	Visitors' perceptions of authenticity	✓	✓			✓				✓	✓	✓										
Taylor and Shanka (2002)	Event success factors	✓	✓							✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓		✓	✓			
Breen et al. (2001)	Visitor expenditure	✓	✓							✓				✓						✓		
Coughlan and Mules (2001)	Sponsorship awareness & recognition	✓	✓							✓								✓	✓			
Delpy Neirotti et al. (2001)	Spectator motivations	✓	✓							✓	✓											
Nicholson and Pearce (2000, 2001)	Visitor motivations	✓	✓	✓	✓					✓	✓	✓	✓								✓	
Boo et al. (2000)	Healthfulness and safety of food	✓	✓			✓																✓
Nicholls et al. (1999)	Brand recall and brand preferences	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓													
Crompton and McKay (1997)	Visitor motivations	✓	✓							✓		✓										

* Data on other characteristics may have been collected but not reported in published findings

Figure 1: Gender profile of event visitors



* These surveys were undertaken at a range of events or off-site

Table 3: Age groups used in events visitor research

Study	Average age	Age groups					
Studies reporting all age classifications							
Breen, Bull et al. (2001)	Mean age	15-20	21-30	30+			
Taylor and Shanka (2002)		Under 18	18-35	36-55	over 55		
Xie (2004)		12-17	18-34	35-54	55+		
Boo et al. (2000)		Less than 25	25-34	35-54	55+		
Nicholson & Pearce (2000)		Under 20	20-30	31-40	41-50	51-60	Over 60
Crompton & McKay (1997)		Under 35		35-44	45-59	60+	
Studies reporting only largest age group							
Nicholls et al. (1999)				40+			
Coughlan and Mules (2001)				over 40			
Delpy Neirotti et al. (2001)		18-44					
Studies reporting only average age							
Daniels et al. (2004)	Average age						
Minor et al. (2004)	Mean age Age range						

findings suggest that cultural events and festivals attract proportionally more women and sporting events more men. However, caution must be applied to even this most basic of comparisons: each study has a different context, research focus and methodology; whilst all undertook a survey, the questionnaire design, administration and sampling procedures will be unique. The limitations are further increased when investigating other variables. For example, comparing across age is much more difficult as researchers use different age bands, report only the average age of respondents, or only give details of the largest group(s) (table 3). Similar problems occur over categories and definitions in other variables such as income and ethnicity. Even where standardised categorisations exist, such as occupational classifications, there are likely to be national differences.

All the studies reported here used a survey approach and it is important to note that there are inherent weaknesses in undertaking surveys at events (Seaton, 1997; Smith, 2004). Differences in visitor profiles may be partly attributed to sampling biases. For example, a slight bias towards younger respondents may occur when using student researchers, who may find it easier to talk to people of the same age (Thrane, 2002). Burgan and Mules (2001) also caution that at events with multiple performances or sampling points, those attending more than one performance will have an increased probability of being selected as a participant and visitors will have different patterns of multiple attendance (for example locals and tourists).

Comparing Visitor Profiles at Three Events

The balance of this paper will continue the themes of visitor profiles and comparative approaches by drawing on empirical research at three summer 2004 events held in Wellington, New Zealand. The research is part of the *Innovation in New Zealand Tourism Through Improved Distribution Channels* project at Victoria University of Wellington, funded by the Foundation for Research, Science and Technology (Pearce, 2003). One element of the project has focused on event tourism to Wellington. An interviewer-administered survey was used in an earlier stage of the four-year project to collect data on the profile and distribution channel behaviour of domestic and international tourists to Wellington (Pearce, Tan and Schott, 2004; Pearce and Schott, *In Press*). This original survey instrument was adapted and modified to collect data on the profile of event goers (demographics, place of residence, group size), visit characteristics (purpose of visit, repeat visitation, motivations), and distribution channel behaviour (independent or packaged travel; sources of information, decision-making and purchasing for the event and accommodation, and satisfaction with the process). Both local residents and tourists were interviewed, the latter being asked supplementary questions concerning their visit to Wellington and New Zealand. Minor modifications were made to the questionnaire design and administration depending on the context and nature of each event (see Smith, 2004, for a full discussion of the survey design and administration). This paper presents only the data on profiles and visit characteristics, namely gender, age, employment status, repeat/first-time attendance, group size, local residents/tourists and purpose of visit for tourists. By using a similar, but adapted, questionnaire, data on audiences can be compared *between* events. The comparative approach of this research therefore extended the work of Nicholson and Pearce (2000) by using comparing profiles across and within events. This study keeps both the location and time factors constant; all took place in the city of Wellington in February/March 2004. Statistical differences

between the different events are tested using chi-square (adopting a 0.05 significance level).

Three events were selected as comparative case studies for the research, illustrating different types of events and management issues: a two-day sell-out professional sporting tournament - the New Zealand International Sevens (n=420); a three-week cultural festival - the New Zealand International Arts Festival (n=955); and a two-day participation sporting event with free entry for spectators - the Wellington Dragon Boat Festival (n=301). Trained student researchers intercepted respondents at points around the venue sites; interviewers approached the next passing visitor once their previous survey had been completed. This sampling strategy does bring the potential of bias in the sample section which may affect the profile of respondents chosen (as noted by Thrane (2002); this is a limitation of the research methodology. Nevertheless, it should be recognised that events, and particularly closed-door performances, bring logistical sampling challenges (Seaton, 1997; Smith, 2004) which the researcher must balance against the potential sampling bias.

The inclusion of the New Zealand International Arts Festival afforded the opportunity to explore potential differences between sub-events at a festival in addition to comparing between the three main events. Analysis of visitor behaviour showed that 27.6% of all respondents were attending only one Arts Festival performance, with 67.8% attending multiple performances and 4.6% undecided. Working with the Arts Festival management, eleven sub-events were chosen to represent different elements of the Festival[5] (table 4). Theatre and music dominated, but the spread included both New Zealand and international companies and works. It should be noted that only a small number of responses were achieved at some events, particularly one-off events[6]. Performances were also grouped into art form, using the Festival's brochure categorisations: music theatre, dance, theatre, opera, and music. Whilst chi-squared test values are presented to support the statistical differences on the basis of art forms, the cell sizes for the data on the sub-events, or performances, frequently did not meet the assumptions of this test (notably there were more than twenty per cent of the table's cells with expected frequencies less than five), and this data is presented purely in a descriptive format.

Gender

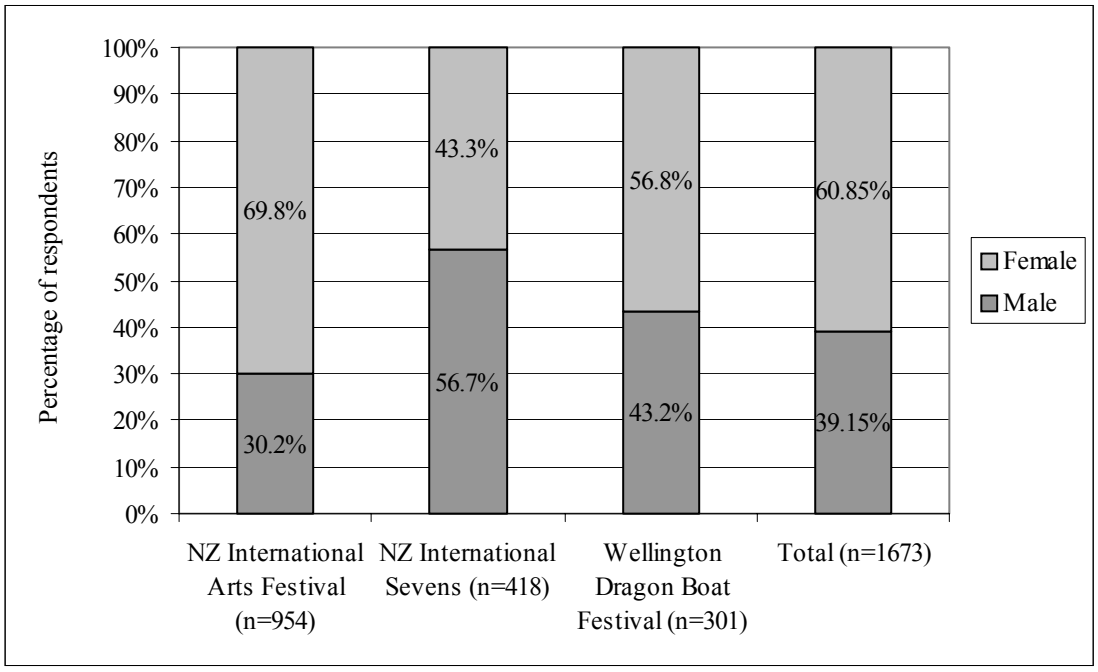
The gender balance at the three events was significantly distinct (figure 2; χ^2=88.253, p=0.000). The Arts Festival was dominated by female respondents (69.8%); the two sporting events were more balanced, but males were the larger group at the Sevens (56.7% of respondents), with the proportions reversed at the Dragon Boat Festival (56.8% female). The sampling across eleven Arts Festival sub-events also enables the data to be broken down by both performance and by art form (table 5). Female attendees still dominated at all performances, making up around two-thirds or more of the respondents at all but one event: the jazz musician Gilberto Gill, where men were 43.4% of respondents. By combining the results into types of arts, the gender differences are less pronounced and not statistically significant (χ^2=15.400, p=0.118).

[5] All selected performances were fee charging, ticketed events; other aspects of the festival, including free events were excluded and so are not represented in this research.
[6] Such as Toi Mana and Don Byron.

Table 4: Sample of Arts Festival Performances

Performance	Art-form	Nationality of production	Total no. of performances	No. of useable questionnaires
After Mrs Rochester	Theatre	UK	6	65
Ballet Nacional de España	Dance	Spain	6	91
Cookin'	Music Theatre	South Korea	6	225
Don Byron	Music	USA	2	32
Gilberto Gil	Music	Brazil	2	76
The Elixir of Love	Opera	NZ	5	102
The Junebug Symphony	Theatre	France	6	44
The Overcoat	Theatre	Canada	6	117
The Prophet	Theatre	NZ	11	49
Toi Mana – a showcase of Māori performing arts	Dance	NZ	1	31
12 Angry Men	Theatre	UK	6	123
Total			57	955

Figure 2: Gender profile of respondents



Age

There were statistically significant age profiles for each event (χ^2=194.039, p=0.000): the Sevens had the youngest age profile, followed by the Dragon Boat Festival (figure 3); by comparison, the Arts Festival's audience was more mature. Within the Arts Festival, the art forms also differed (table 6; χ^2=65.651, p=0.000): the opera had the oldest age profile, followed by theatre and dance. As well as having more male attendees, the music events, and particularly Gilberto Gil, also attracted younger audiences: 31.6% of the latter's audience were aged 29 or under.

Table 5: Gender profile of respondents at the Arts Festival

			Percentage of respondents	
Performance	**Art Form**	**n**	**Female**	**Male**
The Junebug Symphony	Theatre	44	84.1	15.9
The Prophet	Theatre	49	75.5	24.5
Cookin'	Music Theatre	225	73.8	26.2
Ballet Nacional de España	Dance	91	73.6	26.4
After Mrs Rochester	Theatre	66	69.2	30.8
12 Angry Men	Theatre	122	68.9	31.1
The Overcoat	Theatre	117	66.7	33.3
Toi Mana	Dance	30	67.7	32.3
The Elixir of Love	Opera	102	65.7	34.3
Don Byron	Music	32	65.6	34.4
Gilberto Gil	Music	76	56.6	43.4
Art Form	**No. of performances**	**n**		
Music Theatre	1	225	73.8	26.2
Dance	2	121	71.9	28.1
Theatre	5	398	70.9	29.2
Opera	1	102	65.7	34.3
Music	2	108	59.3	40.7
			χ^2=15.400, p=0.118	
Total		954	69.8	30.2

Figure 3: Age profile of respondents

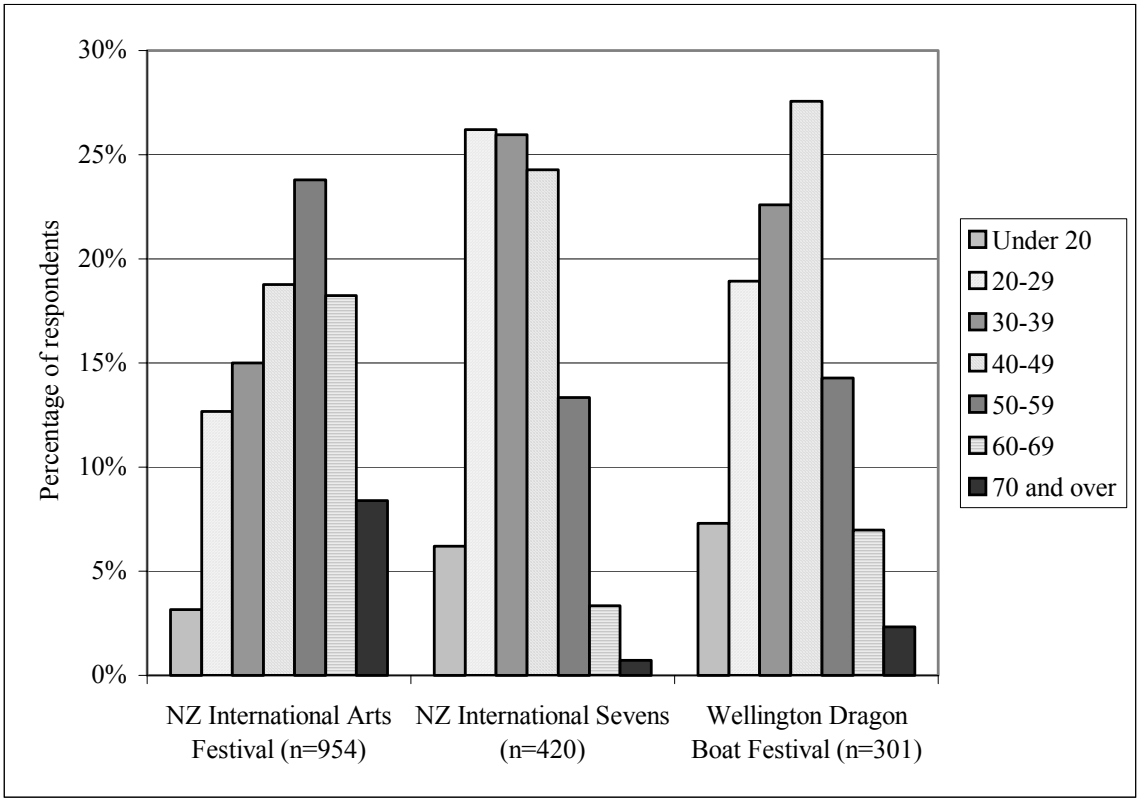


Table 6: Age profile of respondents at the Arts Festival

Three main age groups for each performance are shaded		n	% of respondents						
Performance	**Art Form**		**Under 20**	**20-29**	**30-39**	**40-49**	**50-59**	**60-69**	**70+**
Gilberto Gil	Music	76	1.3	30.3	11.8	25.0	22.4	7.9	1.3
Toi Mana	Dance	31	9.7	3.2	22.6	19.4	32.3	9.7	3.2
Cookin'	Music Theatre	225	3.6	14.7	19.6	21.3	19.1	14.2	7.6
The Junebug Symphony	Theatre	44	0.0	9.1	18.2	20.5	29.5	13.6	9.1
Don Byron	Music	32	3.1	6.3	21.9	28.1	18.8	21.9	0.0
12 Angry Men	Theatre	122	5.7	10.7	22.1	15.6	21.3	16.4	8.2
The Prophet	Theatre	49	2.0	14.3	16.3	24.5	16.3	20.4	6.1
After Mrs Rochester	Theatre	65	0.0	10.8	7.7	18.5	24.6	26.2	12.3
Ballet Nacional de España	Dance	91	0.0	11.0	11.0	14.3	34.1	20.9	8.8
The Overcoat	Theatre	117	4.3	10.3	11.1	14.5	26.5	25.6	7.7
The Elixir of Love	Opera	102	3.9	8.8	4.9	14.7	25.5	23.5	18.6
Art Form	**No. of performances**								
Music	2	108	1.9	23.2	14.8	25.9	21.3	12.0	0.9
Music Theatre	1	225	3.6	14.7	19.6	21.3	19.1	14.2	7.6
Theatre	5	397	3.3	10.8	15.4	17.4	23.7	20.9	8.6
Dance	2	122	2.4	9.0	13.9	15.6	33.6	18.0	7.4
Opera	1	102	3.9	8.8	4.9	14.7	25.5	23.5	18.6
			χ^2=65.651, p=0.000						
Total		**954**	**3.1**	**12.7**	**15.0**	**18.8**	**23.8**	**18.2**	**8.4**

Employment Status

Occupational data was combined to profile respondents on the basis of employment status (figure 4); the relationship of employment status was statistically significant for both events (χ^2=83.376, p=0.000) and art forms (χ^2= 37.471, p=0.000). Respondents in employment dominated all the events and performances at the Arts Festival. There were more retired respondents at the Arts Festival (16.9%) whilst proportionally more students attended the Sevens (11.6%) and the Dragon Boat Festival (12.4%). Few retired people attended the two Arts Festival music concerts, which also had proportionally more students (table 7). The opera was heavily dominated by retired patrons (29.7%) and both theatre and dance were also popular with this group, particularly After Mrs Rochester and Ballet Nacional de España.

Group Size

Group visiting patterns also differed between the events (figure 5; χ^2=248.022, p=0.000). At the Sevens, almost half (49%) of respondents were attending the event in a group of 4 people or less; at the other extreme, 11.2% were in groups of 21 people or more. At the Dragon Boat Festival there were also large groups, particularly when respondents were linked to a team, for example as a supporter, who had travelled from outside Wellington. Nevertheless, the majority of spectators at the event were in smaller groups of less than five people. By contrast, there were few large groups at the Arts Festival: two-fifths of respondents were attending the event as a couple (39.7%), and the same proportion were attending in small groups of 3-5 people (39.9%). 8.4% of Arts Festival respondents were attending the performance alone, rising to 20.5% at The Junebug Symphony and 16.9% at After Mrs Rochester (table 8) (although the sample sizes at these events were only 44 and 65 respectively and not statistically significant).

Figure 4: Employment status of respondents

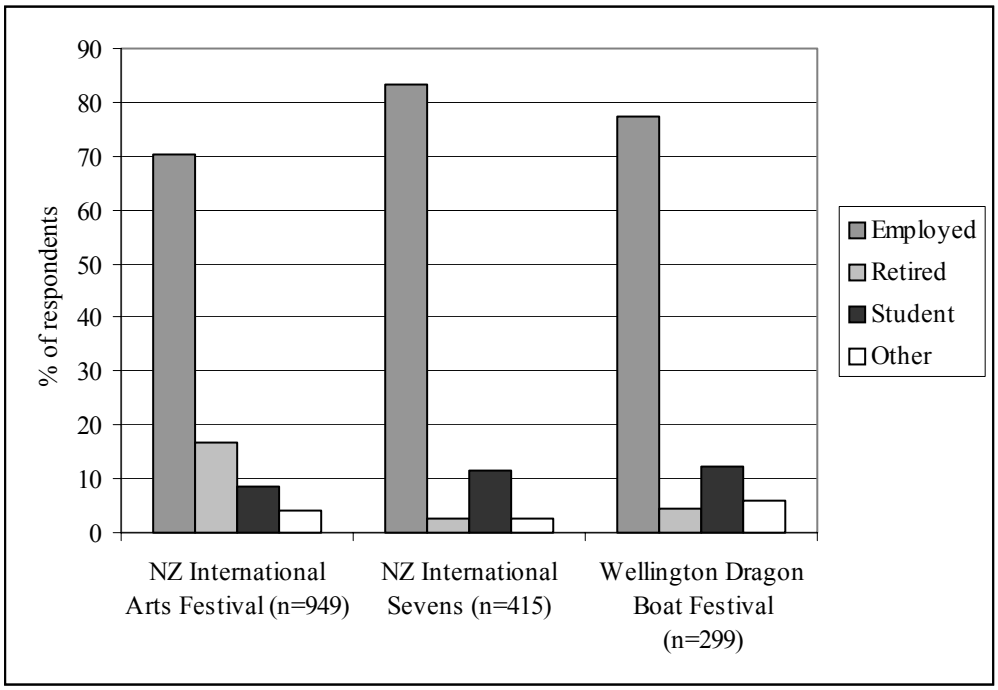


Table 7: Employment status of respondents at the Arts Festival

			% of respondents			
Performance	**Art Form**	**n**	**Employed**	**Retired**	**Student**	**Other***
Don Byron	Music	32	84.4	3.1	3.1	9.4
Toi Mana	Dance	31	77.4	6.5	12.9	3.2
Gilberto Gil	Music	76	76.3	5.3	15.8	2.6
The Junebug Symphony	Theatre	44	75.0	15.9	6.8	2.3
12 Angry Men	Theatre	123	74.8	14.6	9.8	0.8
Cookin	Music Theatre	224	71.9	12.5	10.3	5.4
The Prophet	Theatre	49	71.4	16.3	4.1	8.2
The Overcoat	Theatre	115	67.8	21.7	7.8	2.6
After Mrs Rochester	Theatre	65	67.7	24.6	7.7	0.0
Ballet Nacional De España	Dance	89	67.4	23.6	3.4	5.6
The Elixir of Love	Opera	101	55.4	29.7	7.9	6.9
Art Form	**No. of performances**					
Music	2	108	78.7	4.6	12.0	4.6
Music Theatre	1	224	71.9	12.5	10.3	5.4
Theatre	5	396	71.2	18.7	7.8	2.3
Dance	2	120	70.0	19.2	5.8	5.0
Opera	1	101	55.4	29.7	7.9	6.9
		χ^2= 37.471, p=0.000				
Total		949	70.4	16.9	8.6	4.1

* 'Other' incudes homemakers and the unemployed.

Figure 5: Number of people in each visitor group

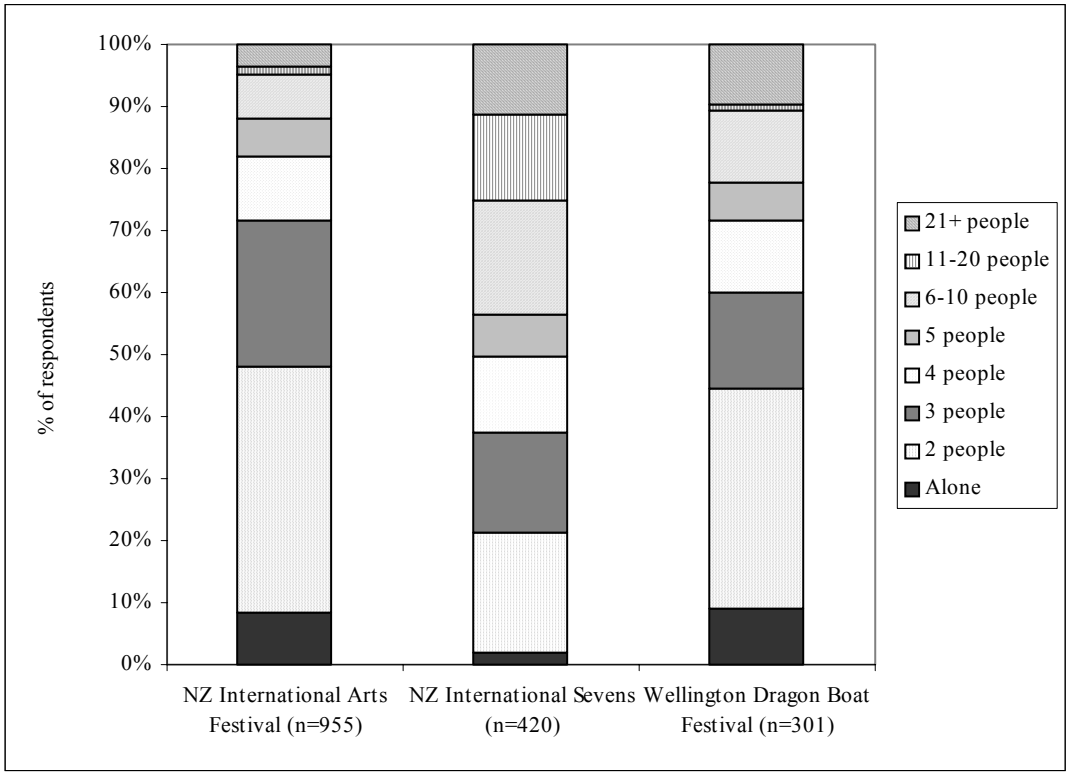


Table 8: Number of people in each visitor group at the Arts Festival

			% of respondents				
Performance	**Art Form**	**n**	**Alone**	**2 people**	**3-5 people**	**6-10 people**	**11+ people**
Toi Mana	Dance	31	0	54.8	32.7	6.5	6.5
The Prophet	Theatre	49	4.1	44.9	40.8	8.2	2.0
The Overcoat	Theatre	117	5.1	41.9	39.3	4.3	9.4
12 Angry Men	Theatre	123	5.7	37.4	41.5	8.1	7.3
Don Byron	Music	32	6.3	31.3	53.1	9.4	0
Ballet Nacional de España	Dance	91	7.7	49.5	36.3	4.4	2.2
Cookin'	Music Theatre	225	8.4	27.1	48.4	10.7	5.3
Gilberto Gil	Music	76	9.2	38.2	36.8	9.2	6.6
The Elixir of Love	Opera	102	9.8	48.0	36.3	2.9	2.9
After Mrs Rochester	Theatre	65	16.9	53.9	26.2	3.1	0
The Junebug Symphony	Theatre	44	20.5	36.4	29.6	9.1	4.6
Art form	**No. of performances**						
Dance	2	122	5.7	50.8	35.3	4.9	3.3
Music	2	108	8.3	36.1	41.7	9.3	4.6
Music Theatre	1	225	8.4	27.1	48.4	10.7	5.3
Theatre	5	398	8.8	42.2	36.9	6.3	5.8
Opera	1	102	9.3	45.4	34.3	2.8	2.8
			χ^2=33.547, p=0.000				
Total		**955**	**8.4**	**39.7**	**39.9**	**7.1**	**4.9**

Repeat versus First Time Attendance

A majority of visitors had attended the event at least once before and the relationships were statistically significant for events, art form and performances. At the Arts Festival only 24.2% of respondents were attending for the first time in 2004 (figure 6), compared with 41.7% at the Dragon Boat Festival and 42.4% at the Sevens (χ^2=61.105, p=0.000). A higher proportions of new attendees were attracted to Cookin', the music theatre production (table 9).

Tourists and Locals as Event Visitors

Respondents were divided into groups on the basis of their stated place of residence: local residents[7], domestic and international tourists. All events drew a majority of their audience from the local area (figure 7): 78.3% of the Arts Festival audience, 68.1% of the Dragon Boat Festival, and 56.2% of the Sevens (χ^2=97.409, p=0.000). The next largest group was domestic tourists, particularly at the Sevens (36.2%), with almost 10% of all respondents travelling from Auckland. 7.6% of Sevens respondents were from overseas, including the UK and Australia. The domestic tourists (19.3%) to the Dragon Boat Festival were boosted by teams and their supporters travelling from elsewhere in New Zealand to compete; another 12.6% of spectators were from overseas.

The Arts Festival was dominated by local attendees, but 17.7% were domestic tourists and 4% from overseas. Breaking down the origin of attendees by performance (table 10), whilst local residents still dominate, particularly at Toi Mana (90.0%) and After Mrs Rochester (86.3%), performances where more tourists (domestic and international combined) were surveyed included Ballet Nacional de España (30.8%), The Junebug Symphony (27.2%), The Overcoat (25.6%) and The Prophet (24.5%). The variations were less pronounced when grouped into art form and were not statistically significant (χ^2=2.938, p=0.568).

Event Tourists and Purpose of Visit to Wellington

Tourists were asked for the main purpose of their trip to Wellington. Many of the respondents can be classified as events tourists, whose trip was primarily generated by the event (figure 8; χ^2=86.074, p=0.000). These were dominant at both the Sevens (83.1% of tourists) and the Arts Festival (67.0%). Smaller numbers were combining the event with a visit to friends and relatives (VFR), a business trip, or holidays. The pattern at the only free event, the Dragon Boat Festival, was markedly different. While the largest group was still the event tourists (32.6%), those on holiday (23.2%) and VFR (15.8%) were relatively more important than at the other events. 10.5% of tourists at the Dragon Boats Festival stated they were in Wellington for another event, usually the New Zealand International Arts Festival which was running concurrently. The sample size of tourists was too small to break the figures down for individual performances within the Arts Festival.

[7] Local residents included Wellington City residents and those from the Hutt Valley, Porirua and the Kapiti Coast.

Figure 6: Repeat and first time visitors

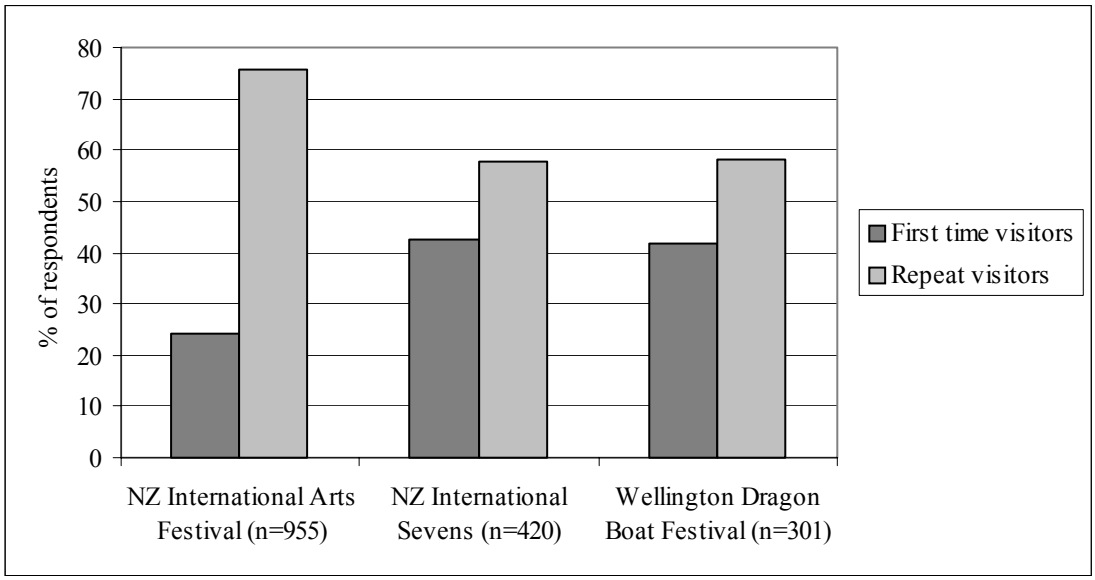


Table 9: Repeat and first time visitors at Arts Festival

			% of respondents	
Performance	**Art Form**	**n**	**First time attendees**	**Repeat attendees**
The Overcoat	Theatre	117	9.4	90.6
Don Byron	Music	32	12.5	87.5
The Elixir of Love	Opera	102	17.6	82.4
12 Angry Men	Theatre	123	22.8	77.2
Ballet Nacional de	Dance	91	23.1	76.9
The Prophet	Theatre	49	24.5	75.5
Toi Mana	Dance	31	25.8	74.2
The Junebug Symphony	Theatre	44	25.0	75.0
Gilberto Gil	Music	76	26.3	73.7
After Mrs Rochester	Theatre	65	27.7	72.3
Cookin'	Music Theatre	225	35.6	64.4
			χ^2=35.451, p=0.000	
Art Form	**No. of performances**			
Opera	1	102	17.6	82.4
Theatre	5	398	20.1	79.9
Music	2	108	22.2	77.8
Dance	2	122	23.8	76.2
Music Theatre	1	225	35.6	64.4
			χ^2=22.100, p=0.000	
Total		**995**	**24.2**	**75.8**

Figure 7: Tourists and local visitors at each event

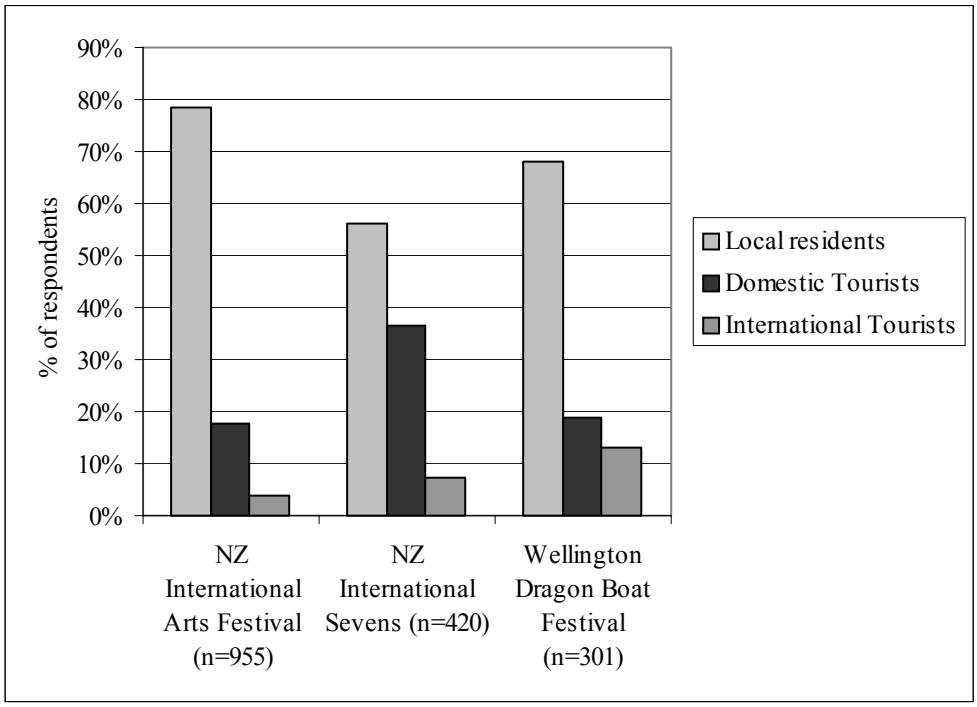
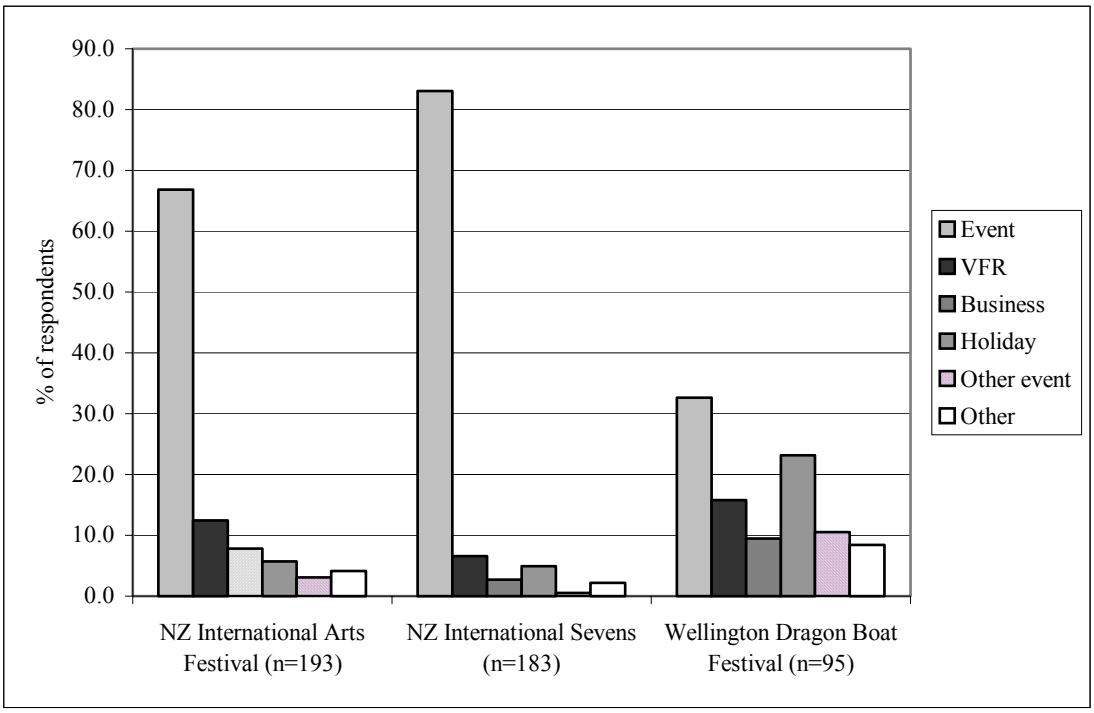


Table 10: Tourists and local visitors

			% of respondents	
Performance	**Art Form**	**n**	**Local Residents**	**Tourists**
Toi Mana	Dance	31	90.3	9.7
After Mrs Rochester	Theatre	65	86.1	13.9
The Elixir of Love	Opera	102	83.3	16.6
Gilberto Gil	Music	76	81.5	18.5
12 Angry Men	Theatre	123	78.9	21.2
Cookin'	Music Theatre	225	78.2	21.7
Don Byron	Music	32	78.2	21.9
The Prophet	Theatre	49	75.5	24.5
The Overcoat	Theatre	117	74.4	25.6
The Junebug Symphony	Theatre	44	72.7	27.2
Ballet Nacional de España	Dance	91	69.3	30.8
			χ^2=13.537, p=0.195	
Art Form	**No. of performances**			
Opera	1	102	83.3	16.7
Music	2	108	80.6	19.4
Music Theatre	1	225	78.2	21.8
Theatre	5	398	77.6	22.4
Dance	2	122	74.6	25.4
			χ^2=2.938, p=0.568	
Total		955	78.3	21.7

Figure 8: Purpose of visit to Wellington



Discussion and Conclusions

The main profile findings from each event are summarised in table 11. While there are similarities, each event attracts a statistically distinctive profile of visitors. This study therefore confirms the work of (Nicholson and Pearce, 2000) that the demand for each event is different, and rather than talking about events as a whole, we need to appreciate the levels of heterogeneity between individual events. Caution therefore needs to be applied when generalizing the findings of one study to other events. Even when two events appear to be similar, each event has distinct characteristics. For example, both the Arts Festival and Dragon Boats Festival were dominated by local attendees, however, those tourists who did attend were markedly different: at the Arts Festival tourists were visiting Wellington because of the event itself, whereas tourists at the Dragon Boat Festival were visiting the destination for a range of reasons.

The findings from this work can be compared to previous studies, for example, if the gender data were incorporated into figure 1, the three events would fit with the trend of cultural events attracting more women, sports events attracting more men. However, a comparative approach means that the data from the three case study events can be more readily compared and contrasted than a simple benchmarking between the findings of individual studies with different purposes, approaches and methodologies. Selecting three events in a single destination, and at one point in the year means that the variations observed may be more about the differences between the events than external factors. In this research the methodology and sampling were replicated at each event, with only minor contextual modifications, thus meaning that the data are more easily comparable. It is important to note that comparative research

is not without its own methodological challenges; even with careful planning the unique nature of each event, and event audience, will mean that some minor adjustments in methodology and sampling may occur. The logistical challenges of undertaking surveys at events (Seaton, 1997; Smith, 2004) has contributed to the choice of sampling strategy adopted; this does introduce the potential of some sample bias and errors, which is a limitation of the research. Nevertheless, the statistical analysis does suggest a significant relationship between the profile factors and the event and festival art form variables.

Analysis on performances within a festival does reduce the sample sizes. However, it is possible to determine that there are similarities and differences in profiles. The results show whilst many event-goers attended a number of performances within the Arts Festival, each individual performance attracted a distinct profile of attendees. This raises the issue of whether festivals can be seen as the 'event' or whether it is better to consider each performance as a distinct 'event' in its own right, which has implications for event programming and marketing. These findings and the work on motives by Crompton and McKay (1997) suggest that whilst there is value in targeting a more generic 'festival event' visitor, it is still important to understand how each event, or type of event, is different. Future research at festivals therefore needs to carefully consider the sampling of audiences across performances and categories to further explore the distinctions within the overall festival context.

Table 11: Summary matrix of dominant characteristics of visitors to each event

Event	Gender	Age	Employment status	Group size	Repeat/first time attendees	Tourists or local visitors	Event-generated tourists
Sevens	More males	More younger	Mostly employed	Range of groups, including large parties	Slightly more repeat attendees	Locals and domestic tourists	Event tourists
Dragon Boat Festival	More females	Relatively even spread	Mostly employed	Both smaller groups and large parties	Slightly more repeat attendees	Local	Other reasons also important
Arts Festival	Many more females	More older	Mostly employed but also retired	Small groups and alone	Many more repeat attendees	Local	Mostly event tourists
Within Arts Festival	Differences not statistically significant	More older (especially at the opera); more younger attendees at music concerts	More retired attendees at the opera, theatre and ballet. Music concerts had most students	Most small groups but musical theatre and music slightly larger groups	More repeat attendees, but music theatre attracted more new attendees	Difference by art form not statistically significant. Ballet and some theatre performances attracted more tourists	

An understanding of the demand for events has important implications for event practitioners and can inform decisions in programming, funding, marketing, event operations and evaluation. For example, working with sponsors, the demand data can be used to determine which events (or performances) best fit their consumers' profile, or the profile of targeted non-users. These findings suggest that younger respondents are under-represented at the cultural arts festival; if audience development is a strategic objective of an event, then programming can be planned to capture segments of visitors not attending, or less represented in the sample. By breaking down the audience by demographic characteristics, the impacts of each segment of visitors, and the extent to which they may differ, can be investigated. There are also implications for tourism providers; for example, the potential for targeting group visitors at events such as the Sevens and the Dragon Boat Festival means their needs for accommodation and travel also need to be taken into account when planning and evaluating their impact.

Whilst this paper has focused on basic visitor profile data, it is suggested that if such heterogeneity is present in visitor profiles, it is important to determine if other aspects of events, visitors and their behaviour are also different. This could include motivations, travel patterns, expenditure and impacts. To this end, the next stage of the research reported on here is to further comparatively analyse these three events in terms of the distribution channel behaviour of visitors. Do the information and purchasing channels used by visitors at these events differ, and on what basis? Profile variables such as distinctions between local residents and tourists and repeat visitors and first-time attendees will be employed to explore patterns within and between these events.

These conclusions lead us to somewhat contradictory recommendations. On the one hand, it suggests that we need more comparative work to identify and confirm the similarities and differences between events and demand. This could be research comparing across similar events types, scales and location. To advance event management theory we need to be able to synthesise research and look at where commonalities can be found. Published research of individual studies can provide data to broadly offer comparisons against which practice can be compared. However, this paper has shown that each event is different and therefore we need to be cautious about applying the results of one study to another event, even if it is broadly similar in nature. So, paradoxically, this paper also affirms the importance of the single case study approach and the need for each event to commit attention and resources to evaluating its own unique audience and impacts. To further advance our understanding of events, future individual studies could also attempt to be more standardised in approach and methodology to produce data that can be more readily used in benchmarking.

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Sporting Event Issues and Evaluation

Evaluation of NSW Maritime Major Special Aquatic Events: 2003 Boat Owner/Skipper Survey*

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Abstract

Over the past 15 years, aquatic activities on Sydney Harbour have evolved into major events. They are remarkable for their ability to attract and to provide enjoyment for on-water attendees and the half to one million plus audience who visit Sydney to view them from the harbour foreshores. NSW Maritime (was Waterways NSW) is the statutory authority of NSW government charged with overseeing a series of major special aquatic events that are central to the cultural, recreational and tourism life of Sydney. For 2002/2003, major special aquatic events were held in conjunction with: 2002 Gay Games; 2002 New Years Eve; 2002 Sydney to Hobart Regatta; 2003 Australia Day; and 2003 Sydney Harbour Week. This paper seeks to provide an evaluation NSW Maritime's management and organisation of these major special aquatic events from the perspective of registered boat owner/skippers who attend the events. The aim of the study was to:

- assist in continual improvement of Major Special Aquatic Event management through a better understanding of skippers' experiences; and
- elicit skipper criticisms of, and suggestions for improvement of, event management to contribute to the development of improved risk management and customer service processes.

The method chosen was a postal survey due to ongoing management information systems that collect on-water registration details of boats attending events. The *Boat Owner/Skipper Survey on Major Special Aquatic Events* (Darcy & Veal, 2003) was undertaken in July 2003. The questionnaire was formulated in conjunction with NSW Maritime and mailed to 555 skippers who had been identified by an on-water audit of boat registration numbers by NSW Maritime's staff as attending the identified major special aquatic events. A total of 224 completed questionnaires were returned, giving a response rate of 40 percent.

The major findings of the study include that while skippers were generally satisfied with the pre-event communication, apart from issues of map clarity, there were areas of on-water management that could be improved to provide a more consistent event experience. The five areas to emerge were: communication; enforcement; education; publicity; and equity. This research forms part of ongoing strategies to improve NSW Maritime's special aquatic events risk management and customer service processes. A paper is in preparation that will present a consolidated analysis of these areas, draw together separate stakeholder research and management information systems to present a consolidated overview of organisational risk management and customer service processes.

1 Introduction

Over the past 15 years, special aquatic events on Sydney Harbour have evolved into major events. They are remarkable for their ability to attract and provide enjoyment for on-water attendees and the half to one million plus audience who visit Sydney to view the events from the harbour foreshores. These events require a co-ordinated effort between a number of NSW government departments and statutory authorities. The on-water elements of these special major aquatic events are managed by NSW Maritime (was Waterways NSW). While event evaluation has concentrated on the macro economic impacts of events from a tourist perspective (Carlsen, Getz, & Soutar, 2000), there has been little research on the management of the on-water elements of events. As with any strategic management or research process, evaluation is an important part of the review process for improvement through systematic monitoring and feedback (Allen, 1996). Events evaluation has been defined as,

> '…the process of critically observing, measuring and monitoring the implementation of an event in order to assess it outcomes accurately. It enables the creation of an event profile that outlines the basic features and important statistics of an event. It also enables feedback to be provided to the event stakeholders, and plays an important role in the event management process by providing a tool for analysis and improvement (Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell, & Harris, 2002:389)

This paper seeks evaluate the NSW Maritime's management of the on-water elements of these events through an investigation of the experiences of boat owners/skippers (referred to as skippers here on in). It is recognised from the outset that the skippers' perspective is only one element within the overall major special aquatic event planning but it is an important element given the high risk nature of aquatic events where 3000 plus spectator vessels take part at any given event on Sydney Harbour (NSW Maritime, 2005a). Further, as with any organisation, NSW Maritime has a responsibility to provide high-quality customer service to its constituent stakeholders and, in the case of major aquatic special events, skippers are the recipients of customer service and play a critical role in the success of events from a risk management perspective. This paper provides a background of the Sydney Harbour major special aquatic events, outlines the methodology used in assessing skippers experience of NSW Maritime's management of the event and draws conclusions about the future management of major aquatic events on Sydney Harbour.

2 Background

Special events are 'specific rituals, presentations, performances or celebrations that are consciously planned and created to mark special occasions or to achieve particular social, cultural or corporate objectives' (Allen et al., 2002:10). From a government perspective, special events can be considered 'any planned activity that is wholly or partly conducted on a road, requires multiple agency involvement, requires special traffic management arrangements, and may involve large numbers of participants and/or spectators. Examples are marathons, fun runs, cycling events, parades, marches and street market days (Roads and Traffic Authority, 2004:19). NSW Maritime is responsible for literally thousands of the aquatic events each year (NSW Maritime, 2005b). This study focuses on their showcase major special aquatic events that can be defined by combining the above definitions - *special aquatic events held on Sydney Harbour that are of major proportions*. This study examines a

number of aquatic events, each different to the other but all drawing very large numbers of boat attendees. Examples include fireworks, races, parades, concerts and assemblies where exclusive zoning of Sydney Harbour is required to facilitate on-water traffic flow, safety and risk management considerations. These major special aquatic events (referred to as 'major aquatic events' here on in) usually disrupt normal traffic flow on roads surrounding land-based spectator areas, and on-water participant and spectator areas.

There are many reasons people become involved in major aquatic events. They expect to be near the event and in an extraordinary environment, doing what they like doing most – meeting their recreational needs through boating (Glasser, 1998). According to Glasser (1998:28) participants become involved in activities to meet their recreational needs of fun, freedom, belonging and, in these cases, some form of cultural celebration or the spectacle of a major aquatic event. While this paper does not allow for an investigation of what participants of major aquatic events regard as the spectacle that they are involved in, the new urbanist literature of Guy Debord's work on spectacle as part of a city's life is certainly worth further research consideration (Debord, 1994). The nature of the important elements of the visual spectacle and the on-water participant involvement of major aquatic events that provide meaning in people's lives could be given prominence in any further research work (see Bracken, 1994; Macdonald, 1995; Pinder, 2000; Swyngedouw, 2002).

Major aquatic events are comprised of five stages:

1. creative initiation of an idea based on a theme and produced by those sometimes not involved directly in the operation;
2. principal staging of the Event spectacle itself;
3. on-water for the boaters, their crews and guests on-water as both spectators and sometimes participants;
4. on shore viewers of the spectacle; and
5. combines all elements of the first four stages to feature as a universal spectacle telecast on radio and television.

There is nothing elsewhere in the world except perhaps Tall Ship assemblies in Europe to compare with the special nature of these Sydney based iconic events. In the opinion of the authors these Sydney based major aquatic events are perhaps evocative of the best that Sydney has to offer.

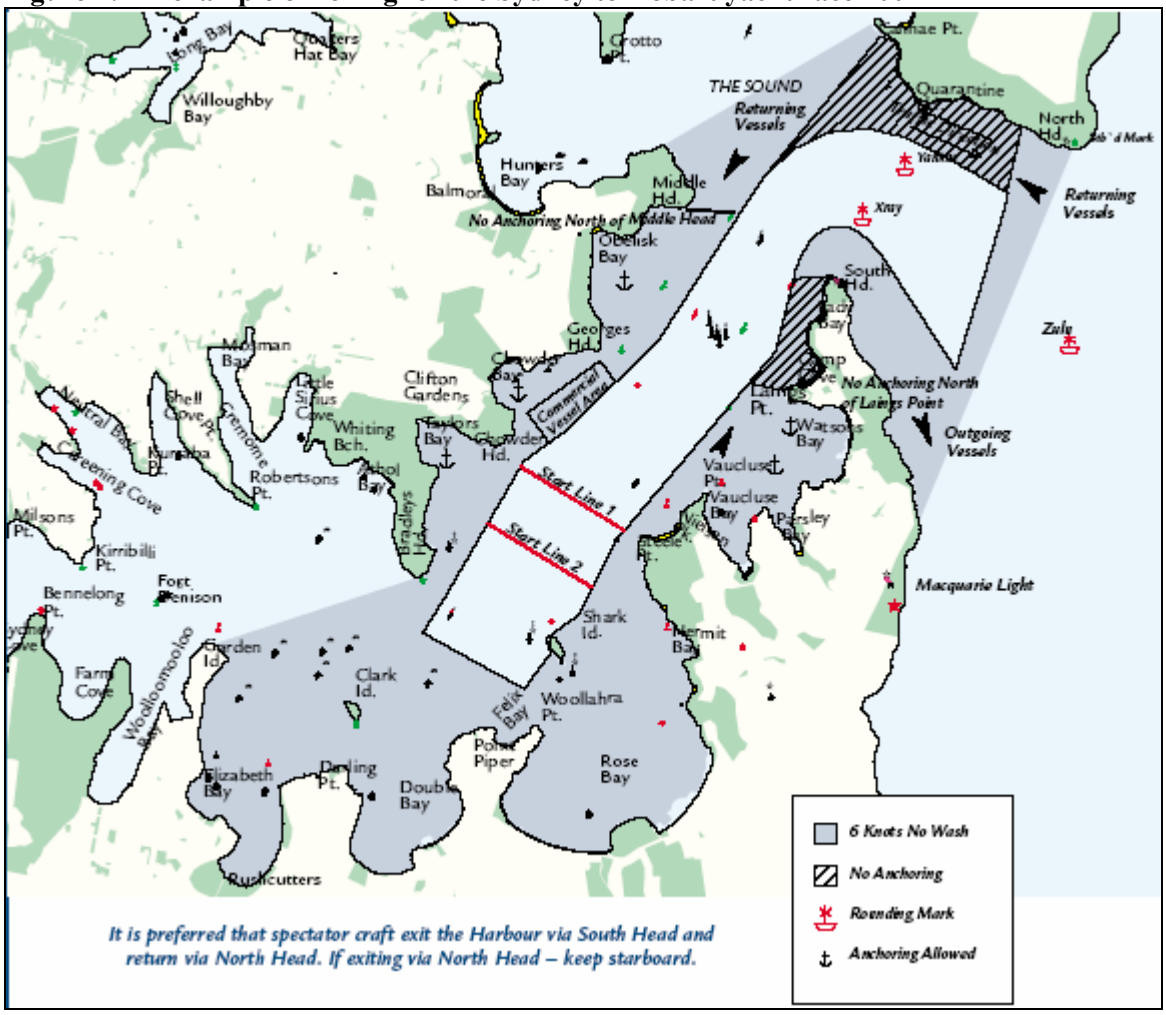
There are some 70,000 registered vessels in the Sydney Region, which has a population of approximately four million (NSW Maritime, 2005b). Of the skippers who attend events on Sydney Harbour each year some 3,000 attend the Sydney to Hobart Race Start, 2,000 attend New Years Eve's celebrations and 2,500 attend Australia Day. These skippers brave Sydney Harbour traffic during the events and risk their crews, passengers and their boat's safety to seek a major aquatic event recreational experience. Special events take on different dimensions on the water. In organising major aquatic events, there is little to compare them with activities ashore and even then, there are few parallels or similarities. The starting point to on-water event management is different with water safety, sea lore and collision regulations being priority factors to consider (NSW Maritime, 2005b).

NSW Maritime as the regulatory authority on Sydney Harbour and as the organiser of major aquatic events has a duty of care to those participating or as spectators. This duty of care involves understanding the inherent risks of each of the major aquatic events and planning to

minimise that risk for those attending onshore or on-water. The organisation of major aquatic events can be divided into three main categories:

1. Major on-water event – spectator. Initially static then dynamic eg Sydney Hobart Race before and after the start.
2. Major on-water event - spectator. Static e.g. New Years Eve Fireworks, Australia Day Jazz concert, Sydney 2000 Olympic Sailing
3. Major on-water event - spectator. Dynamic with separation zones around key vessels e.g. Australia Day Ferrython (ferry race)

Figure 1: An example of zoning for the Sydney to Hobart yacht race 2004



Source: (NSW Maritime, 2005a:7)

Categories 1, 2 and 3 require an Exclusive Zoning classification (see Figure 1) and supporting *Special Event Legislation* for operation on Sydney Harbour under the *Maritime Services Act 1935* and through provisions of the *Environmental Planning and Assessment Act 1979*. The use of Exclusive Zoning is NSW Maritime's primary means of risk management through seeking to separate incompatible uses. These incompatible uses involve each of the above categories of static then dynamic spectators, static spectators and dynamic spectators with separation zones. As such, a successful special aquatic event must satisfy two groups of people, first, participants and spectators in the event and second, those not involved in the event but who are affected by the event through onshore congestion around spectator areas (RTA 2004). As Sydney has developed, major aquatic events have become bigger in scale and more complex to manage. The number of vessels attending has increased slowly but significantly. This has increased the requirements to have risk management strategies in place

so that as much as possible risks can be identified, assessed and managed appropriately. NSW Maritime recognises its responsibility to continuously improve its approach to risk management to achieve safer aquatic outcomes not only as a facilitator of traffic and crowd management but as the lead organisation in major aquatic events (NSW Maritime, 2005b).

Up to now, there has not been a serious accident during a major event (pers. comm. Bolton 20/1/2005). However, risk is always inherent in any event and even more so in major aquatic events where thousands of individually skippered vessels jostle for the best positions to view the events. The NSW Maritime's Special Aquatic Events Manager has been involved with managing every aquatic event during the last decade and believes strongly in pursuing best quality operational practice, understanding the needs of boaters and the importance of strategic crowd management. He takes pride in the record of never having had a serious accident and continually seeks to monitor all phases of aquatic event management to ensure that this record is maintained (Bolton, 2002). However, it is recognised that there is increasing demand for onshore and on-water attendance at these events and as numbers grow, ensuring quality of the experience and the safety of participants requires an evaluation process that contributes towards continued improvement for future events.

Hence, this study is part of this process of continual monitoring and evaluation that seeks to maintain the values defined in the NSW Maritime's *Corporate Plan*, where Leadership, Quality, Integrity, Teamwork, Creativity and Learning underpin the organisation's strategic vision (NSW Waterways, 2003, 2004). The plan stresses the importance of open communication between NSW Maritime and its stakeholders as a foundation to managing vessel movement generally and in the circumstances surrounding major aquatic events. Skippers are an integral component to management of these events as they are individually responsible for their vessel's navigation and the safety of those in the vessels they control. Risk management planning is dependent on each skipper as the conveyor of NSW Maritime's operational management practices.

3 Methodology

With this background to set the context, the overall aim of the study was to evaluate NSW Maritime's management practice from a skipper's perspective. The objectives of the study were to:

- assist in continual improvement of Major Special Aquatic Event management through a better understanding of skippers experiences; and
- elicit participant criticisms of, and suggestions for improvement of, event management to contribute to the development of improved risk management and customer service processes.

There are 200,000 boat owners and 400,000 licensed skippers registered by NSW Maritime (NSW Maritime, 2005b). Of these, there are 70,000 registered vessels in the Sydney Region (NSW Maritime, 2005b). The sample for the study was drawn from skippers who had been identified by an on-water audit of boat registration numbers by NSW Maritime's staff attending the major aquatic events of the 2002/2003. The major aquatic events included in the study were:

- 2002 Gay Games;
- 2002 New Year's Eve;
- 2002 Sydney to Hobart Regatta;
- 2003 Australia Day; and
- 2003 Sydney Harbour Week.

The on-water audit is part of NSW Maritime's normal management information systems where boats are checked for registration details and currency of registration. A total of 555 boat skippers were identified and a mail out was undertaken to each of the owners of the boats. A total of 227 completed questionnaires were returned, giving a response rate of 40 percent.

The questionnaire was formulated in conjunction with NSW Maritime. A previous study had been undertaken by Bolton (2000) and the questionnaire used for that study formed the basis for questionnaire design of this study so NSW Maritime had the basis for ongoing major aquatic event assessment. Due to the sampling methods (discussed above), the questionnaire was implemented through a postal survey that utilised NSW Maritime's management information systems. The postal survey followed the standard postal survey technique summarised by (Veal, 1997) and first developed by (Dillman, 1978, 2000). As the questionnaire was self completed, a number of strategies were used to ensure a high level of completion. These included:

- the questionnaire design took a great deal of care in presenting mainly closed questions;
- each question had very direct instructions for completion;
- a series of reminder letters was incorporated into the research design;
- a detailed cover letter was developed that explained the purpose of the study, how the respondents were selected to receive the postal questionnaire and the ethical considerations of the study;
- while designing a questionnaire for a high level of completion, it was felt it was also important to allow the skippers an opportunity to provide feedback of their experiences of the events through a series of open ended questions.

The questionnaire included questions on:

- major aquatic events attended;
- reasons for attending events;
- sources of information about events;
- opinions on the adequacy of information provided;
- communication with waterways and other agencies during events;
- opinions on vessel management and user behaviour on the harbour;
- opinions on overall management of special aquatic events; and
- respondent profile/boating experience.

Due to organisational considerations, no reminder letters were sent and no incentive for completion was incorporated. The literature suggests that both these omissions significantly affected the response rate. Yet, the study's 40 percent response rate can be regarded as a sound response.

The data was entered into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) where the data analysis used frequencies, cross tabulations, means, standard deviation, chi-square and graphs to present the descriptive information. The findings are presented using whole percentages in the body of the text. Further, the open ended responses from the questionnaire were collected verbatim, analysed for themes and used for direct quotes to highlight findings in the study. The major findings of the study are now discussed.

4 Findings and Discussion

4.1 Profile of skippers and boating experience

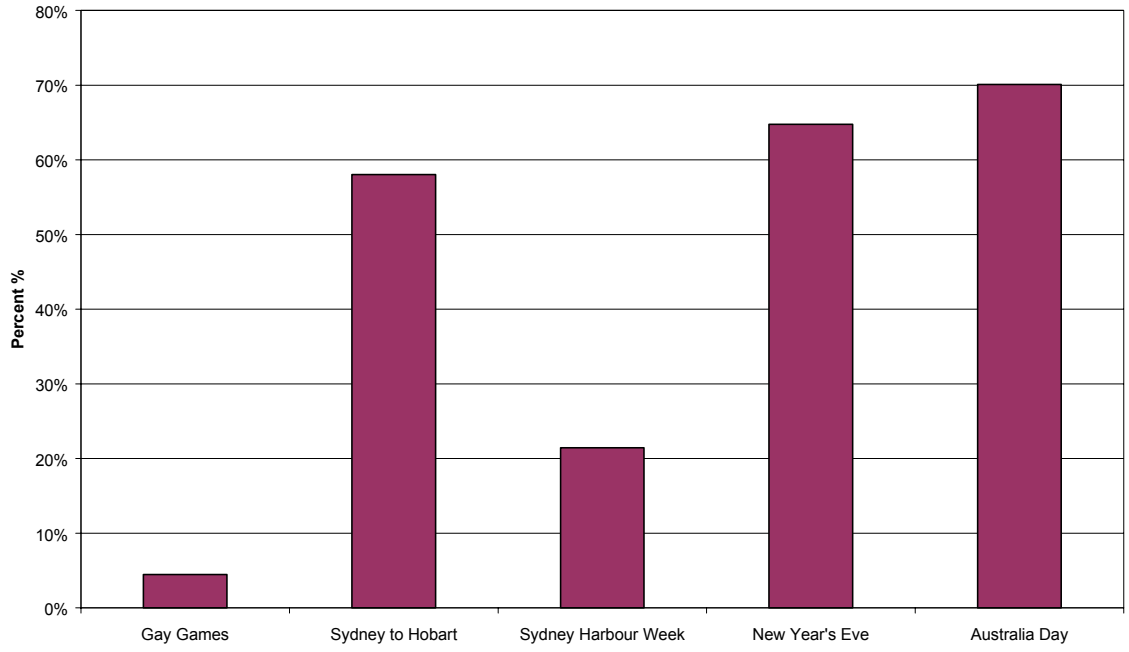
The skippers were 98% male, with 68% being 45 years or older and 30% aged 25-44. While 74% were Australian-born, the other countries of origin were other seafaring nations such as United Kingdom (7%), New Zealand (5%) and South Africa (2%). Over 92% spoke only English at home, although another 15 languages were spoken. Some 75% were either self-employed or working full time while 15% of skippers were retired. The majority of skippers (52%) had some form of TAFE/trade certificate and just over a third were university educated. The geographic catchment of those attending the event was drawn from all regions of Sydney (mainly 39% Northern suburbs of Sydney and 23% Eastern/Inner Western suburbs of Sydney) with 6% coming from other areas of New South Wales.

The majority of respondents were very experienced skippers with over 60% having 11 or more years experience. Another third had between 2-10 years experience with only 8% being first year skippers. The profile of the boats showed that 43% of skippered boats were between 6-10 metres, followed by 35% being 10-15 metres and equal proportions of smaller vessels under 5 metres and over 15 metres. The sample contained a spectrum of powered and sail driven vessels.

4.2 Events attended

Figure 2 indicates that the largest proportion of respondents had attended the Australia Day celebrations, followed by New Years Eve and the Sydney to Hobart Race start. The Sydney Harbour Week was only attended by 20% of respondents. The 2002 Gay Games was a one off event that was only attended by 5% of respondents.

Figure 2: Events attended

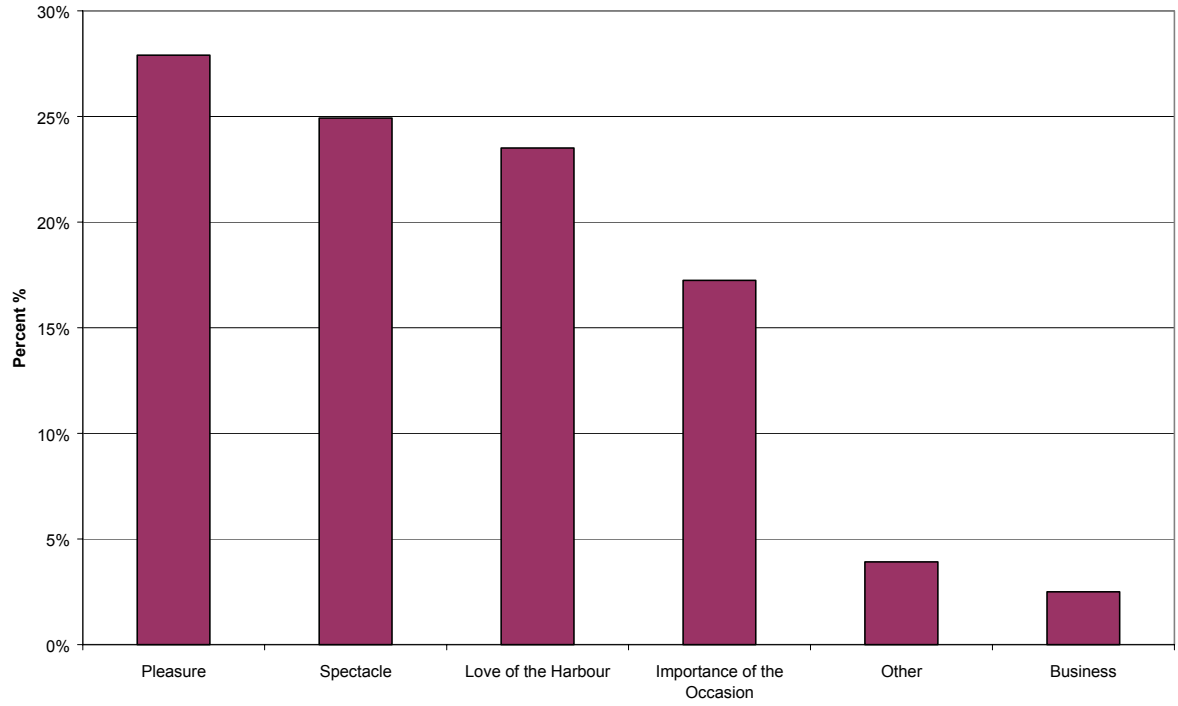


Source: Darcy & Veal 2003 (n = 227)

4.3 Reasons for attendance

Figure 3 indicates that the main reasons for attending the events were simply pleasure and enjoyment of the spectacle. This was a multiple response question and most respondents identified between two or three reasons for attending the event. Many took the inherent nature of the event (importance of the occasion) as given, and answered a combination of pleasure, spectacle and love of the harbour. As suggested in Section 2, an area for further research may be to consider what is the inherent nature of the spectacle (Debord 1998), which attracts skippers and their passengers involvement, and how this is different/similar to onshore spectators.

Figure 3: Reasons for attendance



Source: Darcy & Veal 2003 (n = 227)

4.4 Pre event communication

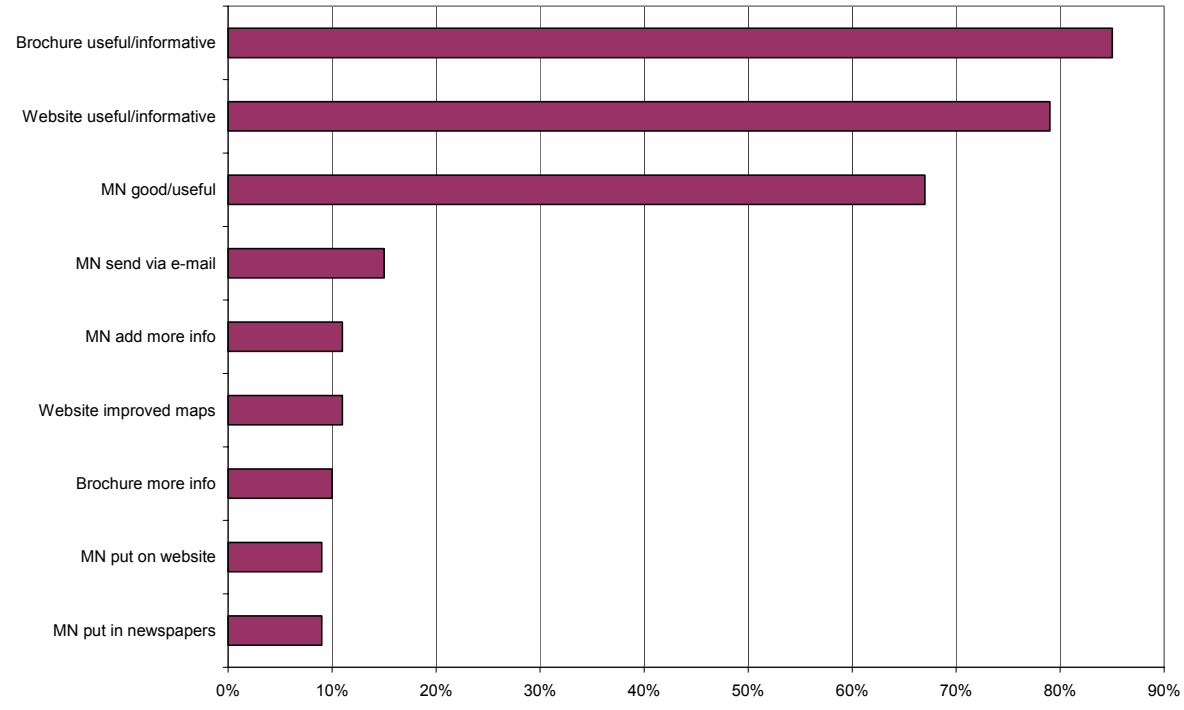
Almost 70% of respondents saw the Marine Notice concerning the events they attended, with 43% obtaining the *Aquatic Events Brochure* but only 38% used the website. The *Aquatic Events Brochure* is the vital educational tool for all the major events during the summer period. Some 25,000 booklets are printed and distributed before the event. It conveys the plan for each event, the rules as well as the safety message. In understanding the plan, rules and regulations and safety factors by reading the brochure the boater chooses to be better prepared and thus better able to satisfy their leisure needs.

The lower level of web site use may have to do with the overall profile of respondents discussed earlier. While the respondents were generally well educated, they were generally males aged 45 years and over where the Australian Bureau of Statistics (2004) research suggests that Internet use by this group is much lower than for the general population (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2004b). For example, men 60+ used the Internet on average

25% in the last year, whereas children 12 to 14 used the Internet on average 80% in the last year. This observation is not just an Australian phenomena but has been recognised as one of the global challenges for the provision of information on the Internet (World Markets Research Centre, 2001). In undertaking a Chi square of Internet use by the demographic variables, this study supported the ABS findings that education is a significant influence on Internet use ($p = .027$).

Figure 4 indicates the main comments made about these information sources, showing that, of those who saw each information sources and who commented, the great majority expressed satisfaction with the information presented. Small groups were in favour of further use of the website and internet for communication and there were negative comments about the quality of maps used on all information sources. The quality of images on Internet sites is governed by the resolution of the original pictures (individual bit maps) and the resolution of the format used by media source (bmp, jpeg, gif, tif etc.). Due to the navigational requirements of the group, high-resolution images are needed that show the intricate details of both the exclusionary zoning and navigational hazards. Given the respondent profile another consideration may be the presentation of all material in larger resolution/print format as there is a significant relationship between ageing and vision impairments (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2004a) where the most common request for alternative formats is large print (Human Rights and Equal Opportunity Commission, 2002).

Figure 4: Main comments on information sources



4.5 Organisational communication on event days

Figure 5 indicates that almost two thirds of event attendees received some form of direct communication from NSW Maritime officers while at the event. About 10% received communication from the Water Police and smaller proportions from the Australian Volunteer Coast Guard (AVCG) and the Royal Volunteer Coastal Patrol. Figure 8 shows that most of the communication was received directly by voice. This was expected given the proportion of resources available on the event days by each of the authorities and their designated roles.

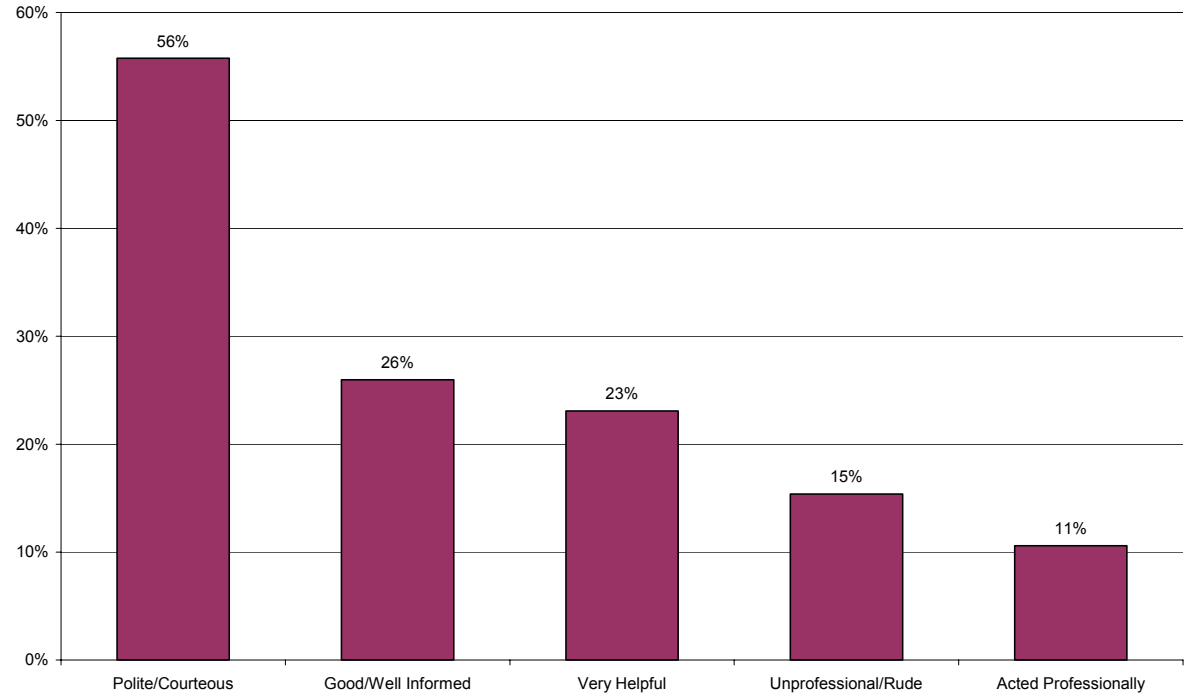
Figure 5: Communications received while at the event

Authority		Loud-hailer	Voice	Hand signal	Radio	Other	None/ DK
NSW Maritime officer	%	11	41	18	5	3	39
Water Police vessel	%	2	17	6	3	1	75
Aust. Vol. Coast Guard	%	-	8	5	3	-	85
Royal Vol. Coastal Patrol	%	1	5	4	1	1	90

Source: Darcy & Veal 2003 (n = 227)

Of those who received communications from authorities, 79% were satisfied or very satisfied. Figure 6 shows that most comments on the communication received were positive, but a small proportion (15%) found the communication unprofessional or rude. For example, one respondent recounted that NSW Maritime were, "Rude, abrupt and patronising". Apart from comments of general satisfaction with the service provision, the other comments worth noting were the improvement in service provision and communication over time summed up by the following, "Years ago the MSB were a pack of ******. These days, whether up the coast, or on the harbour, all have been pleasant and useful – well done!" Further, from one long-time participant, "I have been a participant in the Sydney-Hobart since 1982. I have noticed continual improvement in the way the event has been managed – very difficult at times. Congratulations".

Figure 6: Comments on communication



Source: Darcy & Veal 2003 (n = 104)

4.6 Opinions on Harbour management and events

Respondents' opinions were sought on a range of issues on harbour management and events. Figure 7 presents means of response by the listed 5 point attitude statements where 1 signified 'strongly disagreed' through to 5 'strongly agreed'. The highest mean response of 4.36 signifies an overall positive response by respondents to attending further major aquatic events on Sydney Harbour. The lowest mean score of 2.49 given to the statement that 'Authorities

don't understand boater's needs', provides broad support for NSW Maritime's organisation of the events from a skipper's perspective. Similarly, respondents were impressed with the organisation of the major aquatic events, the behaviour of participants on board other boats and the relevant cost of attending. A mean score of 3.60 indicates that further work could address information provision for those attending and supports the findings of Section 4.4 previously discussed. Management may need to consider the issue of the speed of vessels, although this would also be a product of the relative crowdedness of Sydney Harbour on the event days where crowdedness can be an indicator of satisfaction or with the satisfaction depending on the nature of leisure experiences (Veal, 2002). As one person suggests, "Some events are just too crowded and I no longer go to Sydney-Hobart starts. Perhaps more major events would spread the crowds". Similarly, comments about the relative pollution of Sydney Harbour can be dependent on a series of exogenous factors (level of rainfall and littering) and individual's perception of the state of the environment.

Figure 7: Views on Harbour management and events

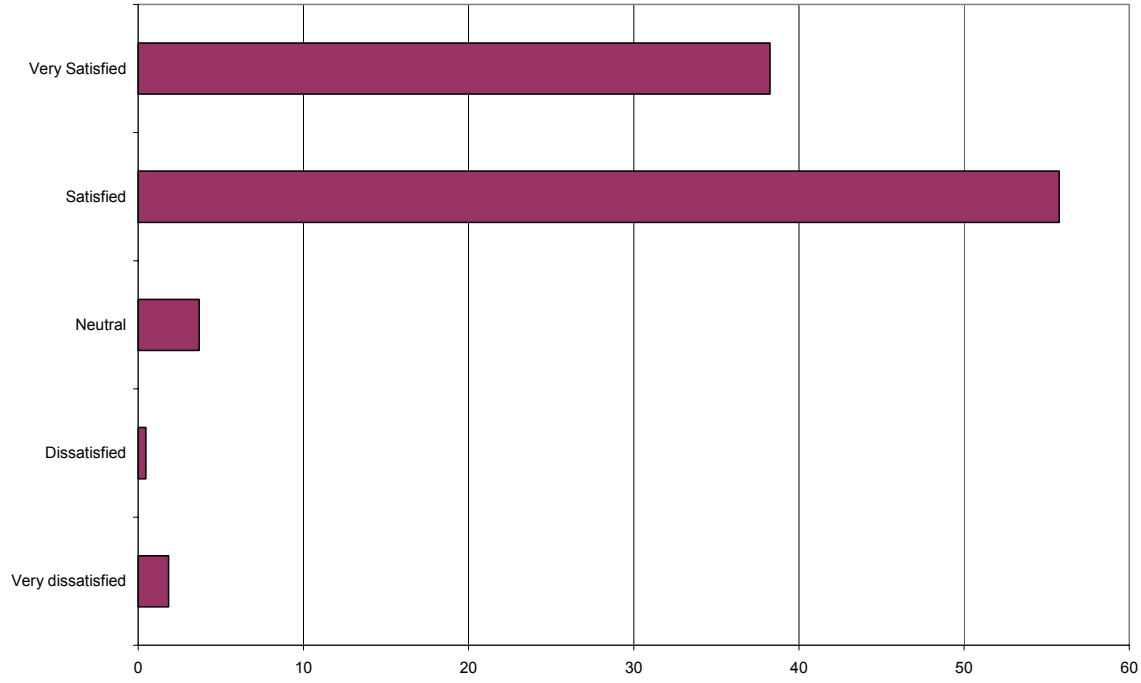
	N	*Mean*	*Std.Dev*
I plan to attend another major aquatic event on Sydney Harbour	218	4.36	.739
Major aquatic events well organised	216	4.07	.579
People well behaved on boats	209	3.84	.715
Major aquatic events are inexpensive to attend	217	3.84	.795
More information needed on major events	215	3.60	.864
Vessels travel too quickly	215	3.21	1.019
Water pollution is a major problem on Sydney Harbour	217	2.81	1.083
Authorities don't understand boaters' needs	219	2.49	.921
Valid N (listwise)	193		

Source: Darcy & Veal 2003

4.7 Overall satisfaction with events

Figure 8 indicates that 91% were either satisfied or very satisfied with their event experience, which translates to a mean score of 4.28 out of 5. This is an extraordinarily high overall level of satisfaction with the events and supports the opinions presented on harbour management presented in Section 4.6.

Figure 8: Overall satisfaction with events



Source: Darcy & Veal 2003 (n = 217)

An opportunity was offered to respondents to provide further comments about their level of satisfaction or any other comments about the management of the major aquatic events. About 50% of respondents offered comments with the overwhelming proportion (97%) of comment being congratulatory of NSW Maritime for their professional, appropriate and courteous on-water management. The 3% of dissatisfied comments related to the on-water management and highlight the impact that one negative incident can have on a skipper's outlook of an entire organisation or event. For example,

> We were treated like criminals. He pulled us over and told us there was a temporary speed limit, which I did not know existed. The coastal patrol (after being informed of speed limit by Waterways) held up a speed limit sign for us.

Figure 9 categorises dissatisfaction with NSW Maritime's services.

Figure 9: Categorisation of dissatisfaction

Negative
Rude or aggressive treatment
Role clarification between authorities required
Over policing
Poor communication of changed boating conditions
Patronising attitude in correcting boating behaviour

Lastly, space was provided for skippers to offer the suggestions for areas of improvement. Only 10% of respondents offered suggestions, with most involving practical/technical solutions to improve the event management from their perspective. The majority of these comments had to do with further improvements to safety and control on-water where speed and navigation were seen as the major causes of concern together with a lack of appropriate experience by some skippers. The following quote encapsulates many of the suggestions offered,

> Waterways and services at the events is excellent – its at the period before the events when people get their licences that need to be improved. 'Masters' of these crafts should have much better seamanship prior to being granted a licence. The only thing that impacts on enjoyment of events are idiots who cannot anchor, manoeuvre through anchored boats, show no respect to others anchored etc. a more stringent test is required for all – motor and sail.

In analysing the open-ended responses to suggested improvements and to a section at the end of the questionnaire asking for any other feedback on the questionnaire or special aquatic event management, 5 areas emerged that could contribute towards improved risk management and customer service processes. These were: pre event communication; enforcement; education; publicity; and equity. A paper is in preparation that will present a consolidated analysis of these areas, draw together separate stakeholder research and management information systems to present a consolidated overview of organisational risk management and customer service processes.

5 Conclusion

"All agencies very helpful – nothing but praise for the manner in which assistance was offered and given"
"At events communication was courteous and appropriate and appreciated"
"I endeavour to abide by the rules and practice safe boating. If I do something wrong it is because I don't understand or know the rule. I prefer to be helped with this understanding rather than rebuked."
(a selection of positive open-ended responses to the questionnaire)

In conclusion, these quotes summarise the exceptional level of satisfaction that skippers rate NSW Maritime's pre event and on-water communication of major aquatic events on Sydney Harbour. From an organisation perspective, NSW Maritime should be satisfied that the management and operations of major aquatic events is highly regarded by participating skippers. As identified, skippers offered some practical and technical suggestions to improve management and operations of major aquatic events. Yet, in the area of communications, there are a series of issues and challenges that NSW Maritime must meet over the next decade if they wish to maintain their current level of communication with skippers and ready themselves for the next generation of skippers who may communicate in very different ways. Some suggestions include the need to collect e-mail and SMS contacts from skippers that would provide instant access where NSW Maritime could be assured that important information reaches skippers in a timely manner. Further, the relative clarity of maps and detailed information requires review. However, many of the technicalities of providing high-resolution graphic information may be overcome with the penetration of broadband Internet services within Australian homes, and the availability of high-quality, low-cost colour printing that has been evidenced by the digital photography revolution of the last five years. The areas of pre event communication, enforcement, education, publicity and equity were identified for further organisational improvement. A paper is in preparation that will present a consolidated analysis of these areas and draw together separate stakeholder research and management information systems to present a consolidated overview of organisational risk management and customer service processes.

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Ironman's Dominance of the Australian and New Zealand Long Course Triathlon Market*

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Abstract

The purpose of this research is to analyse and explain the emergence of the World Triathlon Corporation's (WTC) Ironman brand as the dominant brand in the long-distance triathlon marketplace in Australia and New Zealand. Ironman triathlon requires participants to swim 3.8km, cycle 180km and run 42km. An Anemiaman triathlon uses the identical format but these races must be marketed without using the word 'Ironman' and its distinctive m-dot logo. Further, an Anemiaman race does not provide the opportunity to qualify for Ironman Hawaii.

Ironman Australia (Forster-Tuncurry), Ironman Western Australia (Busselton) and Ironman New Zealand (Taupo) are the only 3.8-180-42 triathlon currently operating in Australia and New Zealand. These three events are all operated by the International Management Group (IMG) under licence from the WTC. Throughout the years, a number of Anemiaman triathlons have been established throughout Australia independently of the Ironman brand. Locations for these events have included Cairns, Albany, Collie, Yeppoon, Torquay, Sydney and Ballarat. Most of these events were conducted only once whilst none have endured for more than three years.

As part of a broader study concerned with desired event attributes of an Ironman triathlon, personal and small group interviews were conducted with 26 athletes competing in Ironman New Zealand. The results from the personal interviews and focus groups indicate that there is diversity within the participants as to the extent to which they are attracted to 1) the ability to compete alongside professional/ elite triathletes; 2) the ability to qualify for Hawaii; and 3) the Ironman status of the race.

Greater consistency was evident when participants spoke of their perception that an Ironman race was likely to be conducted to more exacting standards than a non-Ironman event as well as their opposition to a relay-team format option. Many of these results are consistent with Kevin Robert's 'lovemarks' concept. According to Roberts, 'lovemarks' are brands that 'inspire loyalty beyond reason' and are the result of both high love and high respect.

Introduction

Triathlon is a sport that combines swimming, cycling, and running, usually in that order, over a stipulated distance. All triathlons are completed without a pause between each discipline. There are a number of distances over which a triathlon may be conducted. The usual distances for the swim, bike and run (measured in kilometres unless otherwise specified) are Sprint (750m-20-5), Olympic or Classic Distance (1.5-40-10), and Long-course. There is no set distance for long course triathlon but it is generally considered to begin at 2-80-20 but popular formats also include 3-130-30 and 3.8-180-42. This final distance is commonly referred to as 'Ironman distance'. Beyond this, there are a small number of ultra-distance triathlons with the distances ranging from two to as much as ten times the Ironman distance.

The International Olympic Committee (IOC) recognises the International Triathlon Union (ITU) as the sports governing body. Notwithstanding their championship events in aquathlon (run-swim-run) and duathlon (run-bike-run), the key world championship events for the ITU are the World Championships (1.5-40-10) and the World Longcourse Championships (4-120-30). Triathlon at the Olympics is contested over the 1.5-40-10 format. A second provider of a world championship triathlon event is the World Triathlon Corporation (WTC). WTC own the 'Ironman Triathlon' trademark and operates Ironman Hawaii which promotes itself as the 'Ironman Triathlon World Championship'. This duplicity of world championship providers evolved following many years of antagonism between the ITU and WTC culminating in a 1998 U.S. Federal Court lawsuit filed by the WTC. The lawsuit alleged that the ITU forced its U.S. member federation, USA Triathlon, to withdraw its official sanction of the Hawaiian Ironman. Central to the ITU's concern was WTC's reference to 'World Championship'. This concern existed despite Ironman Hawaii utilising the phrase many years before the ITU was established in 1989. In June 1998, the WTC, ITU and USA Triathlon reached a settlement whereby the ITU acknowledged WTC's right to continue to operate the Ironman races worldwide and the Ironman Triathlon World Championships, Hawaii and both parties pledged to support each other's continued efforts for the betterment of triathlon (Babbitt, 2004).

Ironman Hawaii was created in 1978 following a debate by competitors after a running race as to which type of athlete was the fittest. To settle the argument, John Collins proposed that Waikiki Roughwater Swim (3.8km), the Around-Oahu Bike Race (180km) and the Honolulu Marathon (42km) should be combined in a single race. In its inaugural year, 12 of the 15 (all male) competitors finished the event. The following year Sports Illustrated devoted a feature article to the event – their golf correspondent effectively stumbled onto the race by accident whilst covering a golf tournament. In 1980, a US television network produced a highlights package that brought the drama of Ironman Hawaii to the wider population for the first time. This highlights package is as much a documentary as it is a highlights package. The annual show features a number of compelling and heart-wrenching narratives and thematic discourses created by the use of background footage acquired in the weeks and months leading up to the race, as well as post-race recollections, emotive cinematography and music. The Ironman coverage highlights common experiences, problems and events that are of interest to diverse audiences. Two related themes, 'triumph-over-adversity' and 'anything is possible' permeate the documentaries. Throughout the years, the documentary has been nominated for over 30 Emmy

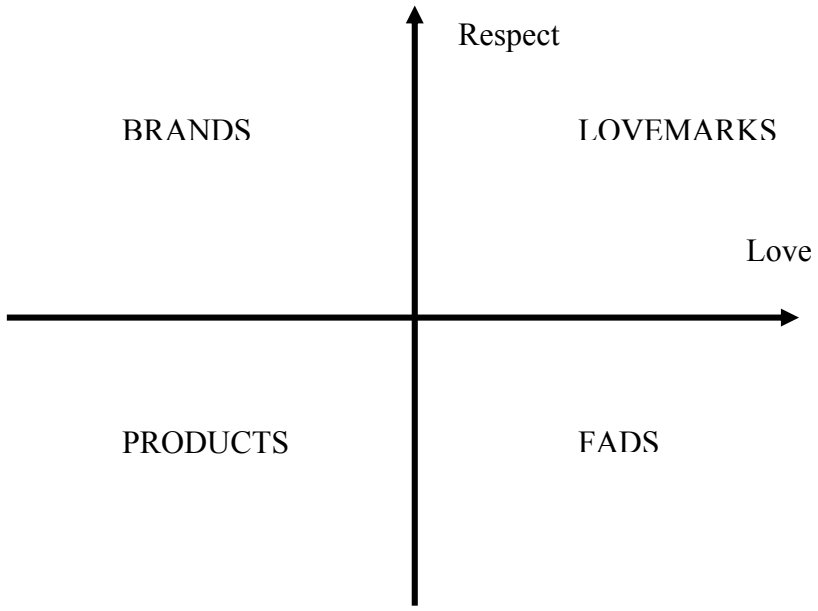
Awards in a variety of categories and has been successful on more than ten occasions. It is on the strength of these productions that Ironman triathlon has been brought into widespread public-consciousness (Babbitt, 2004; Tinley, 1998).

In 1981 the race location was moved from Waikiki Beach on the Island of Oahu to Kona. At Kona, the event's reputation as the world's toughest single-day endurance event was cemented. The hot and humid conditions, surrounding lava fields and fierce winds promoted an athlete-versus-nature element in addition to the already demanding length of the race. The Hawaii Ironman is considered to be more difficult than any other Ironman race, and remains the spiritual home for the sport. The media exposure in the early 1980s stimulated a significant increase in demand. Event organisers responded by offering would-be participants the opportunity to gain automatic inclusion by being a top finisher at the Ironman U.S. Championships held in Los Angeles in 1983. Non-automatic qualifiers were provided with the opportunity to race via a lottery. In 1985, Ironman New Zealand (March 24) and Ironman Japan (June 30) had become the first two international races to adopt the Ironman brand and form part of an international qualification system. Ironman Canada and Ironman Germany followed soon after with Ironman Australia becoming the fifth international race in 1985. In 2005, athletes are able to qualify for Ironman Hawaii 2005 at one of 24 qualifying events throughout the world – though most are in the United States. Seventeen of these events are Ironman distance races - Ironman Wisconsin, Ironman Florida, Ironman Langkawi (Malaysia), Ironman New Zealand, Ironman Australia, Ironman Lanzarote, Ironman Japan, Ironman Brazil Triathlon, Ironman France, Ironman USA (Coeur d'Alene), Ironman Austria, Ironman Germany, Ironman Switzerland, Ironman USA (Lake Placid), Ironman Canada Triathlon, Ironman Korea. In addition, there are seven Half Ironman races (1.9km swim, 90km bike and 21km run) that are also qualifiers for the Hawaiian Ironman - Half Ironman U.K., Half Vineman, Blackwater Eagleman, Buffalo Springs Lake Triathlon, Florida Half Ironman, St. Croix Half Ironman, California Half Ironman, Half Ironman South Africa.

Lovemarks

According to Empfield (2001), 'One would be hard-pressed to come up with an industry, activity or economy in which one single trademark is more powerful or over-arching than in triathlon, and the trade name is Ironman. Nothing is even a close second.' In branding, a lovemark refers to 'the brands and business that create genuine emotional connections with the communities and networks they live in' (Roberts, 2004, p.60). A lovemark is more than just a trademark because a lovemark 'inspires loyalty beyond reason'. According to Roberts, the Worldwide CEO of Saatchi & Saatchi, a brand can be evaluated according to two dimensions – love and respect. Figure 1 depicts the love-respect Axis.

Figure 1. The love-respect axis.



Adapted from: www.lovemarks.com

According to the axis, low respect and low love create 'sub-zero traction' between a brand and its consumers. Low respect and high love are associated with fads and infatuations. Brands that have high respect and low love are mere products whereas lovemarks possess both high respect and high love.

The purpose of this research is to explore the extent to which Ironman triathlon can be considered a lovemark in Australia and New Zealand. Two approaches will be utilised. First, Ironman's dominant position in the long-course triathlon marketplace in both Australia and New Zealand will be examined. As part of this, the inability for 3.8-180-42 triathlons without the Ironman brand to survive in the marketplace will be explored. Second, results of interviews conducted with participants at Ironman New Zealand will be detailed. These interviews explore the perceptions of the Ironman brand held by Ironman triathlon consumers.

The dominance of Ironman in New Zealand and Australia

In the previous section Ironman triathlon was introduced as the dominant brand of long course triathlon in the world. With Ironman Hawaii at the zenith, this section will examine the market strength of the three Ironman races in Australia and New Zealand – Ironman New Zealand, Ironman Australia and Ironman Western Australia.

Ironman New Zealand is the oldest Ironman event outside of the United States. Staged in Auckland up until 1997, the event is now based at Lake Taupo, 350km south of Auckland. This move was prompted by logistical and related financial difficulties associated with staging the event in a major metropolitan centre (Hepenstall & Hinton, 2004). The International Management Group (IMG), a multinational sport

and event management corporation, acquired the licence to operate the race in 2001. In 2004, the event attracted 1345 competitors including 739 overseas competitors from 45 countries. In 2005, Ironman New Zealand made available 70 slots for Ironman Hawaii 2005. There are a number of Half Ironman events – 1.9km swim, 90km bike, 21km run – on the New Zealand sporting calendar which utilise the Ironman brand (e.g. Auckland Half Ironman). These events utilise the Ironman brand but do so without paying any licensing fee to either WTC or IMG. The use of Ironman in the marketing and promotion of these shorter events is noteworthy because the Ironman brand is fiercely protected by its owners in Australia. This is clearly not the case in New Zealand, although one presumes that efforts to establish a 3.8-180-42 triathlon in New Zealand would face fierce, united opposition from IMG and the WTC.

Ironman Australia began life in 1985 as the Great Lakes International Triathlon and has always been staged in and around Foster-Toncurry on the New South Wales coast approximately 300km north of Sydney. The inaugural race attracted 165 triathletes. Deemed not viable in 1986, the race returned in 1987, and in the following year, the decision was made by Great Lakes International Triathlon Association (GLITA) to become an Ironman licensee and utilise the Ironman brand. In 1995, International Management Group (IMG) became the Ironman Australia licensee assuming responsibility for sponsorship, licensing, merchandising, and elite athletes. GLITA has remained contracted to implement the race and remains responsible for event logistics including the 3000 or so volunteers required to conduct the event. In 2004, Ironman Australia's official results indicate that there were 1478 finishers, an increase of nearly 50% from the 1998 field which saw 1003 participants cross the line. At the 2004 event, 75 slots were available for Ironman Hawaii 2004 and 150 slots available for Ironman Australia 2005.

A distinguishing feature of Ironman Australia is its qualification system. For Australian residents, the qualification system for Ironman Australia in 2006 is based on performances at one of the 2005 Ironman Australia Qualifier Challenge events. These are located in Busselton (WA), Katherine (NT), Yeppoon (Qld), Gold Coast (Qld), Cairns (Qld), Meningie (SA), Forster (NSW); Shepparton, (Vic), Canberra and (Phuket, Thailand). Ironman Western Australia and the previous year's Ironman Australia are also part of the qualification series. All of these events, with the exception of the full Ironman events, are contested over the Half Ironman Distance (1.9-90-21km) or very similar. The number of slots available at each qualifier is not consistent and is 'purchased' by the Half Ironman event organiser – the more slots on offer the more enticing the race becomes to Ironman Australia (and Ironman Hawaii) aspirants. Slot distribution within age categories at most events is in proportion to the number of athletes within each age category who express a desire to be considered for such slots. Slots are awarded on the basis of the athlete's ranking in each category (five-year age groups by gender as well as professional categories by gender). In addition, each qualifying race (except Laguna Phuket) also provides up to five additional lottery slots to be drawn immediately after the race or during the awards presentation. All non-qualifying finishers from the qualifying events are included in a final draw for lottery slots that takes place in the December prior to the Ironman Australia traditionally held in early April. Whilst these events do serve a legitimate purpose of determining the best athletes to compete in what is Australia's premier UDT, such a qualification structure also approaches what is known as 'third-line

forcing' which is illegal under Australian corporate law. In this context, third-line forcing may occur if a provider refuses to supply services because the purchaser has not acquired other services from another person or themselves.

Ironman Western Australia was officially announced in October 2003 and just over twelve months later on November 28, 2004, 779 participants finished the inaugural event. The race is based in Busselton, approximately 232 km south of Perth, which has a population of approximately 15500. There is no qualification system for this event. Participants are required however to successfully complete a 500m-20-5 triathlon before the event. However, this qualification criterion is best understood as a reasonable risk management policy and there is no requirement to fulfil this criterion by participating at a certain race. The race offered 25 qualifying spots for Ironman Hawaii 2005 and 150 spots for Ironman Australia 2005. Only 100 spots for Ironman Australia 2006 were available at the 2005 Ironman Western Australia.

Anemiaman, a termed introduced by Empfield and White (2001), describes a 3.8-180-42 triathlon that does not utilise the Ironman trademark. Anemia is a medical condition that is associated with too little iron in the blood. The history of Anemiaman races in Australia and New Zealand provides some insight into the lovemark status of the Ironman brand in these two countries.

The history of Anemiaman events in New Zealand is very simple. There have been no such events. There is perhaps a simple explanation for this situation – Ironman New Zealand is only just now approaching a point where demand equals supply. Consequently, there has never been an unmet demand that might provide an obvious target market for would-be event entrepreneurs.

The history of Anemiaman in Australia is more colourful. Cairns (1985-1986), Albany (1991), Collie (1993), Yeppoon (1999), Torquay (1994-1996), Forster (1985, 1987) Sydney (1984, 1986 and 1992) and Ballarat (2003) have all hosted Anemiaman events, but none have survived longer than three years. Two of the more recent races, the Capricorn Ultra-Distance Triathlon (CUDT) in Yeppoon and Triathlon226 in Ballarat provide an insight into the fragility of these Anemiaman events.

The CUDT was managed by TAG Sports, a Gold Coast based company, and located at Yeppoon's Rydges Capricorn Resort on the Central Queensland coast. There were three races within the event – 3.8-180-42, 1.9-90-21 and a relay event. The logic of the race director and the feasibility of the event was based on 1) Ironman Australia participants adding a second 3.8-180-42 triathlon to their race calendar and 2) attracting those triathletes unable to qualify for Ironman Australia. The CUDT did not have a qualifying criterion. Approximately 50 individuals registered for the full distance event and approximately 60 for the half distance. A small number of teams also participated and these ranged in size from 2 to 8 competitors. These figures are estimates because no records of the event are available. These figures are based on the personal recollections of two of the authors of this article, both of whom participated in the event and confirmed by the existing owner of the event. At the CUDT, there was little structure to the relay format, the race director was happy to get as many people involved as possible. The CUDT fell well short of its financial expectations (and obligations) and did not return. However the event did develop, with new ownership, into an official Half Ironman triathlon race the following year and offered

qualifying spots to Ironman Australia. There was an immediate increase in race numbers and the race has been a permanent fixture in the qualifying series ever since.

The most recent Anemiaman in Australia was 'Triathlon226' in February 2003. Triathlon226 derived its name from the sum of the combined swim, bike and running distances (measured in kilometres) necessary to complete the race. Like the CUDT, there would be no qualifying event and the race was marketed to those unable to qualify for Ironman Australia. However, there were only 65 individual entries and 32 teams registered for the event, well short of the 300 or so individuals anticipated by race organisers. Subsequently short of funds, the event was conducted on a limited budget. The result was, according to the Ballarat City Council (2003), a 'disappointing event' that 'failed to comply with all conditions of their permit'. Needless to say, Triathlon226 was a one-off event and it was consigned to the Australian UDT graveyard.

In this section, the dominance of Ironman-branded events in Australia and New Zealand long course triathlon has been explored. Clearly, events without the Ironman brand and associated privileges have not been able to gain a secure footing on the Australian triathlon landscape. The following section reports on the results of research carried out at Ironman New Zealand that might help explain some considerable barriers to entry faced by Anemiaman event organisers.

Ironman New Zealand participant interviews

Method

The results reported in this section were derived as part of a larger study concerned with identifying event attributes that were highly valued or not highly valued by athletes competing in the 2002 Ironman New Zealand. Twenty-six people participated in the interviews on either an individual or small group (2-4 people) basis. The interviews occurred in the two days leading up to the race and were conducted in and around the race registration and race expo area. These interviews lasted between 10 and 30 minutes. Semi-structured interviews were utilised.

The guiding questions developed for the interviews included 1) What features do you think the race organisers (IMG) could remove and the event not lose any of its appeal? 2) What features do you think the IM organisers could add to make the event package more attractive? 3) Is the opportunity to qualify for IM Hawaii a significant influence on your decision to compete at IM NZ? 4) Is the Ironman status of this event important to you? 5) What if the race was the same except it was the Taupo Ultra Endurance Triathlon (and had no connection to Ironman and WTC)?

The interviews were transcribed by the interviewer. Each transcript was coded according to some pre-specified themes. Additional themes were identified as the results were analysed. Coding outcomes were cross-checked by at least one other co-researcher to ensure consistency of interpretation.

Results

The Ironman status of a 3.8-180-42 triathlon is clearly important to many people. When asked as to whether the Ironman status of a 3.8-180-42 triathlon makes a difference, the following replies were indicative of many others:

> It is important to say that you have done an Ironman. I think the Ironman name has a lot of weight to it. (Donald)

> To achieve a status of an Ironman, it is something special …To be able to say you're an Ironman, its something special. So certainly it is important to have that status as an event to be able to say it. (Steve)

> I have done one of those [Anemiaman events] before and I enjoyed it. But now, I want to be an Ironman. (Peter)

Perhaps the most telling types of responses came from those athletes who could not comprehend what an Anemiaman race was and those who were unaware of their existence. For example:

> I'm not sure I even know of any other Ironman distance races that aren't under the brand. (Jane)

> Do they exist do they? (Ken)

However for others, the pride of participating in one of these events is more a function of the distance rather than the event's ownership and branding. When prompted with the same question, some interviewees responded along the following sentiments:

> If I went out in training and swam, rode and ran the same distances as an Ironman, I would go to bed that night with the same feeling of accomplishment as I do after an actual race. I would feel very good about what I had achieved. (Louise)

> 3.8, 180 and 42 is the same whether it is an Ironman or whether it is not an Ironman. Tell me how one is more of an effort than the other? (Shane)

> It's about the distance. The distance is what counts. (Alex)

This final statement is reminiscent of the long standing and likely never-ending debate within the triathlon community as to whether someone who competes in an Anemiaman can make legitimate claims of being an 'Ironman'. The alternative point of view is that this term should only be applied to (or utilised by) those people who have completed an Ironman event.

On the issue of Ironman New Zealand's connection to Ironman Hawaii and the provision of qualifying spots, there were again mixed reactions and thoughts. When

questioned as to whether they would be at Ironman New Zealand if there was no opportunity to qualify for Ironman Hawaii, respondents commented:

> No way. I am just here to get to Hawaii. There is no other reason for being here. (Mark)

> Ironman New Zealand is only a stepping zone. I have travelled to New Zealand from Australia so that I can get to Hawaii. (Paul)

Most of the athletes do not possess a realistic chance of qualifying for Ironman Hawaii. Consequently, the mere possibility of participating at Ironman Hawaii seems to be enough to influence their decision making:

> In the back of your head it is always there – the possibility I will qualify for Hawaii. But realistically I don't think I will. Maybe one day. Maybe. (Louise)

> It's like a lottery ticket. You know you will never win, but its fun to be part of it all the same. (Adam)

> Even the pros have to qualify for Hawaii. Some of them are here [at Ironman New Zealand]. That puts me at the same level as them doesn't it? It's a nice thought isn't it? (Ken)

A third category of responses to the question reflected no interest in participating in Ironman Hawaii:

> It's just so out of reach, I don't see any point in ticking the box. (Jane)

> Hawaii is way too expensive. Even if I somehow did manage to qualify, I couldn't afford to go. Financially and time away from work it's not possible, so why bother. (Chris)

> It wouldn't bother me one bit if there were no spots up for grabs. It makes no difference to someone of my ability. It's just not an issue. (Wayne)

A fourth response was also interesting insofar as they sought to distinguish between the Ironman status and qualification spots:

> I couldn't care less about the spots, so long as the distance stays the same and they call me an Ironman, nothing else would worry me. (Tom)

> Not being able to qualify for Hawaii is no big deal. So long as the race kept its Ironman name, I would be happy with that. (Adam)

Another line of questioning sought to determine the value associated with professional and elite triathletes. A feature of Ironman racing is that non-elite and

elite athletes compete on the same course on the same day under the same conditions. Indicative responses from two interviewees who value the ability to compete alongside the professionals are listed below:

> It's an opportunity for us age-group people to be in the same sort of area as some of these guys, even though they are going past you as though you are standing still. (Louise)

> I like to see someone who is the star of the show, someone who you can look up to, someone who you'd like to emulate and know that you never will. (Tom)

Alternatively, the following comments indicate that not all athletes value the involvement of the professionals to the same degree:

> It's good to see them, but I wouldn't care if they competed or were just here having a look. It makes no difference to me if they participate or not. I'm more interested in my time than their time. (James)

> It's not as if you ever get to see them is it? So no, they don't mean much to me. (Nick)

Participants were also asked "If Ironman New Zealand was to lose its Ironman status, but all other things remain the same, would that make a difference to your decision to attend next years race?". A number of athletes spoke about the loss of opportunity to qualify for Ironman Hawaii and how that would make a difference to their perception of the event. Others responded in slightly different manner:

> So long as the same people are organising the event, then I would see no reason why not. (Tracey)

> Interviewee - Would the same people be running the event?
> Interviewer – Yes, hypothetically…
> Interviewee - Well that would definitely be reassuring. (Louis)

> If the same people were putting on the show, well they have obviously got the hang of it, so why wouldn't you turn up? (James)

Another distinguishing feature of Triathlon226 and CUDT was the presence of relays. On this issue, interviewees were unanimous in their opposition to the presence of relay at Ironman events:

> You see teams events creeping into lots of these types of events, and the Ironman must never become one because it would cheapen the Ironman tremendously. It must never become a team event; it must remain an individual event. It's an individual event. (Donald)

> I don't think that's right in this event, it's an endurance event. It's not for a team. (Steve)

> The Ironman has been the one event that has always been solely individual, and that's very important. (Tom)
>
> Who wants to share a finishing chute with someone who has only done a marathon? I mean, would they get the same t-shirt as everyone else? (Shane)

Another emergent theme within responses to this question was the expectation of quality that consumers have come to associate with Ironman. There are many logistical difficulties associated with implementing an Ironman. The development an accurately measured, clearly signed and safe course (i.e. water safety and the avoidance of bike-car collisions) and the provision of adequate nutrition and hydration (i.e. aid stations) are the central tasks with the provision of the race. It is clear that athletes have come to expect a higher level of race delivery for Ironman events. The following responses reflect many statements made by interviewees when asked about their concerns in competing in an Anemiaman type event:

> With Ironman status, you know that it is going to be safe. You know there will be enough liquid provided at the aid stations. So without that status, I would start to question how well the race is going to be run. I don't think I would do it because of those concerns. (Wendy)
>
> With the Ironman name you know that there are certain criteria that the race has to meet. Without that, I would have some real doubt as to how well it is going to be run and how safe it would be for me to do. (Tom)
>
> In an Ironman, you know you are not going to get to the 30km of the run and not have any water to drink. It just does not happen in Ironman. It can happen in the others. (Trudy)

To that end, it is interesting to consider the natural experiment provided by Ironman Europe and its metamorphosis into 'Challenge Roth'. Established in 1988, Ironman Europe was located in Roth, Germany. By the late 1990s it was consistently attracting fields of approximately 2700 people making it the largest Ironman triathlon in the world. In 2001, the race attracted a field of 2641 participants. Later that year, race organisers exercised their 'first right of refusal' and relinquished their Ironman affiliation (and associated qualifying spots) and launched the 'Roth Challenge'. The following year numbers decreased by approximately half and increased by only 100 or so in the following year. By 2004 however, Challenge Roth was attracting nearly 2000 people. These numbers also need to be understood with the knowledge that Ironman Frankfurt was introduced by WTC to counter the defection. Established in 2003, Ironman Germany has scheduled itself within very close proximity to Challenge Roth, effectively making participants choose one or the other. These developments indicate that it is possible for an Ironman event to continue, survive and even flourish without affiliation. Some caveats should be added. First, Ironman Europe had a number of unique selling propositions. It was well renowned for its carnival like atmosphere, its ability to draw very large crowds and fast course. Not every Ironman

triathlon can make these claims. Also, it is important to point out that the race organisers from Ironman Europe were behind Challenge Roth, which is consistent with many of the comments made by the interviewees.

Discussion

The results suggest that Ironman is a lovemark for many consumers of Ironman triathlon. There appears to both a respect and a love for the Ironman and this has translated into a market dominance that few other brands can match. Clearly, more research is required into Ironman's status as a lovemark. From an event marketing perspective, the first question needs to be - Where does the love and respect come from? At present we can only put forward some speculative assertions in this regard. It appears that the love and respect has their basis in the difficulty of swimming 3.8km, cycling 180km and then running 42km. Further this respect is magnified by the difficulty in actually getting to the start line of these events (i.e. qualifying). WTC's policy of not permitting teams and not running shorter (i.e. Half Ironman events) in conjunction with an Ironman event also appears to be paying handsome dividends. When these issues are utilised as a framework for examining the failure of Anemiaman events in Australia, it suggests that these events have struggled because of the inability to offer the opportunity to qualify for Hawaii (even if most people are not a realistic chance), the absence of high calibre elite/ professional athletes and concerns over the ability of organisers to produce a quality race.

Unfortunately, the failure of Anemiaman races in Australia has created significant levels of doubt within the Australian triathlon community as to whether these races are viable. Any attempt to establish the credibility of a new Anemiaman race and to get athletes (and sponsors) to commit to such an undertaking has been made more difficult because of the more recent Anemiaman failures. These events have probably reinforced Ironman's lovemark status – Ironman does not let athletes down. Ironman produces the goods.

The emergence of Challenge Roth from the shadow of Ironman Europe and the failure of both CUDT and Triathlon226 suggests that the most likely source of a viable Anemiaman event in Australia will come from the relocation of either Ironman Australia or Ironman Western Australia from their present locations. This would then need to be combined with the willingness of people integrally involved in the production of these events to establish a race at the now vacant Forster or Busselton.

Conclusion

The future of Ironman is largely dependent on its ability remain accessible to people. There are already clear signs of an existing imbalance between the sport's simple, humble and athlete-focussed beginnings. The concern is that this imbalance may develop into an event manager's equivalent of a cyclist's speed-wobble. Will Ironman eventually lose its status as a lovemark? Will Anemiaman races triumph over adversity? Well as the Ironman people are happy to tell their participants, 'anything is possible'. And perhaps it is.

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Peace Making Through Events: The impact of international sport events in multicultural Sri Lanka *

Nico Schulenkorf

Abstract

Sri Lanka is a beautiful but divided country with different types of people having individual values and motivations. Since 1983, the island has been confronted with permanent political, cultural and economic crises, rooted in the Tamil Tigers' ongoing struggle for an independent state in the Northern parts of Sri Lanka. Although the Liberation Tigers of Tamil Eelam (LTTE) – the most violent terrorist organisation in the world – and the Sri Lankan Government have come to a first rapprochement, the peace talks are currently stalled.

This paper presents the Sri Lankan based Asian German Sports Exchange Programme (A.G.S.E.P.) and its unique approach of integrating the LTTE into its sport events. The forthcoming "1st International Run for Peace" is presented as an example of how to strategically manage a sport event which aims at fostering the relationships between the two dominant ethnic groups in the country, the Sinhalese and the Tamils. It is hoped that by participating in this event, a long lasting emotional shift and a final change of attitude of participants and spectators can be achieved. The event symbolises Sri Lanka's readiness for a peaceful togetherness, and is directed towards creating sympathy, credibility, trust and a sense of community. As an impartial mediator, A.G.S.E.P. further exerts pressure on the Sri Lankan Government to recognise that the Tamil population is actively taking part in intercultural peace games and the LTTE stands for more than just violence and brutality.

In order to evaluate stakeholders' opinions on the "1st International Run for Peace" and its impacts on Sri Lankan society, expert interviews were conducted in a semi-structured manner, with a list of approximately 15 questions. Since 1983 the Sri Lankan Government and the Tamil Tigers had refused meaningful dialogue and used propaganda to further their cause. Hence, it was necessary to collect first hand information in Sri Lanka itself, in order to impartially analyse the contrary views of all parties involved. Twelve highly recognised officials from A.G.S.E.P.'s stakeholder bodies who have influence in affecting, supporting or limiting the sportive event were interviewed in Sri Lanka. This qualitative method fits closely with the type of theoretical framework that has influenced this paper.

Findings from the interviews suggest that peace is a precondition for any social and cultural development in the country. Sport events are seen as a great medium to foster relationships, demonstrate understanding and appreciation and create team spirit. Both the Sri Lankan Government and the Tamil Tigers expressed their willingness and dedication to put an end to the civil war, and promised full support for the "1st International Run for Peace". However, some interviewees commented critically on the LTTE's credibility and reliability and demanded high security measures during the half-marathon event. An important factor for the participation of both the Government and

LTTE was the impartial standpoint of the German event organising body. A.G.S.E.P.'s experience in the country's event industry and the great network of stakeholders were further appreciated.

Being the first intercultural sporting event ever to be conducted in the Northern parts of Sri Lanka, the "1st International Run for Peace" has great potential in bringing Sri Lanka's ethnic groups together, creating a 'sense of place' amongst all Sri Lankans and giving them the chance to experience a friendly and emotional event-atmosphere between political rivals.

Introduction

Throughout the last couple of months, Sri Lanka has appeared regularly on national news and television reports. World attention was drawn to this small Commonwealth state in the Indian Ocean due to its people's suffering through the enormity of the Tsunami disaster. Almost 30,000 victims have been confirmed dead and almost every family has lost "near and dear" ones (United Nations, 2005). However, Sri Lanka has been affected by political instability and terrorist attacks for a far longer period of time, which led to over 80,000 deaths in the country. Considered the most violent terrorist organisation in the world, the nationalist group "Liberation Tigers of Tamil Eelam" (LTTE) has been fighting for an independent state in the ethnically, religiously and linguistically diverse country for 22 years (Chalk, 1999). An ultimate solution for the ongoing battle between the rebels and the Sri Lankan government has not been found, although in 2002 officials of both sides agreed to a joint cease-fire accord.

On the one hand, Sri Lanka is "the brightly shining land", pearl of India, the green island, beautiful beaches, cultural highlights – a country of dreams! On the other, Sri Lanka is the land where people were brutally murdered, hundreds of thousands are still living under terrible circumstances in refugee camps, and millions are devastated because of permanent terror and a never ending civil war (Hellman-Ranajayagam, 1994). This paper explores the impact of a sport event aiming at fostering the relationships between different adverse parties in Sri Lanka. It deals with intercultural management under insecure political and social circumstances. The "1st International Run for Peace" is taken as an example of how to strategically manage a special event by including the Northern parts of Sri Lanka – a controversially discussed unique integration approach!

Sri Lanka

Sri Lanka, the former Ceylon, is located fifty kilometres off the Southern tip of India (Dunung, 1995). The country has as many inhabitants as Australia, but geographically only covers the size of Ireland. Since its early days, Sri Lanka has been a multi-ethic society. Around 500 B.C. the Sinhalese, the island's predominant race, came to the country from the northern parts of India. The other major ethnic group, the Tamils, arrived from Southern India about 200 years later. Today, about 74% of the population are Sinhalese, 18% Tamil and 7% Arabic. The remaining 1% include Burgher and small populations of Eurasians, Malays and the island's native inhabitants Veddhas (*ibid.*).

Divided into two main areas, most Sinhalese people live in the Government controlled Southern and Central parts of the island, whereas the Tamil population claims the Northern and Eastern parts. Since Sri Lanka's independence in 1948, the Tamil minority has been anxious with the country's unitary form of government and apprehensive that the Sinhalese majority would abuse Tamil rights. In the 1970s, Tamil politicians were moving from support for federalism to a demand for a separate Tamil State called "Tamil Eelam" in the Northern and Eastern regions of Sri Lanka, the areas of traditional Tamil settlement.

These regions have been under LTTE control since 1983, when the Tamil Tigers started its guerrilla war (*Auswärtiges Amt*, 2005).

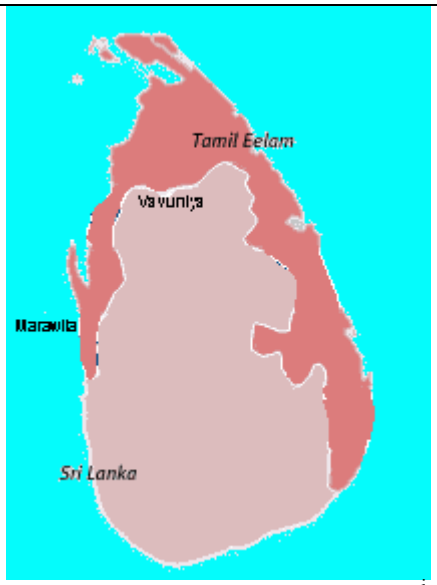

Figure 1: The divided Sri Lanka[1]

Asian German Sports Exchange Program

In 1989, the Asian German Sports Exchange Program (A.G.S.E.P.) was founded by Mr. Dietmar Döring, at that stage national coach of the Sri Lankan table tennis team. He decided out of personal experiences with the civil war to use sport events as a medium to encourage the peace process on the island. Since then, A.G.S.E.P. acts as an Non Government Organisation (NGO) in Sri Lanka, which is now supported by more than one hundred voluntary co-workers, fourteen patrons, several sport associations in Sri Lanka and Germany as well as interns from various European universities. Based in Marawila, a small town on the west coast of the island, the organisation holds an active integrating position concerning the ethnic conflict in Sri Lanka and through this distinguishes itself from most other companies placed in the tourism-sector. The program pursues development policy goals and is therefore not designed for an economic gain. A.G.S.E.P.'s main goal is the transmission of information with the final intention of influencing the opinions, attitudes, behaviour and knowledge of the Sri Lankan people as well as the world public, consequently achieving a positive contribution to the re-establishment of peace in the divided country. With the help of sporting events, the organisation aims to bring the rival ethnic groups closer together, give an impulse to peace and spread this message beyond national borders. As an impartial mediator A.G.S.E.P. also exerts pressure on the Sri Lankan Government, which will have to recognise that the Tamil people are also taking part in the intercultural peace games connecting peoples. Sinhalese, Tamil and international sportspeople are willing to contribute to a better understanding of the two predominant ethnic groups in Sri Lanka.

A.G.S.E.P. has been organising sports exchanges and intercultural events in Germany and Sri Lanka for more than 15 years. Apart from this, the organisation conducts workshops

for sport teachers and club coaches to initiate and subsequently advance the sport activities in the Northern and Eastern regions of the country. Also, training camps for talented sportsmen and women are initiated and fund-raising for used sports equipment, clothing as well as the financing of sport grounds is coordinated. The main purpose of these operations is to offer the youth, who grew up in the civil war regions, sufficient recreational activities in order to redirect their focus away from their oppressed daily lives. The Australian Penny Brune from UNICEF stated, that "… the young Tamils from the Northern parts of Sri Lanka have enormous difficulties at school, because they are traumatised by the division of the country. For their whole lives they have experienced nothing else but terror, violence and fear in their land" (Siemon-Netto, 1998). A.G.S.E.P. is attempting to publicise these devastating circumstances, attract attention, and inspire others to take part in the bringing of peace.

"Games for Peace"

For more than two decades all tourism or event management companies have avoided any form of contact with the LTTE with regard to using their areas. The inclusion of the Tigers into any business programme would be described as extremely dangerous or even impossible. When Mr. A. Udawatte, General Manager of the biggest hotel chain in Sri Lanka, Confifi Group Hotels, was asked about investing in the Northern parts of Sri Lanka, he said: "Any form of investment in the LTTE controlled areas describes an impossible task, because the Tamil Tigers will never co-operate in a supportive way. And people from the South as well as international tourists are too scared in travelling close to the 'green border', let alone the 'uncleared areas'" (Udawatte, 2002). This statement was made in July 2002. Almost two years and several peace talks later, the A.G.S.E.P. tries to disprove Udawatte's estimation with its intercultural sports programme.

Under the motto "Games for Peace", A.G.S.E.P. has been concentrating on integrating sportspeople of both ethnic groups, Sinhalese and Tamil, in the camps and workshops for the last ten years. The implementation of projects proved to be extremely complex, mainly because of safety regulations, restrictions from the Government or lacking co-operation from the Tamils. After tedious negotiations with all parties the first big success was achieved in October 2002, when in the border town Vavuniya a ladies soccer tournament connecting peoples with the Sri Lankan national team, a Tamil selection from the Vanni area[ii] and the German club SV Herrmannstein could be realised.

The event attracted more than 10,000 spectators and was the first international event in over 30 years to be conducted in the Northern parts of Sri Lanka (Gammanpila, 2002). This allowed the laying of a cornerstone for a co-operation with the Tamil Tigers, and all different kinds of peace projects to be approached (Döring, 2002-2005).

Figure 2: Fair play at the soccer tournament 2002

"1st International Run for Peace" concept

In 2004, the "International Run for Peace" was conceived by two interns of A.G.S.E.P. and will constitute the first international half-marathon ever conducted in Sri Lanka. The very sensitive political impact of the run is the fact that the "green border", which separates the Government controlled area from the rebel controlled regions, will be crossed several times by the peace runners (cf. figure 1). A.G.S.E.P.'s motto "connecting sportspeople" describes the idea of the event and the peace message behind it. The intercultural event is considered an exciting novelty in Sri Lanka. It offers the domestic population a unique opportunity to actively show the world that the current political rapprochement between the Government and rebels is supported by ALL Sri Lankan ethnic groups (Tamilselvan, 2002). Given the nature of the peace campaign, the choice of the location of the event was of vital importance. Since the event is supposed to give an "impulse to peace", a symbolic destination acceptable for both Government and Tamil Tigers had to be chosen. The border town Vavuniya, which still belongs to the Government controlled South connects directly to the LTTE controlled Northern parts. The local soccer stadium can hold up to 15,000 people and is the ideal venue for participants to cross the finish line. The date scheduled for the half-marathon event is Sunday, 25th September 2005.

Partnerships and Co-operations

The course of the event and all individual tasks of the "International Run for Peace" are exclusively arranged by the project teams. However, it is not possible for A.G.S.E.P. to organise and implement the event independently. Here, the network of stakeholders (cf. figure 3) has to be considered. When all steps of the planning process are fulfilled, the relationship between A.G.S.E.P. and all partners and co-operators, especially the state institutions, will guarantee a smooth sequence of events on site.

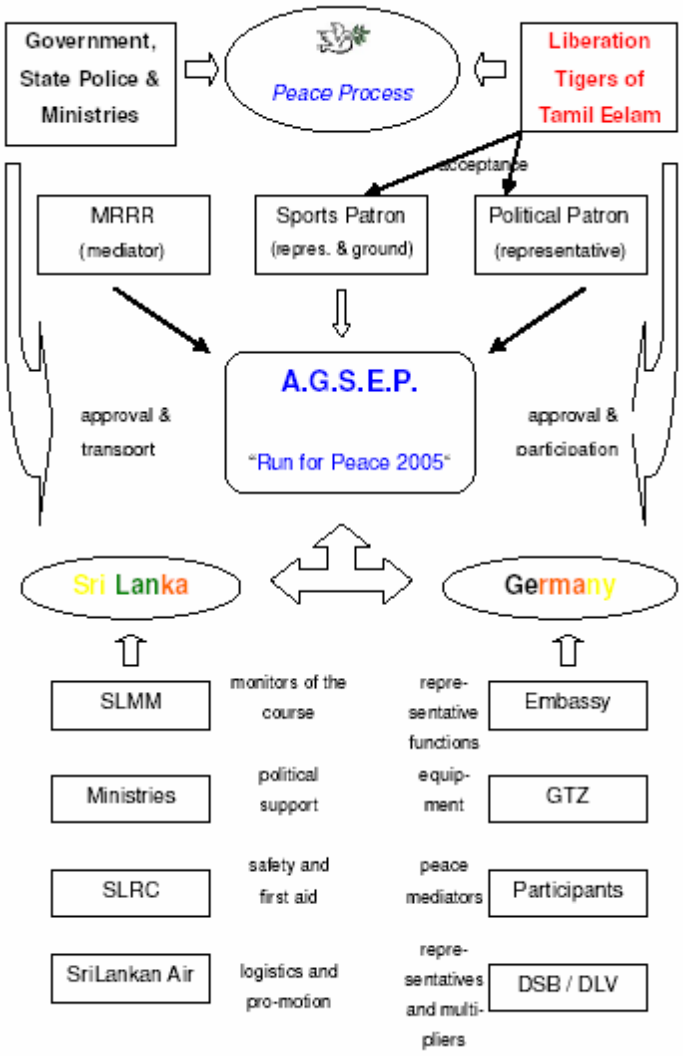

Figure 3: Stakeholder chart

As a precondition, the Government and LTTE have to give their full support for the "International Run for Peace" and accept the event's patrons[iii]. The Ministry for Rehabilitation, Resettlement and Refugees (MRRR)[iv] will take over the mediating position in the Northern parts of Sri Lanka.

On the day of the event, the Sri Lankan Monitoring Mission (SLMM) will be monitoring the whole course, with the help of the Red Cross (SLRC). While the German Technological Corporation (GTZ) provides sport equipment and human resources, sport associations such as the German Sport Association

(DSB) and the German Athletics Association (DLV) will send representatives to witness and promote the "1st International Run for Peace".

Methodology

In-depth interviews with various Sri Lankan ministers, LTTE officials, Police Inspectors, aid & rehabilitation organisations and sport experts have informed this paper. The Sri Lankan Government and more specifically, the Tamil Tigers have been refusing to publish current information on the topic at hand since 1983, with the exception of propaganda. Due to this, it was necessary to collect first hand information in Sri Lanka itself, in order to analyse the contrary views of all parties involved impartially. In addition to this, telephone and email interviews have been conducted with Members of the European Parliament.

Twelve individuals were interviewed in Sri Lanka, all of them highly recognised officials of different stakeholder bodies affecting, supporting or limiting the sportive event. The expert interviews were conducted in a semi-structured manner, with a list of approximately 15 questions. This qualitative method fits closely with the type of theoretical framework that has influenced this research.

Theoretical framework

This paper deals with intercultural sports and events management under insecure political circumstances. Although a large variety of definitions for culture is available, three common elements are evident (Kotabe and Helsen, 2001). First of all, culture is not inherited but learned by people. Certain values and beliefs are transferred from one generation to the next one. Secondly, culture consists of a number of interrelated parts which contribute to a web, so that a person's cultural mindset is not a random collection of behaviours but a complex mixture of elements belonging together and influencing each other. Finally, culture is a way of life shared by all or the majority of social and ethnic members of society, which distinguishes it from personality.

According to Lane, Di Stefano and Maznevski (2000), the main challenge in intercultural management is to value and utilize the differences cultures provide, and combine the various strengths in order to achieve high performance. *Mapping* the differences to understand them, *bridging* the differences to communicate across them and *integrating* them to effectively manage cultural diversity will guarantee an enlargement of experience and success when dealing with more than one cultural group (*ibid.*). The two predominant cultures in Sri Lanka can be defined along religious lines – Buddhist Sinhalese share the country with Hindu Tamils. Integration is seen as the key factor for successful strategic management and increases the probability of synergy from the diversity in a group (*ibid.*).

It is believed that integration and cultural understanding can be achieved through peace events. As Allen *et al*. (2005) suggest, events do not take place in a vacuum – they touch almost every aspect of our lives, whether the social, cultural, economic, environmental or political aspects. Next to entertainment experiences, special events can create pride in a culture and have the power to challenge the imagination and explore possibilities. The reconciliation marches in Australia in 2000 served to express community support for the Aboriginals and similar events could help in fostering the relationships between Sinhalese and Tamil people in Sri Lanka. A powerful symbolic message can contribute to the political debate, promote healing in the community and help to change history (*ibid.*). By analysing Manning's (1983) and Hiuzinga's (1995) sociological theories of "play and ritual" the beneficial and detrimental role special events can play in social cohesion amongst sub-cultures is further highlighted.

Play is believed to be one of the foundations of humanity, a "primary category of life" as Huizinga proclaims. He further notes that there are three characteristics of play, namely that 'play is freedom', 'play is not ordinary' and finally 'play is bound by time and space'. The concept of play is therefore to a great extent entwined with special events and festivals, as these are designed to be a leisure activity and a break from the mundane (Getz, 1997), which start and finish at certain times and are restricted to particular locations. Manning points out that ritual on the other hand confirms the social order of events and is more regulated in nature (Manning, *loc. cit.*). Likewise Bird notes that

rituals – as symbolic codes – regulate human interactions; from religion and etiquette to types of therapies, ceremonies and intimate exchanges (Bird, 1980).

From these definitions of ritual and play a clear distinction can be made between the two: play on the one hand has an essence of freedom, whilst the fundamental nature of ritual seems to be the regulation. In the context of the sporting events in Sri Lanka however, the two concepts become shadowy and overlap. For example, 'fun' characterises the essence of play; enjoyment experienced creates a motive to return; returning leads to tradition and ultimately tradition becomes ritual (Huizinga, *loc. cit.*).

Despite all the beneficial aspects of an intercultural event of this outstanding form, possible negative consequences also have to be considered. The 1st International Run for Peace can only be conducted if the political leaders of the Tamil Tigers and the Sri Lankan Government continue their negotiations about a sustainable solution for the country. This is the first precondition for any peace efforts by A.G.S.E.P. Furthermore, the full support of both political sides as well as the great network of influential partner organisations is of vital importance for a successful event. But even if this organisational framework is established, social problems might occur during the half marathon. For most of the participants and spectators it will be the first time that they directly face people from the political opponent in a sporting competition. This – if not properly managed by the organisers – can lead to tension, aggression and violent behaviour as just some examples of negative social impacts. Allen *et al.* suggest that appropriate strategies such as the integration of all political parties in the planning process of the event have to be applied, to counter potential negative impacts such as bad crowd behaviour or community resistance to the event (Allen *et al., loc. cit.*). This will protect the event's reputation, the country's and peoples' image and allow for further tourism and economic benefits not only for the Northern parts of Sri Lanka, but the whole country.

According to Joppe (1996), sub-cultures are based on a sense of shared purpose and common goals and may be geographical in nature or a community of interest. All communities emit a sense of place, which is defined by Chase (1999) as "the bond that ties an individual to some specific part of the environment". The person-place bond is influenced by both the place's attributes and the person's perception. A.G.S.E.P. attempts to create ONE Sri Lanka out of the currently divided country and allow all inhabitants to establish combined national pride and foster the relationships between each other. Bush (2000) states that "festivals and special events provide an outlet for communities to express their identity, which includes their image, spirit, character, pride, relationships and networking – all the elements which are considered to be associated with a sense of place."

Taking all these factors into account, A.G.S.E.P.'s long term strategic aim is to conduct peace events including all ethnic groups, while securing a safe and friendly event environment throughout Sri Lanka. Through play it is desired to achieve a feeling of togetherness and long lasting positive relations. When being held on a regular basis, intercultural sporting events in Sri Lanka will ideally turn into tradition and ritual in the future. A.G.S.E.P.'s vision for its projects in Sri Lanka is the creation of social cohesion

amongst the sub-cultures on the island. Social cohesion is defined by the World Bank as "the glue that bonds society together, promoting harmony, a sense of community, and a degree of commitment to promoting a common good". Mehta (2002) remarks that the notion of social cohesion is more of a desired state rather than an actual circumstance. However, despite this he states that "a community with a strong sense of identity and shared goals is considered to be more cohesive than one without these qualities."

Therefore, the overall social and political focus in Sri Lanka will have to be on the creation of a nation wide identity. Currently Sri Lankans identify themselves first as members of their specific ethnic group rather than as citizens of Sri Lanka (Dunung, *loc. cit.*). It will surely take a lot of time and continuous effort to influence positively the deeply rooted values and break the prejudices against the other sub-cultures. However, sporting events can be seen as a positive social approach to cultural understanding, as they encourage interaction and relationships, which are vital components in terms of a sense of community – and a sense of community is an essential element of social cohesion (Metha, *loc. cit.*). Huizinga supports this when saying that play promotes the formation of social groupings. Therefore, play can be regarded as the starting point for further wide spread positive social and cultural impacts on the various ethnic groups in Sri Lanka (Huizinga, *loc. cit.*).

The "1st International Run for Peace" in Sri Lanka has elements of both play and ritual: on the one hand the exciting and unique half marathon encourages interaction, yet at the same time it promotes social ideals and values as well as a feeling of togetherness through a peaceful event atmosphere. This all contributes to and supports the change of attitude towards different sub-cultures in Sri Lankans and it might lead to the creation of a sense of place and identity of a united country.

Expert interviews and analysis

The in-depth interviews were conducted with highly recognised government officials, Members of the Sri Lankan Parliament, LTTE officials, Police Senior DIGs, German ambassadors, the President of the Sri Lankan Football organisation, the General Manager of the Sri Lankan Airlines Sport Council, the former Director of the National Institute of Sports, various aid organisations and managers of Sri Lankan tourism companies. The following areas were addressed:

Firstly, the respondents view of the general political situation in Sri Lanka and the importance of peace for the country. Secondly, how the current focus on Sri Lanka and overall trends in tourism and sporting behaviour could affect the peace events. Thirdly, the respondents were asked about their cooperation with A.G.S.E.P. – the reasons, goals and objectives of the partnership. Fourthly, the respondents' comments on the impacts of the "1st International Run for Peace", its opportunities and threats and the positive or negative views on "sports as a medium to appease". Finally, the respondents' opinion on the positive or negative image of a German programme acting as a mediator in Sri Lanka and the advantages or disadvantages of A.G.S.E.P. in Asian countries.

One of the most significant outcomes of the interviews conducted in Sri Lanka was the agreement of all respondents that peace in the country is a precondition for any future social, cultural and economic development. P. Arsecularatne, Vice Chairman of the Sri Lankan Airlines Sports Council, stated that "…the 2001 LTTE terrorist attacks on Sri Lanka's national Bandaranaike airport caused huge financial losses and an extreme worsening of the country's image. The whole tourism industry was drastically affected by the blast; the country suffered a dramatic decline in tourist arrivals and only the peace process can help improve the image of Sri Lanka again" (Arsecularatne, 2004).

With the help of the Norwegian Government as a political mediator, the Sri Lankan Government and the LTTE agreed to a joint cease-fire in February 2002. The peace process continues today and recent political rapprochement between the Government and the LTTE is considered a milestone towards a permanent solution for Sri Lanka. Most interviewees argued that the current political development could be mirrored and supported by intercultural sport events such as the "1st International Run for Peace". The marathon event will help people experience a friendly togetherness of different ethnic groups. Arsecularatne supports this idea by saying "… there is no better way in fostering the relationships, contributing to understanding and demonstrating team spirit than through sport" (*ibid.*).

Nevertheless, critical comments were made about the credibility of the LTTE's willingness to compromise and participate in such an event. Mr. Udawatte, General Manager of Sri Lanka's biggest hotel chain 'Confifi Group Hotels' stated that "… any form of investment in the Northern parts of the country describe an impossible task, because the Tamil Tigers will never co-operate. Their propaganda makes you believe they would support peace-efforts, but several terrorist attacks throughout the last 20 years and the assassination of two world leaders – Rajiv Ghandi of India in 1991 and Ranasinghe Premadasa of Sri Lanka in 1983 – tell a different story" (Udawatte*, loc. cit.*).

From the responses received it can be concluded that major events in the Northern parts of Sri Lanka have to be strategically managed and will only occur if the peace process between the Government and LTTE continues and full support of all political parties can be secured.

The current focus on Sri Lanka – which suffered tremendously from the Tsunami disaster – and the overall trends in long distance and active travel behaviour could contribute positively to a higher international participation rate at the "1st International Run for Peace". This is supported by the latest Delphi-Studies[v] which indicated that not only will there be an increase of about 4 – 5 % in long-distance holidays but in particular adventure holidays in developing countries indicate the highest potential growth rate. Furthermore, A.G.S.E.P.'s long term efforts in developing cultural understanding via sport events are positively recognised by international visitors as they stand out in comparison to the various short-term Tsunami relief programs on the island. The tourist expert interviewed suggested that "visitors feel they can support the Sri Lankan people not only

economically but also in a direct, interpersonal way" (Kiriella, 2004). It can be concluded that A.G.S.E.P. can expect a solid international participation base for the 2005 event.

In recent times, the Sri Lankan Government has been heavily accused of being reluctant to integrate and support the Tamil population. This intercultural event offers a unique opportunity to show the national and international public that the Government is supporting development policies in the LTTE areas. Several Ministries and aid organisations implemented programs to assist in the restoration of 'normality' for the Sri Lankan people, especially in the Northern parts of the country. Minister Dr. J. Jayawardena from the Ministry of Rehabilitation, Resettlement and Refugees Sri Lanka (MRRR) believes that A.G.S.E.P.'s engagement contributes in achieving these goals. "We try to create a modern self-sustaining society in its economic, social, educational and cultural components. The promotion of national integration and reconciliation via cultural and sports activities is one of our key programmes and the "1st International Run for Peace" will enable people from all ethnic groups to interact, learn and therefore benefit from each other" (Jayawardena, 2004).

The Tamil Tigers support the idea of holding the "1st International Run for Peace" for two main reasons. Firstly, the event gives them the opportunity to demonstrate participation and willingness to find a peaceful solution to the political problems at hand. Secondly, in exchange for the authorisation and participation, A.G.S.E.P. agreed to regularly conduct sport workshops and training camps for children and youth groups in the Northern parts of Sri Lanka. At the first meeting of an NGO in the LTTE controlled areas in 2002, Mr. K. Pappa, manager of all LTTE sports affairs, pointed out that "… it is obvious that there is a shortage of sporting equipment in the war affected areas and we kindly request A.G.S.E.P. for further technical assistance" (Pappa, 2004). The Tamil sports council will receive essential equipment and technical knowledge in sport and in return promises to assist with the planning, organisation and implementation phases of the "1st International Run for Peace" whenever possible.

Therefore it can be concluded that out of different but non-contradictory motives both political rivals promise their full support for the peace marathon.

When asked about the possible impacts of the "1st International Run for Peace", the respondents expected a number of positive social outcomes, including active participation in the event, a long lasting emotional shift and a final change in attitude of all participants. These positive impacts can be directed to the creation of a lasting peace. The systematic forming and changing of opinion regarding the ethnic conflict in Sri Lanka – not only for the active participants but also for the passive spectators – is aimed at supporting the peace process. The event symbolises Sri Lanka's readiness for a peaceful togetherness, while sympathy, credibility and trust are created during the event itself. Additionally, efforts are focused on changing the image of LTTE, the 'terror organisation'. Through the direct contact and experiences with the Tamil Tigers, it is hoped that people will understand that the LTTE stands for more than just violence and brutality.

A.G.S.E.P.'s CEO D. Döring believes sport can be seen as a medium to appease. This view is supported by Mr. Y. Wijesundara – former director of the National Institute of Sports Science and A.G.S.E.P.'s sports patron for the peace event – who stated that "… sport is the best way to forget about rivalries and political differences. When East and West Germany were still divided or Americans and Russians were still in political upheaval, sport was a way of showing the world that there is a friendly alternative. Just remember North and South Korea participating as one team in the Sydney 2000 Olympics" (Wijesundara, 2004).

Some of the negative impacts which the "1st International Run for Peace" could create were critically addressed by the Deputy Ambassador of the German Embassy in Colombo, Mrs. H. Jung. "Sport can create tensions and an event in the Northern parts of Sri Lanka inherits a great risk, in spite of all the organisational measures undertaken to prevent negative consequences. Security measures will have to be extremely high, as in any event of such form and style tensions between the winning and loosing groups can occur. The Tamil Tigers have never proven to be a reliable partner and the threat of violence on site or even terrorist attacks should not be underestimated" (Jung, 2004).

It can be concluded that the event has great potential for creating social cohesion amongst all Sri Lankans but has to be managed carefully to avoid the risk of political rivalry.

An important reason for both the Government and LTTE to participate in intercultural peace events and trust A.G.S.E.P. as the event organiser is that the German organisation serves as an independent and impartial facilitator between the adverse parties. The sports programme itself does not have any political interests in Sri Lanka. The key strengths of A.G.S.E.P. are the 16 years of experience in the Asian event industry and excellent business relations with Sri Lankan Ministries, the Sri Lankan Police, various sport associations and institutes as well as aid and relief organisations such as the Red Cross. The great network of stakeholders and the mix of national and international staff and co-workers contribute to the competent and professional reputation A.G.S.E.P. enjoys in Sri Lanka. This was viewed positively by many respondents as it minimises the probability of cultural misunderstandings and in itself represents the philosophy of the programme, which aims at bringing together sportspeople from different ethnic backgrounds.

A.G.S.E.P. is a well-established organisation in Sri Lanka and enjoys a similar reputation on a micro economic level as Germany itself does in macro economic terms. Due to the importance of Germany as a trading partner and provider of development assistance, the political relations between Sri Lanka and Germany are friendly without any tensions. 60,000 German tourists visit the island annually and institutions such as the Goethe Institute contribute to Germany's image as a well respected and much valued partner (*Auswärtiges Amt, loc. cit.*). According to Mrs. S. Facchinello, European Commissioner in the South Asia Unit, Germany also "… serves as an example for the unification of two completely different political states and is seen by many Sri Lankans as a country which achieved by peaceful means what their country has been longing for since 1983" (Facchinello, 2004).

Discussion and Conclusion

While currently all different kinds of aid organisations are engaged during the rehabilitation phase in Sri Lanka, most immediate and direct help and recovery programmes are organised on a short term basis. In contrast, all peace events conducted by A.G.S.E.P. – including the "1st "International Run for Peace" – endeavour to make a long term contribution to the peace process in Sri Lanka. They are strategically implemented, addressing the changing environment and are dealt with in an integrated approach both inside and outside the organisation (Johnson *et al*, 2005).

Since the beginning of the civil war in Sri Lanka in 1983 a latent danger of violence or even terror attacks is dominating daily life (Auswärtiges Amt, *loc. cit.*). Despite the numerous attempts, the political conflict between the Sinhalese and Tamil population has failed to be resolved. Including the LTTE in the business programme is an innovative but also controversial approach to active crisis management. For A.G.S.E.P. it is important not to ignore possible problems which might occur because of the rivalry between the participating ethnic groups, but to communicate them. This is also of great help to international participants, who are not that familiar with the political situation and the history of riots and civil commotion in Sri Lanka. Continuous personal contact as well as referring to all three cultures by advertising and communicating the programme in the three corresponding languages[vi] will help to achieve acceptance and trust from all participating groups (Marconi, *loc. cit.*).

The German event organisers attempt to put some pressure on the Government and political parties, showing them that the population is willing to put an end to the civil war. Sri Lanka is longing for peace and A.G.S.E.P. is structured to support and impartially mediate. However, the sports programme can neither change the general image of Sri Lanka all by itself, nor can it erase the hitherto existing occurrences. Besides, all peace efforts are to be regarded against the background of the political situation in Sri Lanka and the rapprochement of the government and the LTTE. What A.G.S.E.P. *can* do though is achieve a higher impact by interacting closely with influential stakeholders and by conducting peace events on a regular basis. This can demonstrate not only to national leaders but also to the entire world**,** that the Sri Lankan people are well on the way towards definite peace.

Being the first intercultural sporting event ever conducted in Northern Sri Lanka, the "1st International Run for Peace" has great potential in bringing Sri Lanka's ethnic groups together, create a sense of place amongst all Sri Lankans and giving them the chance to experience a friendly and emotional event-atmosphere between political rivals.

Figure 4: Marathon participants

"They will forget what you said, but they will never forget how you made them feel."
(Carl W. Buechner)

Biographical Note:

Nico Schulenkorf was born in Coesfeld-Lette, Germany in 1979. In 2001 he started his Bachelor Studies of "International Business and Management" at the University of Applied Sciences, Osnabrück, Germany. After a semester abroad at the SAA University of Turin, Italy in 2002 he spent six months in Sri Lanka working for the Asian German Sports Exchange Programme (A.G.S.E.P.). During this period he organised intercultural exchanges between Asian and German sport teams working in the event management and marketing spheres. In 2004 he returned to Sri Lanka to complete his thesis "Intercultural Crisis Management in Sri Lanka – Sport Events as an Impulse to Peace".

In 2005 Nico graduated with a "Master of Management in Sport Management" from the University of Technology Sydney, where he is going to conduct further academic research in the field of sporting events. For one year he has been representing A.G.S.E.P in Australia and is currently assisting in the organising of the "1st International Run for Peace" to be held in Sri Lanka in September 2005.

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Notes

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i Source: Federation of American Scientists. Adapted by author.

ii The Vanni region constitutes the northern Sri Lankan districts Mannar, Mullaitivu and Vavuniya. The total population of this LTTE controlled area is about 500,000.

iii A.G.S.E.P. chose to have one political patron and one sports patron for the event. Mr. S. Kishore, Member of Parliament (Vavuniya District) and Coordinator North & East Sri Lankan Red Cross is the ideal person to convey security and trust to all groups taking part in the event.
The ideal sports patron for this athletic event is Mr. Y. Wijesundara, the archetype of Sri Lankan sports coaches and former president of the National Institute of Sports Science (NISS).

iv The subjects of the Ministry of Rehabilitation, Resettlement and Refugees (MRRR) are the implementation of policies, plans and programs in respect of rehabilitation, resettlement and displaced persons especially in the northern parts of Sri Lanka. Without the coverage of Minister J. Jayawardena of the MRRR, a collaboration with the LTTE and the activities of A.G.S.E.P. in Sri Lanka's north would not be possible.

v Vielhaber, A. et al.: Fernreisen 2005: Delphi-Studie in Deutschland, Österreich und der Schweiz. Schriftenreihe für Tourismus und Entwicklung. Studienkreis für Tourismus und Entwicklung e.V. Ammerland, Bern und Wien. 1997. (German)

vi The three corresponding languages are Sinhala, Tamil and English.

Host Community Perceptions and Engagement

Host Community Perceptions of the Impacts of Events: A comparison of different event themes in urban and regional communities

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Abstract

Over recent years, there has been increasing interest shown by tourism policy makers and planners in the social impacts of tourism events (see, for example, Gabr, 2004; Fredline & Faulkner, 2002a). However, to date the vast majority of research effort has been directed toward evaluating only the economic impacts. Thus, economic impact evaluation has reached a point where there is substantial agreement on the most appropriate techniques to be used. Social impact assessment lags far behind this point. This paper goes some way to addressing this issue by comparing three different events that vary by location and theme. In so doing, this research offers tourism policy makers and planners a means of comparing different types of events through the evaluation of their social impacts on the community.

Three case studies were selected specifically for their geographic and theme characteristics; the Australian Grand Prix, the Moomba Festival (both hosted in Melbourne) and a regional community festival, the Horsham Art Is… Festival. For each event, self-complete questionnaires were used to collect data from local residents regarding their perceptions of the impacts of the event, and a range of independent variables including the distance of the residents' abode from the event zone, the amount of travel required to reach the event zone, their involvement in tourism, their identification with the theme and the socio-political values of the respondents. Following the methods of Fredline (2000), the perception data were measured using a three part scale. The scale included 45 impact statements (42 of which are common to all instruments), and residents were first asked to assess whether they believed the item had changed because of the event and to identify the direction of the change. If residents did perceive a change, they were subsequently asked to assess the effect on their personal quality of life, and also the effect on the community as a whole. These latter two assessments were measured using a seven point Likert type scale ranging from -3 (very negative impact) to +3 (very positive impact).

The findings from the research suggest that, for each of the events, the majority of the respondents indicated that the event had "no effect" at the personal level, but the proportions indicating a positive impact outweighed those indicating a negative impact, resulting in a positive mean score. It is interesting to note that although the Grand Prix registered the highest proportions indicating a negative impact, it also registered the highest proportion indicating the most positive level of benefit. All three events were rated as having a substantial community level benefit. In comparing the specific impacts of the event, fewer impacts were perceived for the Art Is… Festival, with 16 of the 42 potential impacts being perceived by the majority to

have not changed, compared with only three for the Grand Prix, and seven for the Moomba Festival. This paper proceeds to discuss a number of observations made in relation to the three different events and the reaction of the host communities to them. The paper concludes by comparing (a) different themed events across the same community, and (b) the similar themed events in different communities. With each of these commentaries, recommendations are provided for planning and management.

Introduction

In recent decades, substantial work has been conducted examining residents' perceptions of the impacts of tourism and, to a lesser extent, events. Through this work, considerable light has been shed on many of the potential impacts of tourism and also on some of the variables that tend to be associated with positive and negative reactions to tourism activity. However, not all tourism is equal; tourism is a nebulous concept that manifests its impact differently across communities. Therefore, more information is required about the differential effects of alternative types of tourism on local hosts. Within the multitude of case studies that have been undertaken, the impacts of many different forms of tourism have been investigated. However, these investigations have taken place in different contexts, making it difficult to attribute variations in community reaction solely to the variations in tourism activity. Additionally, the multitude of different methods used impedes comparison.

Public planners and decision makers encourage tourism because it brings benefits to communities. It is, therefore, logical that they would prefer to promote the type of tourism that maximises positive impacts and minimises negative impacts, but they need suitable information about relative costs and benefits of different types of tourism in order to make informed decisions. The substantial body of research investigating the economic impacts of events and other forms of tourism is driven by a desire to identify the “best” type of tourism from an economic perspective, or at least, to make the best of the tourism activity that exists. While a range of economic impact assessment techniques exist, the need for comparison across cases has led to a call for consistency in approach. A similar consistent approach needs to be developed to investigate and compare the social impacts of events and other forms of tourism. The development and refinement of a suitable method will require considerable testing and validation, but the study reported in this paper aims to undertake some of the preliminary work and lay a foundation for future advances.

More specifically, the research objectives for this study were:

1. To examine host community perceptions of event impacts across a range of events and host communities, specifically:
    a. A comparison of different themed events in the same community. The Grand Prix data collected in 2002 were compared with data on resident reactions to the Melbourne Moomba Festival, a community festival.
    b. A comparison of similar themed events in different sized communities. The Moomba festival data were compared to data collected at the Art Is… Festival in Horsham, a regional community about 275 km west of Melbourne.
2. Progression toward development of a compressed generic instrument to evaluate impacts of events and facilitate comparison
3. Examination of intrinsic variation within communities with regard to their reactions to events

Literature Review

Social Impacts of Festivals and Events

Although there has been a strong focus on economic impacts, there are other types of impacts of events and festivals including social impacts. These include reinvigorating existing facilities and creating an image for the tourist destination, as well as promoting tourism sustainability (Getz, 1991). While there is research on the social impacts of tourism, particularly through the sustainable tourism literature, less research has concentrated on the social impacts of events and festivals. Issues such as safety, trust and "a sense of personal and collective efficacy" (Onyx & Bullen, 2000) form part of the social capital concept and would appear to have relevance in an investigation of the social impacts of events and community festivals. Delamere's (1997) social impacts instrument for community festivals investigates a number of key elements pertinent to this study. These include the impact of the festival on the friendliness, safety, tolerance and creativity of the community. Delamere concentrates his questionnaire on the social costs and benefits of community festivals.

For the purposes of this paper, social impacts are defined as any impacts which potentially have an impact on quality of life for local residents. Thus, economic outcomes of events (such as employment opportunities) and environmental effects (such as litter) are included because perceptions of such impacts are likely to contribute to residents' overall reactions to an event. This is consistent with most of the previous work in this area.

Ritchie (1984), and later Hall (1989, 1992) suggested a classification of potential event impacts comprising six dimensions; economic, tourism/commercial, physical, socio-cultural, psychological, and political. Some examples of positive and negative manifestations of these impacts are shown in Table 1 with references as applicable to further examples in the literature.

Table 1: A taxonomy of potential event impacts

	Positive	Negative
Economic	Small community festivals may generate internal surpluses	It is unusual for large events to recoup their enormous capital and operating expenditures - many require extensive public funding
	Visitor expenditure and associated multiplier effects - increased demand for goods and services	Increased prices for locals
	Creation of direct and indirect employment	Opportunity Costs
Tourism/ Commercial	'Showcase effect' (Hiller, 1989) - magnification of the region's profile which may have implications for increasing tourism and other business activities	Acquisition of a poor reputation if the event is unsuccessful
	Extension of tourist season - smooth out cyclical demand (Ritchie & Beliveau, 1974)	
Physical	Construction of new facilities and infrastructure - the extent of this benefit depends on the long term usefulness of these facilities to the community	Dislocation of lower socioeconomic groups during the creation of new "desirable middle class environments" (Hall, 1995)

	Regeneration and beautification of run down areas	Architectural pollution
		Environmental damage
		Overcrowding, traffic congestion, noise, litter, and access restrictions
Socio-Cultural	Entertainment and social opportunities for local residents	Dissatisfaction especially where the theme of the event does not fit the socio-cultural milieu of the community
	Increase in the level of local interest in the activity associated with the event (Ritchie, 1984)	Commodification and commercialisation of traditional local events
	Opportunity for intercultural contact	Potential for intercultural misunderstanding
	Volunteerism - improved local social support networks	May contribute to general social problems such as crime, prostitution and changing moral values
		Crowding can exacerbate rowdy behaviour, drinking, drug use and violence (Getz, 1991; Hall, 1992) 'Hoon effect' (Fischer, Hatch & Paix, 1986)
Psychological	Bring a sense of belonging and sharing to the community (Getz, 1991)	Rapid development may bring disruptions which may lead to feelings of alienation, and the loss of a sense of belonging or attachment to the community (McCool & Martin, 1994)
	Excitement, spectacle, pride and self esteem brought about by being the focus of international attention (Burns & Mules, 1986)	
Political	Enhance certain images and ideologies (Hall, 1992) - may be either positive or negative depending on the extent to which residents concur with these	Where conflicting interests exist it is likely that the interests of the politically powerful will win out over the interests of the politically weak
	Career enhancement of specific political figures (Hall, 1992)	Loss of local autonomy (Krippendorf, 1987)
		Formation of protest groups - "rebellion of the hosts" (Krippendorf, 1987)

Source: Adapted from Ritchie, 1984 and Hall, 1989 &1992

Extrinsic vs Intrinsic studies

As mentioned in the introduction, there has been a growing awareness of the need for assessing all of the potential impacts of tourism activity, and this has led to a recent proliferation of research into social impacts of tourism on host communities. Generally speaking, two types of social impact study have been conducted.

The first type, sometimes referred to as stage-based models (Pearce, Moscardo & Ross, 1996), or "extrinsic" studies (Faulkner & Tideswell, 1997), investigate the impact of tourism on the community as a whole and, therefore, assume a level of homogeneity among the residents of a region. These models consider the effects of variables such as the stage of tourism

development in a community, the tourist / resident ratio, the cultural distance between hosts and guests, and the seasonality of the tourist activity. A good example is Doxey's Irridex Model (1975) that suggests that residents' responses to tourism will pass through a series of stages (euphoria, apathy, irritation, and antagonism) as continued exposure to negative impacts is reflected by increasing annoyance. These models tend to be overly simplistic, ignoring the diversity of communities and the undeniable potential for tourism to impact various subgroups in different ways. However, their value lies in the contribution they have made in highlighting the fact that negative social impacts will lead to resident dissatisfaction unless appropriately managed.

The second type of research, described as "intrinsic" (Faulkner & Tideswell, 1997), does consider the heterogeneity of communities by measuring social impacts through the perception of members of the host community and then investigating differences in perception held by different sub-sectors of the community. These studies acknowledge that subgroups may be affected by tourism differentially, and also that differing value systems may be responsible for variations in perceptions.

Previous research on the Gold Coast Indy and the Australian Formula One Grand Prix (Fredline, 2000) identified the influence of a range of intrinsic variables.

Residential Proximity and Contact with Event Zone
It was found that those who held negative attitudes toward the events were more likely to live very close to where the event was staged (within 1.5km on average) while those who lived more than 5km away appeared to be fairly unconcerned. Residents with positive attitudes tended to live somewhere in between. Similarly, people who visited the area frequently were more negative, while those who seldom visited were indifferent.

Involvement in Tourism
People who worked in tourism, or perceived that their industry was positively affected by the event, tended to have more positive attitudes towards the event, while those who did not were less positive.

Identification with the Theme
Residents who identified themselves as having an interest in motorsport as a spectator sport or an interest in other aspects of the event were more positive towards the event than those who claimed no interest.

Socio-Political Values
People who identified more with materialist goals for society such as security and economic growth (which tend to be aligned more with conservative political opinions) tended to be more positive about the event than those who identified more with post-materialist values such as equality and civil rights.

Case Studies

Australian Formula One Grand Prix

The Australian Formula One Grand Prix has been staged annually in Melbourne since 1996. It is a four-day event featuring qualifying, practice and support races on the first three days and the main Formula One Race on the final day (a Sunday). In the early years there was some opposition to the staging of the event in Albert Park and a number of local residents formed a

vocal protest group known as “Save Albert Park”. This group still exists, however, in recent years there has been, anecdotally, far less publicity relating to their activities. There is evidence, again anecdotal, to suggest that resident reactions to the event have become less intense which may be due to acclimatisation or selective migration

Melbourne Moomba Festival

The Melbourne Moomba Festival is an outdoor festival held over the Labour Day weekend in March in the city centre. The origins of the word ‘Moomba’ come from an Aboriginal word meaning 'Lets get together and have fun' and the festival features a street parade, street parties, a fireworks display, water-skiing competitions on the Yarra River, and fair-ground attractions. Moomba is managed by the City of Melbourne, and was originally held to encourage the community and visitors into the city centre. The traditional Moomba festival, however, has been re-invented and launched as Melbourne Moomba Waterfest in 2003 merging the old and the new themes for the festival. Moomba is ‘free’ to enter and is open to the public although some activities may incur a cost. In 2004, over 950,000 people attended Moomba Waterfest. The 2004 program combined Moomba events such as the parade, water skiing, fire show and carnival, with new programs, including a dedicated children’s entertainment area, a multicultural and community performance and workshop, starlight cinema, a series of night time “River Rhythms” concerts and the “Birdman Rally.” (http://www.melbourne.vic.gov.au/info.)

Horsham Art Is… Festival.

This annual event in Horsham is a ten day community celebration offering a diverse range of activities. The event has continued to grow since 1996, and showcases performing and visual artists from the Wimmera region, and from around the state of Victoria. The festival involves artists from all genres and involves exhibitions, dance and music performances. It is a community-based festival aimed at broadening community participation and audience experience. There is a great range of activities scheduled in both the day and night over10 days. The event is held in the last 10 days of March each year and relies on links with other organisations both local and regional to promote the event. There are some free events open to the public. Ticket costs vary between events and include concession and family rates.

Method

Definition of Population and Selection of Sampling Frame

The population of interest in each of the case studies was defined as the permanent local population of the urban areas in which the events take place. However, finding a sampling frame that accurately represents this population is difficult. The two most obvious choices are the telephone directory and electoral rolls, but each of these has its disadvantages. For example, the telephone directory is out of date very quickly due to people’s mobility. The electoral rolls suffer from the same issue and while people may be on this register, they may no longer reside at that address. A third option, and the one chosen for this study, is the use of a proprietary list such as the National Consumer File maintained by Prime Prospects List Marketing. This list is based on the electoral roll but is supplemented with information from the census in an effort to overcome the representation issues associated with the rolls. This list is also updated on a more frequent basis.

An arbitrary decision was made to include only residents with a 15 km radius of the centre of the event precinct. This decision was made in recognition of the localised nature of many event

impacts such as noise and traffic congestion, and the need to adequately represent people living close to the event precinct.

Sampling Methods

Given the decision to use the National Consumer File to provide the sampling frame, a variety of stratification options were possible. Previous work in this area employed disproportionate stratified sampling based on geographical strata, with the aim of over-representing those living closest to the events in an effort to illuminate the importance of proximity (Fredline & Faulkner, 2002a, 2002b). As there is already substantial evidence of the relationship between proximity and impacts, this over-representation was not required in the current study. In the case of the two Melbourne based events, simple random sampling within the defined population was employed. In the Horsham case study, a slightly different approach was adopted because of the small population size. An entire population listing for the area was obtained (6000 residents) and residents were systematically selected using a sampling fraction of one in five.

Administration method

The instrument was administered via a postal survey. Although this method is not without its shortcomings, given resource limitations, it is often the most effective method for collecting data adequate for analysis. The most serious problems associated with postal surveys are low response rates, self-completion errors and missing data. Previous studies in this area suggest that response rates in the order of 30% are possible in this type of research (Fredline, 2000) provided that reminder questionnaires are dispatched. However, any non-response is an issue of concern. Although it is difficult to investigate, it seems logical to suggest that non-response to a survey investigating perceptions of the impacts of events on quality of life would be, at least to some extent, associated with a lack of concern. Although non-response bias has the potential to distort the representation of different sectors in the community, it should not impact the overall range of responses observed.

The second major problem associated with a postal survey is erroneous or missing data. The most effective tactics for minimising this problem include employing good instrument design principles and pilot testing, and these strategies were utilised in this study.

Instrument Design

The instrument was designed utilising statements from previous event and tourism literature with the inclusion of additional items from the social capital literature. Three slightly different versions of the instrument were developed for the three different events, the only differences being variation as necessary to allow for differences in the types of event and locations. A copy of the instrument used for the Grand Prix is presented in Appendix A.

Following the methods of Fredline (2000) the main dependant variables, namely, residents' perceptions of the impacts of events, were measured using a three part scale. The scale included 45 impact statements (42 of which are common to all instruments), and residents were first asked to assess whether they believed the item had changed because of the event and to identify the direction of the change. If residents did perceive a change, they were subsequently

asked to assess the effect on their personal quality of life, and also the effect on the community as a whole. These latter two assessments were measured using a seven point Likert type scale ranging from -3 (very negative impact) to +3 (very positive impact).

Other sections included the questions measuring the independent variables and demographic information. These variables were included to examine variations in perceptions within communities. Given that the instrument used in this study drew very heavily upon an instrument that was used successfully in previous research (Fredline, 2000; Fredline & Faulkner, 2002a), it was considered that there was no need to employ an extensive pre/pilot testing phase. However, prior to the data collection phase, the instrument was tested with an appropriate group for comprehension and ease of completion.

The final instrument included approximately 80 questions and spread over 12 pages, and would be considered long by any standards. Pilot testing indicated that it would take between 15 and 30 minutes to fully complete. In an effort to boost response, an incentive was offered in the form of a ticket in a $500 lottery for full completion by the specified date. However, given the length and complexity of the instrument, a low response rate was anticipated.

As previously mentioned, non-response creates concerns about representativeness and bias. Nevertheless, such a large instrument was considered necessary to fully consider all of the potential impacts of the events and to assess the differences and similarities across events. At this stage of scale development, therefore, it was decided that, in the trade-off between parsimony and thoroughness, priority should be given to thoroughness. In subsequent stages, once a suitable level of understanding has been reached about the underlying dimensions of event impacts as perceived by the host community, this lengthy scale will be replaced a compressed scale which is easier to administer and promotes higher rates of response.

Response

Given the anticipation of low response, large numbers of survey packages were dispatched for each event, with the aim of achieving datasets in the order of 200-300 responses for each event. For each of the two Melbourne based events, 2400 questionnaires were distributed, while in Horsham, 1400 packages were sent out. The usable returns for the Grand Prix, the Moomba Festival, and the Horsham Art Is…Festival were 279, 181 and 96 respectively, representing effective response rates of 13%, 8%, and 8%.

The demographic characteristics of the sample were compared to known population parameters from the 2001 Census Data. As can be seen in Table 2, young people are substantially underrepresented in the sample, as are non-Australian born residents. Given that such demographic groups are less likely to be captured on electoral rolls, this result is not unexpected. Other demographic groups appear to be adequately represented.

Table 2: Response for All Events

		Frequency	Percent	Population Proportion	χ^2
Gender	Female	263	48.8	51.05	
	Male	276	51.2	48.95	0.2 (3.841)
Age (Mean = 50.9 years)	18-29 years	31	6.0	23.48	
	30-39 years	99	19.0	21.23	
	40-49 years	135	26.0	19.17	
	50-59 years	114	21.9	15.04	
	60-69 years	73	14.0	9.58	
	70-79 years	55	10.6	7.46	
	80 years and over	13	2.5	4.03	22.8 (12.592)
Highest education level completed	No formal qualifications	34	6.4	No equivalent data available	
	Completed year 10 at school	60	11.2		
	Completed year 12	88	16.4		
	Trade Qualification	55	10.3		
	Technical College/TAFE Diploma	66	12.3		
	Undergraduate Degree	91	17.0		
	Post Graduate Degree	122	22.8		
Employment status	Employed	303	60.4	56.8	
	Unemployed	21	4.2	4.1	
	Retired	109	21.7	Not in Labour Force 39.1	
	Student	11	2.2		
	Student/part-time work	16	3.2		
	Home duties	42	8.4		0.6 (5.991)
Where were you born?	Melbourne	259	47.7	Total born in Australia 65.75	
	Elsewhere in Victoria	116	21.4		
	Elsewhere in Australia	61	11.2		
	In another country	107	19.7	34.25	9.4 (3.841)

**The calculated value of χ^2 appears first, with the appropriate critical value enclosed in parentheses.*

However, demographic representativeness does not necessarily imply adequate representation in terms of variation in perceptions of event impacts. Based on previous research, it would be expected that at least three different subgroups would exist within the community, namely, those who have largely negative perceptions of the impacts of the event(s) on their personal quality of life, those who are predominantly positively disposed, and those who are largely unconcerned, perceiving little or no impacts of the event(s). Given the high non-response, it would seem likely that the latter group would be underrepresented, as their motivation to participate in the survey would probably be lower than those whose feelings were more intense. Previous research has also tended to indicate that the unconcerned sector of the community is the largest (Fredline, 2000).

This likely lack of proportional representation at this stage of scale development is not of major concern. The main aim is to ensure that the range of perceptions is covered, and indeed,

adequate proportional representation would be likely to yield very low sample sizes at the extreme ends of the spectrum, hindering statistical comparison.

The preliminary results presented below should not, therefore, be considered as absolute indicators of the impacts of events on the quality of life of Melbourne and Horsham residents. However, given that the same methods have been used in each case study, it can be assumed that any biases are fairly consistent across the data sets. Thus, the results can be used as an indicator of issues of relative importance and as a mechanism for comparison across events, communities, and community sub-groups.

Results

The following results section initially presents an overall comparison of the three events and then investigates the intrinsic variation in resident perceptions of the events.

Overall Perceptions of Impacts

As referred to in the method section, the main dependant variables, perception of personal and community level impacts of the events, were measured in two ways. Initially, two overall statements were presented to respondents as shown in Table 3, and similar patterns can be observed. In the case of each event, the majority indicated "no effect" at the personal level, but the proportions indicating a positive impact outweighed those indicating a negative impact, resulting in a positive mean score. It is interesting to note that although the Grand Prix registered the highest proportions indicating a negative impact, it also registered the highest proportion indicating the most positive level of benefit. This greater tendency toward polarisation can also be observed in the slightly higher standard deviation scores associated with this event.

Table 3: Overall perceptions of personal and community impacts for each event

Statement	Event	Very negative -3	-2	-1	No effect 0	+1	+2	Very positive +3	Mean	Std Dev
Overall, how does the event affect your personal quality of life?	Grand Prix	3.3%	3.3%	8.9%	51.3%	17.7%	4.1%	11.4%	0.35	1.35
	Moomba	1.1%	1.1%	3.3%	59.4%	25.0%	5.0%	5.0%	0.41	0.93
	Art Is…	1.1%	0%	2.2%	48.9%	27.2%	12.0%	8.7%	0.72	1.08
Overall, how does the event affect the community as a whole?	Grand Prix	1.9%	4.6%	8.1%	6.9%	24.1%	28.7%	25.7%	1.36	1.52
	Moomba	1.1%	0.6%	2.9%	8.6%	36.0%	38.3%	12.6%	1.43	1.07
	Art Is…	1.1%	1.1%	1.1%	9.9%	35.2%	29.7%	22.0%	1.54	1.15

When tested using a 2 X 3 mixed factorial design ANOVA (impact level X event), the only significant effect observed was for impact level, $F_{(1, 524)} = 265.7$, $p<0.05$; that is, for each event the perceived benefit at the community level is significantly higher than at the personal level, but the differences between the event means at each level are not significant.

Perceptions of Specific Impacts

A series of Chi-square contingency table analyses was performed comparing the relationship between the different events and the perceived direction of change of the impacts (that is, Part A in the dependant measure scale as described in the method section). In an effort to simplify these results, Table 4 shows only the direction of change perceived by the largest proportion of the respective sample. Where this proportion is significantly higher or lower than would have been expected (based on standardised cell residuals greater than ± 2), this is highlighted in bold and the direction is denoted by an upward or downward facing arrow.

Table 4 Perceptions of direction of change for specific event impacts

	Grand Prix		**Moomba Festival**		**Art Is… Festival**	
Name of event	**Direction**	**%**	**Direction**	**%**	**Direction**	**%**
Maintenance of public facilities	Increased	65.2	Increased	48.3	Increased	50.0
Noise levels	Increased	81.5	Increased	56.3	**No Change**	**70.3** ↑
Employment opportunities	**Increased**	**72.4** ↑	Increased	58.1	**Increased**	**43.3** ↓
Range of interesting things to do	Increased	68.4	Increased	78.0	Increased	75.8
Number of people in the area	Increased	59.5	Increased	59.8	**No Change**	**45.7** ↑
Rowdy and delinquent behaviour	No Change	36.0	**Increased**	**41.4** ↑	**No Change**	**63.7** ↑
Property values in the area	Don't Know	43.5	**No Change**	**46.3** ↑	**No Change**	**67.4** ↑
Crime levels	**Don't Know**	**49.1** ↑	No Change	37.1	**No Change**	**57.0** ↑
Entertainment opportunities	**Increased**	**69.4**	Increased	81.2	**Increased**	**73.6**
Prices of some goods and services	Increased	44.0	Increased	42.4	**No Change**	**67.0** ↑
Pride that residents have in the city	Increased	68.3	Increased	58.7	Increased	64.0
Overall cost of living	No Change	63.2	No Change	61.6	No Change	80.0
Litter in the vicinity	Increased	38.2	**Increased**	**65.9** ↑	**No Change**	**55.6** ↑
Damage to the environment	Increased	39.2	Increased	37.8	**No Change**	**66.7** ↑
Opportunities to meet new people	Increased	64.6	Increased	55.8	Increased	73.0
Opportunities for local business	Increased	67.8	Increased	67.1	Increased	65.6
Parking availability in the vicinity	Decreased	64.9	Decreased	65.3	**Decreased**	**44.9** ↓
Traffic congestion in the vicinity	Increased	80.4	Increased	74.0	Increased	57.3
The number of tourists visiting at other times of the year	**Increased**	**56.3** ↑	Increased	38.7	No Change	39.3
Excessive drinking and/or drug use	Don't Know	39.8	Don't Know	38.0	**No Change**	**50.6** ↑
Turnover for local businesses	Increased	57.7	Increased	55.0	Increased	65.6
Number of people moving in permanently or buying holiday homes	Don't Know	56.3	Don't Know	50.9	**No Change**	**54.9** ↑
The rights and civil liberties of local residents	**Decreased**	**37.5** ↑	No Change	49.1	**No Change**	**66.7** ↑
Appearance of area around event	Improved	72.5	Improved	53.2	Improved	70.3
Public transport	**Improved**	**47.8** ↑	No Change	39.3	**No Change**	**74.4** ↑
Interactions between locals and tourists	Improved	39.5	Improved	45.9	Improved	39.6
Facilities available to local residents	**Improved**	**43.8** ↑	No Change	32.7	No Change	53.8
Social and moral values	No Change	60.4	No Change	55.0	No Change	59.3
The media coverage of the event promotes tourism and business development in Melbourne / Horsham	Agree	81.9	Agree	69.9	Agree	72.2
The public money spent on the event would be better spent on other things	Disagree	51.6	Disagree	62.0	Disagree	56.7
The event entertains local residents and gives them an opportunity to attend a major international event	Agree	63.5	Agree	69.2	**Agree**	**87.8** ↑
The event disrupts the lives of local residents and causes them stress	**Agree**	**61.7** ↑	Disagree	40.9	**Disagree**	**70.7** ↑
Because of the event, the skill base for event management has increased	Agree	70.3	Agree	53.2	Agree	55.6
The event increases social inequity because it provides benefits to the rich, but none to the poor	Disagree	53.7	Disagree	65.9	Disagree	68.1
The event gives us an opportunity to show other people how special our community is	Agree	67.6	Agree	69.6	Agree	71.4

The event brings too many people into our community	Disagree	75.1	Disagree	78.3	Disagree	82.6
The event enhances Victoria's reputation as "The Events State"	Agree	82.5	Agree	64.4	Agree	58.2
Because of the event, friends come and visit me	Disagree	70.4	Disagree	78.9	Disagree	69.9
Ordinary residents get no say in the planning and management of the event	**Agree**	**53.1 ↑**	**Don't Know**	**48.6 ↑**	**Disagree**	**44.6 ↑**
The event promotes values that are good	**Agree**	**38.2 ↓**	**Agree**	**62.9 ↑**	**Agree**	**64.8 ↑**
The event provides opportunities for people to have fun with their family and friends	Agree	79.1	Agree	94.3	Agree	90.0
The money that tourists spend when they come to the event helps to stimulate the economy	Agree	88.0	Agree	79.0	Agree	80.2

A number of broad observations can be made. Fewer impacts were perceived for the Art Is… Festival, with 16 of the 42 potential impacts being perceived by the majority to have not changed, compared with only three for the Grand Prix, and seven for the Moomba Festival. This is probably indicative of the fact that this is a much smaller event, without the same capacity to effect substantial change in the community, and that this is recognised by the local population. Additionally, it is interesting to note that for no statements did the majority of the Horsham sample indicate that they did not know about the direction of the impact change. Perhaps this is because this community is much smaller than Melbourne, and residents feel relatively better informed about the changes in their community.

Table 5 presents the mean scores of residents' perceptions of each impact on personal quality of life and overall community well being (that is, Parts B and C of the dependant measure). As noted in the method section, where respondents selected "no change" or "don't know" as their response to these questions, they were not required to complete Parts B or C. Therefore, for the purposes of calculating these overall means, the "no change" responses were coded as zero (0) indicating "no effect", while the "don't know" responses were coded as missing and therefore eliminated from the analysis. It should thus be noted that the means presented in Table 6 do not necessarily include all respondents.

Table 5: Perceptions of specific event impacts on personal and community quality of life

	Mean Personal Impact Rating			Mean Community Impact Ratings		
Name of event	GP 1	Moomba 2	Art Is 3	GP 1	Moomba 2	Art Is 3
Maintenance of public facilities	**0.71_{2}**	**0.23_{1}**	**0.41**	**1.40_{23}**	**0.72_{1}**	**0.81_{1}**
Noise levels	**-0.27**	**-0.02**	**-0.06**	**-0.79_{23}**	**-0.20_{1}**	**-0.03_{1}**
Employment opportunities	**0.22**	**0.21**	**0.15**	**1.40_{23}**	**1.01_{13}**	**0.57_{12}**
Range of interesting things to do	0.62	0.74	0.75	1.21	1.53	1.27
Number of people in the area	0.03	0.00	0.24	0.42	0.43	0.71
Rowdy and delinquent behaviour	-0.16	-0.38	-0.06	**-0.36**	**-0.67_{3}**	**-0.03_{2}**
Property values in the area	*0.17*	*0.02*	*0.04*	*0.49*	*0.19*	*0.15*
Crime levels	-0.05	-0.23	-0.13	-0.15	-0.26	-0.12
Entertainment opportunities	0.51	0.71	0.64	1.23	1.47	1.21
Prices of some goods and services	*-0.24*	*-0.40*	*-0.10*	*-0.32*	*-0.60*	*-0.11*
Pride that residents have in the city	0.75	0.64	0.67	1.15	1.10	1.06
Overall cost of living	-0.04	-0.16	0.04	-0.05	-0.05	0.06
Litter in the vicinity	**-0.16**	**-0.53**	**0.08**	**-0.53_{2}**	**-1.18_{13}**	**-0.27_{2}**
Damage to the environment	*-0.25*	*-0.24*	*-0.08*	*-0.41*	*-0.50*	*-0.03*
Opportunities to meet new people	*0.49*	*0.42*	*0.85*	*1.09*	*0.89*	*1.22*
Opportunities for local business	0.26	0.14	0.41	1.21	1.15	1.03
Parking availability in the vicinity	-0.41	-0.35	-0.18	**-1.16_{3}**	**-0.99**	**-0.40_{1}**
Traffic congestion in the vicinity	**-0.62_{3}**	**-0.54_{3}**	**-0.09_{12}**	**-1.18_{3}**	**-1.12_{3}**	**-0.36_{12}**
The number of tourists visiting at other times of the year	*0.26*	*0.20*	*0.26*	*1.26*	*0.92*	*0.74*

Excessive drinking and/or drug use	**-0.09**	**-0.39**	**-0.11**	**-0.30_{2}**	**-0.76_{13}**	**0.00_{2}**
Turnover for local businesses	0.24	0.12	0.33	1.17	1.21	1.26
No of people moving in permanently or buying holiday homes	0.08	0.07	0.07	0.43	0.20	0.17
The rights and civil liberties of local residents	**-0.19**	**0.00**	**0.01**	**-0.71_{23}**	**-0.14_{1}**	**-0.03_{1}**
Appearance of area around event	*0.60*	*0.35*	*0.70*	*1.19*	*0.83*	*1.18*
Public transport	*0.34*	*0.29*	*0.14*	*0.81*	*0.64*	*0.23*
Interactions between locals and tourists	0.29	0.29	0.31	0.75	0.86	0.71
Facilities available to local residents	0.27	0.19	0.29	0.66	0.38	0.45
Social and moral values	-0.08	0.18	0.08	0.01	0.17	0.13
The media coverage of the event promotes tourism and business development in Melbourne / Horsham	0.41	0.34	0.41	1.50	1.36	1.23
The public money spent on the event would be better spent on other things	**-0.27_{23}**	**-0.01_{1}**	**-0.01_{1}**	**-0.38_{23}**	**-0.05_{1}**	**-0.01_{1}**
The event entertains local residents and gives them an opportunity to attend a major international event	*0.51*	*0.57*	*0.75*	*0.98*	*1.20*	*1.47*
The event disrupts the lives of local residents and causes them stress	**-0.19**	**-0.04**	**-0.05**	**-0.85_{23}**	**-0.26_{1}**	**-0.07_{1}**
Because of the event, the skill base for event management in Melbourne has increased	*0.37*	*0.15*	*0.30*	*1.27*	*0.87*	*1.28*
The event increases social inequity because it provides benefits to the rich, but none to the poor	-0.06	-0.01	0.01	-0.32	-0.18	-0.04
The event gives us an opportunity to show other people how special our community is	0.50	0.50	0.63	1.18	1.08	1.37
The event brings too many people into our community	-0.02	0.01	0.05	0.02	0.01	0.14
The event enhances Victoria's reputation as "The Events State"	*0.68*	*0.52*	*0.52*	*1.41*	*1.29*	*0.93*
Because of the event, friends come and visit me	*0.36*	*0.12*	*0.31*	*0.38*	*0.14*	*0.32*
Ordinary residents get no say in the planning and management of the event	-0.22	-0.15	-0.02	**-0.77_{3}**	**-0.55**	**-0.08_{1}**
The event promotes values that are good	**0.38_{3}**	**0.57**	**0.80_{1}**	**0.67_{23}**	**1.18_{1}**	**1.39_{1}**
The event provides opportunities for people to have fun with their family and friends	*0.68*	*0.83*	*1.00*	***1.38_{2}***	***1.77_{1}***	***1.70***
The money that tourists spend when they come to the event helps to stimulate the economy	0.56	0.41	0.50	1.70	1.62	1.49

It is also interesting to note that although the negative impacts of concern to Horsham residents are similar to those associated with the two Melbourne based events, the mean scores are much closer to zero, indicating that these impacts are not seen to be as detrimental to quality of life. Tables 6, 7 and 8 provide information on the most strongly perceived benefits and costs of each of the events.

Table 6: The most strongly perceived benefits and costs of the Grand Prix

Personal Benefits	**Mean**	**Community Benefits**	**Mean**
Pride that residents have in the city	0.75	The money that tourists spend when they come to the event helps to stimulate the economy	1.70
Maintenance of public facilities	0.71	The media coverage of the event promotes tourism and business development in Melbourne / Horsham	1.50
The event enhances Victoria's reputation as "The Events State"	0.68	The event enhances Victoria's reputation as "The Events State"	1.41
The event provides opportunities for people to have fun with their family and friends	0.68	Employment opportunities	1.40
Range of interesting things to do	0.62	Maintenance of public facilities	1.40
Personal Costs	**Mean**	**Community Costs**	**Mean**
Traffic congestion in the vicinity	-0.62	Traffic congestion in the vicinity	-1.18
Parking availability in the vicinity	-0.41	Parking availability in the vicinity	-1.16
The public money spent on the event would be better spent on other things	-0.27	The event disrupts the lives of local residents and causes them stress	-0.85
Noise levels	-0.27	Noise levels	-0.79
Damage to the environment	-0.25	Ordinary residents get no say in the planning and management of the event	-0.77

Table 7: The most strongly perceived benefits and costs of the Moomba Festival

Personal Benefits	**Mean**	**Community Benefits**	**Mean**
The event provides opportunities for people to have fun with their family and friends	0.83	The event provides opportunities for people to have fun with their family and friends	1.77
Range of interesting things to do	0.74	The money that tourists spend when they come to the event helps to stimulate the economy	1.62
Entertainment opportunities	0.71	Range of interesting things to do	1.53
Pride that residents have in the city	0.64	Entertainment opportunities	1.47
The event entertains local residents and gives them an opportunity to attend a major international event	0.57	The media coverage of the event promotes tourism and business development in Melbourne / Horsham	1.36
Personal Costs	**Mean**	**Community Costs**	**Mean**
Traffic congestion in the vicinity	-0.54	Litter in the vicinity	-1.18
Litter in the vicinity	-0.53	Traffic congestion in the vicinity	-1.12
Prices of some goods and services	-0.40	Parking availability in the vicinity	-0.99
Excessive drinking and/or drug use	-0.39	Excessive drinking and/or drug use	-0.76
Rowdy and delinquent behaviour	-0.38	Rowdy and delinquent behaviour	-0.67

Table 8: The most strongly perceived benefits and costs of the Art Is… Festival

Personal Benefits	**Mean**	**Community Benefits**	**Mean**
The event provides opportunities for people to have fun with their family and friends	1.00	The event provides opportunities for people to have fun with their family and friends	1.70
Opportunities to meet new people	0.85	The money that tourists spend when they come to the event helps to stimulate the economy	1.49
The event promotes values that are good	0.80	The event entertains local residents and gives them an opportunity to attend a major international event	1.47
The event entertains local residents and gives them an opportunity to attend a major international event	0.75	The event promotes values that are good	1.39
Range of interesting things to do	0.75	The event gives us an opportunity to show other people how special our community is	1.37
Personal Costs	**Mean**	**Community Costs**	**Mean**
Parking availability in the vicinity	-0.18	Parking availability in the vicinity	-0.40
Crime levels	-0.13	Traffic congestion in the vicinity	-0.36
Excessive drinking and/or drug use	-0.11	Litter in the vicinity	-0.27
Prices of some goods and services	-0.10	Crime levels	-0.12
Traffic congestion in the vicinity	-0.09	Prices of some goods and services	-0.11

Discussion and Conclusion

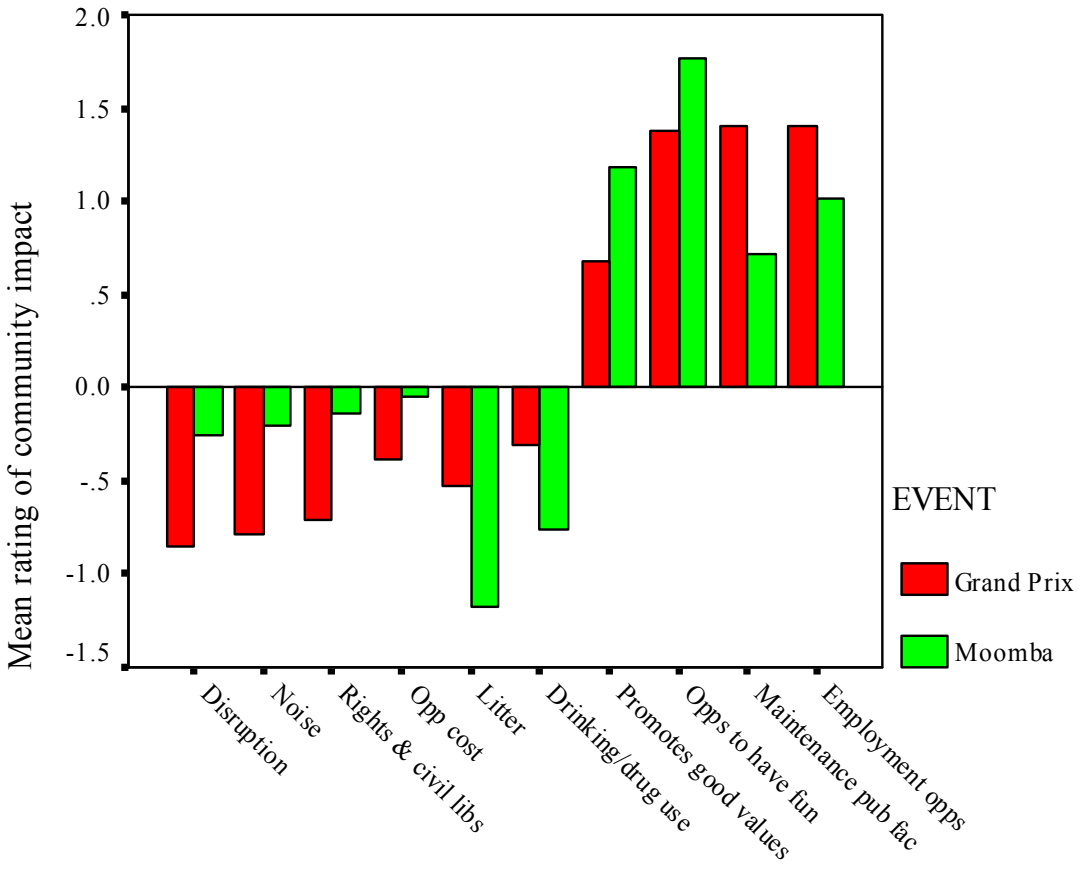
This report has presented the results of a study investigating local residents' perceptions of the impacts of events on their quality of life. Three case studies were included in an effort to facilitate comparison between different events in different types of community. This final section discusses those comparisons and the implications for event management.

Comparison One – Different Themed Events in the Same Community

The first comparison evaluated the perceptions of the Grand Prix against the Melbourne Moomba Festival. These events are staged in the same community and have quite different themes. Perceptions of community level impact differed significantly on ten items as shown in Figure 1. The Grand Prix was seen as being more negative in terms of disruption and noise, and in terms of decreasing the rights and civil liberties of local residents. There was also a stronger perception that the public money invested in the Grand Prix would be better spent on other things. However, the Moomba festival was seen as being more negative in terms of the

litter generated and the excessive drinking and/or drug use associated with the event. These differences relate to the different nature of the events. The Grand Prix is noisy and disruptive by nature, because of the necessity to erect and dismantle the infrastructure, which also necessitates regulations which may be perceived as infringing upon the rights and civil liberties of local residents. Additionally, the event is quite expensive to attend denying many residents the opportunity to do so. Perhaps it is for this reason that there is a belief that the public money should be spent on other endeavours. On the other hand, Moomba is a free event with open access across multiple venues. This would make the policing of delinquent behaviour more difficult.

Figure 1: Comparison between community impacts of Grand Prix and Moomba Festival



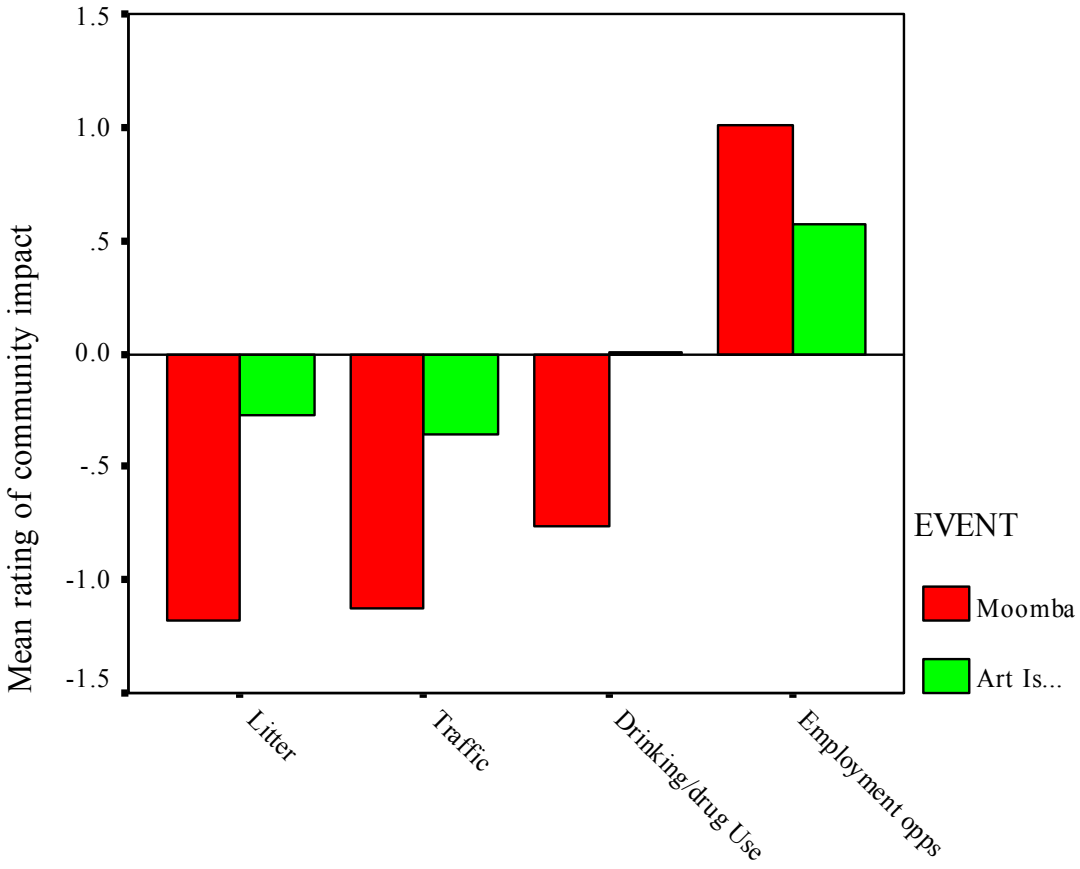
On the positive side, the Grand Prix was seen as creating more employment opportunities and leading to better maintenance of public facilities in the vicinity of the event zone. Again, this is logical given that this is a large internationally focussed event that requires substantial infrastructure. However, Moomba was seen as better in terms of the creation of social capital type benefits such as promoting values that are good and giving residents an opportunity to have fun with their families and friends.

Comparison Two – Similar Themed Events in Different Communities

The second comparison looked at the Moomba Festival and the Art Is… Festival evaluating the relative impacts of similar events in communities of very different sizes. As shown in Figure 2, Moomba was perceived as having a more negative impact in terms of litter and traffic congestion, and there was a greater association with excessive drinking/drug use. On the other hand, Moomba was also seen as producing more employment benefits that the Art Is… Festival. Perhaps the most interesting finding was that for the remaining 38 impact statement,

very similar ratings were observed, suggesting that, when the themes are similar, a small event can have as substantial an impact in a small community as a larger event has in a larger community.

Figure 2: Comparison between community impacts of Moomba Festival and Art Is… Festival



Recommendations for Planning and Management

The aim of this research was to investigate the differential impacts that different types of event can have on different communities as perceived by their local residents. This type of research is important because an understanding of the social impacts of events can be used in conjunction with economic and environmental impact assessment techniques to manage events in a more holistic and sustainable manner.

The results show that there were many impacts which appear to be common to events even when the theme and host community are quite different. Table 10 shows the impacts which were perceived at a similar level in all three of these events and the overall mean rating of community impact.

There appears to be a general consensus that events have fairly substantial economic, entertainment, social and development benefits. There is also agreement with regard to some negative impacts such as increased prices and damage to the environment, but these are not perceived to have substantial impact.

Table 9: Impacts which were perceived to be similar for all three events

Impact	Mean rating of community impact across all events
The money that tourists spend when they come to the event helps to stimulate the economy	1.4
The media coverage of the event promotes tourism and business development in Melbourne / Horsham	1.2
Range of interesting things to do	1.2
Entertainment opportunities	1.1
The event enhances Victoria's reputation as "The Events State"	1.1
The event gives us an opportunity to show other people how special our community is	1.0
Pride that residents have in their city	0.9
Appearance of area around event precinct	0.9
The event entertains local residents and gives them an opportunity to attend a major international event	0.9
Opportunities for local business	0.9
Opportunities to meet new people	0.9
Turnover for local businesses	0.8
Because of the event, the skill base for event management has increased	0.8
The number of tourists visiting at other times of the year	0.7
Public transport	0.5
Interactions between locals and tourists	0.5
Facilities available to local residents	0.4
Number of people in the area around the event precinct	0.4
Because of the event, friends come and visit me	0.3
Property values in the vicinity of the event precinct	0.2
Number of people moving in permanently or buying holiday homes	0.1
Social and moral values	0.1
The event brings too many people into our community	0.0
Overall cost of living	0.0
Crime levels	-0.1
The event increases social inequity because it provides benefits to the rich, but none to the poor	-0.2
Prices of some goods and services	-0.3
Damage to the environment	-0.3

Limitations

As mentioned previously this research aimed to compare a range of events with different themes and in different locations in an effort to examine similarities and differences in the social impacts that events have in various contexts. Case study research is useful in this regard, but there are clearly many other types of events and host communities which could have been included in the study. Ongoing research by the Sustainable Tourism CRC in other states will hopefully add to the external validity of these results.

As referred to in the method section, the response rate in this study was lower than desirable, although to be expected given the length and complexity of the instrument. This trade off was considered appropriate given that one of the aims of the study was scale development. Future research using a compressed instrument and administered using a telephone interview will hopefully extend the representativeness of the sample and subsequent results.

Future Research Directions

The findings from this research suggest there are more elements in common between each of the events than would be expected in terms of the social impacts on the community. There appears to be a general consensus that events have fairly substantial economic, entertainment, social and development benefits. There is also agreement with regard to some negative impacts such as increased prices and damage to the environment, but these are not perceived to have substantial impact. Whilst the instrument that has been developed to assess the social impacts of events has proved effective, it is a fairly complex instrument to administer that has implications for resident response rates. Plans are already underway to further refine this instrument to allow for a more parsimonious set of items that can be more readily administered using telephone interviews. This will enhance the usability of the scale. Substantial testing will be required to determine the reliability of a shorter instrument.

In parallel with this work to reduce the size of the social impact survey instrument, research will be undertaken to incorporate social impact analysis into a more holistic event evaluation kit. This research seeks to evaluate events from multiple perspectives at one time rather than treating each evaluation perspective in isolation as has happened in the past

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Event Denizens and the Sports Tourist: Pre-event perceptions of the social impacts of a major event

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Abstract

This paper investigates residents' pre-event perceptions of the social impacts of a major event using the 18th Commonwealth Games, Melbourne, Australia as the basis of the study. The study focuses on the exchange relationship between event denizens (residents, workers and commuters within a 10 km radius of major event venues) and event tourists. The possibility of using social exchange theory as a vehicle to explain the residents' opinion of the impact of a major event is investigated. It was found that age of residents, their income levels, gender and length of residence had significant values when compared to the perceived impacts of the event.

Introduction

Events are one of the fastest growing forms of leisure, business and tourism related activities (Getz ,1997). Lindberg and Johnson (1997) assert that major events have a variety of tourism impacts, namely economic, socio-cultural and environmental. To date, there has been a great emphasis on economic, political, cultural and environmental impacts of major events and relatively little is known about the social impacts (Fredline and Faulkner, 2002).

The 18th Commonwealth Games will be held for the fourth time in Australia and for the first time will be hosted in Australia's second largest city, Melbourne, during 2006. There will be 72 countries represented at the 2006 Commonwealth Games. It is anticipated that more than 4,500 athletes will compete in Melbourne in 16 sports and 24 disciplines. A central feature of the Melbourne 2006 Games is that 14 of the 16 sports will be staged at venues within a three kilometre radius of the CBD. The number of volunteers is expected to be 15,000, with around 1,200 technical officials, 5000 contractors and over 500 full time staff contributing to the Games (Melbourne 2006 website, Fact sheet, 2003). This paper investigates the perceived social impacts of the 2006 Commonwealth Games on event denizens.

There have been numerous definitions of mega-events, for example, Getz (1997:6) regards mega-events as yielding "extraordinary high levels of tourism, media coverage, prestige or economic impact for the host community or destination". The trend to host major events in large cities has continued unabated in the modern era (see table 1).

Table 1 Summer Olympic Games Locations 1896-2000

Athens 1896	Los Angeles 1932	Munich 1972
Paris 1900	Berlin 1936	Montreal 1976
St. Louis 1904	London 1948	Moscow 1980
London 1908	Helsinki 1952	Los Angeles 1984
Stockholm 1912	Melbourne 1956	Seoul 1988
Antwerp 1920	Rome 1960	Barcelona 1992
Paris 1924	Tokyo 1964	Atlanta 1996
Amsterdam 1928	Mexico City 1968	Sydney 2000

Source IOC 2003

More recently this trend has continued with the awarding of the 2006 FIFA World Cup to Germany. Although the FIFA World Cup is awarded to National Football Associations the majority of games are located in larger cities. For example with respect to the 2006 FIFA World Cup, with the exception of Nurnberg, Kaiserslautern and Gelsenkirchen, all venue cities have population bases of greater than ½ million (FIFA 2003). The hosting of a major event in urban locations has the potential to significantly impact on residents' lifestyle.

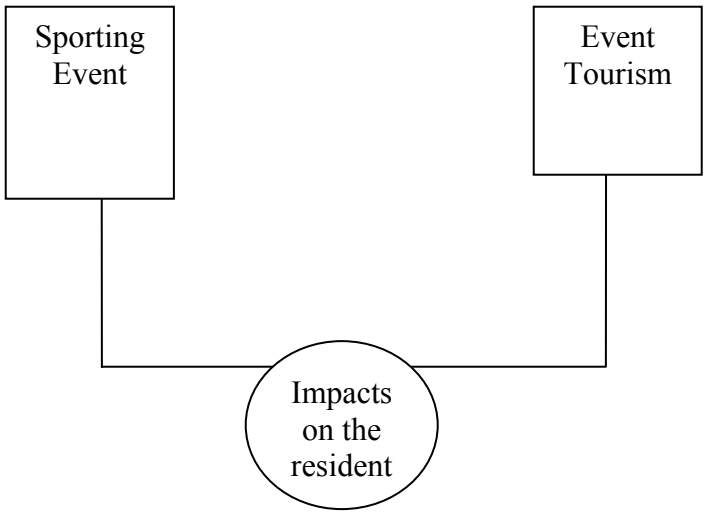
Sport Tourism

Sport tourism has boomed since the 1980's. During the past 20 years, sport has grown from the 25th largest industry in the USA to the 11th largest industry (Kelly, 2000). The links between sport and tourism have expanded considerably (Higham and Hinch, 2002).Gibson (1998) comments that sport tourism is comprised of three parts, namely, active sport tourism, nostalgia sport tourism and event sport tourism. She describes active sport tourism as the participation in sports away from the home community, for example competing in the Olympics; whilst nostalgia sports tourism entails the visiting or venerating of famous sports-related attractions, like Anfield (home of Liverpool Football Club) or Yankee Stadium (home of the New York Yankees); whereas event sport tourism may be defined as the attendance at a sporting event. The scope of event sport tourism is extensive and includes both hallmark and mega events such as the Wimbledon Tennis Championships, the summer Olympic Games, and FIFA World Cup as well as localized activities such as junior sporting competitions. Thus, sporting events can be major tourist attractions in their own right since they constitute one of the important drivers in many travel decisions and often feature prominently in the travel experience (Hinch and Hingham, 2001).

The hosting of sporting events is an extensive exercise (Gibson, 1999). There is increasing evidence to suggest that when hosting major events there is a complex interaction of physical, socio-cultural and economic impacts, both positive and negative, felt by the host community and consequently by the resident, (Ritchie, 1984; Faulkner,

Tideswell and Weston, 1998; Olds, 1998; Hiller, 1998; Hingham, 1999; Pennington-Gray and Holdnak, 2002). These resultant resident impacts of the sporting event and the event driven tourist may be represented by Figure 1. The authors argue that the social impacts on event denizens (residents, workers and commuters within a 10 km radius of major event venues)with respect to sporting events, is a consequential product of the nature of the sporting event and the local impacts of event tourism. For example, a Formula 1 Grand Prix may generate some local discomfort to residents from noise pollution and this discomfort is amplified by the activities of event tourists.

Figure 1: Relationship of Event Tourism and Sporting Events and Impacts on Residents



Source: D'Mello 2003

The Impacts Of Mega Event Tourism

Getz, (1997) comments that no event can take place in a vacuum. There have been extensive studies on the impacts of tourism driven by mega events (Waitt, 2003; Deccio and Baloglu, 2002; Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell and Harris 2001; Faulkner, Chalip, Brown, Jago, March and Woodside, 2001; Jones, 2001; Brunt and Courtney, 1999; Carmichael and Murphy, 1996; Hall and Hodges, 1996; McCool and Moisey, 1996; Brown and Giles, 1994; Ap and Crompton, 1993; King, Pizam and Milman, 1993;) These impacts of mega-events are summarized in the Table 2.

Table 2: The Impacts of Events

• Social and cultural	• Community pride and spirit • Strengthening of traditions and values • Increased participation • Increased volunteers • Community group activity • Intercultural interaction and cooperation	• Community alienation • Drinking • Drugs • Bad behaviour • Social dislocation • Loss of amenity • Negative community image
• Physical and Environmental	• Showcasing the environment • Increasing environmental awareness • Urban transformation and renewal • Infrastructure legacy • Improved transport and communications	• Environmental damage • Pollution • Destruction of heritage • Noise disturbance • Traffic congestion
• Political	• International prestige • Improved profile • Promotion of investment • Social cohesion • Development of administrative skills	• Risk of event failure • Misallocation of funds • Lack of accountability • Loss of community ownerships and control • Propagandising
• Economic	• Higher yield • Multiplier effect • Increased tax revenue • Job creation • Destination promotion and increased tourist visits	• Community resistance to tourism • Loss of authenticity • Damage to reputation • Exploitation • Inflated process • Opportunity costs

Source: Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell and Harris 2001

In several studies Faulkner asserted that with an event of great magnitude the impacts will be greater and more noticeable and will also affect various subgroups of the population (Fredline and Faulkner, 2002; Faulkner, et al., 2001). However the social impacts of mega-events have received little or no attention from researchers (Fredline and Faulkner, 2002 op cit; Hall and Hodges, 1996). Both Milman and Pizam (1988), and Getz (1991) comment that it is difficult to quantitatively measure these social impacts of events. Although the social impacts may be intangible, understanding them should be regarded as important, since these will have long-term consequences for the community.

Social Impacts of Event Tourism

Social impact studies can be defined as "the effects of tourism development or the activity on the lives of contemporary residents in their community, group, and individual activities" (NSW Tourism Commission Study, in Pearce, Moscardo and Ross, 1991, 147). As seen in Figure 2, the social impacts when compared with economic and environmental impacts are more intangible and cannot be directly seen or measured. Murphy, (1985, in Sharpley, 1994,192) further differentiates between social and cultural impacts and says that, "the social impacts are those which have a more immediate effect on both the tourists and the host communities and their quality of life, whereas cultural impacts are those which lead to a longer-term, gradual change in a society's values, beliefs and cultural practices". The social impacts of the host-tourist interaction will be looked at in this paper both at the individual and collective level. Six key social impacts of major events are indicated in the literature, namely crime, aesthetic modifications, displacement, increased rent, community pride, route disruption (King, et.al, 1993; Brown and Giles, 1994; Sharpley, 1994; Hall and Hodges, 1996; Dwyer, Mellor, Mistilis and Mules, 2001; Faulkner, et, al, 2001; Waitt, 2003).

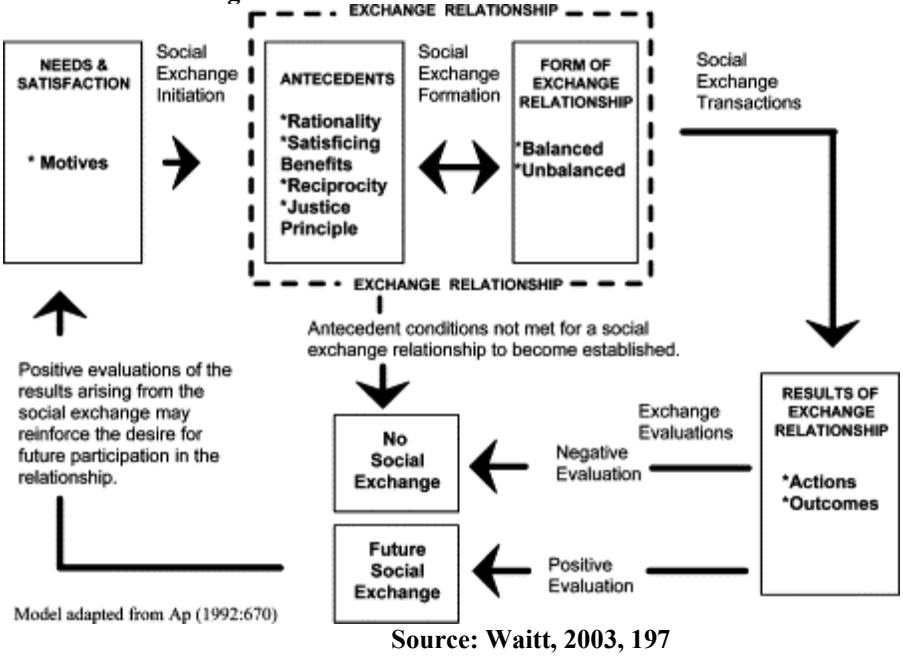
Resident Perception and Social Exchange Theory (Set)

The social exchange theory was modified by Ap (1992) for application in the tourism sector. SET deals with the exchange of resources between residents and tourists and the SET doctrine suggests that individuals will engage in exchanges if:

1. The resulting rewards are valued,
2. The exchange is likely to produce valued rewards and
3. Perceived costs do not exceed perceived rewards.

The application of SET process can be seen in Figure 2.

Figure 2: Social Exchange Process Model



Source: Waitt, 2003, 197

Ap (1992, 667) comments "the advantages of using SET are that it can accommodate explanation of both the positive and negative perceptions, and can examine relationships at the individual and collective level". Furthermore, SET can also be used as a predictive model.

The study of resident perceptions largely involves the identification of the characteristics that contribute to the positive, negative or ambiguous perceptions of tourism development. A positive perception is suggested to occur only when both the tourist and the resident perceive benefit from the exchange; whereas a negative perception is related to an unequal exchange between the two parties (Waitt, 2003).

Ap and Crompton, (1993) commented that the social impacts constitute the greatest number of observed impacts resulting from tourism as perceived by residents. Some of the main factors affecting perceptions are socio-demographics and certain economic variables. Perdue, Long and Allen, (1990) in their study of residents' perceptions of tourism impacts concluded that socio-demographic characteristics have no effect on a particular resident's psychological tendency to favour or disfavour tourism. An exception is if the resident has any direct and financial interest in tourism development. Milman and Pizam, (1988) support this exception, and state that employment in the tourism industry varies the residents' perceptions towards tourism. Hernandez, Cohen and Garcia, (1996) and Ap, (1990) claim that socio-demographic and economic variables fail to explain the multitude of contextual factors that effect individual responses, since perceptions can vary from individual to individual as well as at a collective level. Belisle and Hoy (1980) discovered that local residents' perceptions of tourism became less favourable the further their distance from the tourist zone was.

Lankford and Howard (1994, 135) found that "the extent to which local residents accept or reject changes attributable to tourism depends in large measure on the residents' perceptions of how they affect their own personal welfare and lifestyle". These factors are investigated in this paper.

The Study and Methodology

The three primary objectives of this study were to, (a) to identify positive and negative impacts predicted by residents perceptions of the Games, (b) to assess the perceived benefits and costs of the Games in a social context, and (c), predict post-event impact perceptions of the residents.

For the purpose of this research event denizens are defined as individuals who reside, work or commute to the areas surrounding the major Games venues. Given the centralization of the Games venues, a telephone survey of the inner city of Melbourne's residents was undertaken. A sample size of 150 respondents was used to establish to establish a confidence level of 95% with an interval level of 3.5.

The residential proximity to the CBD of Melbourne is an important variable in the formation of perceptions. To measure this variable the population was selected on the basis of the first four telephone exchange codes that indicated the numbers were from the city and its surrounds within a 10-kilometre radius and randomly generated numbers for the remaining four digits. The numbers were recorded in a logbook. This protocol aided in overcoming the problems of new listings, unlisted numbers as well as recently changed numbers. The sampling method aimed to obtain a heterogenous group of respondents.
Closed ended questions were used to help determine awareness, the proposed visitation to the Games venues and the level of personal involvement in terms of volunteering, that the respondent would have during the Games. Fourteen statements, concerning some likely impacts of the Games, were read to participants. A 7-point Likert type scale was used to determine resident perception relating to statements related to various social aspects such as a sense of community pride, international popularity, crime rate, resentment towards tourists, safety and security, traffic congestion, access to areas within the CBD, price of goods and services, rent rates and the overall impact of the Games. The independent variables used were length of residence, gender, employment, age group and level of income.

A series of open-ended questions allowed the respondents to voice any other positive or negative effects that they would personally experience or felt the residents would experience. These were directly related to SET.

Due to the nature of the quantitative data, namely, relatively small sample sizes, and an uneven distribution of the data a series of non-parametric Chi-square (χ^2) analysis tests were undertaken (Pallant, 2001; Zikmund, 2003). An assumption of normality was not made. Relationships were explored between the independent variables, specifically, age, gender, length of stay and the dependent variables involving the residents' perception of the impact of the Games. Only values significant at <0.05, are discussed in this paper.

Results and Discussion

The demographic profile of the study determined that the respondents were primarily in the age groups 18-35 and 36-55, (29% and 28%) respectively. Another important factor was the length of residence, with 55% of respondents sampled being long-term having lived or worked in Melbourne for more than five years. The white-collar workers were mainly business owners, consultants and executives where as the blue collars were people were clerical staff, shop assistants, nurses, chefs, travel agents.

An overview of the sample's demographics is provided in Table 3.

Table 3 Sample Population Demographics

Gender	Male	25	33.8
	Female	49	66.2
Age	18-35	29	39.2
	36-55	28	37.8
	56-65+	17	23.0
Income	<30,K ≤ 30,K	35	47.3
	>30,K ≤ 70,K	24	32.4
	>70,K	15	20.3
Education	Secondary	20	27.8
	Tertiary	51	70.8
	Other	1	1.4
Occupation	White collar	27	36.5
	Blue Collar	28	37.8
	Student	12	16.2
	Retired	7	9.5
Length of residence	Newcomers	33	44.6
	Long term	41	55.4

There was a very high awareness amongst the residents of the games (90%), with 64% of respondents expressing an intention to attend the games as a spectator and 21% considering involvement as a volunteer. The main reason to attend the venues is to witness quality sports and observe international athletes.

Respondents' Perceptions of the Impacts

Table 4 provides an overview of the responses to the different variables in terms of frequencies, missing values are not included.

Table 4 Frequency Distribution of Respondent Perceptions of the Impacts

* There will be positive impacts on residents before the Games	53	8	13
* Sense of community pride	70	2	2
* Increase Melbourne's popularity	66	3	5
* Increase the crime rate in Melbourne	18	11	45
* Create resentment			

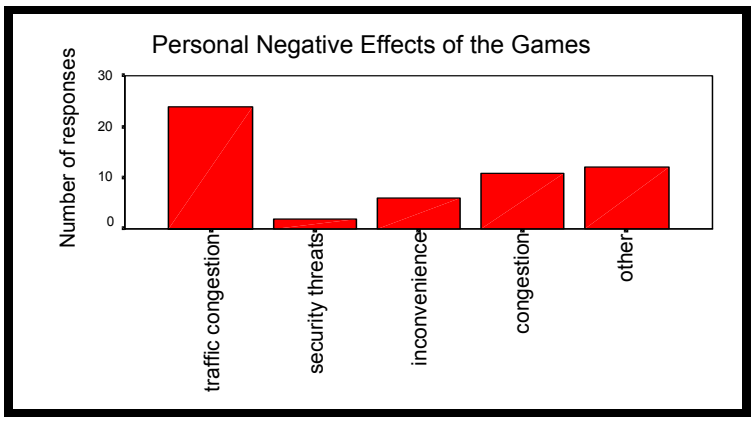
	and hostility towards tourists	14	3	57
*	Improve safety and security in Melbourne	47	13	13
*	Increase noise pollution	44	2	28
*	Increase traffic congestion	67	0	7
*	Restrict access to areas within the CBD	60	4	10
*	Cause the resident to move to a quieter location	5	4	65
*	Increase price of goods, services and taxes	40	11	23
*	Increase rent rates in the CBD and surrounds	54	5	15
*	Increase cost of real estate	29	12	33
*	Help improve the standard of living in terms of leisure facilities	60	1	13
*	The Games are socially positive for Melbourne	67	3	3

Most respondents believed that there would be economic benefits in terms of increased job opportunities and tourist spending during the Games. The social opportunities envisaged were the chance for residents to socialise, and interact with other cultures, a strong response of community spirit and community pride was apparent. Networking, community bonding and cultural awareness were other key features that became obvious. The fact that the Games would raise the profile of Melbourne on the international map was of importance to residents as was the belief that this would lead to more attention focussed on Melbourne. Increase security in the CBD was another positive outcome mentioned by some residents. However, 2.7% of residents mentioned that additional security would also restrict accessibility to certain areas frequented by them.

The personal negative impacts (table 5) describes the costs in terms of social amenities the residents were prepared to forego to host the games. Some 32.4% of residents found that a major concern would be the increase in traffic congestion and parking limitations. Another negative impact from the open-ended responses would be the crowding in public areas, which would inconvenience 8.1% of the residents. From the results it was found that time spent in queuing for services and to use various facilities would also be a

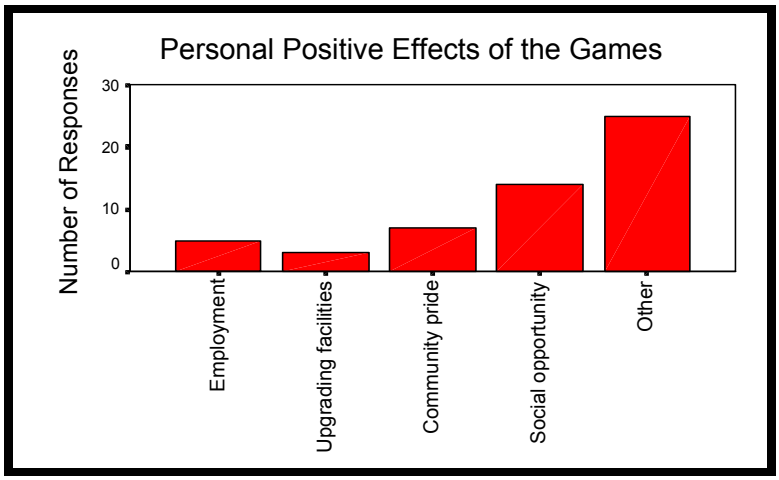
downside. The expected short-term increase of the price of goods and services was also seen as a negative impact. Both the latter statements formed 16.2% of responses to the negative responses of the residents. Another negative impact was that 23% of residents thought that some would leave Melbourne to avoid temporary inconveniences during the Games. A potential increase in taxes due to the possibility of a financial shortfall of Games revenue was also another anticipated negative factor, as was the issue of the displacement of low-income groups further away from facilities due to the cost of goods and services. Some 12.2 % of responses related to noise pollution, traffic congestion, crowding and possible chaos during the Games. Security was not regarded as a high priority with 1.4% also expecting increases in crime.

Table 5 Distributions of Personal Negative Effects



With respect to positive impacts on the residents (see table 6), 33.8% of residents saw the increase in international and domestic tourism, the global recognition of Melbourne before and after the Games and increased security as beneficial. The upgrading of sporting facilities and building of new venues for sport was also seen as advantageous.

Table 6 Distributions of Personal Positive Effects



Income Levels

Income levels of the respondents were divided into seven groups during the survey, and were then further collapsed into three groups of low, medium and high. With respect to the income level of respondents, the following variables were found to have a significance of $P<0.05$; (i) Intention to volunteer in games, (ii) Community pride, (iii) Increase in noise pollution, (iv) Increase price of goods and services, (v) Increase in real estate prices.

Testing the dependent variable of the income groups versus the willingness to volunteer to assist during the Games, with $\chi^2 = 6.470$ the $P = 0.039$. This indicated a relationship between the two variables. Lower incomes earners were more likely to volunteer at the Games, middle and high-income earners were less likely to volunteer.

According to Kemp (2002) this is likely associated with the lower income earners being students, retirees or people with part time jobs and having more time on their hands, which will enable them to volunteer. Another reason could be the experience that mega-events like the Games will provide, which will enable these residents to improve their job opportunities and consequently their economic status. To test this explanation the occupation groups were compared to income and a strong significant relationship of $P=0.000$ and a χ^2 value=40.362 which indicates that as the income increases the residents were less likely to participate in the Games on a volunteer basis.

Community pride entails enthusiasm, excitement, pride and euphoria held by residents when hosting a major event. Almost 94.6% of the residents agreed with the statement that the Games would bring about a sense of community pride. Waitt (2003) comments that this social impact operates on an emotional level and will increase as the Games draw nearer.

A number of lower and middle-income owners agreed with the statement that the Games would increase noise pollution possibly due to the proximity to the Games venues. The $\chi^2 = 9.772$ and P value=0.044 indicated a relationship between the two variables. Fredline and Faulkner (2002) suggested several remedies for adverse resident reaction to noise, including moving any support entertainment to alternative venues, acknowledging the negative impact could reduce resident amenity, and the provision of some form of compensation to those residents most adversely affected.

With respect to a potential increase in the price of goods and services, a large proportion of residents (47.3%) in the lower and middle-income groups felt that there would be a rise in prices. On the other hand 12.2% of the high-income earners disagreed with the statement that there would be an increase in prices. A larger number of the lower income brackets (47.3%) felt that there would be an increase in the price of goods and services.

Almost 27% of the low-income earners felt that there would be a rise in real estate prices as compared to the middle-income earner (20.3%) and high-income earners (12.2%) who both disagreed. This could lead to displacement of the low-income resident groups, thus increasing negative perceptions.

Age

When respondent age levels were compared the following variables were found to be statistically significant at $P<0.05$; (i) Intention to visit the Games, (ii) The number of visitations, (iii) Community pride, (iv) Safety and security (v) Restricted access to public areas.

The younger age groups of 18-35 are more likely to visit the venues during the Games while the respondents in the age groups 36-55 and 56-65+ are more likely to stay away. Those in the age group of 18-35 were expected to attend twice the number of events as compared to visitation for the 55-65+ age group. Lankford and Howard (1994) stated that age is important in explaining the variance in perceptions towards tourism and in visitation. Waitt (2003) also suggest that the Sydney Olympics held the greatest appeal for younger adults, from the period of anticipation to actualization, whereas on the other hand the older residents were less enthusiastic.

Of residents surveyed 94.6% agreed that there would be an increase in community pride and unity. This result indicates that all the age groups across the board will take pride in hosting the Games and derive a feeling of pride and enjoyment as well as the "feeling of being part of something big". This would also be a part of "reciprocity" within SET as socio-psychological resources are being exchanged.

The 36-55 year olds were less likely to agree about the improvement in safety and security than the age groups on either side. This could be attributed to the threat of crime, vandalism and terrorism in and around the CBD where most of these people live or work. It has been argued that crime and security are perceived differently by residents depending on their proximity to the core of the tourism development (Harrill and Potts, 2003).

With respect to access to areas within the CBD both 18-35 and 36-55 year olds felt that access would be restricted due to increased traffic and security. On the other hand this was not reflected in the views of 56-65+ year olds. The responses to open-ended questions suggested that this cohort would be reluctant to venture out to the games.

Gender

When respondent gender was compared to intention to volunteer at the Games the following variables were found to be statistically significant. The $\chi^2=6.918$ and P value=0.01 and showed a strong relationship. In the case of volunteering to assist at the Games males surveyed were found to be less likely to volunteer. This may be ascribed to the fact that these female potential volunteers may be volunteering to increase their competency skills, self-esteem and self-satisfaction as well as to give them a renewed sense of contributing to society while having new experiences (Kemp, 2002).

Length of Residence

The χ^2=6.705 and the P value=0. 035 indicated that both long-term residents and the newcomers (54.1%) feel that there will be an increase in the price of goods and services at the time of the Games. This could be due to the proximity to the tourism activity of the residents who will perceive increase in prices as a negative effect since they will bear the direct impact of it (Fredline and Faulkner, 1998).

Conclusion

Given the limitations of the study, response bias, non-response error and sample size, it was found that age of residents, their income levels, gender and length of residence had significant values when compared to the perceived impacts of the event. It is likely that a larger sample may have produced statistically significant results in other areas. There appears to be some areas that warrant further investigation particularly as some respondents to open-ended questions expressed some very strong views. Given the results of previous studies and strong opinions in open-ended questions, the authors were surprised that significant results were not obtained in areas such as resident resentment and hostility, safety and security, crime rates and anticipated increases in property rentals.

Furthermore, this study indicates that social exchange theory can be utilised to investigate residents' perceptions of the likely impacts of a major event. The authors acknowledge that to obtain a reliable snapshot of pre-event resident perception a larger sample would be desirable and that these perceptions are likely to change as the event draws nearer.

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Approaches to Community Engagement by Public Events

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Introduction

The issue of engaging local communities in events is one that is frequently discussed by those in the events field, however little research exists as to how such engagement takes place. This exploratory study seeks to begin the process of identifying strategies/practices currently in use by event organizers seeking to engage with their communities, as well as to identify mechanisms they use to assess these engagement efforts. The research approach used is this study involved the identification of selected public events in Australian states and territories and the United States with the capacity to provide insights into the process of community engagement. Once identified these events were examined using in-depth interviews with their organizers and/or an analysis of their websites or other published material relating to them (e.g. press releases, published papers). In order to provide a context for this study, discussion here begins with a literature review.

Literature Review

Community Engagement

Recent years have seen a growing interest in mechanisms and processes designed to engage communities/members of the public in decision making. At the international level, for example, the International Association for Public Participation (IAP2) was formed in 1990 in recognition of the need for public engagement and participation in decisions that potentially affect them. The core values of IAP2 are:

1. The public should have a say in decisions about actions that affect their lives.
2. Public participation includes the promise that the public's contribution will influence the decision.
3. The public participation process communicates the interests and meets the process needs of all participants.
4. The public participation process seeks out and facilitates the involvement of those potentially affected.
5. The public participation process involves participants in defining how they participate.
6. The public participation process provides participants with the information they need to participate in a meaningful way.
7. The public participation process communicates to participants how their input affected the decision (IAP2, 2004) .

In the Australian context, a number of examples of this movement towards greater community involvement are also in evidence. The Queensland Government, for example, has established a Community Engagement Division within its Premiers Department that is charged with implementing a Community Engagement Improvement Strategy. At the level of local government, examples can also be

found of a proactive approach to the challenge of community engagement. For instance, the Maribynong Council in Victoria (MC) undertook a major study to establish appropriate mechanisms for ensuring community input into decisions that impacted upon how its members live, recreate, work, study, use services and do business (MC, 2000). The nature of the process they settled upon to facilitate this process is outlined in Figure 1.

Figure 1: Community Engagement

Source: MC, 2000:7

The benefits sought by employing this process were:

- Helps Council plan services better to give users what they want and expect;
- Helps Council prioritise services and make better use of resources;
- Alerts Council to problems quickly so that we have a chance to put things right;
- Symbolizes Council's commitment to open, accountable and committed to services;
- Allows broader range of views to be expressed and more information to be assembled prior to making decisions;

- Enables Council and the community to work together to achieve speedy and balanced decisions;
- Offers opportunities for ordinary people to contribute to and influence outcomes which directly affect their lives;
- Enhances the accountability of government by creating a direct link between governments and their citizens; and
- Reduces the alienation which is brought about when members of the community feel they are unable to contribute to decision making (MC, 2000:10).

Public Events and Community Engagement

Public events take a variety of forms, including: sports based competitions; performing and visual arts based events; public art projects, community festivals and celebrations; public exhibits; educational events; awareness raising events (e.g. diabetes week); and environmental events (e.g. 'clean up' campaigns). Whether such events are hosted by a community, or are conducted by it, it is common for them to interact with a range of stakeholders. Such stakeholders may, for example, include: residents, cultural/ethnic/special interest groups, businesses, clubs/associations, state and local government, schools, emergency services and transport services (Allen et. al., 2002: 51-55). Interestingly, such engagement with event stakeholders can be seen as a relatively recent phenomenon, with Haxton (2000) noting that it has only been since the mid-eighties that public consultation has been seen as a positive aspect of event planning.

The extent and type of community engagement that an event will seek will depend on its form, as well as its specific mission, goals and objectives. In some instances, 'passive' forms of engagement may dominate as the organisers of an event limit their involvement with the communities in which they take place to those actions necessary to conduct the event, such as liaising with council and employing local businesses to perform certain tasks. In other instances events may seek a more active engagement with their communities, as the outcomes they seek may depend very much upon the extent and quality of such engagement. Events of this type, may, for example, be seeking to foster understanding of an issue of public importance, develop a greater sense of community, or enhance a community's skill/knowledge base.

It is noteworthy that the negative impacts events can sometimes impose upon a community can serve as a stimulus for community engagement. Derret (2003), for example, discusses how the New Years Eve celebrations in Byron Bay, New South Wales, initially brought with it "chaos and mayhem" but later morphed into an event that now better reflects the values of its host community, along with its unique culture. This change came about through the appointment of a community based committee and the employment of an event director who is responsible for, amongst other things, engaging with the local community.

Various writers have sought to identify the benefits of community engagement from an event perspective. Derret (2002), Fredline & Faulkner (1998), and Haxton (2000) for example, contend that involving a community in an event's planning (through such means as consultation, focus groups and committees) and delivery can assist in overcoming resistance or opposition, and avoid decisions that may otherwise cause conflict. Small and Edwards (2003) are of a similar opinion, noting that the long term

sustainability of an event can be jeopardised if communities are not involved in event planning and conduct. Of particular note in this regard is the ongoing ability of an event to access the reservoir of energy and goodwill that exists within communities that can, amongst other things, generate a ready supply of willing event volunteers (Burr, 1997).

Wicks (1995:177) believes that local businesses which are engaged and supportive of the event are not only a valuable source of sponsorship for the event, but also encourage the goodwill of business owners who are often influential within the communities leadership structure. Indeed, as Burr (1997:109) points out, it is often vital to involve in the event planning and delivery process what he describes as a community's “movers and shakers”. He believes such individuals have the ability to “provide leadership and get other individuals involved in meaningful roles and to coordinate different agencies and organisations. "This is of course, not to say that the broader community should be ignored. In this regard Burr also notes that it is essential to “listen to the local people and to pay attention to the spirit of the community” which can be achieved through assessing the community's attitude towards events, and what the capacity of the resources and infrastructure of the community are. He emphasises that an event must mesh with the identity of the community in which it takes place in a meaningful way. This view is supported by Small and Edwards (2003), who believe a community must identify with an event theme in order for them to become engaged. Evidence for such views can be found in a study by Fredline & Faulkner (2000) who, in the context of the Gold Coast Indy car race found that identification with the theme of the event was the most important distinguishing variable between respondents who held positive or negative attitudes towards it.

In a specific sense, various strategies have been identified that might act to progress an event's efforts at community engagement. Fredline & Faulkner (2000), for example, believe the promotion of an event can have a major affect on its ability to engage with its community. In this regard a conscious effort, they argue, needs to be made to create and communicate a positive image if a community is to come to see an event in a favourable light. Mueller and Fenton (1989) also draw attention to the importance of an event’s communication efforts in engendering positive community attitudes, stating that such efforts were central in creating a positive attitude towards the Americas Cup defence in Perth.

Another strategy that can be used by events to engage with their communities is to program and design events so that they resonate with a broader cross section of people. Small & Edwards (2003) found in the context of festivals that they have a tendency to become specialised or too narrowly focused to engage a significant part of the community. To overcome this they suggest broadening the scope of a festival’s activities, along with its promotional efforts. Another consideration in broadening the appeal of an event is to be proactive in taking into account the needs of people with a disability. According to Darcy and Harris (2003) nineteen percent of the Australian population (approximately 3.6 million people), are classified as having a disability.

A range of additional engagement strategies are noted by Fowler and Fowler (1998), in a paper on the Broken Hill Picnic Day. These include:

- taking into account the capacity of groups within a community to pay for access to an event;
- provision of free/subsidised transport to the event site;
- Onsite facilities for specific groups, such as the elderly, children and disabled;
- radio broadcasts from the event site so as to provide access to an event for the housebound; and
- inclusion of specific groups (ie. the aged, people with disabilities) in preparatory actitivies such as preparing mail outs, distributing posters and programmes.

Other strategies of note that can be found in the literature include the use of shopfronts and the provision of community participation incentives. Shopfronts, as noted by Derret (2003) in connection with Mardi Grass Festival in Nimbin, New South Wales, provide an ongoing publicly accessible connection between an event and its community, thus facilitating community input and feedback. Arthur and Andrew (1997) point to the potential power of incentives to communities in stimulating engagement. Such incentives, they state, include: inclusion of community organisations in promotion materials, contra-deals on goods and services, and opportunities for individuals to gain new skills through volunteering.

Measuring Community Engagement

Few writers have attempted to address the issue of measuring the success or otherwise of community engagement strategies in an event context. Perhaps, as Forbes (1998) notes in the context of non-profit organizations (NPOs), this may be because goals related to this area are viewed as amorphous in nature. Nonetheless, given that community engagement is central to the success of many events, and indeed may feature in many of their goals, meaningful measures are required. Matarasso, (1997), writing in the related context of amateur and community arts, provides some insights into how community engagement can be measured. He proposes a range of possible methods including questionnaires, interviews, formal and informal discussion groups, and participant observation in order to create a multi-dimensional picture of the social impact of participation in the arts. His research resulted in a range of 'themes' that may well be a useful starting point when assessing the success of an event's community engagement efforts. Specifically, these are:

- Personal development
- Social cohesion
- Community empowerment and self-determination
- Local image and identity
- Imagination and vision
- Health and well–being

In order for measurement to be effective, an event's performance as regards community engagement needs to be 'anchored' to one or more of its objectives (Allen et. al., 2002). This means identifying and quantifying community engagement outcomes sought by an event in its planning phase, and developing mechanisms for pursuing them. For example, an event seeking to establish stronger bonds between different groups within a community may set objectives relating to the desired level of participation by such groups.

Research problem, objectives and key terms

The research problem used as the basis of this study is:

> to identify the range of strategies/practices available to event managers seeking to engage with their communities, along with any mechanisms used to measure the effectiveness or otherwise of such community engagement strategies.

Based on this research problem a number of key objectives were established, specifically, to:

- identify selected public events within Australia and overseas that have developed effective community engagement strategies/practices;
- describe the strategies/practices employed by public events identified in objective 1; and
- identify and describe approaches used by public events identified in objective 1 to assess and measure their community engagement efforts.

To further ensure clarity in research efforts the following key definitions were employed:

Community	Body of people living in the same locality that share government, and have a cultural and historical heritage (The Macquarie Dictionary, 1981)
Community engagement	Interactions of a formal or informal nature between an event and its host community that span a range of activities from information sharing and consultation, to active participation/involvement.
Public event	An event to which the public can gain access to either on a paid or unpaid basis.
Strategy	One or more techniques/tactics employed to achieve a specific outcome.

Methodology

Approach

This study involved the use of a judgement sample of public events that were identified by consultation with the New South Wales Festivals and Events Association, the International Festivals and Events Association and selected overseas and local industry practitioners. This process resulted in the identification of some 30 events, of which 21 were finally selected. The basis for selection was that an event had to be determined to be using at least one community engagement mechanism. Events that were discarded, it should be noted, often met this criteria, however their actions were deemed to be similar to those already selected, and so there was little to be gained from their inclusion. Of the 21 events chosen, 20 were ongoing, and one (Broken Hill Family, Sports and Picnic Day) had ceased to take place (see Figure 2 for a listing of events).

Where possible, information was obtained by a combination of three methods:

- in-depth interviews with the event's organizer;
- examination of the event's website; and
- an analysis of published literature on the event.

In the case of some events, it was not possible to interview the event organizer. In such instances if the later two approaches provided sufficient information the event was still included. If this proved not to be the case, it was discarded.

Figure 2: Listing of Events

Australia	**Description**
Australian Science Festival (ACT)	Celebration of science, learning and discovery which takes place over a 7 day period targeting largely a school age audience.
Floriade (ACT)	Month long floral display based event which also features entertainment, displays, demonstrations and exhibitions of gardening products and Australian made arts, crafts and produce.
National Folk Festival (ACT)	Five day music based event whose program extends to seminars, exhibits etc.
Short Season Film Festival (ACT)	Six day short film competition
Tuggeranong Community Festival (ACT)	A three day multifaceted community festival whose programme encompasses music and other art forms, firework displays and competitions etc.
Hunter Valley Steamfest (NSW)	Steam train based community event that takes place over a three day period.
Sustainable Living Expo (VIC)	A three day exhibition based event showcasing products and services associated with sustainable living.
Adelaide Festival	Large scale arts festival involving opera, theatre, dance, and writing etc that takes place over a period of approximately two weeks.
Festival of the Golden Wheel (NSW)	Community based festival with a diverse program involving music, storytelling and parades etc that takes place over a two day period.
International Blues and Roots Festival (NSW)	Large music based festival that takes place over five days.
Woodford Folk Festival (QLD)	Large music based festival occurring over a six day period.
Broken Hill Family, Sports & Picnic Day Picnic (NSW)	Now defunct small scale community event with a diverse program of entertainment and activities of one day duration.
Croc Festivals (QLD, NT, NSW)	A series of events, each of three days duration, whose programs aim to foster improvement in health, education and well-being of Indigenous and non-Indigenous youth in rural and remote areas of Australia.
Marti's Canowindra Ballooon Fiesta (NSW)	Hot air balloon based event with a diverse program that takes place over a 4 day period.
Snowfest (NSW)	Single day community based event with a diverse program designed to stimulate the local economy of the host town and showcase its surrounding region.
Spikefest (NSW)	Community based festival with a diverse program that celebrates the life of the comedian Spike Milligan.

USA	**Description**
Cherry Creek Arts Festival (Colorado)	Large scale arts festival of three days duration.
Clear Water Festival (New York State)	Two day environment based community festival with a strong music focus.
New Orleans Jazz and Heritage Festival (Louisiana)	Ten day, large scale music based event.
Pasadena Tournament of the Roses (PTR) (California)	Large scale single day parade and associated football game.
Sarasota Film Festival (California)	Large scale film festival that takes place over an eight day period.

Study limitations

The limited sample size employed in this study, combined with the sampling approach and methodology used means that its outcomes should be viewed in terms of providing a 'broad brush' view of the area of community engagement and events. The author nonetheless believes that this study serves to identify a range of key community engagement techniques. A more extensive study, using the findings contained here as a starting point would, however, likely serve to identify further techniques and provide additional insights into the processes described here, along with perhaps how specific forms/scale of event are approaching the challenge of community engagement.

Findings

Drawing upon information obtained from in-depth interviews, event websites and published sources, a number of mechanisms were identified via which public events seek to engage with their respective communities. These mechanisms are categorized, listed, and described below. It should be noted that the categories used here are not definitive, in that some event practices could be said to 'overlap' categories. Nonetheless, it is useful for conceptual purposes to employ such groupings.

Community Engagement Mechanisms

1. *Participation facilitation*

In order to facilitate participation by a range of groups within a community, events were found to use a range of approaches:

- Free or discounted transport provision (e.g. Broken Hill Family, Sports and Picnic Day);
- Provision of on-site facilities/services for specific groups, such as marquees for elderly people (e.g. Broken Hill Family, Sports and Picnic Day) and crèches for young families (e.g. National Folk Festival);
- Radio broadcasts for community members that are housebound (e.g. Broken Hill Family, Sports and Picnic Day)
- Free access to aspects of an event's program (e.g. Adelaide Festival)
- Discount ticket prices for selected groups, such as the unemployed, pensioners and students (e.g. Adelaide Festival) and access to free tickets for selected groups (e.g. New Orleans Jazz and Heritage Festival);

- Provision of specific services and facilities for people with a disability. For example, the Pasadena Tournament of the Roses provides programs in Braille, audio commentary/sign language services and accessible seating for people with disabilities.
- Embracing a variety of geographic locations within a community when delivering the event program, or when engaged in outreach activities. The New Orleans Jazz and Heritage Foundation, for example, who are responsible for conducting the New Orleans Jazz and Heritage Festival, run free neighborhood street festivals.

2. Community input and feedback facilitation

Local community input into the planning, development and organization of an event, can facilitate the sense of ownership and control communities feel over it, and can encourage engagement by a wider range of community stakeholder groups. Additionally, input sought by an event can be selective with the intent of, for example, encouraging community sub-group involvement (e.g. specific ethnic/indigenous groups). Various approaches to soliciting community input and feedback were identified in this study:

- Public meetings (e.g. Marti's Canowindra Balloon Fiesta, Tuggeranong Festival)
- Community based 'whole of event' strategic reviews (e.g. Hunter Valley Steamfest)
- Festival workshops designed to explain to community members how they can be involved in an event, and to seek input as regards event design/programming (e.g. Spikefest, Festival of the Golden Wheel)
- Open calls for membership of an events organizing committee (e.g. Tuggeranong)
- Community wide surveys (e.g. Deni Play on the Plains)
- Dedicated local radio talkback sessions with event organizers (e.g. Deni Play on the Plains)
- Community advisory committees/consultation groups that serve to provide input into the event, or the inclusion of community representatives on an event's organizing committee (e.g. Australian Science Festival).
- Inclusion of a feedback/contact facility on an event's website (e.g.National Science Festival). (Note: None of the sampled events were employing chatrooms/online forums)

3. *Inclusive programming*

Programming was central to the efforts of many efforts to engage with their communities. Approaches used were:

- Targeting of specifical community groups to deliver, or assist with, one or more aspects of an event's program. Such groups included the unemployed (e.g. Woodford Folk Festival), at risk youth (e.g. Floriade) and special interest

groups, such as environmental organizations (e.g. The Woodford Folk Festival).

- Designing program elements with the needs of specific groups in mind. For example, the Sustainable Living Festival actively encourages the participation of schools by incorporating an 'education day'. Other examples include the National Folk Festival's Kids Festival and the Woodford Folk Festival's Children's Festival.

4. *Incentives*

A number of sampled events sought to encourage community engagement with their event via one or more 'incentives'. Such incentives included the provision of free stall space to non-profit organizations and charities to raise funds, attract new members or raise awareness of a particular issue/cause (e.g. National Folk Festival). Often such incentives come with conditions attached, or are not totally altruistic. The Cherry Creek Arts Festival, for example, works with local arts and cultural groups which supply volunteers to manage interactive activities at the event in return for allowing them to sell their products on-site. Another example is the International East Coast Blues and Roots Festival, which encourages local schools to provide paid parking facilities while the event is on in order to take parking pressure off local streets thus reducing the potential for complaints by local residents.

Incentives can also be directed at attendees. For example, competitions/contests can serve to encourage involvement by particular community groups such as school children, local artists and sporting groups. Floriade, for example, operates a Scarecrow competition, accepting entries from businesses, schools, charities and non-profits. It also conducts a photographic competition.

5. *Outreach*

Some events reach out to their communities on an ongoing basis, rather then confine their activities to the period in and around the event itself. Various approaches were identified that served this purpose, specifically:

- Profits from some events were used to engage in extension activities. The New Orleans Jazz and Heritage Festival, through its Foundation, conducts/supports: free mini-jazz fests in local New Orleans neighbourhoods throughout the year; free concerts; a health clinic providing free assessments for local musicians; an economic development program for local start up/small businesses; a community grant program; and a music school. The Cherry Creek Arts Festivals acts in a similar way, using event profits to fund a mobile art exhibition which tours schools, libraries and public venues; operate a program for incarcerated young men; and support an artist in residence program.
- Shop fronts are used by some events to provide an ongoing connection between an event and its community. Derrett (2003), notes in connection with the Mardi Grass Festival in Nimbin, that the shop front this event maintains provides an ongoing publicly accessible connection between the event and its community, thus facilitating community input and feedback. The Deni Play on the Plains is another example of an event that operates a shop front.

- Some events seek to reach out to Schools in their communities by seeking inclusion in school curriculum activities (e.g. Hunter Valley Steamfest) or by creating lesson plans for use by teachers that deal with various aspects of events in general (e.g. Cherry Creek Arts Festival).
- Events can offer access to their websites to non-profit organizations so that they may enhance their community presence. The International East Coast Blues and Roots Festival, for example, has an "*Awareness*" section on its site with a brief description of selected non-profit organizations with a link to their websites.
- Some events seek to reach out to their communities on an ongoing basis through symbolism. The organizing committee of the Deni Play on the Plains, for example, has placed a utility on a pole in the centre of town to confirm the towns status as the "Ute Capital of the World" and so remind local people of the ongoing connection between the town and the events' central component, a large gathering of utility vehicles.
- It can be observed that many of events examined for this study make a significant effort to create and promote a positive image of themselves amongst their communities. Several authors (e.g. Fredline & Faulkner, 2000, and Mueller and Fenton, 1989) see such actions as significant if events are to be seen in a favourable light by various community stakeholders, and so obtain support.
- It is possible for events to seek to broaden their 'local' communities by expanding the 'footprint' of their activities into nearby areas. For example, the Hunter Valley Steamfest has expanded into other local government areas by incorporating venues and attractions from surrounding areas into its program.
- The creation of 'friends' or 'alumni' groups can act to integrate an event further with its community. The Friends of the Adelaide Festival, for example, are a group of arts lovers who support the event in a variety of ways including fundraising and volunteering. The Pasadena Tournament of Roses is another event that has acted to create such a group. Its Alumni Association was established in 2001 to reach out to the thousands of local people who have participated in the Rose Parade and Rose Bowl Game in the past, to both acknowledge their prior involvement, and to draw on them to assist in various ways with the event on an ongoing basis.

5. *Community development and capacity building*

Community development and capacity building can be significant outcomes flowing from the conduct of public events. This study identified the following practices that in a general sense can be seen as performing this function:

- Internships/traineeships/work experience programs were in use in several events (i.e. Sarasota Film Festival, National Folk Festival). These programs provide opportunities for young people in a community to learn new skills/knowledge that in turn can be used within their communities on a paid or voluntary basis.
- Through the volunteering opportunities made available by many of the events examined (e.g. National Folk Festival, Cherry Creek Arts Festival), new skills can be acquired. Additionally, such programs can facilitate the creation of

new networks within communities by bringing together people of differing backgrounds and socio-economic levels (Allen et. al., 2002). These networks, in turn, may result in new business and other opportunities for volunteers. The creation of such networks is facilitated through such means as training sessions and volunteer social events (e.g. Broken Hill Family, Sports and Picnic Day).

- A community's capacity to deal with a specific issue or problem can be enhanced through the conduct of an event. New York State's Hudson River Clearwater Festival has generated resources to fund environmental education programs, research and advocacy efforts to address this problem. The Croc Festivals, with their focus on educating youth in rural and remote communities regarding drug and alcohol problems, provide an example of how events can build a community's capacity to deal with social problems. The Broken Hill Family, Sports and Picnic Day, the Sustainable Living Expo, and the Clear Water Festivals also provide examples of events with a strong intent to educate their communities regarding particular matters.
- Financial resources generated by an event can be channeled into the development of various non-profit organizations in order to progress a community's development efforts. The Pasadena Tournament of the Roses, for example, donates approximately $100,000 per year to local civic, cultural and educational organizations.

6. *Local business engagement*

Local businesses can add to the diversity of experience associated with an event, as well as be a source of in-kind and cash support for an event. Some events encourage spending at local businesses by attendees through creating incentives for this to occur (e.g. Snowfest). Other events ensure preference is given to local businesses for the supply of services (e.g. Deni Play on the Plains).

Evaluating Community Engagement

Various mechanisms were identified via which events in this study seek to capture feedback on their community engagement efforts. Specifically these were:

- formal research based event case studies;
- community surveys;
- attendee surveys;
- on-line email based feedback;
- town meetings;
- talk back radio sessions;
- event shop fronts; and
- Participation surveys designed to determine levels of involvement by selected groups and organizations.

Conclusion

This exploratory study has identified a range of community engagement strategies and has acted to classify these under six headings: participation facilitation; community input and feedback facilitation; inclusive programming; incentives; outreach; community development and capacity building; and local business engagement. These groupings should not be viewed as definitive; nonetheless they potentially offer a useful starting point for researchers seeking to explore this area further. When viewed collectively they also offer insights into the core aspects of any successful community engagement exercise. These appear to be an understanding of community needs, a willingness to respond on an ongoing basis to these needs, and open and frequent communication. Evaluation in its various forms, which underpins an events' understanding of its community, can therefore be seen as integral to the community engagement process.

Given the limited literature regarding community engagement and events, the findings of this study should serve to provide a useful starting point for event practitioners seeking to think more strategically about their community engagement efforts. Additionally, researchers wishing to explore aspects of this connection in more depth, such as for example, the possible relationship between event form and scale to the types of community engagement employed, might find the findings here a useful foundation on which to build.

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Major Sports Events

Sport Event Management and Knowledge Management: A useful partnership

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Abstract

There is a strong tradition of collecting and disseminating information and knowledge related to some areas of sport, for example, in the sports sciences for which there are comprehensive manuscript collections, data services, ongoing research and a strong body of academic literature. However there are other areas of sport where the management of knowledge has not been so effectively utilized. There is a strong case to suggest that sport event management is one of these latter areas.

Yet, the management of large sporting events, by necessity, includes the sophisticated use of information, but information management *per se* is rarely recognized as a formal component of sport event management, despite the fact that the organization of sporting events include many information actions and processes. There is however another dimension; that of knowledge. This paper explores the domains of knowledge and knowledge processes that can contribute to more effective sport event management.

Sport like any business is operating in a complex and global market. Sport event management needs to be adaptive to change, effectively manage risk, integrate technology advances and build stakeholder intimacy. Knowledge management is a multi-disciplinary approach that can assist sporting event organizations achieve operational excellence in complex environments, for example in gaining sponsorship, venue management, logistics and legacy benefits.

In late 2004 Standards Australia released an Australian Knowledge Management Standard. This standard is a descriptive guide for understanding and implementing knowledge management. The concepts it proposes and their relationship to sport event management will be illustrated in this presentation via the use of stories and case studies. Processes for the creation, sharing and use of knowledge within the business of sport will also be explored.

The presenters will argue that increased recognition of knowledge management can deliver to the business of sport events a competitive edge and an increased value to all its stakeholders – athletes, sport administrators, sponsors, the media and event managers, as well as to just to information professionals.

Introduction

The last decade has seen organizations, including event organizations, operating in environments characterised by constant change, technology advances and global interdependencies (Masterman, 2004). To meet these challenges, organizations in the private, public and community sectors are recognising the importance of knowledge as a resource, an asset and a form of competitive advantage. The concept of knowledge management as a trans-disciplinary approach to achieving organizational outcomes, by making the best use of knowledge, has developed as a practice and a topic of discussion in academic, business and government arenas. Knowledge management continues to fuel an active conference/workshop circuit, practitioner forums, journals, a growing pool of case studies and academic research. In terms of its operational perspectives however, there remains a diversity of opinions of its worth and from theoretical perspectives, how exactly to define it.

While it has been accepted that the management of large sporting events, by necessity, includes the sophisticated use of information, information management *per se*, until recently, has rarely been recognised as a formal component of sport event management, despite the fact that the organization of sporting events includes many information actions and processes (Halbwirth and Toohey, 2001). There is however another dimension to sport event management; that of knowledge. This paper explores the domains of knowledge and knowledge processes that can contribute to more effective sport event management.

Managing Knowledge

In the 1990s, the concept of knowledge management, as an integral component of a successful business, was introduced by a number of commentators, such as Davenport and Prusak (1998), Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995), and Stewart (1997). Their early discussions on knowledge management highlighted the importance of knowledge as an organizational asset and a resource too valuable to be ignored. They made a strong case that successful organizations needed effective approaches to managing all of their assets, including knowledge. This included the knowledge that is stored in systems, (electronic as well as hard copy), as well as the knowledge that is reflected in staff and their connections within the organization (Wenger et al., 2002).

But knowing how to manage knowledge resources presupposes there is an understanding of exactly what it is that they entail. A definition of knowledge that has been embraced by many knowledge practitioners is that proposed by Davenport and Prusak (1998), who are of the opinion that knowledge is broader, deeper and richer than what is classified as either data or information.

> 'Knowledge is a fluid mix of framed experience, values, contextual information, and expert insight that provides a framework for evaluating and incorporating new experiences and information. It originates and is applied in the minds of knowers. In organizations, it often becomes embedded not only in documents or repositories but also in organizational routines, processes, practices, and norms' (Davenport and Prusak, 1998:5).

This definition includes a number of important foundation assumptions of knowledge: namely that it builds on what has gone before, by incorporating new experiences; and that it has both internal, personalised and external, codified components. From these understandings comes the basis of what processes are needed to manage it.

Knowledge management, as defined in Standards Australia International *Knowledge Management AS 5037-2005* is

> 'a trans-disciplinary approach to improving organisational outcomes and learning, through maximising the use of knowledge. It involves the design, implementation and review of social and technological activities and processes to improve the creating, sharing, and applying or using of knowledge.' (Standards Australia International, in press).

This is but one attempt to characterise knowledge management. To date there is not a universally accepted definition. However, in the past decade of discussion, a degree of consensus on a set of core values that knowledge management incorporates has emerged. Some of its components have developed within the community of academics and practitioners, while others are drawn from guides and standards (Standards Australia International, in press, British Standards Institute, 2001).

Some key knowledge management principles that have been agreed to are that:

- knowledge can be considered to flow between people
- knowledge can also exist within artefacts such as documents
- knowledge is an asset and as such has value
- managing knowledge is not an end in itself, but a means of achieving organizational outcomes
- effective knowledge management balances the elements of people, process, technology and content
- knowledge management can transform organizations, making them agile and adaptive to their environment
- knowledge management underpins organizational learning, improvement and innovation
- knowledge management is not something that can 'be bought off the shelf'
- its implementation is based very much on organizational context.

While knowledge management varies in both its aims and implementation in different organizational contexts, the first major reporting of 'successful' case studies came exclusively from the commercial sector, especially large multi-national organizations, for example: IBM, Microsoft, Motorola, Boeing Company, Telstra, Shell Oil, Ford Motor Company and KPMG Consulting (Standards Australia, 2001). However, post 2000 there has been an increase in gaining insights from public/government sector knowledge management case studies (Bryce, 2002; Chatwin, 2002; Stephens, 2000). This broadening of recognition reflects the way in which knowledge management has been used across different sectors, for example, for improving the effectiveness of publicly funded and community-based activities.

Knowledge and Sport

Sport is a multi-dimensional, multi-national and complex business. The training of elite athletes, sport development, the application of science and technology, and the execution of effective sport event management, are all areas in which information and knowledge is created and used. The 'winning edge' has as much to do with the use of information and knowledge to improve performance, as natural talent. For this reason in Australia:

> 'The National Sport Information Centre (NSIC) aims to contribute to the achievement of the Australian Sports Commission's objectives by enabling access to sports and related information and services. More than just a library, it is Australia's premier information resource centre for sport and its related disciplines' (Australian Sports Commission, 2005).

There has been a strong tradition of such collections and the dissemination of information and research related to sports science. There are comprehensive record collections, data services, ongoing research and a strong body of academic literature, in this area, however there are other spheres of sport, such as sport event management, where, until recently, the management of knowledge has not been so successfully endorsed (Halbwirth and Toohey, 2001).

Supporting and improving individual sport events with knowledge management

Sport events, like other businesses, are operating in a multifaceted and global marketplace. Sport event management needs to be adaptive to change, effectively manage risk, integrate technology advances and build stakeholder intimacy. Some of the specific operational contributions of knowledge management to sport event management include: improved operational efficiency; decreases in reinvention and duplication; and effective decisions.

Previous writings by the authors have explored how formal knowledge management activities supported the successful Sydney 2000 Olympic Games. For example, the Sydney Organising Committee of the Olympic Games (SOCOG) knowledge management activities spanned:

- People, for example, a culture which supported sharing and contributing to knowledge via communication tools and cross functional teaming
- Technology, for example, intranets and portals to consolidate and disseminate knowledge
- Process, for example, shared workspaces to capture and build knowledge, learning from test events
- Content, for example, development of a warehouse of accurate and approved content for multiple users and uses (Halbwirth, 2001; Halbwirth and Toohey: 2001; Halbwirth, 2002).

While academic research regarding the organization of major sporting events, such as the Olympic Games, has usually focused on economic impacts, political outcomes, marketing and more recently legacy, accreditation, sport technology, field of play, transport, accommodation and other functional activities, the success of these functions is substantially grounded in the acquisition, production and dissemination of

information and knowledge. These core processes can often be overlooked as a key driver, resulting in the lack of coordination and integration of information and knowledge within sport event organizations.

A theoretical model for understanding and transferring knowledge across sport events

While there is a strong case for integrating knowledge management into each sport event there is also a compelling argument for the transfer of knowledge across comparable sporting events. For sport event organizations this provides an untapped potential to actively use the approach of knowledge management to take the learnings, identified better practice and knowledge outcomes from specific events and disseminate these for the use and development by future events organisers. This adds to the contributions of knowledge management to sport event management (listed above) to also potentially include identification of better practice and learning from success and failures.

This last aspect of knowledge management is akin to discussions on the concept of the intelligent or learning organization (Senge, 1990; Garvin, 1998). Like the term 'knowledge management', the definition of the learning organization is elusive. However, Garvin (1988:51) notes that 'a learning organization is an organization skilled at creating, acquiring and transferring knowledge, and at modifying its behaviour to reflect new knowledge and insights.'

The challenge for sport event organizations is knowing what is worthy of 'capture' and transfer and in what structure/format it might be of best use to the future event organisers as, according to Garvin (1998), continuous improvement programs have had more failures than successes, because many organizations are not committed to learning. A starting point is to understand different types of knowledge.

Machlup (1980), in his seminal work *Knowledge and knowledge production*, introduced some of the different attributes of knowledge, such as: to know that; to know what; to know how; and to know why. These types of knowledge he deemed respectively to be descriptive, historical, procedural and theoretical, each having a key contribution to make in the 'knowing of' and 'knowing about' the delivery of a sporting event.

In light of this understanding of knowledge components, some of the key issues and questions that might be relevant for sport event organisers to ask in order to collect knowledge within their organization would be:

- What we did
- Why did we do it
- Who did it?
- What were the issues along the way
- What resources did we need
- How did we work with others
- How much did it cost
- Did it work
- What would we do differently next time?

The literature of knowledge management recognises that knowledge can be transferred within an organization in a number of ways. Table 1, following, gives a suggested generic framework for how knowledge might be transferred across sport events. The concepts are adapted from the work of Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995). This framework argues for multiple methods of both knowledge capture and transfer to ensure the inclusion of as many domains of knowledge as feasible.

Table 1: Transferring knowledge in a sport event organization

Theory (adapted from Nonaka and Takeuchi)	**Practice**
Socialization - the sharing of personal knowledge (sometimes referred to as tacit) and know-how results from sharing another's experiences either through language or actions. It is important to recognise that this is not so much about knowledge capture but about knowledge sharing – often transient and reliant on people to people interactions. In organizational theory this has to do with group processes and organizational culture.	This would involve the establishment of mentoring (or apprenticeship programs) communities of practice (including virtual), and ready access to 'experts' from previous events. Other techniques might be seminars, meetings and reviews. The concept would be to develop a 'knowledge pool' of individuals and organizations that have established experience and expertise. This 'knowledge pool' would have a role of sharing their knowledge/judgments. Pre-requisites for success are an open culture, high levels of trust and adequate rewards and incentives to support the knowledge sharing.
Externalization – refers to the process of articulating the tacit knowledge referred to above into explicit form. By transferring the knowledge to explicit for it can be captured and stored.	This might occur via agreed monitoring and capturing of virtual conversations, decision diaries, documenting stories, minutes of meetings, videotaped interviews, recorded focus groups and collaborative work environments. In some environments skilled observers or knowledge gathers can be employed to shadow and document key people or processes.
Combination – has its roots in information management and processing. It is the combining of different bodies of explicit knowledge.	This is achieved via document management systems, knowledge repositories, templates and formal reporting processes. Another key role for the 'knowledge pool' as explained above would be the review, including value added processes (analysis and synthesis) to identify patterns and 'better practice' across events.

The key question from this discussion is, could this reuse of knowledge make events less complex, more effective, streamline their organization and delivery, and provide

cost and project efficiencies? For the International Olympic Committee, beginning from 1998 the answer was 'yes' (Halbwirth and Toohey, 2001).

Despite the complicated logistics in organising an Olympic Games, until the 2000 Olympic Games, there was little knowledge or even information passed from each Organising Committee for the Olympic Games (OCOG) to the next, except for those staff who worked on successive Games, or a small number of Olympic consultants who sold their personal or tacit knowledge to the next Host city (Halbwirth and Toohey, 2001). When an OCOG was dissolved post Games, valuable information, knowledge and experience most commonly disappeared. Also, the power brokers from the upcoming Host Cities, which aimed to stage better Games than their predecessors, sought to do so on their own, rather than being reliant on past Games. This meant that there has not always been strategic information seeking from earlier OCOGs.

The first example of this practice changing occurred in 1998, when a commercial agreement was signed between the IOC and SOCOG, which formalised SOCOG's selling of its explicit and tacit knowledge to the IOC for $A5 million. This material was then disseminated to the OCOGs of the Salt Lake City (SLOC) and Athens (ATHOC) Olympic Games. This program was known as the Transfer of Know How (TOK) and established Olympic knowledge as a corporate asset (Halbwirth and Toohey, 2001).

Lessons learned from an attempt to capture knowledge

The TOK from Sydney 2000 involved both written and oral delivery of intellectual property from relevant SOCOG managers in 90 plus individual packages or guides. The first written material was collected in January 2000. SOCOG managers were required to complete a series of written templates provided on the corporate intranet site. Over the period of the next 10-12 months managers were obliged to update and expand their contributions. While managers were generally compliant, the quality of input was variable. For some managers the pressures of time and deadlines constrained their efforts, for others it was a desire to maintain their personal intellectual capital for possible future event roles (Halbwirth, 2002).

The TOK template was generic across the SOCOG functional areas and included material in categories such as:

- Definition of program
- Working assumptions and key issues
- Core resources/service providers, human resources, budget, logistics and equipment, IT systems and publications
- Planning – phases and process
- Milestones
- Operations
- Recommendations (Halbwirth, 2002).

However, by setting generic guidelines, often specific functional knowledge had to be compacted into inappropriate sections or omitted completely. There was also a lack of knowledge gathered from key stakeholders (such as government authorities involved in Games delivery) and limited opportunity to show cross-functional knowledge.

For most contributors the tone of the reporting into the templates was very objective and business like (Halbwirth, 2002). It is hypothesized by the authors of this paper that there was perhaps an underlying belief that one's performance as a manager was open to judgment because of the type of material that needed to be included. The richness of insight, opinions, stories and mistakes was generally not provided or sought.

To compensate for these recognised limitations of the written templates, a series of interviews between SOCOG managers, the IOC and ATHOC staff were held in the first half of 2000. These proved a valuable addition to the knowledge acquisition of ATHOC and the IOC, with mostly open and honest communication between the various stakeholders, allowing stories to be told and questions asked. Key issues from this phase related to the context of knowledge transfer: the readiness of the ATHOC staff to 'accept' knowledge, in terms of recognising what they needed to know four years in advance; and the need for processes to collate hours of taped interviews and transcripts. The final stage in the TOK process was a debriefing of the Sydney Games by its senior managers, to ATHOC, held in Athens during November 2000. This acted as a useful 'after action' review (Halbwirth and Toohey, 2001).

The concept behind the TOK was that the knowledge provided would form the foundation of generic Olympic management guides designed to evolve following each successive Games. The eventual outcome would be a 'franchise' set of manuals designed to streamline and simplify the management of the event.

Case study: Olympic Movement and leveraging event knowledge

The problem for the IOC, post 2000 was that through the TOK, they had captured a huge quantity of information in the form of printed documentation, electronic files, video and audiotape and artefacts. Knowledge was possibly contained within this explicit store but how would they extract the key messages, those learnings that were generic to the operation of the event and not specific to Sydney?

A number of key issues and questions were quickly recognised:

- there was the need for ongoing analysis, synthesis and management of this potential knowledge asset
- what was the knowledge that could be transferred across time and culture to future Games organisers or potential Candidate cities
- consideration needed to be given to future Olympic Games in relation to how the knowledge could be captured and best integrated
- who was the audience for the knowledge – was it limited to only future Olympic organisers
- what was the best way to leverage and commercialise the knowledge – was this in conflict with the ethos of the Olympic Movement (Halbwirth, 2002)?

To develop answers to these and other questions a company, Olympic Knowledge Services, now Olympic Games Knowledge Services (OGKS), was formed in 2002 to manage the knowledge, in the form of the know-how, know-what, the know-why, and the know-who, generated by the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games and to be built upon by successive Games. This was originally a joint initiative between the IOC and

Monash University, through its commercial arm, Monash Ed (Monash University, 2002).

> 'From this time [2002], OGKS was entrusted by the IOC as its exclusive knowledge management services company, in collaboration with its shareholders - the IOC in particular, providing advice, support and knowledge services for the Olympic Games and other major events across the globe.' (OGKS, 2005)

In 2004 the IOC became the sole owner of OGKS when it bought out the Monash share (IOC, 2004b).

At OGKS's launch, in Salt Lake City, the president of the IOC, Dr Jacques Rogge, recognised the importance of the new direction as an Olympic milestone and an integral part of the IOC Games support system. Rogge was quoted as saying:

> 'The IOC has always provided significant financial support to Olympic Games organisers. Now the IOC also wants to bring greater efficiencies to bear in the organisation of the Games. OGKS was designed to help us do just that…OGKS will also help level the playing field so candidates and organisers from different parts of the world can all start with the same knowledge base'. (Monash University, 2002).

In a presentation to the Sports Accord Conference in May 2003 Craig McLatchey, the Chief Executive of OGKS recognised the need to provide knowledge in different ways and content at different times according to the needs of the client – 'an integrated and tailored approach for each stage of the event lifecycle' (McLatchey, 2003: slide 12). He outlined an approach for segmenting the knowledge into several phases. The first stage of knowledge delivery was based around the candidature or bidding phase of acquiring the rights to hold an Olympic Games, in the following four stages: Country Feasibility; Pre-applicant; Applicant; and Candidate. OGKS delivers its knowledge product to these customers via seminars, workshops, knowledge based products such as CD ROMs, access to the Knowledge Centre (extranet of resources and information from previous events) and observer visits. Emphasis in these stages is on codified knowledge and direct guidance (McLatchey, 2003: slide 13).

Once a Games is awarded the delivery of knowledge is again targeted to the life cycle of the event. In this way information overload is avoided and the client organization (the OCOG) has access to knowledge that is of high relevance to it at the appropriate time. The cycle includes the following stages:

- Foundation (G -7, i.e. Games minus 7 years)
- Strategic planning (G -5 to G -3)
- Operational planning (G -2 to G -1)
- Test events (G -1)
- Operational readiness (Games)
- Dissolution (G +1)
- Legacy (McLatchey, 2003: slide 15).

The process of OGKS knowledge management operations to these OCOGs involves four phases: information capture, management, transfer and retirement. It passes on this knowledge through the following sources and processes:

- Workshops and seminars
- Subject matter experts
- Research services
- Observer Programmes
- Debriefing
- Post event analysis (McLatchey, 2003: slides 13 and 15).

In addition to codified (recorded information), value-added services that rely on people, through their expertise and knowledge, is delivered via advisor services (experts) and communities of practice. It is also proposed that during the OCOG's later stages, particularly from test event onwards, that the activity of knowledge capture is integrated into the Games organization. The OCOG, supported by the OGKS team, actively contribute to the Knowledge Centre. For the OGKS Chief Executive Officer, Craig McLatchey the goals for OGKS are to 'stop reinventing the wheel' and to encourage 'adaption rather than invention' (McLatchey, 2003: slide 7).

In October 2004, the IOC President, Jacques Rogge, opened a series of OGKS Olympic Games debriefing meetings in Beijing, host of the 2008 Olympic Games. Representatives from Athens 2004 were there to address approximately 200 delegates from the following OCOGs (Turin 2006, Beijing 2008, Vancouver 2010) as well as representatives of the five Candidate Cities bidding to host the 2012 Olympic Games (Paris, New York, Moscow, London and Madrid). In his opening address Rogge noted various aspects of successful Knowledge Management, including learning from practice and managing the Olympic Movement's cultural elements. He stated:

> 'We are going to draw upon the experiences of the past and transfer the knowledge so as to ensure we do not replicate any past errors. We have the tool to do that, thanks to the knowledge transfer process we set up just over four years ago, more specifically 'Olympic Games Knowledge Services'. But having the tool is not enough. You also need humility: humility on the part of the organizing committees to realize they do not have all the knowledge and so need to ask for help; and humility on the part of the IOC to recognize that we can also make mistakes. We have that humility' (IOC, 2004a).

While it could be argued that an organization that tells the world that it is humble, may not be so, there is no denying that the Olympic Movement, through the TOK and OGKS, has made great steps towards the management of its knowledge. Their challenge is to continue this program of knowledge capture and to integrate and enhance the knowledge environment of future OCOGs.

OGKS has also branched out beyond the Olympic family and has sold its services to other events, such as the Commonwealth Games and the Rugby World Cup. Whether this is sustainable and viable in the future remains a discussion point for the IOC, however in the short term, the interest by non-Olympic sport event organisers in the value of knowledge management is encouraging. This signals that knowledge management is finally being accepted, not just as a component of event management, but also as a commercial asset.

Conclusions

In a world where events are characterized by growing complexity in both their internal and external environments, programs such as OGKS aim to provide event managers with a multidisciplinary approach to increase their operational effectiveness, mitigate risk and streamline processes. The task remains for OGKS, and comparable businesses to implement robust processes for capturing, value adding and disseminating knowledge as an ongoing product and service.

However, there are cautionary messages for sport event knowledge management providers. David Snowden, when exploring the third generation of knowledge management, observed that it is necessary to 'grow beyond managing knowledge as a thing to also managing knowledge as a flow. To do this we will need to focus more on context and narrative, rather than content' (Snowden, 2002:101). He provided three heuristics to illustrate 'the change in thinking required to successfully manage knowledge':

1. 'Knowledge can only be volunteered; it cannot be conscripted
2. We can always know more than we can tell and we will always tell more than we can write down
3. We only know what we need to know when we need to know it'

(Snowden, 2002:102)

Sport event management organisers not only need to know more about knowledge management. To be successful, they also need to understand how to best implement it in the context of changing and increasingly complex and competitive internal communities of practice and external environments.

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Leveraging Anticipated Benefits Associated with Hosting the 2010 Soccer World Cup in South Africa

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Abstract

In 2004 the International Federations of Football Associations (FIFA) awarded the hosting of the 2010 Soccer[1] World Cup to South Africa. The debates pertaining to the ability of mega-events to have a sustainable positive impact on host nations foregrounds the need to conduct systematic, interdisciplinary research to unpack pertinent issues. For South Africa, of particular importance is the fact that the World Cup is being positioned to contribute significantly to job creation, infrastructural development and social upliftment. The critical questions remain to what extent will this be achieved and who will be the likely beneficiaries of the potential benefits to be accrued. In essence, will this growth engine deliver and will the hype be realised? This study thus focuses on examining the extent to which existing institutional and resource capacities are able to deliver on expectations raised. A key intention of this paper is to identify challenges pertaining to achieving outlined objectives and goals. Additionally, this forward-looking analysis presents potential approaches and mechanisms to leverage and equitably distribute benefits likely to be associated with the World Cup.

[1] In South Africa, the term soccer is used rather than football. This article uses the term soccer.

Introduction

In recent years sport, and sporting events such as the Soccer World Cup and Olympic Games, have become highly sought after commodities for both developed and some developing countries as they move towards event-driven economies. Naughtright (2004) speaks of a "sport-media-tourism" complex that is at the centre of many national, regional and local development strategies in the 21st century. This refers to sport which offers competition and entertainment for spectators; media which offer coverage and entertainment for viewers/ listeners, revenue for rights holder, and promotion for host site(s); and tourism which may be a consequence of athletes and spectators participating in / attending the sport. This is no different for South Africa. Post-apartheid South Africa has increasingly incorporated the bidding and hosting of major events (such as the 1995 Rugby World Cup, the 2003 Cricket World Cup and the 2010 Soccer World Cup) to profile itself on the global stage in addition to other developmental objectives.

There has been a tremendous amount of hype (and trepidation) associated with the hosting of the 2010 World Cup. For South Africa, of particular importance is the fact the World Cup is being positioned to contribute significantly to job creation, infrastructural development and social upliftment. Getz (1997) warns that without careful planning and integrating development objectives from its inception, especially in relation to clear implementation imperatives, it is unlikely that potential benefits will be maximised. The critical questions remain to what extent will this be achieved and who will be the likely beneficiaries of the potential benefits to be accrued, especially in relation to direct and indirect economic gains. In essence, will this growth engine deliver and will the hype be realised? These questions are raised in the light of past experiences, especially the Japan Korea 2002 World Cup, as well as lessons learnt from the hosting of other mega-events such as the Olympic Games. Moreover, it attempts to contribute to the increasing research on the analysis of mega-events in the context of the developing world in general, and in South Africa in particular (Matheson & Baade, 2003, Cornelissen, 2004a, Black & van der Westhuizen, 2004; Swart & Bob, 2004).

South Africa's bidding and hosting of the 2010 Soccer World Cup is analysed in four sections. The first section looks briefly at the global bidding arena in relation to sport mega-events. The second section summarises the process and characteristics of South Africa's 2010 bid. The third section summarises lessons learnt and best practice from the hosting of pervious mega-events in order to present potential approaches and mechanisms to leverage and equitably distribute benefits likely to be associated with the World Cup. Finally, concluding remarks are presented.

The global bidding arena in relation to sport mega-events

Globalisation has played a major role in shaping macro-economic policies and decision-making in Africa where there are many emerging democracies. A major characteristic of the global arena is increased opportunities and competition. This is likely to influence the conditions for sport bidding as well as the value of international sport events. The main contention is that global dynamics have a profound effect on a country's ability to bid successfully for the rights to host major sport events. For example, Korea's success in

hosting the 1984 Olympics paved the way for co-hosting the World Cup. Persistent inequalities arising out of increased competition and concentration in the global arena contribute to the maintenance of the *status quo.* Social and economic inequities as well as heightened influences of global forces and processes are integral features of the world today, especially in post-apartheid South Africa.

The hosting of major events has economic, social, political and symbolic meaning. This implies that a country's ability to succeed in the arena of hosting mega-events signals international recognition in relation to its economic, social and political capacity. What is also a visible trend is that once a country is able to break into the international arena of hosting mega-events, this creates the ripple effect of attracting more and generally bigger mega-events (Hiller, 1997). This is clearly noticeable in South Africa.

Putting together a bid for hosting the Soccer World Cup is hugely expensive, while the actual hosting of the event will result in further exhorbitant costs. These are undeniably significant costs and in developing contexts these initial investments are often challenged. For example, opponents of South Africa's numerous attempts to bid for mega-events contest that the resources during the bidding process can better be used for social and economic development programmes aimed at poverty alleviation (Houston, 1999; Hiller, 2000). It is challenged that these ventures may enable some to benefit economically, however they do little to change the position and plight of the majority of people who are marginalized (Eisinger, 2000; Chalip & Leyns, 2002). Furthermore, only a very small percentage of the potential employment needed is ultimately captured (Swart & Bob, 2004).

In contrast, proponents of bidding in South Africa assert that the hosting of mega-events will result in significant economic benefits which far surpass initial investments. Opportunities associated with hosting mega-events often include skills development, job creation, destination marketing, networking, and the like.

Countries in the developing world have responded in several ways to bidding for sport mega-events. These include forming partnerships or blocs to strengthen capacity and political leverage. Political pressure is also asserted on international sport associations to change the way in which decisions are taken regarding who hosts sport mega-events. A case in point is the Soccer World Cup event to be hosted in South Africa in 2010. When South Africa lost the 2006 bid to Germany by one vote, many read the outcome as "an overwhelming and even racist international stance towards the continent" (Cornelissen, 2004a: 47). This approach is indicative of FIFA's tenuous history in Africa (Darby, 2000). Cornelissen (2004a) adds that the perception of FIFA as neo-colonial is still ubiquitous within the developing world.

It is not surprising that in March 2001 FIFA, largely on the campaigning of Blatter, the FIFA president who was sympathetic to Africa, revised its bidding process by introducing a system of rotation among the six regional confederations for the hosting of the World Cup. Africa was designated as the region for the 2010 event. The rotation of hosting this event regionally enhances the possibilities of countries outside the developed world to bid for and host mega-events. In terms of this emerging regional political strategy, countries

and/ or cities often forge alliances jointly with others. This strategy demonstrates that developing countries are responding in numerous ways to get a piece of the sport mega-events' pie globally (Swart & Bob, 2004). Africa's first Soccer World Cup is significant as many underdeveloped and developing countries are unable to even consider hosting sport mega-events in an increasingly competitive and disparate global arena.

As noted by Kurscheidt and Rahmann (1999), the Soccer World Cup distinguishes itself from other mega-events such as the Olympic Games in that it focuses on only one sport and it is longer in duration (four weeks as opposed to two weeks). In addition, there have to be ten high standard stadia spread across the entire country that accommodate 32 teams and 64 matches. It is noted that there may be 36 teams participating in the 2010 event (swc2010.com, 2004a).

South Africa's 2010 Soccer World Cup bid

In order to contextualise South Africa's bid for the 2010 Soccer World Cup, South Africa's relationship with FIFA will be briefly reviewed. This will be followed by reviewing the bidding process for the 2006 and 2010 events in order to gain an understanding of the extent to which existing institutional and resource capacities are able to deliver on expectations raised as well as to identify challenges pertaining to achieving outlined objectives and goals.

South Africa and FIFA

Four official soccer structures, reflecting the racial divisions of society at the time, governed football in South Africa during the period 1903 – 1992. In 1958 FIFA officially recognised the White body, Football Association of South Africa (FASA), as the sole governing body of South Africa (SA 2010 Bid Company, *s.a.*a). After two suspensions, SAFA was finally expelled from FIFA in 1976. With the demise of apartheid, the four soccer bodies began unity talks and the South African Football Association (SAFA) was formed on the 8 December 2001. At the 1992 Confederation of African Football's (CAF) congress, SAFA was welcomed into the regional structure, and consequently admitted as a FIFA member in June 1992. "Contributing to Africa's ascendancy in world football through the hosting of major events in Africa, while striving to become a leading football nation" (SA 2010 Bid Company, *s.a.*a), is one of the key goals of SAFA. It is not surprising then that SAFA undertook to bid for the 2006 World Cup, as outlined in the next section.

South Africa's 2006 FIFA World Cup bid

In 1998, four years after South Africa's first democratic elections, South Africa announced its intention to bid for the 2006 Soccer World Cup. The bid offered an occasion for South Africa for both place promotion and identity construction. As alluded to previously, the new South Africa was once again employing sport as a way of promoting unity and strengthening national pride emanating from the successful Rugby World Cup (1995) and the African Nations Cup of Soccer (1996). It was also used as a vehicle to highlight South Africa's role in the African Renaissance. Cornelissen (2004a)

concludes that the hosting of the 2006 Soccer World Cup would contribute to consolidating South Africa's international position as well as its domestic transformation.

In terms of the developmental objectives of the bid, it was estimated that the hosting of the World Cup would generate an additional tax income of about US$550 million, contribute 2% to the GDP and create 129,000 jobs - of which 60% would be permanent (Cornelissen, 2004a). The 77,400 permanent jobs are particularly significant in a country where it is estimated that 40% of the population is unemployed. The construction of new stadia and the upgrading of existing ones, in addition to general infrastructural developments, were powerful tools to legitimise the bid and gain mass support for it. Revenue generation was expected to be US$2.3 billion at an estimated cost of US$1.7 billion[2] (Anon, 2000).

Unfortunately, a 2006 African host was not on the cards. The outcome of the 2006 bid nevertheless led to the bidding changes made by FIFA for future bids as outlined previously. With Africa being nominated for the 2010 FIFA World Cup, South Africa proceeded to revise its bid for the 2010 event.

South Africa's 2010 FIFA World Cup bid

By the end of 2002, six African countries announced their intention to bid for the 2010 Soccer World Cup. These included Libya, Nigeria, Egypt, Tunisia as well as Morocco and South Africa. By the cut-off date for bid applications in September 2003, Nigeria who proposed a joint Western African bid (together with Benin, Togo, Ghana and Cameroon), withdrew its candidacy (Cornelissen, 2004a).

While one is able to obtain general information on the 2010 South African bid, it is interesting to note that the bid document is not publicly available (swc2010.com, 2004b). The South African 2010 bid revised some of its 2006 proposal, notably extending the number of stadia from nine to thirteen. Of these, seven will require minor upgrading, three will require major upgrading and three will be newly constructed (SA 2010 Bid Company, *s.a.*b). Similar to the Cape Town 2004 Olympic Bid, the upgrading of training venues forms a significant part of a developmental bid. It is SAFA's intent not only to meet FIFA requirements but also for the World Cup to improve the lives of millions of South Africans (2010 SA Bid Company, *s.a.*c). The matches (and training venues) will be spread across the entire country.

South Africa continued with its theme, "It's Africa's turn!" for the 2010 event. While it is acknowledged that difficulties in economic impact methodologies abound (Matheson and Baade, 2003), the results of the economic impact assessment presented by the South African 2010 Soccer World Cup Bid Company are presented to illustrate the potential risks associated with raised expectations of event forecasting. Grant Thornton (2003) reported the following key results based upon their assumptions (in 2010 Rands):

[2] Direct comparisons of economic forecasts and impacts are difficult due to the inability to determine the purported exchange rates. The current US$/ Rand exchange rate is $1/R6.

- The event will lead to direct expenditure of R12,7 billion;
- The event will contribute R21,3 billion to the GDP of South Africa;
- The event will generate the equivalent of 159,000 annual jobs; and
- An additional R7,2 billion will be paid to government in taxes.

They add that the costs on the upgrade of stadia and infrastructure are expected to be R2,3 billion. It is important to note that these benefits may be exaggerated as they are based on "gross" spending as opposed to a "net" measure (Matheseon & Baade, 2003). Major developmental projects that will be fast-tracked as a result of the bid include the R7 billion Gautrain, Coega's giant "signature bridge" in Port Elizabeth and Durban's new international airport at LaMercy (Philip & Donaldson, 2004).

Cornelissen (2004b) reports that South Africa was the only African country to be reported as having the potential to host an excellent final by the FIFA Technical Committee in May 2004. It is not surprising that South Africa won the rights to host the event, by beating Morocco by 14 votes to 10. Much was riding on a winning bid, particularly since South Africa's major sport teams have increasingly suffered humiliating defeats in soccer, cricket and rugby in recent years. No doubt, the successful hosting of the 2010 Soccer World Cup will be a significant test for the African continent. At this stage, it is important to review the plans to date.

South Africa – 2010 FIFA World Cup host country

On the 27 October 2004, South Africa and FIFA signed the Organisation Association Agreement to formalise the country's hosting of the 2010 World Cup (SA 2010 Bid Company, *s.a.*d). Early in 2005, Blatter addressed the leadership battle that broke out within days of FIFA's announcement that South Africa would host the tournament (Anon, 2005). While he insists that he merely made suggestions, it is interesting to note that the outcome of the three key players that spearheaded South Africa bid is as Blatter would have liked it to be: Jordaan, CEO of the Local Organising Committee (LOC), Khoza, the LOC's Chairman and Oliphant, the President of SAFA. Blatter noted "South Africa needs a perfect organisation to show the world it is possible to do it here" (SA 2010 Bid Company, *s.a.*e).

Didata, South Africa's largest technology company, hosted a FIFA delegation to discuss technology requirements (Anon, *s.a*). Didata's South African CEO noted that as FIFA owns the event they can dictate what applications must be used, however they stressed the importance of creating local partners. It is not surprising that in order to further safeguard FIFA's interests, a Swiss subsidiary of FIFA, Match AG (Management, Advertising, Ticketing, Computers/ IT and Hospitality) will establish a subsidiary in South Africa to assist the LOC and facilitate various aspects of the World Cup (Anon, 2005).

A preliminary analysis of infrastructure and the ability to provide services has also begun (Pillay, 2005). Pillay adds that the Industrial Development Corporation (IDC) has secured a R50 million loan from the African Development Bank to start upgrading South Africa's

infrastucture ahead of 2010. In addition, the IDC together with the Development Bank of Southern Africa has created a business unit, 2010! SCW Business Funding, to assess infrastructural requirements and how this can be sustained with maximum utility value (Pillay, 2005).

The 2010! SCW Business Funding unit will aim to provide various types of funding (R1 million to R500 million) to medium and large businesses for all opportunities related to the event beyond that of construction (Venter, 2004). The Department of Trade and Industry's Khula Fund will assist small companies with loans of less than R1 million. Venter adds that the focus will be on transactions that will deliver key developmental imperatives such as job creation, Black economic empowerment, and assisting in the regeneration of historically Black townships. It is interesting to note that the unit will also fund companies in Africa as spectators are likely to visit neighbouring countries such as Mozambique and Namibia (Venter, 2004).

Informing businesses about the tender opportunities is another priority (Claasen, 2004). The IDC will host a conference informing the public about tenders that will be on offer. The tender for television rights have just begun and interested parties had until the 10 February 2005 to respond (SA 2010 Bid Company, *s.a.*f).

It is significant to note that while the SA 2010 bid book put forward the stadia and venues, all 13 venues are open for bidding for a world cup game (Claasen, 2004). Claasen further notes that the first FIFA inspection takes place in February 2005 and the final inspection takes place in June 2008. It is evident that for the bigger matches (quarterfinals upwards) infrastructural requirements related to accommodation and transport become even more pressing. As asserted by Cornellisen (2004b), the "diffusionist" characteristic of the 2010 bid may have served the function of garnering domestic support, but that it may have significant practical ramifications in the long-term. Some of the smaller centres and stadia that have been included in the bid may not have the requisite levels of infrastructure and may therefore not receive the benefits that have been projected (Cornellisen, 2004b). It is also worth noting that the LOC has back-tracked on its plan for thirteen stadia, and has once again revised its plan to ten stadia due to budgetary limitations (Mofokeng, 2005).

It is contended that the LOC and SAFA should orchestrate a master plan that strategically coordinates all 2010 activities. Moreover, this plan should be publicly accessible. Furthermore it is contested that important lessons can be learnt from the host cities of previous mega-events.

Lessons learnt, best practice and potential approaches to leveraging and distributing benefits equitably

This section focuses specifically on lessons learnt from the hosting of the 2002 Korea Japan FIFA World Cup and the 2003 Cricket World Cup. It also highlights factors that lead to successful events in general. Furthermore, potential approaches to leveraging and distributing benefits equitably are further investigated. A community development model associated with mega-events in South Africa is also suggested as a mechanism to ensure that benefits associated with 2010 will be maximised and distributed.

2002 Korea Japan FIFA World Cup

Matheson and Baade (2003) note that South Korea built ten new stadia at a cost of nearly $2 billion and Japan built seven new stadia and refurbished three others at a cost of about $4 billion. In addition, the operating costs are spiralling in the wake of terrorism. Horne and Manzenreiter (2004) assert that as the 2002 World Cup approached, the forecasts got gloomier. Replacement spending and the "crowding out effect" where tourists may replace other visitors who would normally visit the host venues were apparent (Matheson & Baade, 2003; Horne & Manzenreiter, 2004). They add that foreign visitors to Japan increased slightly (30 000 more during the same period the previous year), while visitors to Korea remained the same. Similarly, Lee and Taylor (2005) contend that actual tourist arrivals to Korea were less than predicted by 37% and they were even less by 12.4% in the same month of the previous year. They add that a negative effect on the number of arrivals could be related to the success of the Korean team at the expense of a foreign-based team and its associated fan-base.

Media technologies and subscriptions related to services were the main products to benefit from the 2002 World Cup in Korea and Japan. However, SkyPerfecTV, who acquired the Japanese broadcasting rights posted a sixfold increase in annual losses due to this investment (Horne & Manzenreiter, 2004). They conclude that while FIFA is likely to profit due to its broadcasting rights and sponsorship programme, it remains to be seen whether the event is beneficial to corporate sponsors, media companies, the local organisers and the economies of the host cities. For Korea/ Japan, the biggest winner though appears to be the diplomatic impact between the two countries on all fronts – tourism flows, cuisine, fashion and language learning – which continued and surpassed the event (Horne & Manzenreiter, 2004).

These results appear to reflect residents' perceptions of the 2002 World Cup in Korea. Kim, Gursoy and Lee (2004) noted that the economic benefits were a disappointment for locals, with more societal and cultural benefits being generated. The economic costs were mainly due to residents believing that the costs of building the necessary facilities were higher than they should have been. Kim et al. (2004) assert that the investigation of resident's perceptions prior to the event assists the LOC to identify concerns and expectations prior to the event so that problems can be addressed promptly and properly.

Another Korean study (Kim & Morrison, 2005) highlights the importance of utilising differentiated marketing strategies, both in terms of promotions and product development, prior to and after the World Cup. While visitors from all three countries (USA, Mainland China and Japan) all had more positive images of Korea after the World Cup, there were differences in image changes.

2003 Cricket World Cup

It was predicted that the event would attract about 25 000 foreign visitors and that ticket sales would generate about US4.4 million (Cornelissen, 2004a: 49). The sale of television broadcasting and sponsorship rights is considered to be the biggest benefit, and was regarded as being one of the most significant impacts of the event. The tournament was used effectively by South Africa Tourism to profile the country internationally to a worldwide television audience of one billion. While it is difficult to compare the predicted impact to actual impacts of R1 billion, it is evident that the event attracted lower than predicted figures (18,500 visitors). Although the 2010 Soccer World Cup is being used to promote tourism to other African regions, it should be noted that due to security concerns in Zimbabwe and Kenya, the anticipated benefits associated with the hosting of the 2010 World Soccer Cup in these countries may not materialise as was the case during the Cricket World Cup when numerous matches in Zimbabwe were cancelled. Cornelissen (2004a) contends that the Cricket World Cup boosted the tourism sector in terms of raising and altering the international profile of South Africa. It is thus apparent that image enhancement was the major benefit for South Africa. In terms of 2010 World Cup preparations, the lesson learned here is be cautious in projecting attendance numbers for events, as the dynamics of competing teams often dictates the numbers of fans who will attend, as noted previously.

Factors that lead to successful events

Matheson and Baade (2003) contend that there are factors unique to developing nations that can contribute to the success of the event. These include the comparatively low wages of developing nations that serve to lower operating and infrastructural costs. In addition, mega-events serve to kick-start spending on non-sports related infrastructure. Durban's new international airport at LaMercy is a case in point. It may also prompt public officials into making general infrastructure improvements. Finally, if a host city has under-utilised labour resources, the chances of the earnings staying within the city are increased (Matheson and Baade, 2003).

It is evident that while South Africa may use these factors to its advantage, it will still be critical to plan effectively. Previous research on mega-events underscores the importance of coherent management pre-, during and post-event in order to maximise the positive impacts of the event (Cornelissen, 2004a). The 2002 Korean case study (Kim et al., 2004) emphasises the importance of residents' involvement in the planning and decision-making processes. It will be necessary for authorities to address the construction costs and devise strategies for the efficient use of infrastructure post-event.

Lee and Taylor's (2005) study point to the consideration of the structure of the sporting contest, and the impact the staged eliminations of national teams have on travel choices of their soccer fans. Thus it will be necessary to consider flexible leveraging opportunities, a topic which is explored in greater detail below. Kim and Morrison's (2005) findings underscore the importance of utilising differentiated marketing strategies for promotions and product development. Finally, these studies suggest that the economic benefits be put into perspective, and recognise the event's significant role in image enhancement and as a symbol that can promote national pride.

For the 2000 Olympic Games in Sydney, a number of leveraging strategies were utilised. These included destination promotion through media profiling, pre- and post-event itineraries, pre-games acclimatisation camps, a stimulus to convention and incentive markets, the creation of new market niches through sponsorship linkages and the stimulus to tourism through infrastructural improvements (Faulkner, Spurr, Chalip & Brown, 2000). In terms of business leveraging, Chalip and Leyns (2002) note that the impacts of events may be unevenly distributed. Consideration should be given to how businesses, particularly restaurants, retailers and the accommodation sector, leverage visitor spending, while maintaining levels of local spending. They assert that the LOC plays a very important role in coordinating the leveraging opportunities that an event presents.

Lessons from Atlanta seem to indicate the businesses should be prepared for less than the predicted visitors as well as understand the World Cup consumer (Muthaly, Ratnatunga, Roberts & Roberts, 2000). They also note that those businesses most likely to be successful are those that are already established with surplus funds for new ventures. Furthermore, infrastructural projects should be well managed, with opportunities for small businesses to bid and procure some of these projects (Muthaly et al., 2000).

To date, the most comprehensive mega-event strategy is the "Australian Tourist Commission Olympic Games Tourism Strategy". The strategy was aimed at enhancing Australia's international image and increasing long-term socio-economic benefits for Australia through increased export earnings, employment, visitor arrivals and visitor dispersals (ACT, 2001a). An Olympic Games Business Unit was established in 1995 to coordinate activities and recognised the significance of strategic alliances with traditional and non-traditional stakeholders in Australia and overseas. A pre-games marketing campaign, Australia 2000 fun and games campaign, was initiated in September 1999. Brand Australia, which was launched in 1995, was a critical aspect of the Olympics campaign. It developed the idea that a holiday in Australia was about the experience. A comprehensive media strategy was undertaken as well as post-games strategy to capitalise on Australia's popularity post-Games (ATC, 2001a). Other leveraging opportunities included Partnership Australia and Austrade (Australian Trade Commission). Partnership Australia entailed a national co-operative marketing venture between the ATC and State and Territory government tourism authorities to consolidate and develop opportunities for the dispersal of Olympic-related tourism benefits across Australia (ATC, 2001b). Austrade appointed a National Manager Olympics within its Major Opportunities Group to assist with export business and inward investment. Austrade also worked closely with the Australian Sports Export Advisory Council to identify opportunities for the export of sport products and services (ATC, 2001b).

Maximising the benefits in an equitable and sustainable manner

From the lessons learnt above, it is evident that co-ordinating a mega-event such as the FIFA World Cup is a mammoth task. Undertaking to maximise the benefits equitably and sustainably in developing nations is even more challenging. This section will identify some of the approaches that can be undertaken to achieve positive impacts.

A key question relates to the sustainability of the new construction and infrastructure. The three key drivers for sustainable construction include legislation, policy and planning (PBA, 2004). It is noted that while South Africa's national government policies concerning environmental management are well advanced, integrated planning at municipal levels is still in its infancy. This creates challenges in finalising environmental and sustainability principles for new developments. Greater emphasis is required on the preparation of environmental management plans and the monitoring of the construction process (PBA, 2004). However, Owen (2002) asserts that the potential to "fast-track" mega-event construction projects impact on the accountability to the community and public participation in the planning process. Owen adds that there is a specific onus on councils in the disadvantaged areas to ensure that communities are properly informed and that the negative impacts of mega-events are minimised.

It is imperative that the LOC takes an integrated inter-governmental and inter-agency approach to planning in order to maximise pre-event, during, and post-event opportunities as per the Sydney approach. More importantly, it will be necessary to ensure broad stakeholder buy-in and support for the 2010 planning process. It is contended that longer-term considerations should be more specifically included in the planning of optimising the future use of stadia and other related investments. As noted by Pillay (2005), the bid plan is well grounded and comprehensive, however it remains a blueprint at present. He further suggests that if a programme of action is well conceptualised and formulated, the spin-offs could be immeasurable. However, what is required is robust debate that ensures the work of the LOC starts and is sustained on the basis on which the bid is conceived (Pillay, 2005).

While the 2010! SCW Business Funding is a step in the right direction in ensuring that the benefits are spread, particularly to the disadvantaged, it is imperative that the LOC plays a significant role in coordinating the leveraging opportunities that the 2010 event presents. It will also be necessary for the LOC to provide businesses with market profiles of the World Cup consumer in order to ensure positive spin-offs from the event.

Kurscheidt and Rahman (1999) contend that the efficiency of the event organisation is critical to success, thus SAFA and the LOC will need to provide the required organisational leadership. Mihalik (2000) concludes that when euphoria associated with hosting a mega-event is combined with effective management and planning processes to minimise perceived liabilities, residents of a host community can experience a sense of civic pride as a result of hosting the event. It is contended that a development-orientated approach to events in South Africa as proposed in South Africa's National Event Strategy (South Africa, 2002) will be useful in ensuring that benefits associated with 2010 will be maximised and distributed. This model is outlined below.

A development-orientated approach to events in South Africa

Participation in the event and tourism planning needs to take into consideration the needs of the host community. There are excellent financial reasons for adopting a model of community participation for hallmark events (Hall, 1989). He notes that community involvement encourages greater variation and local flavour in the nature of the tourist destination, assists in the protection of the tourist resource and reduces the opposition to tourism development. However, for the advantages of the community approach to tourism to be fully realised, it is necessary to adopt a more positive approach towards the public. In line with South Africa's transformational, equity-orientated and redress developmental agenda, a four-phased model is suggested. This includes developing a community profile database; promoting education, training and capacity building; generating income opportunities and maximising social and cultural benefits (South Africa, 2002). The specificities of each phase are presented in the figure below.

It is imperative to note that the empowerment/community development component of event tourism is impacted by the broader institutional and policy frameworks. Key stakeholders, especially the public sector, need to support and fund community participation and empowerment in event tourism. Community initiative, vision and commitment are integral components of ensuring that they reap event tourism benefits. It is recommended that this model be implemented as part of the pre-planning phase of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. Plans are underway to workshop the proposed model with key stakeholders.

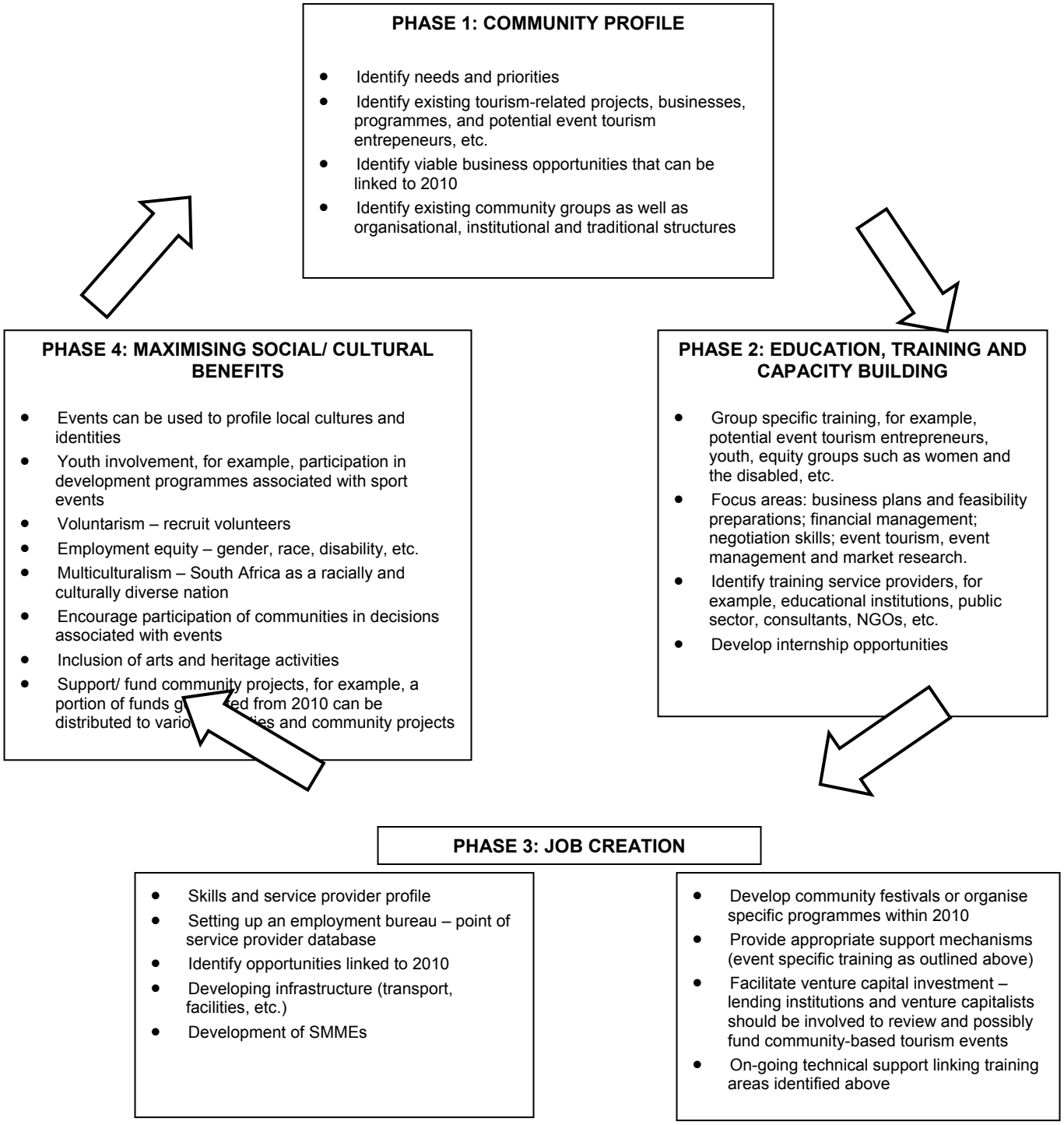

Figure 1: A development-orientated approach to the 2010 FIFA World Cup

Conclusion

South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup epitomises the "sport-media-tourism" complex that is at the centre of its national development strategies in the 21st century. However, for developing countries the opportunity costs associated with mega-events are heightened. It remains to be seen whether expectations created by South Africa's hosting of the 2010 event will be realised. Lessons learnt from the hosting of previous mega-events provide important directions for the successful hosting of 2010. In order for the event to attain its development objectives, it is critical to explore potential approaches and mechanisms to leverage and equitably distribute benefits likely to be associated with the World Cup. It is suggested that a development-orientated approach to 2010 will be useful in ensuring that benefits associated with the event will be maximised and distributed. A four-phased community development model is proposed.

It is evident that ongoing research and evaluation is critical to ensuring that the benefits are maximised in a sustainable and equitable manner. This is particularly important in the context of developing countries such as South Africa where the need to maximise and spread the benefits of tourism events is paramount. Some of the challenges are:

- collecting relevant and sufficient empirical data with limited resources;
- meaningfully engaging with communities and civil society at large;
- developing an understanding of sport event tourism generally and the opportunities associated with such events to leverage economic benefits at different levels; and
- ensuring effective stakeholder participation and coordination.

This paper attempts to contribute to the increasing research on the analysis of mega-events in the context of the developing world in general, and in South Africa in particular. As highlighted by Pillay (2005), vigorous public debate and scholarly analysis can serve as a basis for proactive planning to ensure the maximisation of benefits to South Africans. It is imperative that the LOC takes an integrated inter-governmental and inter-agency approach to planning in order to maximise pre-event, during, and post-event opportunities. The South African community should not be watching from the sidelines but should be integral players in the planning phases of the 2010 FIFA World Cup.

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Event Management: The Formulation, Implementation and Assessment of the Objectives and Strategies of the 10th IAAF World Championships in Athletics Helsinki 6 – 14 August 2005, Planning Phase*

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Abstract

My paper will discuss event management, and especially concerning the realization of the objectives and strategies set for the IAAF World Championships in Athletics Helsinki 6 – 14 August 2005. My focus is on the management of large sports events, in particular, its special features in the planning, realization, and assessment of the event project. Moreover, the customer-oriented thinking and the development of the innovative value chain require the carrying out of a customer survey during the event in order to measure how the objectives have been achieved (themes/concepts, marketing process, ticket packages and their pricing, resources and the detailed planning and implementation of daily programs). The strategies developed for this event are directly elaborated from the above-mentioned objectives, and the realization of the strategies is the direct responsibility of each project team. The research results will produce valuable information that can be applied to future events of a similar kind.

This presentation focuses on the planning phase of the event although the introduction provides the entire framework.

In the planning phase of the event, the research questions are

1. What is the management of a general public event in the planning phase of the event project?
2. What are the special features and points of emphasis of management?
3. What objectives and strategic choices have been set for the IAAF World Championships in Athletics Helsinki 6 – 14 August 2005?

Event Design and Impacts

Experience Design (for events): Its methodology and components*

Ralph Kerle
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From now on, leading edge companies - whether they sell to consumers or businesses - will find that the next competitive battleground lies in staging experiences."
Harvard Business Review

The design of experience isn't any newer than the recognition of experience. As a discipline though, Experience Design is still in its infancy. It is so new that its very definition is in flux.
However, the elements that contribute to superior experiences are knowable and reproducible, which make them designable….
Nathan Shedroff…

Work is Theatre and Every Business A Stage….The Experience Economy; Gilmour and Pine

Experience Design is the Play on the Stage…Ralph Kerle

The underpinning philosophy of "Experience Design" is that theatre in all its various guises offers the best model for designing and producing business "experiences". Theatre in this context means far more than just creative role playing exercises or improvisation within corporate workshops, which has an important part to play in introducing people to new ways of thinking and understanding. In Experience Design, the use of theatre, its methodologies and techniques provides a very powerful systemic approach through the simulation of entire business propositions.

While events do not necessarily have to have live components, an "experience" by definition requires a moment that is live for it to occur whether it is an individual or group experience and for the cause and effect of that moment to be apprehended and understood - "the experience of the event". Hence the traditional theatrical refrains from directors for actors to work in the moment. Working in the moment frees actors from traditional thinking patterns and constraints and applies pressure to them to react quickly and originally to arrive at imagined situations; the fundamental construct of "Experience Design".

In this new discipline of Experience Design, the components just like theatre that are considered primary creative drivers for creating the experience are:

- a story that encapsulates and describes the overall proposed commercial proposition

- a narrative outlining the sequence of creative moments for each business experience that will take place in our story
- the entertainment design - the characters that people our story, and
- the audience and the cultural design we need to observe to engage them.

Equally important as creative drivers are theatre design and theming components that bring our business propositions to life are:

- The set - the physical or built environment in which the experience takes place
- The sound and music, that indefinable emotional quality that lies under the entire experience
- The light through which the audience sees the experience
- the visual components such as multi-media, graphic design, costuming and packaging that provide the overall look and style.
- The staging – the direction of how and when the experience occurs.

Most importantly, theatre as process in experience design provides a very practical model for simulations. Facilitators and participants in theatrical simulations find it easy to play imaginatively because theatre is "live" fantasy with no known obvious boundaries. Just the idea of "theatre" facilitates the full force of creativity.

Live simulations can be constructed that embrace every possible business projection using both emotional and physical theatre techniques, from every conceivable and imagined perspective in real time if necessary to achieve whatever outcome might be imagined.

Theatrical methodologies offer an enormous range of creative facilitations from the exploration and exposure of habitual and traditional thinking patterns to overcome behavioural barriers through to the use of reflective observational techniques for immersion in a competitor's market place or unexplored industries or environments. There are theatrical facilitations for every conceivable business circumstance. Through these creative facilitations and exercises, subconscious, associational and intuitive thoughts are released that always without exception provide new insights for how a business experience might be created.

Well-designed theatrical simulations proactively move the mindset of an organization from marketing of goods and services to thinking in the mindset of a customer experience – the new commercial stage.

> Experiences are as distinct from services as services are from goods…
> *Gilmour and Pine*

Introduction To Experience Design.

In 1994 Gilmour and Pine, one a Harvard academic, the other a Distribution Manager for Proctor and Gamble, wrote a book entitled *"The Experience Economy"* in which they argued that "from now on, leading edge companies - whether they sell to consumers or businesses - will find that the next competitive battleground lies in staging experiences." They proposed that "experiences are as distinct from services as services are from goods", and proposed theatre as metaphor for business as a whole. The subtitle to their book was "Work is Theatre and Every Business A Stage."

In a search for this elusive thing called a "commercial experience", Palus and Horth in *The Leaders Edge – Navigating Complex Change* wrote events can be described in literal terms but experiences are a kind of drama for which literal thinking is never fully adequate

Nathan Shedroff in *Experience Design 1* suggests that "the design of experience isn't any newer than the recognition of experience. As a discipline though, Experience Design is still in its infancy. It is so new that its very definition is in flux. However, the elements that contribute to superior experiences are knowable and reproducible, which make them designable".

This paper then explores a methodology for designing commercial experiences and is driven by the theme "Experience Design is the Play on The Stage" .

Methodologies In Experience Design

The underpinning philosophy of "Experience Design" is that theatre in all its various guises offers the best model for designing and producing business "experiences".

Theatre in this context means far more than just creative role playing exercises or improvisation within corporate workshops that have an important part to play in introducing people to new ways of thinking and understanding.

In Experience Design, theatre, its methodologies, processes and techniques offer a holistic and systemic approach to powerful imagined business solutions and experiences.

In this new discipline of Experience Design, the emotional components (just like theatre) that are considered primary creative drivers are:

- a story that encapsulates and describes the overall proposed commercial proposition
- a narrative outlining the sequence of creative moments for each business experience that will take place in our story
- the entertainment design - the characters that people our story and
- the audience and the cultural design we need to observe to engage them.

Equally important as creative drivers are theatre design and theming components that give emotional life to our business propositions:

- The set - the physical (venue) or built environment in which the experience takes place
- The sound and music, that indefinable emotional quality that lies under the entire experience
- The light through which the audience sees the experience
- The visual components such as multi-media, graphic design, costuming and packaging that provide the overall look and style and
- The staging – the direction of how and when the experience occurs.

Most importantly, theatre as process in experience design provides a very practical model for simulations.

Facilitators and participants in theatrical simulations find it easy to play imaginatively because theatre is “live” fantasy with no known obvious boundaries.

Just the idea of "theatre" facilitates the full force of creativity.

Live simulations can be imagined and constructed that embrace every possible business projection using both emotional and physical theatre techniques, from every conceivable and imagined perspective in real time if necessary to achieve whatever outcome or experience might be imagined or desired.

Theatrical methodologies offer an enormous range of creative facilitations from the exploration and exposure of habitual and traditional thinking patterns to overcome behavioural barriers through to the use of reflective observational techniques for immersion in a competitor’s market place or unexplored industries or environments. There are theatrical facilitations for every conceivable business circumstance.

Through these creative facilitations and exercises, subconscious, associational and intuitive thoughts are released that always without exception provide new insights for how a business experience might be created.

Well-designed theatrical simulations proactively move the mindset of an organization from marketing of goods and services to thinking in the mindset of a customer experience – the new commercial stage.

What is Creativity? How Do We Experience It?

Very few of us have any experience in the theatrical arts? Indeed, in creativity? Very few of us are skilled playwrights or writers? Not all of us see ourselves as being creative? So how do we experience creativity? How can we become practitioners in “The Art of Experience Design"?

Creativity is an individual and personal journey.

At a higher level, it is a journey in search of gods and heroes who are often accompanied by monsters, giants, and aliens. The journey is experienced on epic landscapes that have dark and deep horizons, no bottoms or tops to perspectives, kaleidoscopic interruptions, unexplainable dreams and metaphoric images and ephemera and apparently meaningless connections and unknowable occurrences and events.

The journey is extraordinarily challenging and uncertain.

It requires heroic emotional deeds in inhospitable environs in overcoming all sorts of doubts, fears, suspicions and worries. There is very little assistance available on this journey. And just like early explorers, it is so dangerous at times that some of us might not return. It is potential madness.

In certain societies, this journey is restricted to specially selected people - "hangans" people who the Gods come down to earth to possess or "shamans" people who travel up to meet the Gods - who the community entrusts with very special consideration and powers.

On returning from their respective journeys to meet these Gods, these soldiers of fortune turn out and become narrators - great storytellers.

Their stories contain the narratives that help glue our societies together to ensure some form of understanding and cohesion. They provide the ingredients for the myths and legends about how heroes operate in the world and most importantly, how we experience it.

It is in the telling and construction of our personal stories from our own interior travels that the very basis of the creative act lies. It is how we and others experience the world. It is our reality.

My favourite definition is by one of the world's greatest educationalists, Maria Montessori. She wrote "creativity is the personalization of knowledge".

Exercise
The following exercise demonstrates how that definition works and how we can experience it.

The exercise is designed for the participants to experience a form of creativity, association thinking. Everyday your mind makes hundreds, if not thousands of associations. For example, you see a discarded milk carton on the street and it reminds you to pick up a quart of milk on the way home; a particular perfume reminds you of a certain romantic moment.

Usually, we make these associations, discount them and move on. Discard them as daydreams and non-productive activities. Often we dismiss them in our subconscious because they are irrelevant to our

work. However, these associations are rich territories for exploring new ways of thinking, of working creatively.

The exercise works as follows:

Pair off. One person takes an object they are fond of or have a sentimental attachment to and is in their possession and that has a special connection to an event that has occurred in their life. The other person listens to the story associated with the object without interruption. The listener remains silent until the story is complete. On completion, the listener responds to the storyteller by relating how they experienced the story and what connections it made with their own world.

This is one of many methods that can be used to work generating creativity ideas or concepts.

Other common tools or exercises that can assist you to develop your creative abilities:

Keep a journal
Write down ideas and impressions as they come to you. Journaling offers a way to record and capture insights when they occur.

Regular fresh input
When you work creatively, you have to refresh the engines as often as possible in anyway you possibly can – seek out new personal experiences at every turn. You never know where they might lead. For example, when attending a conference, go to a session that may apparently have no interest for you but that may be associated with what you do. Take risks with travel experiences. For example don't book accommodation ahead. Just arrive and see what you can find in the way of suitable accommodation. Go on home stays as opposed to staying in hotels.

Learn new creativity techniques
Creativity techniques work differently with each individual. Some are more appropriate for one type of personality than another. There is a plethora of books available on the subject and the web is a huge resource. DeBono's new book *"How To Have A Beautiful Mind"* is worth a read. Research and experiment with some of the creativity software packages such as *IdeaMap*, *New Name Builder*, *MindMap*.

Relax and reflect
Move out of the frame of mind that time is money that can be spent saved or squandered. Look at other cultures that live by other metaphorical concepts of time. I love walking in the morning on my own through the bush and it is through this mediation that I have some of my best creative flashes.

Learn to Draw
A great way to talk about an experience or an event is to get everybody to draw it. Learning to draw will activate new synapses in the brain that will open up whole new territories of creativity.

Random Picture Searches
Select pictures, paintings or photographs and explain to somebody, or yourself even, why it is they have the effect they do on you. Go to art galleries, newsstands or whatever and browse for images that you like. Use a digital camera to shoot images for fun to keep the "eye" in…

Be challenged
Physically and geographically go where you haven't been before – what an experience it would be to travel across land from Australia to England right now

Some of these creative tools will work better than others. Everything you do that is not habit is creative. Most importantly, recognize when they work for you and thus, when you are not being habitual.

The Importance of Metaphor In Experience Design.

The most important aspect of Experience Design is to understand and explore fully the client's strategy and objectives - the commercial brief for the project.

I argue that a commercial brief or business plan is a projection, a document of fiction and as such should be viewed as a metaphor.

Here are a couple of definitions of Metaphor -

> *n A figure of speech in which a word or phrase that ordinarily designates one thing is used to designate another, thus making an implicit comparison, as in "All the world's a stage" (Shakespeare).*
>
> *n : a figure of speech in which an expression is used to refer to something that it does not literally denote in order to suggest a similarity*

A business plan or brief is usually a highly articulated document built on business logic and supposition. It contains the strategy and the proposed outcomes and objectives and a budget estimate - which often bears little resemblance to the business reality or objectives.

It also nearly always contains some form of creative indication/synopsis to support the business strategy. The client often disguises this because she doesn't see herself as being creative and that is why she has called in a Design company. Sometimes she sees herself as being very creative and this can be an enormous problem if her experience in the actual production of experiences is limited.

I argue that questioning and validating the framing of the brief at the very beginning of any commercial transaction is of vital importance and whilst it may cause difficulty in the client/supplier relationship initially, in the long run everyone will benefit from a thorough and open dialogue in this area.

By viewing the business plan or brief document as a metaphor, it permits all parties involved to use not only their commercial acumen but, most importantly, their imagination to fully develop the story contained in the commercial proposition.

A story developed by both the client and the Experience Designer jointly will greatly assist the Experience Designer to find the real essence of how they will interpret a project commercially and creatively.

Robert Pulford in *"The Triumph of Narrative"* captures the power of the story as a tool when he says…"Of all the ways we communicate with one another the story has established itself as the most comfortable, the most versatile…When I hear a good story, I have an almost physical need to tell it. "

What's our story? What is the business objective or goal of the project? Is it to create a new buying experience in the retail store that will increase a specific product's revenue? What's our story?

Is it to leverage a brand to secure prominence or dominance in a particular market? What is the cost and the expected ROI? What's our story?

Is it to create an entertainment programme to revitalize one of Australia's largest Royal Shows and to increase attendances? What's our story?

Is it to change the shape of a major international sporting event? What's our story? Is it to create an event to change perceptions of a franchise dealer network that is unhappy and not performing?

In exploring these questions, we do all the good things a playwright in theatre in combination with a set or visual designer does!

We dissect the metaphor forensically and meticulously through research, dialogue and reflective practice to find a real story.

How do we involve uninitiated clients in this highly sophisticated creative exercise?

Introduce them to the world of the creative practitioner. We may reveal that we want them to become creative practitioners or we may not depending on the client's background experience and confidence in working creatively. However once the process begins, all clients discover their latent creative ability without exception.

We write draft story after draft story of the commercial proposition and we do this wherever possible with the assistance of our client who becomes our co-author and we, his ghostwriters.

There are excellent writing and visualization improvisation techniques that assist in this work.

For example, if there is a vision statement attached to the business proposition, we get everybody to draw the vision - to visualize it! You can imagine how different each

vision is in the beginning and how clear visions can emerge from discussion of components of each individuals drawing.

There are an abundance of story telling facilitation techniques such as "advance and extend" that uses a narrative deconstruction process to extract very detailed minutiae in the client's subconscious in order to fully understand the brief document, product or service more fully. A more expansive technique called "Yes and" assists in building more and more fantasy into the story.

Anecdotal mind mapping is another example in which we ask unconnected people to simply talk about their attitudes and experiences to the product or service.

This is the customer's story of their experience with the product or service.

Their comments are written up on butcher's paper and attached to a wall and from these observations, a story about how the market sees and experiences a product or service is very quickly established. It may also reveal previously unforeseen opportunities

Sometimes where the application is appropriate, we will ask the client to have his clients participate in developing the story. This is at the cutting edge of Experience Design.

Rather than approach this using traditional market research methods, we might ask our client to form a Consumer Idea Group, whereby our client works side by side with consumers of the clients' product or services. In this exercise, we are not working to seek anecdotal information, we are not working to provide reflective analysis; we are working to actively involve the customer in creating the story in partnership with the client.

Another simple technique is third person role-play improvisations to create drama. Story telling is built on drama and out of drama comes imagined solutions.

The value of story telling is that the client as participatory designer is role-playing, improvising and creating each component of his business proposition using his imagination and experience. Often this brings very important new insights just as writers often do charting plots in their novels.

We study the characters (our clients direct and indirect partners) - employees, audiences, customers, and suppliers from all different angles. What are their roles in our client's story, what will they deliver and be responsible for and how will they perform?

Just like any theatrical workshop, we collate our impressions, assumptions, thoughts, reflections, responses, studies and ideas into a formal business proposition, a working script with designs.

Whatever the commercial projections and objective are, we will have created a scripted story, “ä play” that takes the form of a business proposal - a metaphor to describe the commercial experience we want to create.

This metaphor just like all business proposals is only a collection of data.

It requires literally "creative" interpretation to be manifest in a commercial form.

Get it right and you have a “wow” effect – get it wrong and customers will distrust you and your organization.

Production and Delivery of Experience Designs.

The Big Idea

The executions of business plans and strategies are driven by conflicting imperatives and agendas that include all sorts of tensions between dreams and profitability, concept realizations and implementations, resources, time, and viability.

One of the most important tasks in Experience Design is to explore these conflicts (in theatrical terms, the subtext) to find a unifying theme or slogan that encapsulates what the “Experience” represents. This is imperative as it provides meaning for all the parties involved in delivering it.

We call this the BIG IDEA.

THE BIG IDEA becomes a descriptor for the experience we are creating. For example, The Sydney Olympics, Apple Macs, The Big Day Out, Falcon Futura, Super 12, Google.

The BIG IDEA is manifest in a series of words, a phrase, a sentence that captures the essence of the “experience”. It should be an expression of what and perhaps why but not how (Kanter*, Strategy as Improvisational Theatre*).

Ideation software such as IdeaMap and MindMap can be very helpful stimulating some initial thoughts. The BIG IDEA may not come first and may take time to evolve.

Successful BIG IDEA theming will ultimately become the basis of an evolving brand identity once the experience has been produced initially and the experience itself becomes established in the market place.

BIG IDEAS will often end up as part of our language and will instantly describe an experience. Google, Biro, Maxi-Yacht

The Cast – The Experience Design Team

Experience Design project teams to deliver the BIG IDEA are made up of a diverse range of specialists depending on the project. Predominantly though, they come from an arts education background and range from writers through to visual artists, packaging designers, directors, choreographers, entertainers and skilled administrators that fit the needs of each specific task.

In Experience Design teams, each role is scoped for its "creativity" quotient before its logistics and administration component. The personnel hired for a role are selected on their ability to work creatively in the first instance and must have demonstrated skills in creative problem solving. In particular this applies to project coordinators and administrators. Their role as creative interpreters is often the most creative on a day to day basis once the project gets under way.

From Creative Interpretation To Production.

The business proposal is now our narrative and provides all the clues as to how it is to be brought to life. How the business goals are to be achieved. How the content of the experience is to be interpreted in a way that has meaning and connects with its participants and its audience.

A process of exhaustive narrative deconstruction takes place using the process of orientation, complication and resolution that will continue throughout the length of the preproduction process.

This is designed to sort out, to locate and to bring the sub text, the apparent conflicts within the experience design to the surface as the design work begins to breathe.

Each scene in metaphor is dissected into individual components both creatively and logistically. Teams divide and re-read the script that contains the business story and the narrative sequence involved in its delivery. They interpret the sub text from their perspective within the script and begin to create and design their specific components.

For the Art Director/Themist considerations will include where our experience will occur? Every experience environment must have a look, a theme, an atmosphere, a sound, a place? What atmosphere do we want to create? How will the participants experience that atmosphere? Are we in a ghost train? Are we simulating a real event and how do we recreate it? Will it occur on the streets as a guerilla campaign using an interactive SMS voice campaign and involving our audience as our main characters in a search for treasure?

For a writer/conceptualist considerations will include the editorial stance of the content. Is this a religious audience? Should it have a comic tone? Should it be highly motivating? Should it contain surprises, illusions, should it be a simulation? What is the predominant cultural mix and age of the audience participating in our business experience? How do you communicate with that audience? How does the content serve the BIG IDEA.

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For a Stage Director, how will the story be told? Every story needs an opening, an interval, a close and an internal rhythm. What is the internal rhythm of the "experience"? When will it start and how? When will the participants require a rest, when will the participants need an emotional lift - when will the big announcements be made, how will it be made, how will it close? What are the protocols of the experience? Over the top or in a relaxing conversational manner? How will our customers experience the story? With a group of dancers? If so, what does the choreographer require and how will the music sit with the visual look of the experience?

For a Technical Director, what are the tools required to deliver the experience. Using a video presentation or a webcast in real time or with live interaction using pre-recorded multi-media to set up an illusion that the interview is occurring live? What does the video producer suggest and how good is the talent?

An Experience Design is just like any creative work. It is a living evolving entity and there are substantial transitions from conceptual simulation to the delivery of the experience itself.

The importance of an experienced Experience Producer is vital in facilitating this process. His role is as the Hero or Heroine in the production of our story. His role is to manage and guide the client and his co-creators expectations through the metaphor, the story and the narrative and most importantly the budget to ensure the experience design occurs within the commercial goals and objectives of the original business concept no matter how far removed we may now be from the original dialogue and proposal. The market place is littered with the deaths of corporate executives and creatives who have lost sight of the need to ensure creative and financial probity at all stages of this exhilarating journey.

Finally, for a business proposition to exist it must have a life. It must breathe and stand-alone from the moment it is born. When the curtain goes up, the "experience" is no longer the creators'.

It becomes the property and mindset of the participants and the customers…

This is the statement I use to define how I want our creators and our audiences to feel after they have "experienced" an "experience design".

"It is that flash of recognition, that moment of recall, that effect on the heart and mind that results in the spontaneous reaction of comprehension, applause, laughter or tears that gives an experience its uniqueness and impact"

Recommended Reading

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Film-induced Festivals: Reshaping destination image in smalltown America

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Abstract

Film and television are major forces in shaping destination image and encouraging tourism visitation. A growing literature reports on how film and television either directly attract tourists or is incorporated into destination marketing campaigns. However, there has been little research examining how film and television may be used in festivals and events and how destinations may actively use such festivals as a medium for shaping their destination image.

This paper considers film-induced festivals in the small American towns of Lone Pine and Jamestown. Both are located in California and are former gold-mining towns. However, rather than promoting their gold-mining heritage (and competing against other nearby gold towns), these smalltown destinations have focused on their film heritage. Both have been extensively used as film locations since the 1920s, primarily for Westerns. Lone Pine has been the location for over 350 films, and Jamestown has been the location for 150 films.

Through film-themed festivals, these towns have reshaped their destination images as idealised and romanticised Western locales. Many businesses have Western themes and the physical fabric of many buildings have been altered to conform with these images. Other aspects of their heritage have been downplayed, particularly the Gold Rushes, and in the case of Jamestown, links with Mark Twain and John Muir.

Introduction

The destination image of California is primarily based on film and television. Major attractions include Hollywood, Beverly Hills, Disneyland, Universal Studios and San Francisco. However, while tourism is focussed on the major cities, smaller rural towns struggle to attract visitors. Mass tourism concentrates in the metropolitan areas, but is difficult to draw out into the countryside. Such a scenario is not unique to California, rather it is commonplace around the world.

Many Californian towns have developed festivals as a way to develop a competitive destination image and attract visitors. As in other parts of the world, these towns have focussed on festivals as they require less capital to operate than permanent attractions. One common theme is specific agricultural products, reflecting the rural hinterlands of these towns. As such Californian towns host annual festivals based on almonds (Oakley), artichokes (Castroville), asparagus (Stockton), avocados (Carpinteria, Fallbrook), carrots (Bakersfield), fruit and nuts (Hughson), garlic (Gilroy), lemons (Ventura), mushrooms (Morgan Hill), mustard (St Helena), peaches (Marysville), strawberries (Arroyo Grande, Roseville, Watsonville, Wheatlands) and tomatoes (Yuba City) (California Festivals, 2005; Festival USA, 2005). A different approach is taken at Jamestown and Lone Pine. These two small towns have utilised their long history as movie locations as a basis for their festivals in order to differentiate their image from surrounding competitors.

In recent years there has been growing interest in film-induced tourism, that is, increased tourism visitation arising from a destination being featured in film and television. A number of researchers have examined how films have played a major part in developing a destination's image (Beeton, 2001, 2004a, 2004b & 2005; Busby and Klug, 2001; Croy and Walker, 2003; Frost, 2004, 2005 & forthcoming; Kim and Richardson, 2003; Macionis, 2004; Riley et al, 1998; Sargent, 1998; Singh and Best, 2004 and Tooke and Baker, 1996). Some of these studies focus on the effect of film on developing tourism in rural areas and towns (Beeton, 2001, 2004a, 2004b & 2005; Croy and Walker, 2003; Frost, 2004 & forthcoming; Sargent, 1998). These studies note a strong trend for many films and television shows to focus on small rural communities, often with quirky or eccentric characters, and to present them as a romanticised ideal. Many such productions have proved to be highly popular, particularly with urban audiences and to have stimulated strong tourism flows. While the focus of this research has been on destination marketing, there is some evidence that festivals may be created to utilise film publicity. For example, in Australia, the town of Beechworth staged a festival to coincide with the release of the film *Ned Kelly* (Frost, forthcoming).

However, there is a tendency to view film-induced tourism in a passive sense. The destination image produced through film may be seen as *organic*, produced by forces outside of tourism and beyond the control of the operators. A particularly apt example of this is the film *Field of Dreams*, which provided the oft-quoted line of 'build it and they will come'. Its set, built in a cornfield in rural Iowa, became an instant tourist attraction (Riley et al, 1998). Seemingly, no destination marketing or development strategy was needed, the film did it all and the local community reaped a bumper harvest. As such, film-induced tourism may be viewed as a type of *cargo cult*. Films are made, capture the imagination of the public and increase tourism flow, but the

destinations are passive receivers of benefits which they did little to earn. Unfortunately, such a view misses the vital question – how did the destination translate the interest generated by film into actual tourism?

The literature has primarily considered the interaction between tourism managers and films in terms of efforts to encourage film production at a location (see for example Croy and Walker, 2003). There is a need for this interaction to be explored further, to understand both how destinations use films to attract tourists and the experiences they provide. There may also be a process in which a destination will reshape its image and experiences to better fit a film image and the resultant expectations of tourists. It is particularly notable that there has been no research into how festivals may be tied into films and used to promote destinations. The aim of this paper is to use the case studies of film-related festivals at Jamestown and Lone Pine to examine these issues.

Western film at Jamestown and Lone Pine

Jamestown is in the western foothills of the Sierra Nevada, 200 kilometres inland of San Francisco. Lone Pine is on the eastern side of the Sierra, 400 kilometres north of Los Angeles. Both are former goldmining towns, but it is their history as movie locations, particularly for Westerns, which dominates their destination image.

Westerns have long been a highly popular genre of film. Firmly based in the historical West, their appeal extends well beyond their geographical setting, including to the eastern USA, Europe, Japan, South America and Australia (Calder, 1974; Fenin and Everson, 1977; McGrath, 2001; Penaloza, 2001; Pilkington and Graham 1979). While the Western landscape contributes to the attraction, it is the stories and personalities, the heroes and villains, which dominate the mythic appeal of the Western (Calder, 1974; Coyne, 1997; Fenin and Everson, 1977; Hitt, 1990; Pilkington and Graham, 1979).

In the early days of film, the Western was one of the few genres which were given freedom of location by studio executives (Dickinson, 1971: 85). Filming on location allowed directors to escape close financial and artistic control and stars to hunt, fish or misbehave, far from prying eyes (McBride, 2003: 102, 149 & 419; Rothel, 1990: 63 & 69). At Jamestown, filmmakers were attracted by the availability of the Sierra Railroad. Not only did this branch line offer nineteenth century steam locomotives and rolling stock, but the gently undulating countryside had no distinguishing features and could stand in for nearly anywhere in the USA. Commencing in 1919, nearly 150 movies were made at Jamestown (see Table 1).

Table 1: Major movies using Jamestown as a location

Year	Title	Stars	Use of Jamestown
1929	The Virginian	Gary Cooper	Train sequences
1939	Dodge City	Errol Flynn	Race between stagecoach and train; finale fight on train; various town shots
1940	Return of Jessie James	Henry Fonda	Train sequences
1940	Go West	Marx Brothers	Finale – train chase

1952	High Noon	Gary Cooper	Station shots
1958	Man of the West	Gary Cooper	Train sequences
1980	The Long Riders	Stacey Keach, David Carradine	James Gang rob moving train
1990	Back to the Future III	Michael J. Fox	Finale – train chase and wreck. Town set built nearby
1992	The Unforgiven	Clint Eastwood	Train sequences

Source: Railtown 1897 State Historic Park, 2004.

In 1904 a group of Los Angeles businessmen began buying up land and attached irrigation rights at Lone Pine. The irrigation water was then pumped 400 kilometres south to aid the rapid suburban expansion in Los Angeles (Reisner, 1986). These strong connections stimulated Hollywood's interest in the area. In particular, the spectacular rocky Alabama Hills were used as a generic arid location (Frost, 2004). Indeed, most of the major films made at Lone Pine were set elsewhere, for example, a large number of films set in India were shot there (see Table 2).

Table 2: Major films at Lone Pine

Year	Film	Star	Setting
1934	Lives of a Bengal lancer	Gary Cooper	19th Century India
1936	Charge of the Light Brigade	Errol Flynn	19th Century India and Crimea
1939	Gunga Din	Cary Grant	19th Century India
1941	High Sierra	Humphrey Bogart	Contemporary
1949	Samson and Delilah	Victor Mature	Biblical
1950	Kim	Errol Flynn	19th Century India
1951	Along the Great Divide	Kirk Douglas	Western
1953	King of the Khyber Rifles	Tyrone Power	19th Century India
1955	Bad day at Black Rock	Spencer Tracy	Contemporary
1960	North to Alaska	John Wayne	Gold-Rush Alaska
1962	How the West was Won	Gregory Peck	Western
1972	Joe Kidd	Clint Eastwood	Western
1989	Tremors	Kevin Bacon	Science Fiction
1989	Star Trek V (also Star Trek VII in 1995)	William Shatner	Science Fiction
1992	Kalifornia	Brad Pitt	Contemporary
1994	Maverick	Mel Gibson	Western
2000	Gladiator	Russell Crowe	Ancient Rome

Sources: Holland, 1990; Lone Pine Film Festival, 2004.

However, the majority of 350 movies made at Lone Pine were B grade Westerns. Between 1920 and the early 1950s, Lone Pine was the location for films made by Tom Mix, Hoot Gibson, Ken Maynard, William Boyd (Hopalong Cassidy), Gene Autry, Roy Rodgers, Tim Holt and Randolph Scott (Holland, 1990; Rothel, 1990). Cheaply produced and relying on stock characterisations and plots, they received little

critical appreciation, but were immensely popular, both in first release and then later on television.

Railroad Movie Days at Jamestown

Railroad Movie Days are held irregularly at the Jamestown railway station. Located about half a kilometre from the town centre, the station contains the main railworks for the Sierra Railroad, including engine roundhouse, workshops and turntable. In the 1950s conversion from steam to diesel led to most railworks being demolished. However, the revenue from film hire convinced the railroad company to retain a steam train operation at Jamestown. In addition, further income was generated from excursion trains. In 1970 the Jamestown station began operations as a privately operated theme park called Railtown 1897. Following financial difficulties the site was purchased by the State of California in 1981 and became a state park. In 1992 the California State Railroad Museum took over operations, though it remained a state park (*Union Democrat*, 2001: 10-12).

The Movie Railroad Days (initially known as the Wild West Film Fest) were designed to supplement the ongoing steam rides and railworks tours. The weekend festival aims for a balance between train and film related activities. For rail enthusiasts there are steam train excursions and demonstrations of equipment (such as the roundtable) and unusual rolling stock (including an ambulance and a handcar). These demonstrations are only undertaken at such special events and not on normal operating days. For film buffs there are panel discussions and autograph sessions with actors and stuntmen who worked at Jamestown. A number of celebrity 'look-a-likes' roam around posing for photographs and on the main set re-enact scenes from famous films. Further sessions focus on special effects and feature film props from the museum (*Union Democrat*, 2001: 3).

Railtown 1897 and the Movie Railroad Days are a joint operation between California State Parks and the volunteers from the California State Railroad Museum. Such a partnership generates tensions. While California State Parks is experienced in operating heritage attractions, few are as interactive as this and none of its other parks puts as great an emphasis on movies. For some staff there is an enormous gulf between the nation-building heritage of some parks and the triviality of movies at Jamestown. In turn, the very nature of volunteers may be frustrating to the smooth operation of the attraction. For example, on one of my visits the guided tour was scheduled for 40 minutes, but ran for 90 minutes because the volunteer guide was having such fun. While appreciated by the visitors on the tour, this meant the next tour was nearly an hour late in starting. These tensions have come to a head in Movie Railroad Days. Since 2001, California State Parks has declined to provide seeding funding for an event which is considered beyond the normal operations of a state park.

Lone Pine Film Festival

Since 1990 Lone Pine has held an annual Film Festival. Its core event is the screening of a number of films made in Lone Pine. Other activities in the festival include parades, concerts, barbecues, discussion panels and guided tours of locations. Much of the appeal is in the presence of actors and film-makers who worked at Lone

Pine. For example, the 2004 festival included panels of both stuntmen and children of the stars (Lone Pine Film Festival, 2004).

Revenue from the Film Festival is directed towards the establishment of a film museum. By 2001 $US230,000 had been raised and was used to purchase a site on the main highway. Construction was scheduled to commence in 2004 (Lone Pine Film History Museum, 2004). In addition, film memorabilia figures prominently in the décor of a range of tourism-related businesses, including restaurants, hotels, motels and bar. Many of these businesses boast walls decorated with photos and posters, some feature autographs and others have external murals. These restaurants and bars are used as venues for the Film Festival, and for accommodation operators it provides an out-of-season peak. The State of California's Interagency Visitors Center, while primarily concerned with nature-based tourism and recreation, features interpretation of film heritage. The close link between natural and cultural heritage is illustrated by the premier scenic drive – the Mt Whitney Portal Road, also being routed through the Alabama Hills and numerous film locations. A further feature of the area is that films are still being made and that the local county is active in seeking to attract films (Inyo County Film Commission, 2004).

In developing tourism built on its film heritage, Lone Pine has chosen to reshape itself in terms of Westerns. While most major films made at Lone Pine were set in other countries, it is the B Westerns that have come to represent the town. As Rothel noted in visiting a local restaurant, their display of famous actors included only those from B Westerns and excluded those who made big-budget films (1990: 67). Furthermore, the physical fabric of the town has been altered to portray a Western image. The Dow Hotel was built in 1923 in the then fashionable Spanish Mission style. However, now it has been clad in unpainted clapboards to present a frontier image (Holland, 1990: 78). The local McDonalds is also clad in weathered clapboard rather than in the conventional corporate style (Lone Pine Chamber of Commerce, 2004).

Discussion

In examining the impact of these festivals on Lone Pine and Jamestown three important patterns stand out. First, a significant part of the attraction of both festivals is what MacCannell termed a 'staged back region' experience. This is, 'a space for outsiders who are permitted to view details of the inner operation of a commercial, domestic, industrial or public institution' (1999: 99). Such backstage experiences are particularly apt for attractions related to film, such as theme parks (Beeton, 2005).

At Jamestown, festival attendees experience re-enactments of the *filming* of scenes from famous movies, and at sessions on special effects they are let in on the secrets of these effects and are able to handle props. At Lone Pine, stuntmen explain their secrets and the (now adult) children of the stars reminisce on their childhood experiences of being on the set. The attraction is not just the films, but being able to go *behind* the cameras and learn about *film-making*. Most importantly these experiences can only be gained by attending the festivals. At other times of the years visitors may come to see these film locations, but they will not have these backstage experiences.

Second, in both towns, these festivals have been major contributors to the development of a destination image based on films, particularly Western films. This gives both towns a major competitive advantage in comparison to nearby towns.

These competing towns share many attributes, including agricultural production, Gold Rush heritage and proximity to the Sierra Nevada Mountains. If Lone Pine and Jamestown focussed on these attributes, they would struggle to attract visitors, for they would hardly differ from their neighbours. By promoting their connections to films, they have developed a distinct and commercially valuable destination image.

However, this destination image is to a certain extent an invention. Neither Jamestown nor Lone Pine were the towns they seek to portray themselves as. There were never gunfights in the main street of Jamestown, nor was the train robbed by masked men on horseback. The railway was built to service orchardists, loggers and tourists to Yosemite. That its Gold Rush buildings remind tourists of the Wild West is due to the impact of films. The more arid Lone Pine may have a greater claim to authenticity, but its buildings have been substantially altered to bolster the Western image. Hewison's conclusion that English heritage attractions promoted 'fantasies of a world that never was' (1987: 10) could equally be applied to Lone Pine and Jamestown.

Other aspects of Lone Pine's history, such as the Gold Rushes and the battle with Los Angeles over the water from the Owens River, are marginalised. Recognition of Native Americans and their continuing existence in the town are missing from the festival. Similarly, Jamestown's actual connections with the Gold Rushes are downplayed. Indeed it is striking that Jamestown has turned its back on a history which includes Mark Twain and John Muir. While internationally famous, these personalities can also be claimed by the surrounding towns. Instead Jamestown builds its appeal on actors such as Gary Cooper, Errol Flynn and the Marx Brothers, which can only be connected to it.

Concerns with the authenticity of the heritage projected by these festivals are manifested at Jamestown by California State Parks' decision not to provide seeding funding. While this government agency has experience of various heritage days at other state parks, the emphasis on film and invented images at Jamestown is not seen as appropriate. In contrast, at Lone Pine, the major land agency is the Los Angeles Power and Water Department, which being presumably experienced with the activities of film-makers, has no objections.

Third, Jamestown and Lone Pine provide instructive case studies of how festivals may assist in the development of tourism. These festivals were designed to link film interest to visitation. They contribute to the development of a destination image and they provide the tourist with an experience. In both cases, there are strong relationships with permanent attractions. At Jamestown, the Movie Railroad Days highlight the existing attraction of the 1897 Railtown State Historic Park. The festival provides an opportunity for the staff and volunteers at the park to undertake activities and display machinery to large numbers of visitors. Normally it would not be viable to conduct such a wide range of activities. The festival promotes an enhanced or extended attraction. At Lone Pine, the festival has the specific objective of raising funds to build a permanent museum. Once built, this museum will ensure a more even tourist flow and no doubt provide a wider range of activities and displays during future festivals. As such, these are valuable instances where the destination has not been passive in its responses to film. Rather, in both cases the festivals have been developed as active mechanisms to stimulate tourism utilising the opportunities provided by the film connections.

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Success Measures for Micro-Business Entrepreneurial Attendees at Significant Events: Two Case Studies from the World's Largest Music Industry Event

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Abstract

The academic and popular business literature has much to say about 'success' and what a good thing it is to pursue. In more recent times there has been increasing attention to performance measures, KPI's, and both financial and marketing metrics. Much of this, however, has been focussed on medium to very large trading companies and public sector entities who must increasingly justify themselves in an atmosphere of growing economic rationalism. There is much less known about entrepreneurial micro-business "success", especially when it is connected to participation in a special Event where objectives are more in terms of initial exposure, credibility, promotion, distribution and networking rather than an immediate trading opportunity that can be measured fairly well in the accounts.

This paper will discuss this context using a case study approach that looks at the involvement of 2 artists, Shane Nicholson and 'End of Fashion', both managed by "OneLouder Management", in the South by South West Music Festival and Conference in Austin, Texas, the world's largest music industry event. The paper looks at what literature there is on the main performance and success metrics and the main factors that have been associated with success/failure, and then comments on these in relation to the objectives that were set by the artists' managers for the event as well as any measures of possible success that they had identified. The paper also examines the specific criteria more closely aligned to entrepreneurial efforts to enhance the careers of creative artists in an international event environment. Here the paper attempts to integrate some of the literature on 'success' in international new product/service launches, in celebrity marketing, and in event involvement. The 2 cases suggest that, rather than being dwarfed and rendered insignificant, a micro-business can achieve most of their objectives and considerable success in attending a large event provided they set realistic but challenging goals, give meticulous attention to detail, give as much attention to pre- and post-Event work as the event itself, and utilise the fundamentals of both small business management and celebrity marketing, both within the micro-business' particular industry but also the general principles available in the literature.

Introduction

"Success" and "failure" permeate the vernacular and mythology of most societies, though to varying degrees [Hofstede 1980, McCleland 1961], and thus the metrics used are often culture specific. This paper considers this important topic within an Australian and western capitalism bias. The attention given to success is nowhere more intense outside sport and politics than in business and entrepreneurial ventures. Whether there is a single scorecard orientation, usually focused around measures of shareholder success such as ROI, ROE, ROA, Dividend Yield, PE Ratios and so on [Friedman, 1962] or the so called Balanced Scorecard [Missouri Business Development Centers (MSBDC), 2005], we still observe differences of opinion about what constitutes 'success' as probably the most common theme. In recent times there has been increasing attention given to performance measures, KPI's, and both financial and marketing metrics [AMI, 2004, Harris et al, 2001]. Most of this is, however, focused on medium to very large trading companies and public sector entities. There is much less known about entrepreneurial micro-business 'success', especially when that business is in intellectual property and creative arts services and also when it is connected to participation in a special event where objectives are more in terms of initial exposure, credibility, promotion, distribution and networking than an immediate trading opportunity that can be measured fairly well in the accounts.

Yet there must be innumerable small businesses across the globe grappling with what entrepreneurial success means [and should mean] to them generally, and when participating in a special industry event in particular. This becomes even more intriguing when one includes the complexity of motivations, expectations, and personal objectives of the artists, and the manager, irrespective of their business goals. One can add to this the extra, not inconsequential, matter of the relationship between the artists and the managers both before and during the event. Anecdotal and empirical evidence from entrepreneurs after event involvement has been elusive in a search of the literature, and thus suggests a gap that needs to be filled. The literature on event evaluation appears to be almost exclusively focused on the evaluation of the event from the organiser's perspective, with only passing comment that the event's main customers – the attendees – should be satisfied. (Note that, in this paper, while an ' attendee' might often be just as much a ' fan' or 'punter' in the sense of being there for the enjoyment of the event, the emphasis here is on the entrepreneurial music business itself).This also suggests this gap in our knowledge, and it is the intention of this paper to help fill it.

Methodology

The methodology chosen for this paper is a combination of desk research and case study research. The former involved a search for any literature specifically on the identification and assessment of entrepreneurial objectives and success by attendees at special events, and of any other information generally on strategic success and performance metrics of agreed success. The case study research involved in-depth interviews with the management (OneLouder Management) of two Australian acts, Shane Nicholson (an acoustic-country solo artist) and 'End of Fashion' (a rock band) and their participation in the 2004 South by South West International Music Industry Conference in Austin, Texas [in the case of the first artist, the analysis covers participation in both 2003 and 2004].

'South by SouthWest' [SxSW] is the largest music industry event in the world, seeing as it has over 10,000 global attendees and over 1,000 showcasing artists performing around the clock in over 50 official venues over 5 days and from most territories (not counting the many unofficial bands and buskers), and is focused mainly on discovering, launching and developing music acts of all genres in North America [by far the largest consumers of musical products and services]. This is a challenging environment for any micro-business, especially as the music industry is dominated by extremely powerful recording and media companies on the one hand, and an enormous array of strongly competing individuals on the other in terms of getting "signed".

The approach taken by this paper is to organise the paper around a good range of success/failure contributions in the general literature [seeing as the specific literature on the evaluation of success of the event by the entrepreneur is not well developed at all], and then to discuss the two case studies within that framework. This approach is more logical for an academic paper, as the objective is not to try and assess the managers of the acts but rather to see where and how their assessment of success at the event supports or exposes weaknesses in the literature we do have.

Event Evaluation

Event evaluation is focused, quite naturally, on the perspective of the organisers and sponsors [Allen, O'Toole, Harris and McDonnell 2005, Der Vartanian 1997] and/or the community [Allen et al 2005, Harris, Jago, Allen and Huyskens 2001, Dwyer and Forsyth 2004, Carlsen 2004, Der Vartanian 1997] seeing as they are the ones with most at stake. Few, if any, entrepreneurial attendees will ever be financially or artistically 'destroyed' or 'crippled' by any one event, and therefore their need for advanced knowledge is not as urgent. After all, most artists and their managers who have been disappointed with an event will 'shrug their shoulders' and 'put it down to experience'. Of some relevance to the present paper is the evidence cited by all the above experts that many events do not live up to the expectations made about them, do not deliver the economic benefits claimed, and that 'evidence' of success is too often uncritically allowed and accepted. This could logically mean that if events may not be as successful as they are alleged to be for the organisers, sponsors and communities, then this could well flow on to both less success for entrepreneurial attendees and also perhaps an equivalent overstating of success by these attendees too.

SxSW and the state of the Music Industry

It has been stated earlier that SxSW is the largest music industry event of its type. It would be expected that this combination of sheer numbers in the most lucrative and competitive world markets would mean an intensity of competition that is probably unrivalled anywhere else in the industry (with the possible exception of the 'Midem' event in Europe). In turn, when one bears in mind that the music industry has been showing significant declines in total sales over the last few years and that when this is added to the recent rash of mergers between and within the major record labels and their major pruning of their artist rosters, this would indicate that there is probably a decline in

interest in signing new acts at SxSW. The combination of all these forces cannot create an environment conducive to 'success' for any particular 'hopeful' on the laws of probability. Thus we must expect fewer signs of entrepreneurial success at such events, and the actual measures of success might well be more subdued [as well as the objectives and expectations of the attendees too, of course].

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At the same time it should be noted that SxSW attendance figures have increased over it's almost 20 years of operation [SxSW website]. This could mean that attendees have "voted with their feet and wallets" by continually coming back [presumably because they may well have perceived having had some 'success'], but it could also be that either individuals came back because 'success' had eluded them so far yet they did not want to give up on their investment in the event, or it could be that there is also a high turnover and replacement of attendees as some or many of the previous aspirants exit in disappointment while the hopefuls are greater in number. The event's website does not give any statistics in this regard. Certainly we do know that the supply and demand dynamics of SxSW would be tight for any one attendee and that any 'success' however small would be a significant achievement and hard won.

Performance Measures in the context of micro-businesses and small-to-medium enterprises [SME's]

Philips, Tan Tsu Wee and Shanka [2003, p2455] report that "there has been considerable attention paid to the adaptation [of the balanced scorecard and other similar integrative performance measurement systems] to large corporations and government organizations around the world". They (as well as Hudson et al [2001] elsewhere) go on to emphasise that "the unique characteristics of SME's suggest that a different set of issues arise when attempting to develop and implement performance measurement systems in this context". The Missouri Small Business Development Centers [2005] disagree about the suitability of a balanced scorecard approach for only large entities and actually recommend it to SME's. Here they urge SME's to focus only on the key value drivers in the 4 areas of finance, customers, internal effectiveness of their operations, and the learning that supports innovation, change and growth. While the artist managers made no reference to using any formal balanced scorecard, it was clear that they were not only interested in financial profits. For example, deals of various sorts that would lead to vital financial returns were targeted, but also the building of ongoing relationships with customers and industry partners was just as important in their plans. They also expressed clear objectives to fine-tune their internal operations with regard to dealing with the US market, and also to learn more 'export marketing' skills in the process. So in this sense, they were in fact applying an elementary balanced scorecard approach. Perhaps the artist managers in this case study, and others who participate in significant events could gain more insights if they were to use the balance scorecard more extensively.

When asked to compare measures of success for small business as opposed to large business, consultant Gail Blanke answered that "major corporations measure their success in terms of shareholder value, which is appropriate. Small businesses measure their success in terms of identifying a unique selling proposition. A lot of small business

owners want to make a difference too…. And they're driven by passion". [Byron 2004, p R10]. This observation was clearly noticed in the case of OneLouder Management, who strongly emphasized their unique aspect to artist management and their intense passion for their work and their artists' success in those territories agreed upon at, and either side of, SxSW.

In another Special Report on measures of success by the Wall Street Journal [Bounds, 2004, R1], it was reported that a major recurrent measure of entrepreneurial failure is that they just "don't stick with it". This stick-ability measure is also characteristic of the management team in the case study, as evidenced by their astute handling of the information flow over some considerable time between contesting record labels so as to get a superior contract for one of the artists.

Financial Metrics

The literature on micro-business, SME and entrepreneurial success suggests that the most common financial metrics are profit, ROI, new sales, contracts signed, firm sales/contracts verbally agreed to but not yet signed, and any improvements in cash flow and indebtedness of any kind [Phillips, et al 2003]. Due to confidentiality issues of not only the artist managers but also their artists and partners, it was agreed that these would not be divulged. One can say that the artist management company and the artists in this case were very mindful of each of these measures of financial success. In addition, they had done their 'sums' on SxSW involvement, potential royalties, existing cash flows, possible government grants, sponsorship going-rates and other dollar metrics of relevance. This is an area of the academic literature that will be difficult to ever fill in any detail due to the nature of micro business.

Marketing Metrics

Amongst the more common metrics of marketing performance in any situation have been the following:

> *Profits, sales revenue, market share, new products, customer complaints and returns, customer inquiries, client referrals, service quality, sales employee performance [Phillips et al, 2003]; and the $ value of a particular customer, customer churn/turnover rate, customer satisfaction ratings, and brand awareness scores [Reibstein, 2004].*

In a recent major review of marketing metrics by the Australian Marketing Institute [AMI, 2004, p 2], which involved substantial surveying of CEO's and Marketing Directors, the AMI concluded that the main marketing "metrics should be linked to strategy, and should include as a minimum four key elements: return on marketing investment, customer satisfaction, market share in targeted segments, and brand equity".

They then elaborated on this by identifying the key metrics for best practice used by leading organisations, and thus those listed below are clearly from larger businesses. This study and this author have not been able to find an equivalent listing for SME's, micro-

businesses or entrepreneurial ventures, so some adjustment and reinterpretation of the larger firm findings will be required. In terms of financial marketing metrics they identify sales, profit, and relative share of marketing investment. With regard to brand equity metrics, the main ones are relative brand market penetration; relative brand perception, affinity and familiarity scores; relative brand availability in retail outlets; and relative brand loyalty, churn and retention. As for marketing innovation metrics they list measures of commitment to strategic goals; measures of how innovative the culture is such as the level of a learning organisation and 'a freedom to fail' in experimenting for the customers benefit; and innovation outcome measures such as the number of new initiatives, new products launched and the percentage of total revenues from recent new launches. Finally, there are sales employee-based metrics such as measures of customer empathy and service, the perceived adequacy of resources supporting the sales effort, and so on. These metrics are clearly oriented towards larger, more highly structured businesses, so one can only hypothesise on which could be useful and feasible as measures of entrepreneurial micro-business success. In the case study this level of quantification of marketing performance was not mentioned (though activities within these categories were indirectly alluded to in the interviews), and this is likely in most micro businesses where the cost-benefit to research and do the metrics are unlikely to be worthwhile. Nevertheless, as these small businesses progress in size and sophistication, they ought to consider those metrics that are the most valuable and achievable within their resources.

The Celebrity Marketing Process

Rein et al (1987) point out in their seminal work on celebrity and visibility that "performers achieve stardom not as a result or irrepressible talent or accident, but because of a strategic process…Although they scarcely ever perceive what they are doing as a marketing process…(it) is precisely that: studying a sector's audience, then searching for the right attributes and characteristics to distinguish their clients or themselves from the competition".(p 65)[see also Kotler and Scheff 2000]. They go on: " a claim of luck is also used to mask strategies that successful professionals would rather not discuss"(p 189). In the PWC Consulting Entertainment Division's report on survival in the attention economy (and few would contest that both the US music market and the SxSW event qualify as attention economies), they advise the following strategies; influence is as important as control, connect well with customers (trade and end-users) as free communities, look early for new revenue streams, target strongly with your promotions, make pricing dynamic and flexible, move internationally earlier rather than later, share the investment risk where possible, only deal with technologies and standards that work reliably, learn from other's mistakes, and exploit change as industry operators converge and merge (Berman and McClellan 2002).

In the case study in question, the management were meticulous about this strategic planning and keeping it to themselves; they carefully researched their potential North American and British partners well in advance, and worked out what each would probably request. They carefully positioned their 2 acts as ideal solutions for these potential partners, created some competitive tension, and then managed the 'bidding war' that is the dream of every manager and their artist. Once the partner was selected and the

agreement reached, the management team then wisely had in place a preliminary celebrity marketing plan (though not a written formal Marketing Plan as such) which could be worked on together with the new label and distributors, publicists etc as a team.

In the case of 'End of Fashion', showcase opportunities were pitched for and taken up in the US (SxSW and selected cities) and in Britain, along with eight weeks solid touring (Murphett 2004), so as to move internationally as soon as feasible. " End of Fashion" in fact signed with EMI worldwide prior to SxSW, the fear of other attractive offers being made to the band's managers at this Event proving a key catalyst and incentive for the signing on good terms for the band. This had been part of the pre-event strategic plan. Very importantly, the objective was to get EMI Australia, lots of A & R/ new talent people, music journalists and others excited, in particular so as to get EMI Worldwide to get a strong sense of ownership of the band and the plan for the overseas territories (especially EMI North America in the case of SxSW). With the credibility of the SxSW showcasing and 'buzz' within the US, the plan then involved shows in London to get EMI (UK) and Parlaphone as excited and involved. Thus they recorded their first EP and travelled overseas (including SxSW) before doing an Australian tour and debuting a local album, such was the wish to break internationally and quickly (as 'Jet' had done before them).The other major objective was to achieve a good publishing deal worldwide, and so many EMI publishers were invited to their showcase. While this was not achieved, EMI recommendations to their Australian branch were accepted for that territory, and this was clearly leveraged out of their high SxSW profile. An offer was made by one US publisher, and thus new revenue streams in terms of export dollars from overseas publishing are very likely. For 'End of Fashion', the primary objective in the Marketing Plan was " to connect with the trade at SxSW and elsewhere, not the punters (potential fans) necessarily, but next time we'll do more shows" (band manager). Incidentally, the band did apply and get accepted for SxSW 2005, but due to a clash in recording opportunities, shows and bad flight timing, they and their management have put non-SxSW matters ahead in their priorities. One can conclude from this that, despite the past success associated with the SxSW event, the band and their management did not regard it as an absolute necessity to attend again. It is worth also mentioning that the international part of the strategy for both acts was enhanced by obtaining suitable international lawyers while at SxSW.

In the case of Shane Nicholson who was further down the track of his international launch, the primary objective at SxSW 2004 and the scheduled 3 week tour was to substantially support the US release of his EP, and be clearly seen doing so. Very close attention was given in the marketing planning and program to liaising with his Seattle-based record label, Virt Records (won at SxSW 2003), and the local distributors, radio stations and venues. The strategy was focussed on finding the ones with the most potential and leverage. This resulted in his appropriately named song " Nice to be here" becoming the 5th most played song on a leading targeted radio station against many established artists with much larger budgets. They did not achieve their objective of an agreement with a good Booking Agent, but one was obtained later out of a referral from their label at the event. Also at SxSW a sponsorship deal was signed with a New York clothing company who wish to keep supporting him with a (new revenue stream) fee

while he wears their branded clothes. At the event a co-songwriting deal was signed with a top LA writer, with the planned release of one of the songs in the lucrative German market (thus potentially bringing songwriting royalties in time into Australia, and again capturing new revenue streams and engaging new overseas market as soon as possible). A substantial US music retailer who saw his showcase at the 2003 SxSW has featured his EP there (apparently one normally pays to be featured), and returned to the 2004 event and the New York show "as a fan" (with potential significant distribution opportunities). As Shane Nicholson's tour and launch unfolded around the other targeted cities of the US (with many of the contacts made at SxSW in both 2003 and 2004), increased legitimacy was achieved (see below) through glowing testimonials from music critics, local newspapers and radio stations, and other artists. This enabled confidence for others to add him as a celebrity to their play-list across the country, and obviously brought in a different source of new revenue.

In a 1996 study of successful and unsuccessful new ventures, Peters and Brush (1996) found that the more successful and fastest growing ones focussed their market information and industry intelligence on customers, competitors, and the immediate industry, whereas the others were more focussed on general economic and demographic trends and thus less in touch with their specific target market. Also in 1996 Zimmerer and Scarborough (1996, p 150) found that "successful small businesses operating globally had chosen to concentrate on particular market segments and serving them better than their broad-based rivals". With the US music market being such an enormous entity and with the rule of thumb that bands in the US break regionally rather than nationally, the case study ventures had naturally chosen to be highly oriented around even more tightly defined target markets. The SxSW event, and intense research either side of it, were used to provide the details of the micro markets being targeted first (eg Seattle, LA and New York City).

External Legitimacy

In a British study of cultural entrepreneurs in the music industry, Wilson and Stokes [2004, p 220] first drew on the American work of Hannan in the 1980's who found that entrepreneurial failure in new ventures [such as getting artists launched and established in the North American territories via SxSW, in this case]

> *"exist where small firms in new business populations initially lack external 'legitimacy' – a social judgement of acceptance, appropriateness and desirability. A key strategic issue affecting entrepreneurs attempting to establish and grow new ventures is their ability to attract such legitimacy – which in turn influences how that business can access new resources".*

Wilson and Stokes found the same in their study of small British record labels attempting to access financial markets, and while the specific players are different to those in this present paper, the parallels are sufficiently close to warrant comparison.

In their paper Wilson and Stokes usefully identify four main types of external legitimacy: pragmatic legitimacy, which is legitimacy gained by the external parties believing that

any involvement will be in their own best pragmatic interests; moral legitimacy, which comes from acceptance of their activities and mores as members of the [music] industry; cognitive legitimacy, which comes from acceptance that one does business 'like them' and has no intention of upsetting 'the way things are done around here'; and industry legitimacy, by being members of industry groups, professional bodies and so on.

In the case study examined in this paper, the artist managers were particularly attentive to earning and maintaining these four types of external legitimacies, and although it cannot be proven, this would have contributed significantly to their SxSW successes. This was done through repeated attendance at SxSW and other industry conferences, membership of the International Music Managers Forum, careful prior planning on the objectives and other interests of the people with whom they wanted to do business, and frequent networking interactions where potential partners could be reassured of their industry knowledge, expertise, contacts and 'club' membership. Individual dyadic relationships were especially important in influencing or developing legitimacy [Wilson and Stokes 2004], and several key names were cited by the artist managers in the case study. It should be added that the two Australian acts themselves deliberately played a major part in this legitimation process by interacting with ' the right ' cross-section of industry figures as well as touring as ' international acts', thereby reassuring people of their own legitimacy and their ability to be legitimate global performers, and even as acceptable local 'American' acts as well [such as was done by INXS, and AC/DC, for instance].

Enjoyment/R & R Objectives and Impression Management Objectives

One of the main personal, non-business objectives of attendees to events is enjoyment, rest and recreation [Allen et al 2005, Hemmerling 1998]. Thus how well SxSW was enjoyed and appreciated would be one measure of 'success', and in the case studies covered here, the management team of the two acts did express both considerable enjoyment and also having been significantly impressed by the size and atmosphere of the event. Linked to the enjoyment and impressive nature of a special event is the quality and quantity of personal contacts they made, reported to be also critical in a survey by the AIPC in London {Lerwill 2003).

Networking and Pecking Order Objectives

Nijkamp [2003, p395] has concluded from his European study that "a modern entrepreneur tends to become increasingly a creative network operator and manager".
This entrepreneurial networking is difficult to interpret operationally in terms of specific metrics, but is nevertheless a persistent mantra of most service and IP industries.

"An important characteristic of the marketing of leisure services is that people are also part of the product …Much of the visitors' satisfaction comes from their interactions with other people attending the event. This means event marketers need to ensure:

1. visitor segments within their audience are compatible; and
2. there is an ease of interaction among people on-site" [Allen et al 2005, p211].

While the managers of the musicians in the case study did not specify noticing specific attempts by the event organizers to achieve 'compatible visitor segments', they were able to state unequivocally that their networking objectives were successful and were facilitated. Austrade and the Australian agents did put on a successful 'Australian Showcase and Barbeque', and this was successful in segmenting compatible visitors who were specifically interested in, or invited to be interested in, Australian showcasing artists. Ease of interaction across the entire event was acceptable bearing in mind the sheer size of SxSW, with the managers in the case study having achieved their networking and communications objectives by good forward planning, their person-ability and their pre-planned technology usage.

In his description of the criteria by which participants judge an event, Hammerling states that

> "secondary issues, such as mixing with the stars of the show, social opportunities, corporate hospitality and capacity to move up the seating chain from general admission to premium seating are all part of the evaluation of spectator success." [1997, in Allen et al 2005, p96]

While the managers of these two Australian acts did report extensive 'networking' opportunity objectives and achievements, this was obviously too difficult to quantify or to be specific. Nevertheless, they regarded their networking objectives as having been "very successful". This aspect of the music industry is practically universally acknowledged as being crucial for success [Jackson and Oliver 2003], though few, if any, offer definitive evidence that networking success with A or B is more important that with C or D, or that artists X achieved significant success without networking with E or F. This could a fruitful area for future research.

In their literature review of network theory and the Arts, Jackson and Oliver (2003) offer from various empirical and theoretical sources some of the main attributes of successful networks. Amongst these are: the sensitive use of contacts, so as not to harm the relationship; a steady flow of shared accurate market information; learning, scale and scope economies; shared risks; effective outsourcing of value-chain stages and business functions; loose informal ties rather than rigid strong ties; legitimising the network, selecting partners with balancing rather than similar strengths; trust, reciprocity, forbearance, and avoidance of opportunism by either partner; alliance pro-activeness; early speedy contact; links with mutual trade bodies and industry events; and good relationship marketing. While this author does not have evidence from the artists' managers of what they did with regard to each of these main attributes, evidence was given, for example, of the sharing of quality market and marketing information, plans for sharing and out-sourcing of tasks, proactive co-operation offers with regard to the US launch of the CD, close liaising at SxSW and with Austrade's US office, and general relationship marketing plan sharing. Having said that, Jackson and Oliver report on a study specifically on entrepreneurial networks in SME's in Sweden by Johannisson in 1998 and one in the UK by Curran in 1993 which both showed that the importance of networks in SMEs were being overstated at the expense of SME fundamentals such as the

strength of the product offering, adequate working capital, competent marketing and so on. It is worth noting that, in the interviews with the artist managers in this case study, the fundamentals of the deals and planning were focussed upon much more.

With regard to the pecking order objectives indicated by Hammerling above, one could not find any event management literature providing any evidence either way, though the business and social evolution literature is obviously not as silent. There is little doubt that, while any improvement in one's position in any pecking order is a sign of 'success' by some, the management attendees in this case study expressed no overt interest in this at all.

Foreign Market Entry Mode Choice

"Among the most critical issues in international market entry strategy is the selection of an appropriate entry mode [Terpstra and Sarathy 1994]. In addition to determining the amount of resources the firm will commit to the foreign market, initial entry mode choice significantly affects the performance and longevity of a foreign operation {Li 1995; Root 1994)" [quoted in Ekeledo and Sivakumar 1998, p 274]. Musical acts are classified as both 'hard and soft' services, because their 'soft services' [performances, compositions etc] can be separately 'tangibilised' [hardened] in the form of CD's, DVD's and so on. The typical entry mode options for hard services are licensing, exporting, management contract, joint venture and sole ownership, with the selection being determined by a choice of where the production facilities will be and the level of involvement in or control over the foreign operation the business wants or can afford or reasonably ask for. Initial foreign market entry mode needs to be as flexible as possible because of international marketing inexperience and likely shifts in goals, objectives, relationships and circumstances, and this is as appropriate for larger firms as it is for entrepreneurs [Ekeledo and Sivakumar 1998]. In the case study, the artist management company utilised this by deliberately choosing to move forward with licensing as a lower cost, more flexible approach, and where it was able, to license to one of the major record labels to be able to access their much greater marketplace power and resources.

Event Service Expectations, Perceptions and Quality

Allen et al [2005, p202] remind us that "from the viewpoint of a festival or event consumer, quality service occurs when expectations of the event match perceptions of the service experienced". These perceptions are based on both technical and functional qualities of the experience [Gronroos 1990], but because it is difficult to evaluate technical quality, most evaluation concentrates on the functional [Allen et al 2005]. Quoting Parasuraman et al's SERVQUAL contribution, Allen et al (2005) adapt their five functional service aspects to the evaluation of the event experience:

1. assurance – assuring attendees of the knowledge-ability and helpfulness of the event people, and assurances of safety and well-being
2. empathy – event staff seem to understand attendee customer needs
3. responsiveness – staff actually do respond to reasonable requests
4. reliability – what actually happens is what the advertising promised
5. tangibles – all the physical settings and equipment meet expectations.

In support of the SERVQUAL approach, Thrane [2000, quoted in Allen et al 2005, p 204] found that "aspects of quality measured by SERVQUAL do contribute to jazz festival patron's satisfaction and intentions to revisit". This would indicate that attendees had explicit or implicit objectives with regard to these 5 aspects and were judging their success or failure at the event in part on how well these aspects were satisfied in their particular case.

With respect to our case study in question, the management of the two acts expressed general satisfaction and perceived 'success' in that they had successfully gained a lot of new knowledge about the North American market at the event, had been content with their safety, well-being and the attentiveness of the event people, and that the tangible physical environment had met their expectations.

Conclusion

This paper has attempted to help fill the gap in the literature on success measures for micro-business entrepreneurs involved in large significant industry events, as well as to be in some way helpful to such businesses in their 'event management' and celebrity marketing strategies. Some key relevant resources in the literature were matched with the case study of two up-and-coming Australian acts and their management company as they tackled both international markets and the SxSW music industry event. It was clear that there is not presently a sufficiently solid body of knowledge on micro-business objectives and success measures with regard to significant international events, and that further research is needed. Having said that, this case study of two successful businesses being managed by the same artist management company showed a remarkable use of the recommendations for success suggested by the literature cited, even though the managers concerned had not read this academic literature. The two cases suggest that, rather than being dwarfed and rendered insignificant, a micro-business can achieve most of their objectives and considerable success in attending a large event provided they set realistic but challenging goals, give meticulous attention to detail, give as much attention to pre- and post-Event work as the event itself, and utilise the fundamentals of both small business management and celebrity marketing, both within their particular industry but also the general principles available in the literature.

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Event Industry Issues 1

An Exploratory Study of Demand Levels for EMBOK in the Governmental and Non Governmental Sectors of Australia, Canada, China, United Kingdom, and the United States*

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In 1997 he received the first Lifetime Achievement award for service to the industry. The 25,000 readers of Event Solutions Magazine voted for him to receive the Industry Visionary Award for 2000 for his contributions to event management education and research. When asked to describe his favorite special events, he quickly names two, his sons, Max and Sam!

Managing Risk at Community-Sponsored Events: A comparative study

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Abstract

This paper reports on a study into the risk management policies and strategies employed at a community-sponsored event staged in metropolitan Sydney, and at a similar event in regional New South Wales. By adopting a typology outlined in the literature, the research focused on seven categories of risk. The paper canvasses the literature on each of these categories, and explains the theoretical framework for the study. This framework was characterised as an "event management action planning cycle" which took its events practice orientation from the events management literature. The concept of an "action planning cycle" was intended to focus on an event manager's reflective enquiry of the planning and implementation stages, and thereby drew on notions of action coupled with reflection, which are a hallmark of action research methods. The cyclical model anticipated that evaluative feedback and reflections of the planning and implementation stages of any event provide "learning" that can be taken by the event manager into later iterations of the "action planning cycle", when the same or a similar event is subsequently staged. This type of cyclical iterative process was proposed to offer a suitable backdrop to the development of a "best practice". The research used a qualitative approach to capture data before, during and after the events studied, including pre- and post-event interviews of the event managers, as well as researcher observations during the events. The comparative nature of the research, coupled with the longitudinal perspective of the data sources, was claimed to enable a relatively sophisticated understanding of the risk management strategies and practices employed at the events studied. The conclusions of this study suggest that there is no best practice for managing risks at events. In fact, the practice of risk management would seem to be variable according to the nature and characteristics of events, and this points to the need for event managers to possess a degree of familiarity with the concepts of risk management, in order to exercise appropriate discretion in the variable application of the principles. The quest for a best practice might more likely be found in the ability of event managers to undertake a reflective evaluation of the planning and implementation in each iteration of the action planning cycle. This is taken to have implications for events management education programs, in that the greater demands placed on event managers to effectively manage risk will require the skill of reflection, as well as extensive familiarity with the concepts of risk management.

Keywords: Events management; risk management; metropolitan, regional events; events management education

Introduction

In recent times, and certainly since the attack on the New York World Trade Centre in 2001, the tourism and hospitality industry has been plagued by a series of terrorism-inspired disasters, as well as public health and natural crises, which have had a profound impact on national and international tourism and hospitality business (Pizam, 2002). This has provided an impetus for the industry to focus increased attention on its risk management policies and strategies (Ritchie, 2004).

In an apparently unrelated development, events management has become a rapidly growing sector of the tourism and hospitality industry, at both domestic and international levels (Hede, Jago and Deery, 2003). With the growth in the number and types of events since the 1990s (Jago & Shaw, 1998), the special event industry was said to approach a maturity around the turn of the century (Goldblatt, 2000). These developments are claimed to have led to a resultant growth in those attending events: in general terms at least, more events could be expected to give rise to more overall attendances at events.

Against this backdrop, the cost of public liability insurance in New South Wales rose sharply, for community sector organisations, in the early years of the century (Morris, 2003). Coupled with the tourism industry's heightened awareness of risk management, the growth in the number and types of events and the increases in the cost of public liability insurance, the management of risk at events could be understood to represent a matter of real concern for event organisers and managers. It is not surprising, then, that the policies and strategies employed by event managers to effectively manage risk was identified as an important area for further research and study (Hede, Jago and Deery, 2003).

Yet, there is no events management sector-wide standardised policy or procedure for managing risks at events: any policies and procedures tend to be unique to particular events, and they appear to vary according to location. This paper reports on a study that examines these issues with a view to discovering any best practice for the management of risk at events. The study is of the risk management policies and strategies employed at a community-sponsored event staged in metropolitan Sydney, and at a similar event in regional New South Wales; both during 2004. By adopting a typology proposed by Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell and Harris (2002), the research focused on the following categories of risk:

- Crowd management and control;
- Financial risks;
- Alcohol-related risk;
- Communication;
- Environmental risks;
- Emergency services; and
- Occupational health and safety.

This paper canvasses the literature on these categories of risk, and lays out a theoretical framework for the study. This framework was characterised as an "event management action planning cycle" which takes its events practice orientation from Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell and Harris (2002) and its methodological orientation

from the action research paradigm (Reason and Bradbury, 2001). The paper explains the research methods used to gather qualitative data for the investigation and, in its conclusion, outlines how the comparative nature of the research was used to capture variations in risk management policies and strategies according to the geographical location and other dimensions of the events. The conclusion also contemplates how the study might contribute to the development of a best practice for these types of events.

Throughout the research, "participants" was used to refer to the *research* participants, although it was recognised that, in the context of events, the word might also indicate those members of the public (and others) who attend events. To avoid ambiguity, "attendees" was used to refer to those who attended the events, and "participants" was limited to refer only to the *research* participants. The same conventions are adopted throughout this paper.

Risk Management at Events

"Festivals and events are an important part of the tourism industry. They serve as a powerful tool to attract tourists during the off-season and to create an image and awareness for an area" (Goeldner and Ritchie, 2003, p. 224). While economic benefits are particularly important for regional destinations, festivals and events can provide significant recreational activities for local residents, and this therefore makes such festivals and events just as important to residents as for tourist businesses. By incorporating events into the marketing of tourism products, "events can provide newness, freshness and change, which sustain local interest in a destination and enhance its appeal to visitors" (Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell and Harris, 2002, p. 36).

Risk management

Risk, as defined by Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell and Harris (2002) in the event context, is "the likelihood of the special event or festival not fulfilling its objectives" (p. 278). Factors such as site design and layout, large crowds, health and safety, and movement of equipment, can lead to potential hazards and disasters if not managed properly. So, there are two key steps: the assessment of hazards and the implementation of preventative measures. However, risk management is not only about identifying risks and developing ways to manage them. It is also about identifying possible opportunities that may arise, such as enhancing the company's reputation, and implementing policies and strategies that can contribute to the event experience. "Risk management is a process consisting of well-defined steps in which, when taken in sequence, support better decision making by contributing to a greater insight into risks and their impacts. It is as much about identifying opportunities as it is about avoiding losses" (Tourism Queensland, 2004). In a broader context, too, risk management can also be seen to encompass not only capturing any extant opportunities, but also actively ensuring that no likely opportunities are lost (Walker, 2001).

While events would seem to be vulnerable to violent incidents, it could be anticipated that attendees may not tolerate a high level of security when that security impacts upon event experience. What's more, attendances may even decline as a result of too-high security measures. With this vulnerability of events, O'Connor (2004) warns that "tourist and hospitality enterprises must have contingency crisis plans" (p. 101). Plans

should target negative feelings from the public regarding terrorist attacks, and can even be used to restore confidence amongst attendees and the community (O'Connor, 2004). Pizam (2002) concurs with this but adds that crisis plans "ought to address such issues as overcoming negative publicity as a result of terrorist acts, [and cover] marketing and promotional plans to increase attendance, etc" (p. 2). The event organisation, host community and attendees should all be aware of the risks and preventative measures imposed to overcome such risks, and correctly planning for risks (such as security breaches or terrorist activities) will not only increase the chances of the success of the event, but also the success and survival of the event management industry.

While a body of literature on crisis and risk management has developed across a wide range of specific industries, including agriculture, health care, manufacturing, processing, mining and oil (Walker, 2001), Ritchie (2004) discusses crisis management in the specific context of the tourism industry. What's more, Sonmez, Backman and Allen (1993) state that "disaster planning or crisis management by tourist destinations translate into risk assessment and risk management for special events" (p. 117). Application of Ritchie's view would suggest that specific strategies should be developed to deal with certain crises or risks which may occur before, during as well as after the event. He contemplates "a pre-event stage allowing the development of strategies and plans; a stage immediately before or after a crisis or disaster occurs which requires the implementation of strategies to deal with its impacts; continued implementation of strategies to control or reduce the severity of the crisis/disaster; and a long term recovery or resolution phase allowing for evaluation and feedback into future prevention and planning strategies for destinations and businesses" (2004, p. 673).

The seven categories of risk proposed by Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell and Harris (2002) are now discussed.

- *Crowd management and control*

Events must not only maximise profit but they should also attract, and be able to efficiently accommodate, the targeted number of attendees. The terms "crowd management" and "crowd control" are used to identify two quite different activities: crowd management includes "…all measures taken in the normal process of facilitating the movement and enjoyment of crowds: seating, ushering, crowd conditions, noise, etc" (Berlonghi, 1990, p. 158). Crowd control, on the other hand, includes "…all measures taken once crowds are beginning to or have gotten out of control: arrests, fights, ejections, etc. These crowds need to be restrained from unlawful and unsafe behaviours" (Berlonghi, 1990, p. 158). Clearly, if proper crowd management and control strategies and procedures are not developed and implemented, the ramifications can be devastating (Abbott and Abbott, 2000).

Because the development and implementation of crowd management and control strategies and policies can encroach on the attendee's experience (for example, excessive overcrowding and waiting lines), event managers must have an "…understanding of visitor expectations and evaluations" (Mowen, Vogelsong, and Graefe, 2003, p. 63). The key issue for the event manager, therefore, is to find a

balance between the crowd management and control measures undertaken to achieve event objectives and attendees' expectations and enjoyment of the event.

Crowding at events or within the host community could usually be seen to be a negative impact, although Stanley and McCool (1989) note that "the perception of 'crowded' is generally based more on the character and behaviour of other visitors, and the value system of users and density of the number of visitors encountered" (cited in Lee and Graefe, 2003, p. 2). So, "in situations where people are expecting (if not desiring) crowds as part of their experience, crowding can be a positive factor" (Mowen, Vogelsong and Graefe, 2003, p. 64).

- *Financial risks*

Managing for financial risks typically includes financial planning and budgeting, but it can also require taking out suitable insurance cover, complying with necessary regulations and securing requisite licences and permits.

The preparation of a financial plan can require access to both current and historical financial and operations data, cash flow and other projections, break even analysis, the provision for finance and sponsorship arrangements and budgets (Sorin, 2003). When assembling a financial budget, event managers need to identify the financial objectives of the event, because these ultimately determine the structure, style and type of event staged (McCabe, Poole, Weeks and Leiper, 2000). "Anticipating costs impose parameters or a framework when putting the budget together and these, combined with an organiser's previous experience and detailed quotes from potential suppliers, provide the building blocks on which the budget is constructed" (Rodgers, 2003, p. 148). At a broader level, the financial accounting of events include not only an income and expenditure calculation for the event itself, but also an account of the flow-on impacts to the wider community or region, and the sometimes delay benefits derived by sponsors and organisers (Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell and Harris, 2002).

While it seems obvious that event insurances should cover matters like workers compensation and provision for other potentially damaging risks, insurance is also often required for occurrences like "event cancellation, no shows, crowd congestion, lack of parking, the use of special effects and the presence of obscene/violent performing acts" (Abbott and Abbott, 2000, p. 108). With the recent spate of terrorism-inspired disasters as well as public health and natural crisis, which are often seen to have a connection with the hospitality and tourism industry and sometimes even the events management sector (Pizam 2002), coupled with a perceived heightened tendency towards litigation, public liability insurance has become a significant concern for event managers (Hede, Jago, and Deery 2003). While larger events with more creditability and financial backing may be able to obtain insurance with relative ease, smaller community events can sometimes face the apparently insurmountable task of securing public liability cover. "One council requires $5 million level of insurance for minor events and a $10 million level of insurance for major events" (Van Der Wagen, 2001, p.47).

Event size often determines the need to adhere to regulations and to secure permits and licences; and compliance could be required at Federal, State or municipal levels. Activities which trigger the need for such compliance can include music amplification,

installation of amusements, temporary buildings, cleaning programs and traffic control (Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell and Harris, 2002).

- *Alcohol-related risks*

Just as alcohol is commonplace in society, it has the potential to be of particular significance at most types of public and private events. Liquor licensing and Responsible Service of Alcohol programs are relevant, although event managers also have access to "house policies" like no-alcohol and no-glass zones (Simons, 1996).

- *Communication*

In a risk management context, communication has a number of dimensions. In the pre-event stage, communication can refer to the event organiser's marketing-related communications with prospective attendees and, during the event, the concept can include on-site signage as a form of communication with attendees (Berlonghi 1990).

Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell and Harris (2002) have proposed the development of an event manual by which an event manager communicates with staff and volunteers, for matters like laying out the strategies and action plans for the management of the event. A manual can also act as guidelines for staff and volunteers reporting back to event management, especially on hazards and crises encountered during an event.

- *Environmental risks*

With increased environmental awareness at events, waste reduction and energy conservation programs are seen as appropriate socially responsible practices at events (McCabe, Poole, Weeks and Leiper, 2000). Potential risks like pollution and spills can be harmful not only to attendees but also to the environment in the host community (Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell and Harris, 2002, p. 282). Noise pollution, traffic congestion and parking considerations are also relevant.

- *Emergency services*

"An awareness of the nearest emergency services and their working requirements is mandatory for the event management" (Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell and Harris, 2002, p. 282). Depending on the size of the event, it may even be necessary to make fire, police and ambulance services aware of the event beforehand, and emergency procedures appropriate to the nature of the event should be implemented (Van Der Wagen 2001).

- *Occupational health and safety*

This category of risk provides the guiding framework for food safety procedures at events, and there is some suggestion that personal hygiene and food-handling practices of workers are often inadequate (Boo, Ghiselli and Almanza 2000). Occupational health and safety also accommodates mechanisms for the prevention of accidents and injury in the generic work environment, including events (Van Der Wagon, 2001).

Risk management research and education

"The fact that little information is available regarding special event crisis management indicates a serious need to research crisis management activities of special events" (Sonmez, Backman and Allen, 1993, p. 117). This view has been supported more recently by Hede, Jago and Deery (2003), who suggest that best practice might be an area worthy of further investigation.

Such calls for more research into risk management at events have implications, too, for events management education. It is anticipated that any forthcoming additional research into risk management will have the capacity to enhance events management education programs, and there is already some indication of a growing interest in the risk management aspects of events management education (O'Toole, 2004).

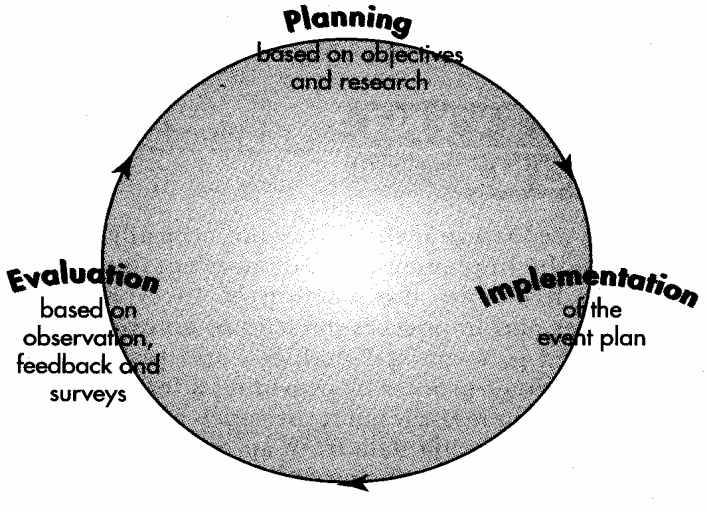
Study Method

This study draws on these seven categories of risk (Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell & Harris, 2002) to explore any variations in the practice of risk management at two related, but different types of events: a metropolitan and a rural event in New South Wales. While exploration of such variations has the potential to identify any common or preferred practices for different events, the study also adopts a longitudinal perspective. This is because the management of risk involves an understanding of pre-event planning as well as post-event evaluation (Ritchie, 2004), so the study has a focus on these key chronological points.

"Event Management Action Planning Cycle"

A three-stage "event management action planning cycle" provided a theoretical framework for understanding an event manager's work in planning, implementing and evaluating events. This framework is represented by the practice-oriented evaluative model proposed by Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell and Harris (2002): see Figure 1. The concept of an "action planning cycle" was intended to focus on an event manager's reflective enquiry of the planning and implementation stages, and thereby draw on notions of action coupled with reflection, which are a hallmark of action research methods (Reason and Bradbury, 2001). The cyclical model anticipates that evaluative feedback and reflections of the planning and implementation stages of any event provide "learning" that can be taken by the event manager into later iterations of the "action planning cycle", when the same or a similar event is subsequently staged. This type of cyclical iterative process was proposed to offer a suitable backdrop to the development of a "best practice". Ritchie (2004) was taken to lend support for the application of this type of framework to the identification and management of potential risks.

Figure 1: Three-stage evaluative model



Source: Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell and Harris, 2002, p. 390.

The iterative cycle was an integral part of the study design. The premise was that the event management action planning cycle would enable event managers to observe, measure and monitor the risk management policies and strategies implemented at an event and, in the reflective evaluation stage, to determine the need for refinements and other changes that could be taken into subsequent events. This process for continual improvement had the capacity to contribute to a best practice in relation to risk management.

Data collection methods and procedures

This paper reports on the qualitative components of the research, which were intended to capture data at all three stages in the action planning cycle: before, during and after the events studied. A convenience sampling method was used to approach the managers or organisers of a selected community-sponsored event to be staged in metropolitan Sydney, and a similar event in regional New South Wales. These event managers were invited to participate in the study.

Qualitative data was gathered through semi-structured interviews with the event managers, both before and after the events. This data was used to determine not only the specific risk management policies and strategies that were planned for implementation at the events but, after each event, the data also captured the event managers' reflections about how those planned policies and strategies played out during the events. The pre-event interviews were recorded within two weeks of each event, and the post-event interviews with the same event managers were taken within a two-week period after the events.

In addition, researcher observations were made during each event, and these were recorded as field notes, based on the seven categories of risk identified in the literature. With the pre- and post-event interviews of the event managers, the researcher observations enabled the collection of data from each of the three stages of the action planning cycle: before, during and after each event. This meant that, with

the collection of data at three key chronological points during and either side of the events, the research provided a longitudinal perspective on the management of risk at these events. Given that risk management requires pre-event planning and impact-analysis after a crisis (Ritchie, 2004), the longitudinal perspective was taken to be important to the phenomenon studied.

Study Sites

The two events chosen for study were both community-sponsored events: one staged in the Sydney metropolitan area, and the other in a regional area of New South Wales. Both events were staged during August 2004. While the events both had a food or hospitality theme, the choice of the disparate locations was designed to allow for the possible identification of geographically based variations in risk management practices.

To maintain a level of consistency, which might later facilitate comparative analysis of the data, the semi-structured interview questions for the pre-event interviews with the event managers were standardised between the events, and the same approach was taken for the post-event interviews. The interview schedules allowed a degree of flexibility which was intended to facilitate a more conversational interview in which the event managers might feel unconstrained to offer more in-depth information (Cooper and Schindler, 2003).

Results and Discussion

The pre-event interviews of the participant event managers revealed the following general information about the events.

- *The Metropolitan Produce Market*

The Metropolitan Produce Market was staged, on a monthly basis, in a Sydney local government Council's grounds on a Sunday, from 8:00am-12:00noon. It aimed to provide fresh gourmet, organic, minimally-packaged products from primary producers, including, vegetables, salad greens, herbs, free range chicken and eggs, smoked fish, fresh flowers, olives and oils, cheeses, free range beef, lamb, game and fresh pasta.

It had been held monthly for the previous five years, and averaged 4000-5000 attendees. Organised by the local Community Centre, the objectives of the market were to provide fresh produce in a convivial market setting, and to provide a fundraising activity for the community centre and its programs.

- *Regional Food and Wine Festival*

The Regional Food and Wine Festival was a three-day event designed to showcase food and wine from the local regions. Staged annually in the grounds of the local Civic Centre, the festival included a seafood buffet on the Friday evening, a gourmet food and wine expo and tasting on the Saturday and, on the Sunday, a day of food, wine and entertainment activities.

The festival had been staged annually for the previous ten years, and averaged 4000 attendees over the three days of the event. Organised by the local Chamber of Tourism and Business in conjunction with local restaurants and wineries, one of the objectives of the festival was to increase tourism to the regional community and the surrounding areas.

Risk management policies and strategies

For both events, the pre- and post-event interviews of the event managers and the researcher observations taken during the events enabled identification and understanding of the risk management policies and strategies that were planned and implemented at each event, as well as an evaluation of them. The method used for interpreting results was to focus on the seven categories of risk management identified in the literature, and to consider the policies and strategies implemented at each event. The data were scanned for indications and incidences that seemed to confirm the adequacy of the risk management policies and strategies employed, and for any contrary indications and incidences that might point to improvements in future events.

Both events relied on the support of their local community in order to survive and to sustain their success in the future. However, the events differed in terms of the experience offered, as well as their frequency – the Metropolitan Produce Market was run monthly, whereas the Regional Food and Wine Festival was staged annually. While this pointed to some conceptual differences between the events studied, the facts that both events were community sponsored, and had a food focus, were taken to be a suitable basis for comparison.

Areas for refinement and change

While the risk management policies and strategies implemented at each event generally appeared appropriate for the type of event staged, the following discussion outlines likely areas for refinement and change in later events of the type.

- *Financial risks: insurance*

For both events, insurance posed a problem when stallholders were required, as a condition of their taking a stall, to take out public liability insurance cover. For this reason, some stallholders at both events withdrew before the event because of the high cost of the insurance. This had been identified, in the literature, as posing a potential deep-rooted, industry-wide problem for many events (Van Der Wagen, 2001; Hede, Jago and Deery, 2003). As a solution to this, in such cases, it might be appropriate for event managers to obtain a blanket insurance policy to include cover for all stallholders' risks. While this could be anticipated to pose an added financial burden for events, event managers could seek proportional reimbursement from stallholders for the blanket insurance premium obtained. Clearly, this adds to the knowledge and skills required of event managers to manage such relatively complex insurance arrangements, and there would seem to be consequent implications for events management education.

- *Financial risks: agreements with stallholders*

Because the practice at the Metropolitan Produce Market was to make arrangements with stallholders "in good faith", without formal agreements, this made the market vulnerable to late cancellations by stallholders, and the data indicated that this had the potential to threaten the viability of the market. It would seem that event managers could address this threat by adopting the practice of entering into letters of agreement with stallholders (as a form of informal but binding contract), in order to hold stallholders to account for their initial agreement to take a stall. Support for this practice can be found in Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell and Harris (2002). Because event managers would therefore be required to have some understanding of legal matters, the suggestion has implications for content of events management education programs.

For the Regional Food and Wine Festival, on the other hand, because the event was staged annually, the pre-event focus for the event manager was to source additional stallholders, rather than concentrate on securing those already recruited. Also, because of the prolonged, all-weekend nature of the festival, and because festival activities were generated from local businesses, the late cancellation of any stallholder was not only less likely, but also reduced the overall impact on the festival as a whole.

- *Communication: the event manual*

Data collected in the post-event interviews indicated that the event manuals used at both events were not complete. For example, the manual for the Metropolitan Produce Market was found not to include procedures for the pre-emptory notification to fire, police and ambulance services before each market day. However, it was recognized that, even without the pre-emptory notification procedures, the contents of the manual may have been appropriate for the nature and characteristics of the event. Of relevance here was the regular frequency of the event and the absence of potential hazards like alcohol facilities and entertainment equipment.

On the other hand, the event manual used for the Regional Food and Wine Festival was found lacking in breadth and detail of contents, which may have been a result of the lack of continuity in the management of the event. It was concluded that because the Regional Food and Wine Festival was only staged annually, sometimes with a new event manager, there was perhaps a stronger need to more fully document procedures in an event manual. For example, in the post-event interview, it was discovered that a volunteer worker with financial responsibilities had failed to adequately perform the required tasks. There was perhaps a stronger possibility that this failure could have been overcome if the required tasks were documented in the event manual.

- *Communication: marketing the event*

For both events studied, the event managers had planned for higher attendance levels than were actually achieved. It was contemplated that, because the event managers appeared unclear about the market segments targeted as attendees, this failure to meet attendance objectives may have resulted from an inability to develop effective marketing strategies in relation to defined target markets. This appears to point to a

lack of marketing knowledge on the part of the event managers, and has implications for events management education programs.

- *Community support*

For both events, further community support and backing seemed to be needed in order to support event objectives, and this was especially so in the case of the Regional Food and Wine Festival because of the reliance on local businesses to generate festival activities.

In the evaluative reflection as part of the post-event interview for the Metropolitan Produce Market, the event manager outlined a proposed new promotional strategy to seek the support of local businesses to distribute promotional material about the market to the customers and clients of those local businesses. This points to the value of reflection as part of the post-event evaluation, and perhaps identifies how event managers are not initially inclined to see the local community as useful supporters of their events.

- *Event frequency*

Because the monthly Metropolitan Produce Market was able to meet its financial objectives, whereas the annual Regional Food and Wine Festival did not, there was the suggestion that event managers' knowledge and skills acquired through more frequent staging of events appears to lead to a better ability to effectively manage events in line with objectives. The suggestion would seem to have easy familiarity with the notion of experiential learning, which is at least open to event managers who adopt the three-stage evaluative model proposed by Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell and Harris (2002).

Conclusion

The study is understood to have provided a relatively sophisticated understanding of the risk management policies and strategies at events. This is because the research took a comparative approach to its investigation of a community-sponsored metropolitan event and a similar regional one; it focused on two data sources (pre- and post-event interviews of event managers as well as researcher observations); and the study adopted a longitudinal perspective (covering planning, implementation and evaluation stages of each event). Engaging the event managers in discussion about the reflective evaluation of their respective events proved useful in contemplating gaps in risk management practices at the events, and in the geographical dimension of this.

The research has drawn attention to the need for adequate event manuals, and for community commitment to the marketing of such community-sponsored events. The study included a proposal for managing the implications of inflated insurance premiums at community events.

The conclusions of this study suggest that there is no best practice for managing risks at events. In fact, the practice of risk management would seem to be variable according to the nature and characteristics of events, and this points to the need for

event managers to possess a degree of familiarity with the concepts of risk management, in order to exercise appropriate discretion in the variable application of the principles. Because the practice of risk management is so dependent on the nature and characteristics of events, the quest for a best practice might more likely be found in the ability of event managers to undertake a reflective evaluation of the planning and implementation in each iteration of the action planning cycle.

This is taken to have implications for events management education programs, in that the greater demands placed on event managers to effectively manage risk will require the skill of reflection, as well as extensive familiarity with the concepts of risk management.

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Measuring Event Sponsorship Effects: A relationship perspective

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Abstract

For events and festivals to gain sponsorship support from both government and corporations, an evaluation of discernible sponsorship effects is desirable for both sponsors and event organisers. With the emphasis on connecting with markets rather than promoting to them, the formation of relationships through event sponsorship has become a popular strategy within the private sector and it is of growing interest to governments.

This paper uses the results of a study of relationship leveraging by an Australian state government during Rugby World Cup 2003 to develop a theoretical framework for analysing event sponsorship effects (Meenaghan 2001) within critical relationship portfolios (Zolkiewski & Turnbell 2002). The potential application of this framework to a major sporting event such as Rugby World Cup is then outlined.

Introduction

The measurement of sponsorship effects on relationships addressed in this paper has been subject to limited research in the public sector. While empirical research has largely been undertaken on sponsorship effects (Meenaghan 2001) in the private sector, the assertion that event sponsorship creates goodwill (positive attitudes) and influences relationships with sponsors' brands has not been investigated for national or state governments promoting their economic goals. Indeed, the concept of governments 'exploiting rights and marketing benefits' of events (Stokes 2004) may not sit well with all of their constituents. Public sector sponsorship of events can be in the form of direct financial support or the provision of venues, essential services and other support, the latter being the primary focus of Rugby World Cup 2003 sponsorship by Australian state governments. Event development agencies tend to work alongside or within government funded tourism bodies to bid for, manage and market the government's stake in these major events (Mules 1998). Hence, governments, like most sponsors, are investors who expect to see a direct impact on their brand equity (eg. awareness and imagery of their nation or state) as well as an increased injection of dollars to their economies.

Important marketing goals of governments investing in events are to brand their nation or state to attract business from large, corporate investors and to establish new export arrangements. However, decision-making about a substantial investment or export arrangement occurs over the longer term, compared with consumer decisions about products or services consumed in a short timeframe. A major corporate investor is concerned with the long term, economic environment and how its own evolving business and financial strategies fit with the investment opportunities posed by domestic or international governments. Yet interaction between corporate and government partners

during a major sports event does represent an important social exchange episode (Olkokonen, Tikkanen, & Alajoutsijarvl 2000). Here, governments can leverage their business opportunities and create a long term relationship with potential investors. An invitation for priority client groups to participate in event-related hospitality and attend a major event is viewed as a unique avenue to engender further trust and commitment (Farrelly & Quester 2003) between the partners.

From the perspective of one Australian state government serving as an event facilitator and 'sponsor' of RWC 2003 through its management and delivery of state-level games, the mega-event served as a single opportunity to achieve multiple objectives. These objectives were the ability to further relationships in sports science/business, to cement ties within the overseas travel trade and to promote the state's trade and investment potential. The experiential environment and media 'hype' of RWC 2003 meant that the government department, like a private firm, had the chance to achieve a level of 'cut through' within their investor markets. Naturally, the level of strategic success in this relationship development initiative is of interest to a government making that level of event investment. However, governments do find that their relationship marketing and management strategies are difficult to evaluate in the absence of any measurement framework for these sponsorship effects.

In this context, this paper examines the relational leveraging efforts of an Australian state government during RWC 2003 and establishes a framework to guide governments in measuring sponsorship effects within a range of relationship portfolios. The paper firstly addresses the role of events as public sector relationship marketing mediums and their potential impact on the investor relationship life cycle. Secondly, the challenges of measuring the impacts of event sponsorship on relationships are explored. Next, the paper outlines the nature of the research that was undertaken to understand the state government's implementation of relationship marketing and the measurement of its investor relationship building during the Cup. Findings of this research underpin the author's development of the theoretical framework to measure event sponsorship effects.

Events as public sector relationship marketing mediums

From a government's perspective as a marketer of its state's investment 'offer' to domestic and international investors, the primary communication goal is to persuade them of the attractiveness of the state on multiple criteria. Often, the brand messages focus on the existing locational advantages of a state or nation from a manufacturing and/or logistics perspective. Government incentives or price advantages may also influence the investment decision. Some purposes of meeting up with potential clients during events can be to clarify their needs and to further reduce market and transaction uncertainty (Andersen 2001). In this regard, state governments have the opportunity to understand the attributes and disadvantages of competing investment locations for their client's investment and to attempt to reduce any incompatibility between the investors' needs and what the state can offer. This process achieves what Gronroos (2004) refers to as the 'value base' created between the parties. If the state government can manage to

successfully align its resources (physical and service elements and required information or knowledge) with an investor's needs, then 'value' is demonstrated to both parties.

A review of literature suggests that public sector measurement of the potential effects of major events sponsorship on their investor relationships has not been explored. A small number of studies have explored relationships and networks as they impact on the organisational structures that drive events (Larson 1998, 2002) as well as links between sporting event organisers, sponsors and the media (Olkokonen 2001; Wolfe, Meenaghan, & O'Sullivan 1998). Closer to the topic of this research, several authors (Clark, Lachowetz, Irwin, & Schimmel 2003) have studied the use of critical sales events to leverage business-to-business (B2B) relationships through sponsorship. That investigation led to a framework that assisted a B2B sales force to move key customers through a relationship lifecycle. However, insights to just how relationships and networks are enhanced during mega-events is not addressed by these studies.

In executing relationship marketing during events, both governments and private firms servicing and attracting stakeholders have the opportunity to apply and measure all of the critical phases of relationship development discussed by theorists, these being pre-relationship building, negotiation, development and maintenance (Andersen 2001; Dwyer, Schurr, & Oh 1987; Ford 1980; Heide 1994). Nevertheless, the degree to which the opportunity exists to conduct business interactions and actively demonstrate brand value (the state as an investment location) in the social environment of an event is debatable. Few of a government's potential investors may reach the negotiation/development stage of the relationship during the staging of the event. Interpersonal communication with the government's key stakeholders and clientele could well be enhanced in this relaxed, leisure environment, but not all government representatives or clients may feel comfortable with making overt references to business opportunities in this context.

Some influential factors on whether a negotiation stage would be reached with an investor during a visit to Australia to attend a major event might include: firstly, whether a healthy, pre-relationship phase for business has been reached between the government agency and the potential investor prior to the event, and secondly, whether there is a propensity for government representatives to tap into business exchange opportunities during the event. There is little doubt that all elements of communicative persuasion can occur in the pre-relationship phase (Andersen 2001 p.174). While it could be argued that any substantial progress towards negotiation and 'deal-making' during an event is also heavily dependent on communication, it is the management of interactive processes (Gronroos 2004) before, during and after the event that focuses the potential investor's attention on value propositions proposed by the government.

Measuring the effects of event sponsorship on client relationships

Because perceptions of relationships are 'holistic and cumulative' (Gronroos 2004 p.103), marketing strategies of this nature are difficult to measure. In both private and public sector environments, effective systems and structures for relationship evaluation are

needed to achieve any accurate appraisal of the effects of event sponsorship among different portfolios of stakeholders. Given the rising public pressure to demonstrate accountability for event expenditure and related event marketing, governments can garner significant benefits from new knowledge about how to measure sponsorship effects on the relationship lifecycle. It is preferable if a government monitors its interaction with investors at all stages of the investment lifecycle and finds ways to measure both tangible and intangible results of its relationship management during major events. Accordingly, these measures can be both qualitative and quantitative in nature.

In the private sector, the use of events as avenues for sponsors to build relationships and brand equity is often considered alongside the quantified effectiveness of diverse communication mediums such as public relations, advertising, sales promotion and on-line media. In the public sector, it could be argued that this integrated analysis of different mediums is less likely in an investment division due to the embryonic nature of public sector marketing in general. Yet, the qualitative aspects of relationship marketing are not always fully assessed in this analysis of mediums by the private or public sector. For example, the state government department in this study employed one-to-one relationship marketing as well as overseas advertising and publicity, hospitality events and direct sales promotion (in this case to travel agents) to leverage their involvement with RWC 2003.

Although advertising and publicity and hospitality event attendance and similar activities might be measured, opportunities to understand the less tangible outcomes of relationship building on investment decision making are lost if the overriding concern of government ministers or public sector executives is to simply quantify sponsorship effects. In this vein, the private sector usually seeks to quantify even the less tangible effects of event sponsorship to demonstrate links to the 'bottom line' (A Whittam [Suncorp] 2005, pers. comm., April). For governments, aside from understanding the impacts of sponsorship on potential investors, the degree to which relationships with intermediaries such as overseas trade development offices and other national governments are also useful to measure, but difficult to quantify. A window to the general creation of goodwill towards the government and any enhancement of investors' relationships with businesses in a host city is similarly lost in a numbers-based measurement of sponsorship.

Regardless of whether quantitative or qualitative methods are employed, it is evident that the extent to which relationship marketing initiatives in support of event sponsorships are evaluated by state governments is under-researched. Certainly, existing observations of the limited propensity to fully measure sponsorship in the private sector (Dolphin 2003; Sponsorship Insights with the Australian Sponsorship Marketing Association 2003) suggest that limited attempts, if any, are likely within the public sector to fully assess governments' events sponsorships on qualitative and/or quantitative criteria. In light of this need for new knowledge about the effects of a government's event sponsorship and their measurement, the staging of RWC 2003 in Australia offered an ideal context for this exploration.

Method

Based on the preceding discussion, the primary research question related to the state government's leveraging of RWC 2003 was:

> What are the existing relationship leveraging objectives, activities and outcomes for the state government in the context of RWC 2003 and, how are they measured?

To maintain consistency throughout the research, relationship leveraging was defined as 'all of those business and marketing activities, events and other initiatives during RWC 2003 that were used to (1) attract new or additional investment to the state and, (2) new or improved business relationships that contribute to those outcomes'. A qualitative methodology that involved 20 depth interviews was employed to understand the government's attempts to leverage its event sponsorship. All key government personnel engaged in relationship leveraging among potential investors were interviewed as well as a range of external individuals and agencies that were knowledgeable about the government's involvement in RWC.

The research was timed so that a suitable time had passed to allow the 'hype' associated with the event to die down and for relative parties to reflect on the outcomes more objectively. Interviewees were chosen through a combined use of purposive sampling and 'snowballing' where key informants identified other suitable interviewees. Subsequently, an on-line analysis of key themes and patterns within the data and relationships between them was conducted. Qualitative research of this nature was deemed appropriate due to the difficulties in separating relationship leveraging initiatives from the context in which they were devised and the need for rich data to guide future event evaluation methods.

Findings

The investigation revealed that prior planning for relationship marketing or leveraging had occurred about 12 to 18 months prior to RWC 2003. For the state government, a planning team of senior public servants and rugby union officials produced a brief action plan, but relationship leveraging was later subsumed within the government's overall marketing communication for RWC. In effect, only a list of tactics was discernible and these were observable in the government's RWC communication plan. This absence of a dedicated strategy for relationship marketing was noted by some participants. 'I think it was a bit sporadic. I don't think there was a marketing plan that said these were the outcomes we were trying to achieve and, these are the steps we are going to take'. 'I did not see a document like that'. Hence, strategy making appeared to be informal with no discrete relationship marketing strategy separate to the generic communication plan of the state government. This finding pointed to the less structured approach to event-related strategies in the public sector identified in previous studies (Stokes 2004).

Despite this lack of a discrete relationship marketing strategy, interviewees readily identified the state government's leveraging goals. These included building relationships with potential investors at the level of the Premier, Ministers or senior executives;

managing the 'after-care' of existing investors, building networks between existing and potential clients; and, sourcing event supply opportunities for local businesses. Interviewees were also able to refer to specific industries and companies of most interest to the government in Australian and overseas markets during RWC 2003. Here, the strategic approach to relationship leveraging sought by the Premier was noted by interviewees. The Premier's attempt to implement this approach also confirmed the relevance of establishing a portfolio approach to relationship management (Zolkiewski & Turnbell 2002) in which sponsorship effects are studied.

However, neither the relationship marketing objectives of the state government nor the perceived timeframe to move clients from a pre-relationship phase to negotiation (Andersen 2001) were clear. Government representatives indicated that 'anything we get out of it [the event] in terms of business leveraging is just gravy [a bonus]'; 'It's really about relationships and you eventually leverage that business'; 'It's about using the event to either initiate or develop relationships, rather than closing off a deal during an event'. Overall, the imperative to achieve direct results from events was not strong - 'You do not drive investment through events…..the event is something that just gives it a push along'. This finding reflects earlier observations that an atmosphere of social exchange may not be conducive to 'deal making' or sales. Acceptance of a more qualitative result and a less specific outcome from relationship leveraging was evident. In effect, more of a marketing communication campaign than an integrative model of moving a relationship through a sequential relationship lifecycle was apparent (Andersen 2001).

A range of relationship marketing initiatives was chosen on the basis of what had worked during previous events, rather than direct links to an umbrella relationship marketing strategy. Despite the government's previous involvement in large scale events, tacit information was drawn from the 'heads' of people who had worked on prior events rather than a departmental record. Examples of these tactics were the overseas business receptions, advertising and publicity in business media, domestic business briefings, and a business matching service to provide inroads for local suppliers to secure business with the event organiser. Overall, the provision of more general advice about investment opportunities rather than intensive 'brand' marketing of the state typified the government's leveraging activities during the event. It was apparent that direct marketing of the 'state brand' only occurred in overseas print advertising and business receptions prior to the staging of the event.

Government interviewees had a clear understanding of the differences between qualitative versus quantitative results. Illustrative comments were: 'The event is never an end itself. It is simply a path for us to get there, to achieve our outcomes….when it comes to any of these events, there is no quantifiable outcome set for any of them….because qualitative outcomes are the primary goal, there is little emphasis on reporting on these activities'. Interviewees perceived that the government's qualitative aims with client 'after-care', meeting potential investors and gaining further access to critical industry networks were achieved through RWC 2003. However, an analysis of clients invited to RWC based on their investment cycle phase was not conducted and there was no perceived ability to quantify any enhancement in relationships beyond the perceptual

level. 'Its part of our relationship with them….simply whether they perceive that we appreciate them and they have gained value'.

Internal issues that affected the government's relationship leveraging during RWC were: the limited application of relationship measurement systems, a limited relationship leveraging budget; limited human resources for client hosting and post-event follow-up; a tacit knowledge base of previous leveraging activities, political expectations and government processes. High levels of ministerial expectations about business results existed alongside the more limited expectations of outcomes among government bureaucrats. Overall, a high priority was not given to measuring how leveraging activities during RWC affected the achievement of the government's investment aims. The prevailing view was that 'you probably can't measure it. It's very hard because relationships are intangible…so you just can't say here's a dollar value'. However, it was evident that an existing database for recording client interactions was a vehicle that might have been used as a tool to estimate the relative impact of RWC 2003 on relationships at one particular point in the investment lifecycle.

Government executives viewed some business marketing tactics as opportunities 'that were there, if the market wanted it'. Because most event marketing tactics during RWC used existing government infrastructure rather than new financial outlays, any structured measurement of these activities was seen to be less critical. In contrast, tangible measures had been used to assess relationship leveraging at other events such as trade shows in overseas markets. Relevant comments were: 'We rate the contribution of trade events to our lead generation. You might start off with 1,000 leads and distil them into a few ongoing clients before you edge up to two investments'. The potential for relationship leveraging during a major event to edge those relationships forward was acknowledged, but different reporting arrangements existed for trade events versus major event sponsorships. Hence, it was clear that the quest to understand sponsorship effects and adopt qualitative and/or quantitative measures of relationship leveraging varied in line with the type of event in which the government was engaged.

A framework for measuring sponsorship effects in relationship portfolios

Based on observations about the government's leveraging, it is evident that an improved framework for governments to measure the effects of their major event sponsorships among different investor groups has both theoretical and practical value. There is no doubt that the task of measuring links between event leveraging and the status of investor relationships is complex. This complexity underpins the government's passive stance on evaluating any progress in its investor relationships that might be generated through major event involvement. Political pressures, budgetary constraints, practitioner knowledge about relationship marketing and the intangible nature of events themselves are all potent influences. However, despite the government's assertion that only qualitative results of relational leveraging can be observed, there is no apparent use of these measures. Thus, a framework that allows for qualitative and quantitative methods to investigate event sponsorship effects is desirable.

Two steps are required to build this measurement framework. Firstly, a map of portfolios of industry-based relationships needs to be created to understand relationships and networks that exist in different industry sectors targeted for investment and secondly, a relevant sponsorship effects model must be created. To begin, the concept of relationship portfolios (Veludo, Macbeth, & Purchase 2004) enables a government agency to understand the dynamics of different organisations in each industry and identify which organisations are desirable investment partners. Here, traditional criteria such as relationship value, the cost to service them and their likely return on investment can be applied in studying potential investors (Zolkiewski & Turnbell 2002). Although relationship portfolios can be developed for strategic and tactical management of individual relationships, governments can also choose to direct their efforts towards industry networks of a manageable size in these portfolios. Figure 1 shows a set of relationship portfolios (each block representing a different industry portfolio) from which a government can select and target particular investors (represented by stars in each block). Relationships between investors themselves in each industry portfolio can also be fostered or facilitated by the government during a major event.

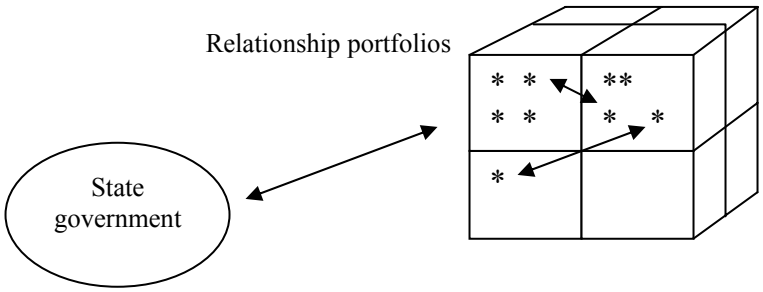

Figure 1. State government's interactions with investors in industry portfolios during events
Adapted from Zolkiewski and Turnbell (2002, p. 586)

Building an understanding of these relationship portfolios and developing them for different industry sectors generally requires a qualitative research process. A series of interviews conducted internally and externally serve to identify organisations in each relationship portfolio, the links between them (within and across portfolios) and their likely value as investment partners. A cross-portfolio analysis is also useful if a government wants to derive image advantages from linking clients in one industry with personnel in other industries eg. manufacturers and financiers. To some extent, this is already done in a very informal, rather than a structured, comprehensive way by the state government in this study.

Within the identified relationship portfolios, studies of different levels of sponsorship effect (that is, the continuum from 'state brand' awareness to a decision to actually invest) can be conducted. Using Meenaghan's (2001) sponsorship effects framework as a guide, the impacts of leveraging on investor relationships in each portfolio can then be studied using both quantitative and qualitative methods. Figure 2 shows an adaptation of this framework to study the progression of the state government's investor relationships during RWC 2003. At the left of the figure, the overall state government 'brand' is indicated that would be based on a range of impressions about a state based on multiple

criteria (eg. business, leisure, climate) as well as impressions of the state government itself. Beyond that broad level, there is a perception of the state's engagement with sponsorship in general and more specifically, its engagement in a broad category such as arts and sporting events. The arrows indicate that the sponsorship effects within a target audience would be expected to narrow markedly at the level of an individual sponsorship such as RWC (Meenaghan 2001). It also demonstrates how the intensity of goodwill towards the sponsor could be expected to run in parallel with the intensity of fan or event consumer involvement.

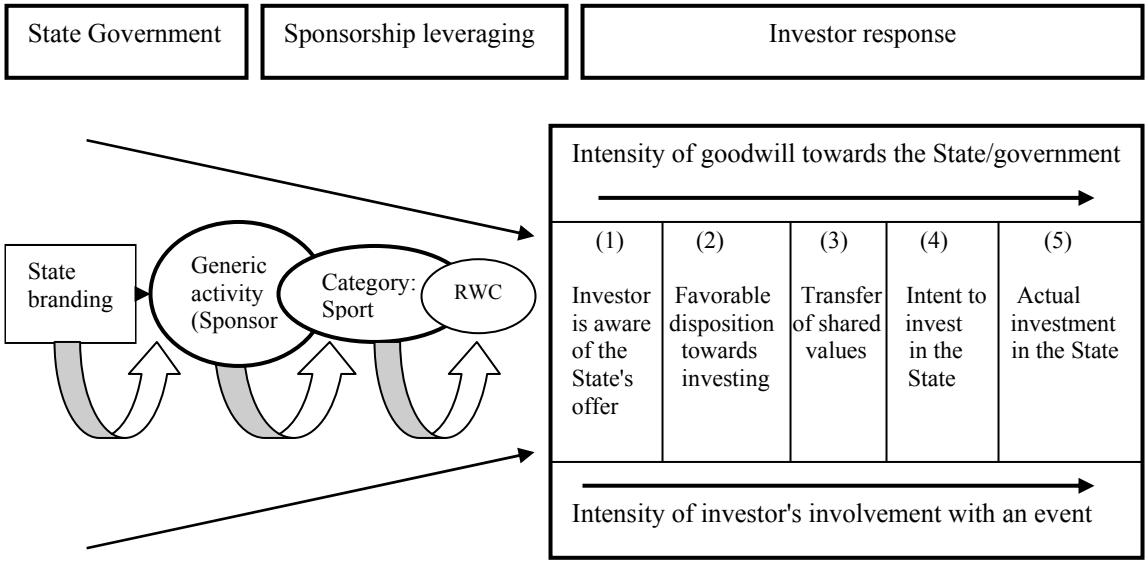

Figure 2. A sponsorship effects framework to understand the progression of investor relationships (Adapted from Meenaghan 2001, p. 115).

For a state government, the choice of the event category and specific event to sponsor is critical in that a match between investor interests and events is necessary to gain their attendance. Some additional benefits with regard to leveraging an event sponsorship will ensue if the government selects an event where a high level of interest is likely to already exist among its corporate investors. 'Involved' or 'highly active' event consumers are more likely to make an effort to process the sponsor's message (Roy & Cornwell 2004). Due to strong beliefs that investors do not want to do business during a visit to a major event, the government may seek to identify those 'highly active' investors who are also likely to engage in business discussions at event-related receptions or be receptive to one-on-one meetings with government executives. An increased propensity for potential investors to accept business-focused communication in hospitality events may also occur if the government's desire to have some general business discussions is clearly highlighted at the time of extending invitations to attend. Thus, a better understanding of the extent to which a business relationship might be fostered during the event is obtained.

Within Figure 2, the transition from Phase 1 to 5 shows the progression of a government's relationship with the investor or the hierarchy of sponsorship effects that culminates with the decision to invest in the state. In reality, it might be expected that typical stages of

relationship development such as pre-relationship building, negotiation, and development would run in tandem with this hierarchy of effects. The maintenance stage which sits outside this framework is more relevant when event sponsorships are used to retain and build relationships with existing investors, a strategy that is inevitable in the context of an RWC sponsorship.

Perusal of the sponsorship effects framework in Figure 2 raises the obvious question of whether the relationship effects of event sponsorships depicted here can be measured and which methods, if any, might be used to track and evaluate relationship progression through each of the five phases. Although this framework was originally designed for application in consumer markets and there are greater complexities in high cost, industrial market decisions, the potential exists to identify where investors sit in the decision cycle at the time of the event. This step enables an agency to track any discernible changes in the relationship in the period immediately following the event. As indicated earlier, this measurement of event sponsorship effects can be applied in each of the industry-based relationship portfolios identified by government. Each phase that builds the intensity of goodwill towards the state government and its investment opportunities would be evaluated using either single and/or multiple methods.

Phases 1 to 5 in Figure 2 provide the platform to understand where investors sit in the relationship prior to the event. In Phase 1, a quantitative study of awareness in the wider audience of untapped investors (using awareness scales) is possible. Independent observations and qualitative questions among investors already on the government's priority list can also be employed. As with all qualitative research, attention to detail in note taking and a structured approach to data analysis should be adopted by those government executives who have regular contact with clients and potential investors. Although questions remain about ethical issues of gathering this data, it could be argued that this would be normal procedure in preparing a business case for investors. The second and third phases in Figure 2 would also include participant observation techniques and open ended questions deliberately asked by those executives who manage relationships in each of the industry based portfolios. An interviewer's guide that might traditionally be used for depth interviews could be a reference (rather than a rigid document) for client managers to determine the relationship phase that typifies their potential investors in the lead-up to a major event. In Phases 2 to 4, comparisons could also be made between senior and middle level managers' opinions about investor relationships. At present, there is no uniform approach of this nature for qualitative information gathering by the state government in this study.

In assessing the relative contribution of event sponsorship to shifts in the status of relationships, methods that are adapted from the private sector may also be useful. For some firms, sophisticated analyses of the impacts of event sponsorship on business decisions by Tier 1 clients include estimates of the contribution of events alongside other factors in achieving results. For governments, making the linkage between a short term event sponsorship and a long term investment decision is improbable. However, the ability to examine the contribution of an event in moving a potential investor from one phase to the next in the sponsorship effects continuum is not improbable. Indeed, some of

the government's own methods for evaluating relationship outcomes of trade event attendance could be adapted for measuring sponsorship effects during major events. In this study, interviewees referred to the practice of rating the contribution of trade events to lead generation – bringing 1,000 leads down to a few key investments. Although trade events are business rather than leisure environments, hospitality events surrounding an event (rather than interaction at the event itself) could be used in a more deliberate way to raise the investors' awareness and favourable disposition towards the state. This is common practice in the private sector seeking to enhance their brand equity. Public sector agencies may need to adopt this more active and entrepreneurial approach (in contrast to their current passivity) in order to achieve their desired sponsorship effects from events.

Alongside the measurement of shifts in the relationship phase, the corresponding intensity of involvement of the investor (physically and emotionally) in the event might be evaluated through both qualitative and quantitative research. A qualitative assessment can certainly be made and recorded by executives about an investor's apparent emotional attachment to rugby and attendance at a world cup event. However, quantitative measures can also be employed to understand the physical engagement of investors in activities surrounding the event. For example, match attendance, the overall number of interactions (matches, hospitality and other business events), timeframes of exposure to the state's business messages, and the content of any business-related topics addressed before, during and after the event can be used to score the investor's intensity of involvement. These scores may be used alongside ratings of the major event as a contributor to relationship development (discussed earlier). While such analyses may be foreign to government agencies, this structured analysis of the intensity of consumer and business client engagement with an event is usual within the private sector, with at least one major financial sponsor of RWC 2003 conducting a similar analysis.

The parallel measurement of the intensity of goodwill towards the government and the state as an investment location is much more difficult to quantify. Undoubtedly, perceived goodwill developed during an event may translate into a relationship that leads to investment in the long term. Here, the event creates a pre-relationship phase and the qualitative techniques discussed earlier for tracking investors' positions in and movement through the investment lifecycle may be applied. By comparison, goodwill towards the government among existing clients may be more readily observable in the context of a major event. For example, a level of goodwill may be demonstrated through an existing client's deliberate introduction of a potential new investor to the government. Other indicators of sustained goodwill towards the government among existing clients would be their propensity to initiate discussions about new or extended business partnerships with the government during the event.

The implementation of firstly, the relationship portfolio analysis and secondly, the analysis of event sponsorship effects may be seen by government executives as time and resource intensive. However, it could be argued that an event simply provides a focal point in an analysis of relationships that should occur regularly outside the event environment. Conducting this research in the context of a major event does enable a clearer picture to be obtained of how relationships have been consolidated or enhanced.

The existing client databases of governments may be used to retain and analyse the outcomes of this research. Just as private sector firms set up their own relationship tracking software with proformas that record information on event-related communication, regular use of technology by governments (perhaps using an extended version of existing software) is necessary to analyse relationship data in a uniform way. Such systems would facilitate the process of observing how relationships have progressed within investor portfolios (eg. rural industry, aviation, information technology). Clearly, a meticulous record of interactions with potential clients in a well managed database offers the potential for a longitudinal investigation of those factors and activities that may have positively impacted on the stages of a relationship lifecycle through to an actual investment. Comparisons with factors and influences on relationships that did not culminate in investments could also be made, a process which would inform the government's future relationship building.

To operationalise this framework, further work is needed to develop and pre-test the proposed measurement tools by government agencies. Dimensions that will provide the criteria for assessment of an investor's progression along the investment cycle need to be identified. Measurements of the investors' intensity of involvement with the event and their growth of goodwill towards the government must also be further developed and refined.

Conclusion

Despite continued emphasis on expanding the body of knowledge about event sponsorship effects in the private sector, measurement of sponsorship outcomes by governments is less prevalent. This study of relationship leveraging by an Australian state government during RWC 2003 indicates that interest of government ministers in understanding how the event was used to foster investor relationships did not correspond with public sector executives' beliefs about the ability to measure relational outcomes. It was apparent that these executives were somewhat overwhelmed by the holistic, cumulative and largely intangible nature of relationships that complicate their measurement.

While public sector executives have an understanding of the differences between qualitative and quantitative research, neither of these methods is currently used to monitor relationship marketing. Given that relationship building with potential investors was the primary focus of public sector practitioners in this study, it is desirable that these practitioners acquire a better understanding of how to measure a sequential relationship management model. Currently, there is limited, ongoing use of relationship tracking systems within government that could provide a platform for this focused analysis. However, established measurement frameworks to examine event sponsorship effects have also been unavailable to public sector agencies.

This paper has sought to address this gap by developing a new theoretical framework for measuring sponsorship effects within the government's industry-based portfolios of potential investors. This framework involves a two step process of identifying these

portfolios and using a sponsorship effects model to understand how governments progress their relationships through major events. This paper's framework has the potential to integrate qualitative and quantitative methods to better understand relationship transitions. The sponsorship effects element in this framework also allows governments to understand how the intensity of investors' involvement with a major event impacts on their awareness, attitudes and interest in doing business with the state. Some evaluation of perceived goodwill towards the state is also included in this framework. Although the framework is mostly underpinned by qualitative research, there are some noted opportunities for governments to quantify business interactions with investors and rate the relative contribution of their event sponsorship to relationship changes. Ultimately, the refinement of this research framework depends on a government's beliefs about the value of measuring relationship leveraging and the extent to which it is willing to commit to measuring its relationship marketing during events.

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Regional Events

Event Public Policy and Regional Development in South East Queensland

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Abstract

The event industry in Australia continues to flourish and events are increasingly being viewed as a vehicle for the promotion of regional development. Accordingly, Australian Federal, State and Local governments are realising the potential benefits of staging events and are thus beginning to address the development of events in public policies. Policies facilitating regional development have been produced by the 19 local government members of the South East Queensland Regional Organisation of Councils [SEQROC] and address to varying degrees, the development of events within their jurisdictions. Although local government does not enjoy the resources or influence of State and to a greater extent, Federal Government, the public policies produced by local governments, such as those by SEQROC members, can impinge significantly upon the role of events in regional development. Arguably, such policies should be theoretically underpinned by development paradigms to ensure appropriate and effective regional development. To date however, there has been a paucity of research undertaken to determine the appropriateness of government policies in relation to events and regional development. This paper then, presents an interpretive analysis of event policy developed from 1974-2004 by 19 local governments in South East Queensland who are members of the South East Queensland Regional Organisation of Councils [SEQROC].

An interpretive research design was developed for the study which sought to identify the types of development paradigms that underpin SEQROC event policies. A critical analysis of 219 policies revealed that SEQROC members have developed event policies which were predominantly underpinned by alternative development paradigms with a strong socio-cultural focus. Furthermore, the results revealed that policies from several SEQROC councils were influenced by the concept of the triple bottom line. They were underpinned recurrently by both economic neoliberalism and alternative development, displaying an awareness of, and concern for, economic, socio-cultural and environmental issues. Interestingly, the local government SEQROC member known as the Gold Coast City Council offers one of the busiest, most diverse and probably most successful event and event tourism calendars of the SEQROC members. Arguably, such success is a result of Gold Coast City Council producing effective and appropriate policies which have utilised the holistic approach of the triple bottom line. Indeed, it is at the grassroots level of local government that policy impacts are most felt. As regional inequalities in social and economic conditions appear to rank importantly in government agendas, proactive local governments should seize the opportunity to address some of these regional issues by incorporating a triple bottom line approach and build "on the competitive and comparative advantages" (Beattie, 2002, p. 2) of their diverse regions and develop effective and appropriate regional event policy.

KEY WORDS: Event policy; local government, regional development, development paradigms, triple bottom line.

Introduction

The proliferation of events worldwide has facilitated the emergence of a global event industry which is creating significant economic, socio-cultural and political phenomena. Consequently, governments around the world have developed policy and increased their support, promotion and capital investment in events to develop regional promotion, image regeneration and the economic and social multiplier effect (Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell & Harris, 2001; Yeoman, Robertson, Ali-Knight, Drummond and McMahon-Beattie, 2004). Similarly, all three levels of Australian government have increasingly produced policies in an attempt to facilitate the potential growth of events as a platform for industry, economic development (Burgan & Mules, 2000) and regional development.

Internationally there has been a growing number of events taking place in regional communities (Higham and Ritchie, 2001) and this is the case throughout Australia in recent years. Arguably this growth and development of local communities and concurrently the number of events staged within these communities have to date been largely dependent upon the policies and/or initiatives of local government (Hall and Jenkins, 1995; Hall Jenkins and Kearsley, 1997; Aulich, 1999). The purpose of this study was to undertake, from a development theory perspective, a critical analysis of public policies pertaining to events, produced from 1974 to 2004, by the nineteen member councils of the South East Queensland Regional Organisation of Councils [SEQROC]. This paper will first set the contextual background with an historical overview of tourism, events and regional development in Queensland. Secondly, the paper will briefly discuss the development paradigms theoretically underpinning the policies before presenting the methodology employed for the analysis of SEQROC event policies. Finally, the paper will present and discuss the results of the critical analysis of SEQROC event policy.

Evolution of Tourism, Events and Regional Development in Queensland

Since 1859 when Queensland became a separate colony, successive State governments have focused, to varying degrees, on tourism, events and regional development (Commonwealth Government, 2003). By the early 1900's, the growth of tourism and recreation was facilitating development in the coastal regions, yet Queensland was still regarded as a Cinderella State because of its narrow based, dependent and highly decentralised underdeveloped economy (McMillen, 1991). By the early 1960's however, tourism had become an important industry in centres such as Surfers Paradise, Brisbane, the Sunshine Coast, the Whitsunday region and Cairns. Even given this development, Queensland regional tourism development continued to lag well behind Victoria and New South Wales and relied heavily upon entrepreneurs (McMillen, 1991).

Joh Bjelke-Petersen's Queensland

Bjelke Petersen assumed office in 1968 and was the "outspoken champion of unrestrained tourism growth" (McMillen, 1990, p. 98). Although the approach to tourism exercised by the National Party attracted public debate and controversy over charges of developmentalism and cronyism, Craik (1991) conceded the political

agenda and policy process of the government created conditions that were conducive to the rapid development of the tourist industry and the State as a whole.

This was not the case in relation to regional development. Despite the release of the Regional Planning and Regional Coordination Report in 1974 (Queensland Co-ordinator Generals Department, 1974, p. 9), Harris (1989) claimed the Queensland government demonstrated a general unwillingness to adopt a regional approach that may have strengthened Queensland's regional development. Nevertheless, the Moreton Regional Growth Strategy (1976) was developed and identified, among other things, the need to build new major sporting facilities for the Brisbane 1982 Commonwealth Games and so increase the profile of the Moreton region (Moreton Regional Growth Strategy Investigations 1976, p. 2.12). Arguably, this indicated government recognition of, and support for, events and tourism. In 1979, the Queensland Government Tourist Bureau became the Queensland Tourist and Travel Corporation [QTTC] and tourism was given increasing priority. This was in part because international investment in tourism and events was seen by McMillen (1991, p. 106) as the "primary motivation behind political intentions to bid for mega special events such as the 1982 Commonwealth Games, Expo 88, the Olympics, major conventions and the proposal to stage a race in the Indy 500 series".

During Australia's Bicentennial Year of 1988, Queensland, Australia's premier event State, hosted World Expo 88. Carroll and Donohue (1991) warned that this type of event was a politically complex phenomenon as it overlapped policy areas, policy communities and different levels of government. Similarly, the Indy 500 Grand Prix, which the Queensland Government was attempting to bring to Surfers Paradise, proved many of these concerns to be relevant. Despite such difficulties, the Bjelke-Petersen Government passed on the Indy event to the newly elected Goss Labor Government in 1989 (Brennan, 1992).

The Goss Labor Government – 1989-1996

Ten days after being sworn into office, the newly appointed Minister for Tourism announced that the Government was contemplating shelving the bid for the Indy 500 Grand Prix for financial reasons. The neighbouring New South Wales Government was quick to announce their interest in the event and Borbidge (1990) accused the Queensland Government of having the event nearly stolen from under their noses. Borbidge (1990, p. 3164) warned that Central Surfers Paradise "needed events like the Indy Grand Prix to regenerate the destination. Furthermore, Borbidge (1990, p. 3167) pointed out that Indy events were staged as tourist events and were beneficial to the State's tourist industry, as it would "sell Queensland not only to the people who come to watch the event but also to the people who watch it overseas". Thus, after consulting the newly established Queensland Events Corporation [QEC] and under substantial pressure from the numerous stakeholders in the event, the Goss Government announced that it supported the Indy Grand Prix to be held in Queensland in March 1991.

Concurrently, the Government began to address regional development and planning in a more serious and co-ordinated manner. In 1990, the Goss Government launched the South East Queensland 2001 planning process, which called for the development of a collaborative regional planning approach by State and local governments (Margerum, 2001). Additionally, the Regional Framework for Growth Management [RFGM] was

released in 1994 and outlined a regional plan for Queensland. The framework focused on issues such as economic resources, liveability, cultural development and regional open space system (Margerum, 2001). In the same year, a discussion paper titled Social Impacts of Tourism identified that tourism may affect local festivals and celebrations and that the commercialisation of such events tends to undermine their original meaning and thus their initial attraction. In order to avoid this, the paper suggested that destinations and regions adopt events that reflect their history, culture and geographic setting while encouraging broad based community participation in such tourist events.

Borbidge's National/Liberal Government 1996 – 1998

The Borbidge Government came to office in 1996 and tourism and events remained a high priority of Government. Although the QEC was viewed as an integral part of tourism in Queensland, Davidson (1996) claimed that the QEC had lost its way and identified the need to look at the bigger picture of events in Queensland. Davidson (1997) lamented that under the Goss Government, the QEC supported a total of nine events in 1995 and seven events in 1996. Consequently, the QEC's budget was increased in real terms by $700,000 and negotiations began for numerous events including the 2000 International Air Show and Aerospace Expo and the 2006 Commonwealth Games. Additionally, marketing strategies were being developed to capitalise on the tourism opportunities provided by the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games. Regional opportunities were identified by commentators such as Davidson (1996, p. 268), who maintained that "rural communities (would) benefit from heightened media attention generated through Queensland's Olympic tourism media strategy". This proactive approach appeared to produce positive outcomes and in 1997, the QEC supported a total of twenty seven events "worth around $400m to Queensland in economic impact and a further $150m in promotional value" with commitments up to the year 2006 (Davidson, 1997, p. 3757).

Several developments in 1997 highlighted the importance of tourism and in particular event tourism. The Business Events Survey commenced as the meetings and conference industry was recognised as an important income earner for Queensland. Although the Regional Economic Development Plan was also released in the same year, tourism's high priority on the government's agenda was in stark contrast to regional development, which according to Stimpson (2002, p. 135) seemed "to have disappeared from the public agenda and now has virtually zero profile".

Beattie Labor Government 1998 -

The advent of the Beattie Labor Government in 1998 not only ensured continued government interest in tourism and events but also guaranteed the revitalisation of regional development issues. Importantly, during the twelve months of 1998-1999, the Department of Tourism, Sport and Racing (1998-1999) noted that QEC secured the:

- 2001 Goodwill Games ($167million estimated generated income)
- Queensland 500
- 2002 World Fire-fighters Games ($12million estimated generated income)
- 2006 International Congress of Human Genetics

In 1999/2000, the Government released its Annual Report (Department of the Premier and Cabinet, 1999, p. 1) which announced, among other things, the establishment of the Events Coordination Unit in March 2000. The report identified the key functions of the events Coordination Unit as facilitating, co-ordinating and managing a diverse range of events such as:

- Queensland Day,
- the Queensland Premier's Literary Awards,
- Riverfestival
- Commonwealth Heads of Government Meeting

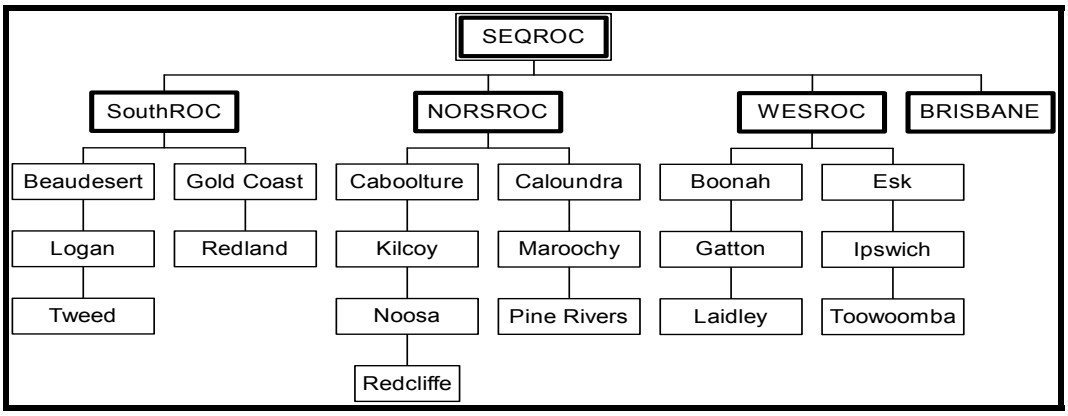
In 2001, the Queensland Events Regional Development Program and Growing Tourism (Department of Tourism, Racing and Fair Trading, 2001) strategy was launched. Regional events were a focus of the strategy which aimed to set a clear strategic direction across the State's regions. In 2002, the Events Regional Development Program supported more than thirty-eight regional events and Beattie (2002) insisted that the regions were an integral part of Queensland. As such, Beattie felt the regions should enjoy the benefits of special events which provide one of the most unique and fastest growing forms of tourism attraction. Two new schemes called the Significant Regional Events Scheme and the Regional Events Innovation Scheme (Hansard, 2004, p. 3718) were established in 2004 and Beattie (Hansard, 2004c, p. 1380) claimed that "these programs reinforce Queensland as the leader in regional event development in Australia".

The Southeast Queensland Regional Organisation of Councils and Events

One of the regions in Queensland to benefit from the Queensland Events Regional Development Program is South East Queensland. This region incorporates, the Gold Coast, the Sunshine Coast, Brisbane and surrounding areas. According to the Department of Local Government, Planning, Sport and Recreation (2004, p. 2) South East Queensland "is one of the most sought after places to live in Australia with (its) relaxed lifestyle, strong economic growth and so many varying opportunities". Indeed, the south east corner of Queensland is Australia's fastest growing region with an estimated population of 2,654,000 in 2004 with current projections for 2026 to reach 3,709,000 (Department of Local Government, Planning, Sport and Recreation (2004, p. 4-6). Continued growth and prosperity in South East Queensland present both the event industry and local governments with unprecedented opportunities for future regional development.

The nineteen local government members of the South East Queensland Regional Organisation of Councils [SEQROC] are realising the potential benefits of events and are beginning to develop initiatives, to varying degrees, to facilitate the development of events in their region. SEQROC, shown in Figure 1, was formed in 1991 to "assist local governments in South East Queensland to respond to issues associated with being one of the fastest growing regions in Australia" (SEQROC, 2004, p. 1).

Figure 1: SEQROC Structure (Bertelsen, 2002)



As a result of various initiatives by SEQROC Governments, there is an array of diverse events being staged in South East Queensland. Table 1 presents a small sample of events being staged in 2005 by various SEQROC members.

Table 1: A Sample of Events in South East Queensland in 2005

Year	Council	Event
2005	Gold Coast City Council	ANZ Ladies Masters
2005	Gold Coast City Council	NRMA Insurance Australian Surf Life Saving Championships
2005	Gold Coast City Council	Gold Coast Airport Marathon
2005	Gold Coast City Council	Lexmark Indy 300
2005	Brisbane City Council	Urban Country Music Festival
2005	Brisbane City Council	Australian Bassfishing International
2005	Brisbane City Council	2005 Australian University Games
2005	Ipswich City Council	iTEL Community Telco 40th Australian Drag Racing Nationals
2005	Caboolture Shire Council	Woodford Folk Festival
2005	Redcliffe City Council	Festival of Sails
2005	Toowoomba City Council	Carnival of Flowers
2005	Noosa Shire Council	Noosa International Street Performers
2005	Tweed Heads Shire Council	Quicksilver Pro Trials 2005

Undoubtedly these events, among others, facilitate the growth of the region to varying degrees. SEQROC members then, should theoretically underpin their event policy to facilitate regional development as Goldsworthy (1988) maintained that policies concerned with development consciously or unconsciously articulate a preferred notion of what constitutes development. For the purpose of this paper, development is "a philosophy, a process, the outcome or product of that process and a plan guiding the process towards desired objectives" (Sharpley and Telfer, 2002, p. 23)

Development Paradigms

The four key development paradigms that evolved after the Second World War include 1) modernisation, 2) dependency, 3) economic neoliberalism and 4) alternative development (Todaro, 1994; Brohman, 1996; Telfer, 1996). Each of these paradigms, which are not mutually exclusive, "involve a particular point of view,

which should be defined so as to dispel the illusion of objectivity or exhaustiveness" (Rist, 1997, p. 2). Due to the limitations of this paper, it is not possible to discuss each paradigm at length therefore Table 2 presents a brief overview of the key elements relating to each of the four paradigms.

According to Lade and Jackson (2004) events make substantial economic, social and cultural contributions to regions. Thus, events are quickly becoming an integral and essential component of many Australian regions' strategic planning, development, tourism and leisure policies as "events are generally seen in a positive light by government … because of their perceived economic, commercial and promotional benefits in the hosting of such events" (Hall, 1992, p. 44). However, Lade and Jackson (2004) warned that events are often developed in a manner that may not lead to the success originally anticipated, brought about in some instances, by uninformed perspectives of both local government and industry during the planning and development of event policy. Thus, although the concept of development appears to defy definition (Cowen and Shenton, 1996) and is devoid of precise meaning (Welch, 1984) it is proposed that there is a need for policy actors to have a more informed understanding of what constitutes development theories in order to theoretically underpin future event policies.

Table 2: Development Paradigms

Time guide	**Development paradigms**	**Selected theoretical approaches**	**Key concepts/strategies**
1950's & 1960's	Modernisation	Stages	Societies pass through similar development stages as western countries
		Diffusion	Spread of growth impulses from developed areas; growth poles; trickle down effect; state involvement; regional economic development
1950's & 1960's	Dependency	Neocolonisation	Underdevelopment caused by exploitation by developed countries; western cultural influence
		Dualism	Poverty is functional to global economic growth; rich and poor – between countries and within countries, regional inequalities
		Structuralism	Domestic markets, import substitution, social reforms, protectionism, state involvement
Mid 1970's & 1980's	Economic neoliberalism	Free market	Supply side macroeconomics; free competitive market, privatisation
		Structural adjustment	Focus on market forces and competitive exports
		One world	New world financial system; deregulation internationalization of production
1970's early 1980's	Alternative development	Basic needs	Priorities of food, housing, water, health and education
		Grassroots	People centred development; local control of decision making, empowerment, NGOs
		Gender	Women in development, gender relations, empowerment
		Sustainable development	Environmental management; meet the needs of the present generation without compromising future needs

Source: Sharpley and Telfer, (2002).

Methodology

In order to determine the development paradigms underpinning the event policies developed by SEQROC, an interpretive research design was employed drawing on the principles of both hermeneutics and content analysis. Moreover, for the purpose of this research, public policy was deemed to be 1) a written document expressing intent on a particular issue, or 2) implying a whole process in which values, interests and resources compete through institutions to influence government action (Davis, Wanna, Warhurst and Weller, 1993). For the purpose of this paper, Smith's (1995) concept of an a priori region, created by named boundaries such as political units, was adopted. The reason for this is that regions, such as South East Queensland, and more specifically, those that constitute SEQROC, "may be created for many political purposes and these purposes will determine the most appropriate set of regional boundaries, the types of regional organisations that will be established and the kinds of regional policies and programs that will be implemented" (Harris, 1978, p. 136-137).

Procedures for Selection of Local Government Policies

A purposive method of selection was used to determine the policies to be included in this study. The policies were to be released by SEQROC between 1974-2004 as (a) plans, (b) strategies, (c) reports, (d) discussion papers or (e) policies and were to include direct or indirect reference to events. The criterion would automatically embrace any or all policies developed specifically for events. The final SEQROC policy sample set consisted of 219 public policies that satisfied the selection criteria.

An Overview of Hermeneutics

Hermeneutics is concerned with identifying contextual circumstances and "provides a sophisticated philosophical background for the practice of applied qualitative research" (Polkinghorne, 1988; Lalli, 1989; Crotty, 1998 cited Ezzy, 2002, p. 24). Hermeneutics was deemed appropriate as the methodological underpinning to the study as it strengthens the interpretive approach to the research (Palmquist, 1998; Sotirou, 1993). Hermeneutics is a theory of meaning and is described as an art or science of interpretation emphasising a detailed reading or examination of text, such as event public policy, in an attempt to discover and interpret embedded meaning (Neuman, 1997). Importantly, Patton (1990) believed hermeneutics takes the position that as nothing can be interpreted free from some perspective, the first priority is to subjectively capture the perspective and elucidate the context of the text being studied. The principles of hermeneutics acknowledges the notion that personal values, beliefs and prejudices influence the researcher's interpretation, thus it is vitally important to be aware of one's own bias and perspective and those within the horizon of the other (Tate, 1998). It is recognised here then, that the researcher played a vital role in choosing a framework such as hermeneutics, as it underpins the methodology of the study, thus facilitating and shaping the analysis, understanding, interpretation and explanation of local government event policy.

An Overview of the Policy Content Approach

Content analysis is a technique used for gathering and analysing the content of text, by categorising and coding data. The technique employs objective and systematic counting and recording procedures to produce a more quantitative description of the symbolic content in a text (Neuman, 1997). Studies of policy content are primarily descriptive and focus on the origins, intentions and operations of specific policies (Hogwood and Gunn, 1984). The content analysis procedures used in this study followed the principles of Neuman's (1997) use of manifest and latent codes.

Method of Analysis

To identify the development paradigms underpinning each of the SEQROC event policies, a system of latent coding was employed in the following manner:
(a) A development paradigm framework, shown in Table 3, was developed for the study to provide latent codes for policy analysis. Four development paradigms identified in the literature review as being the most discernable during the study period were selected. They were modernisation, dependency, economic neoliberalism and alternative paradigms. Relevant development theory literature allowed the nomination, within the framework, of key distinguishing criteria for each development paradigm. However, in order to increase reliability in this process the assigned latent codes were first checked by a critical colleague, knowledgeable in the use of this procedure, to validate their suitability then justified according to their appropriateness, in the narrative findings of the research.

Table 3 identifies the characteristics allocated as the latent codes of modernisation, dependency, economic neoliberalism and alternative paradigms. A summary of the criteria for each characteristic is provided in Table 3, which was used as a reference throughout the ensuing latent coding of the event tourism policies.

(b) Single or multiple words and or phrases deemed important to the policy were selected from either the entire policy or relevant sections (e.g., Economic Development Strategy, 1999, pp. 5-8). Selected words and or phrases were recorded in an Excel spreadsheet along with the relevant page number of the policy. The importance of words and or phrases was determined by knowledge gained from issues raised in the review of literature and a critical colleague validated their importance.

Table 3: Framework of Development Paradigms

Development Theory	Latent Codes	Criteria
Modernisation	1. Westernisation	1. Promotion of a modern way of life with western values (Davis, 1968; Peters, 1969; Bond & Ladman, 1972; Bryden, 1973; Diamond, 1977; de Kadt, 1979; Baretje, 1982; Mathieson & Wall, 1982; Harrison, 1992)
	2. Consumption	2. Mature economy can use its resources for high mass consumption Rostow (1960)
	3. Economic production	3. Increased employment, increased foreign exchange (Britton, 1982; Cater, 1997)
	4. Entrepreneurialism	4. The need for governments to act as an entrepreneur to attract tourism investment in developing countries (Jenkins, 1980).
	5. Development tool	5. Potential as a tool for regional development (Kemper, 1979; Perroux, 1988; Pearce, 1989; Milne, 1992; Opperman, 1993)
	6. Technology	6. Move from simple to complex technology (Preston, 1996)

Dependency	1. Reduce exploitation 2. Cultural impacts 3. Economic dependence 4. Regional trading 5. National development 6. Autonomous development	1. Reduce the predominance of foreign ownership (Preston, 1996) in the tourism industry 2. Reduce cultural impacts of mass tourism (Craik, 1991; Finlayson, 1991) 3. Decrease economic reliance on developed countries (Preston, 1996) 4. Formation of regional trading areas (Preston, 1996) 5. Encourage national development (Preston, 1996) 6. Increase autonomy and remove dependency (Preston, 1996)
Economic Neoliberalism	1. Deregulation 2. Small government 3. Private enterprise 4. Competition 5. Entrepreneurial initiative 6. Outward development	1. Removal on controls of the private sector (Preston, 1996 2. Elimination of surplus government intervention and privatization of state enterprises (Preston, 1996) 3. Encourage private enterprise and consumer choice (Preston, 1996; Cleaver, 1997; George, 1999; McChesney, 1999; 4. Market led growth in free competitive markets (George, 1999) 5. Realised in private competitive markets (McChesney, 1999; Pusey, 1992) 6. Promotion of new growth sectors such as tourism and non traditional exports (Pryce, 1988)
Alternative Development	1. Environment 2. Indigenous issues 3. Community involvement 4. Basic needs	1. Sustainable development (Redclift, 1987; WCED, 1987; Barbier, 1989; Loening, 1990; Durning, 1993; Bryant & Bailey, 1997;) which recognises, among other things, environmental protections and the role of local communities in development 2. Addresses socio-cultural issues including equity and autonomy, education (Archer 1978; Ranck, 1987; Long & Wall, 1994; Wall, 1995; Telfer & Wall, 1996). 3. Stressed the need for empowerment and local involvement in the development process (Murphy, 1985; Inskeep, 1991; Sofield, 1993; Gunn, 1994; Kinnaird & Hall, 1994; Simmons, 1994; Jamal & Getz, 1995; Wilkinson & Pratiwi, 1995; Sinclair, 1997; Apostolopoulos et al, 2001) 4. Addresses the provision of opportunities for physical, mental and social development of the human personality (Maslow, 1970)

(c) Latent codes according to the Framework of Development Paradigms were allocated to the selected words and or phrases and placed in a corresponding column in the spreadsheet.

e.g.,

Page No: Keyword/s	Latent Code
4. minimal costs, streamlining	efficiency

(d) Latent codes were sorted by alphabetical order to provide visual ease of identification for the following procedure.

(e) Latent codes were grouped according to their respective development paradigm (e.g., efficiency = economic neoliberalism)

(f) The latent code groupings (e.g., modernisation and economic neoliberalism) were recorded as either primary paradigm or secondary paradigm. This was determined by the number of latent codes within a group (e.g., the latent codes of ethnocentric, entrepreneurialism and development tool, were identified within the policy and were noted as three latent codes of modernisation: the latent codes of private investment and market led growth were identified within the policy and were noted as latent codes of economic neoliberalism). Therefore, because the policy had three characteristics of modernisation and only two of economic neoliberalism, this policy was allocated a primary paradigm of modernisation and a secondary paradigm of economic neoliberalism.

(g) Selected words or phrases within the policies that related to events but could not be grouped according to a development paradigm were categorised as Not Evident.

e.g.,

Page No: Keyword/s	Latent Code
11. To promote the festivals held in Redlands	Not Evident

Development paradigm references (i.e., primary and secondary) and Not Evident references were then tallied and expressed as a percentage e.g.,

Development Paradigms				Not Evident
Alternative		Economic Neoliberalism		
Primary	2ndry	Primary	2ndry	
66%			34%	
87.5%				10.5%
100%				

The study involved interpreting the content of SEQROC event policy and during the analysis the researcher's own awareness of factors outside the social and historical context may have distorted meanings and understandings Gadamer (1976). Furthermore, subjectivity is an essential part of the interpretive analysis and the researcher's political perspectives may have influenced interpretation of the text. In order to reduce researcher subjectivity, two critical colleagues reviewed the manifest and latent coding of the policies and discrepancies in interpretation were debated until consensus was reached**.**

Results And Discussion

Development Paradigms Underpinning SEQROC Policies: A Paradigm Shift

The Alternative Option

The critical analysis of the 219 policies developed by SEQROC revealed there was an overall shift away from a predominant emphasis on economic issues towards a stronger focus on socio-cultural and environmental issues. Certainly, the results of this study revealed that alternative development was the predominant paradigm singularly underpinning 54% (118) of the 219 policies as shown in Figure 2. An example of this was the Redland Shire Sustainable Tourism Development Strategy (2003, p. 24), which was concerned with "the impacts of large events on community quality of life".

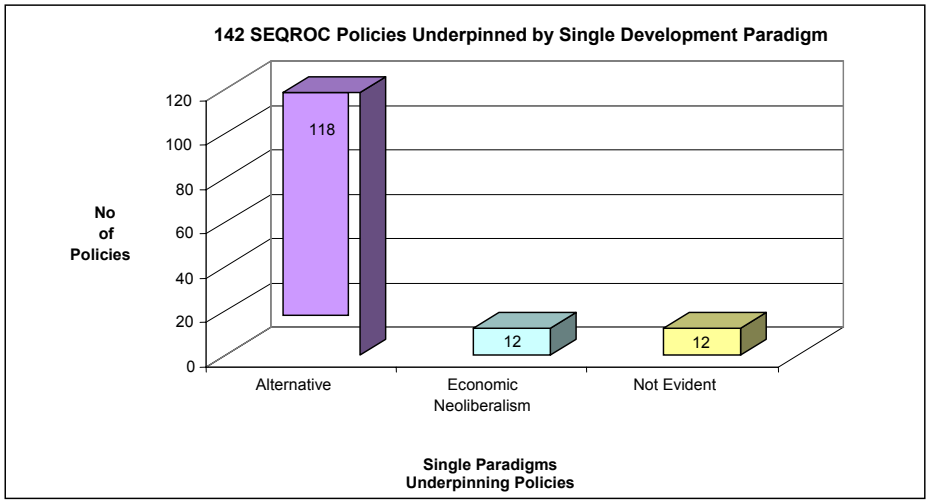


Figure 2: Single Development Paradigms underpinning Policies

The SEQROC event policies that were predominantly underpinned by alternative development clearly demonstrated that local government event policy can facilitate positive socio-cultural and environmental growth in a region by utilising events as a vehicle for regional development.

- Socio-cultural Focus

In essence, SEQROC policies underpinned by alternative development paradigms displayed an awareness of, and concern with, the realisation that events can impact on the social life and structure of a community by either enhancing or detracting from the social environment of the region (Hall, 1992; Soutar & McLeod, 1993; Fredline & Faulkner, 2000). For instance, events such as Caboolture Shire's Woodford Folk Festival aimed "to stimulate, facilitate and foster the preservation and promotion of folk culture" (Woodford Festival, 2000) and arguably, facilitated the development of social capital (Arcodia and Whitford, 2002). The festival is public in nature and not only encourages citizens to participate in the creation and maintenance of the activities as a part of the shared life of a community (Schuster, 1995) but also facilitates the development of contemporary cultural identity.

Not all events produce positive impacts like the Woodford Folk Festival. In some instances, the host community can and has become hostile toward an event due to, among other things, the occurrence of negative socio-cultural impacts (Fredline and Faulkner, 1998). These negative impacts include disruption to resident lifestyles, traffic congestion, vandalism, overcrowding and crime (Dwyer et al, 2000). One means of avoiding many of the negative socio-cultural impacts associated with events, is to develop event policies informed and underpinned by the principles of alternative development theory.

- Environmental Focus

Importantly, of the 1196 references to events identified in the SEQROC policies, shown in Figure 3, 784 were indicative of alternative development and placed varying degrees of importance on environmental issues.

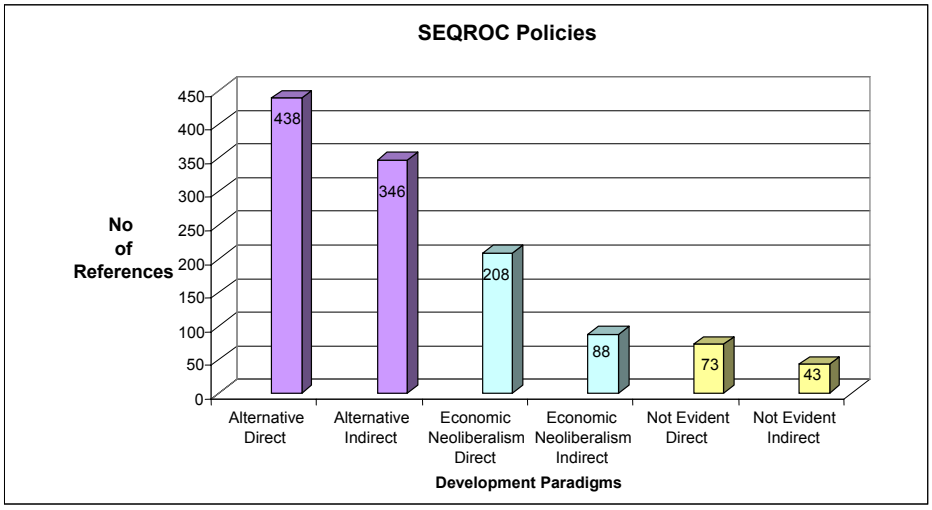


Figure 3: Number of direct and indirect references from each development paradigm

For instance, the Brisbane Sport and Recreation Strategy (2002-2005, p. 5) claimed "investment is skewed towards developing and maintaining a wide range of appropriate local and district facilities rather than a few major venues designed to host national and international events". Therefore, by adhering to the principles of alternative development, event policy and subsequently events can also help bring about enhanced quality of life and urban renewal in a neighbourhood through increased infrastructure and the construction or redevelopment of venues. Unquestionably, World Expo 88, held on the site now known as Southbank in Brisbane is a good example of where the staging of an event has brought about positive environmental impacts.

Nevertheless, environmental issues associated with events have generated varying levels of debate. For instance, invariably a host destination such as Surfers Paradise on Queensland's Gold Coast has unique physical characteristics that can be used advantageously in the process of marketing an event such as the Indy Lexmark race car championships. Yet, those same physical attributes are environmentally fragile and in 2004, 1,270 petitioners requested the Queensland Legislative Assembly to:

> take all necessary action to prohibit removal of vegetation from areas of Crown Land … and prevent the further degradation and encroachment of these areas in connection with the Gold Coast Indy race and associated events (Qld Hansard, 2004, p. 248).

Therefore, events often require specific policy, arguably underpinned by alternative development theory incorporating environmental sustainability (WCED, 1987) to ensure protection against negative impacts including environmental damage, noise and overcrowding. The SEQROC policies then, underpinned by alternative development paradigms displayed an environmental and/or socio-cultural focus indicative of alternative development paradigms. It is important to note here that although the underlying principles of alternative development are admirable and conducive to positive socio-cultural and environmental growth and development, the significant role of economic development should not be underestimated nor undervalued.

Economic Priorities

In comparison to policies underpinned by alternative development, only 5% (12) of the SEQROC policies were singularly underpinned by economic neoliberalism which places emphasis on "supply-side factors, private investment, market led growth and outward development (Brohman, 1996a, p. 27). For instance, Ipswich City Council's Development Incentives Policy (1998, p. 1) said "the (event) project shall be in accordance with Council's Corporate goals and shall stimulate local employment and/or commercial activity.' The significance of this result is evident in the realisation that by the mid 1980's Australia, like the rest of the world, began adopting an economic neoliberal approach to policy development and instigated trade reforms, deregulation and lower levels of protection (MacIntyre and Jayasuria, 1992). Yet, despite the apparent capacity of events to facilitate regional economic development, overall the policies pertaining to events developed by SEQROC from 1975-2004 did not follow this general trend.

Nevertheless, the SEQROC policies demonstrated the capacity of events to facilitate positive economic benefits to a region. However, Dwyer, Mellor, Mistilis & Mules (2000) indicated it is not only positive economic impacts but also negative economic impacts of events such as inflated prices, resident exodus and interruption of normal business that should be taken into account when developing event policy. They warned that the success of events should not only be measured by direct economic contributions but should also incorporate positive and negative impacts concerned with the physical, social and political environments of event.

Holistic Event Policy

Increased awareness of the need to adopt an holistic approach to event policy and regional development (Macbeth, Carson & Northcote, 2004) could account for 77 (35%) of the 219 SEQROC policies being underpinned by a combination of alternative development and economic neoliberalism as shown in Figure 4.

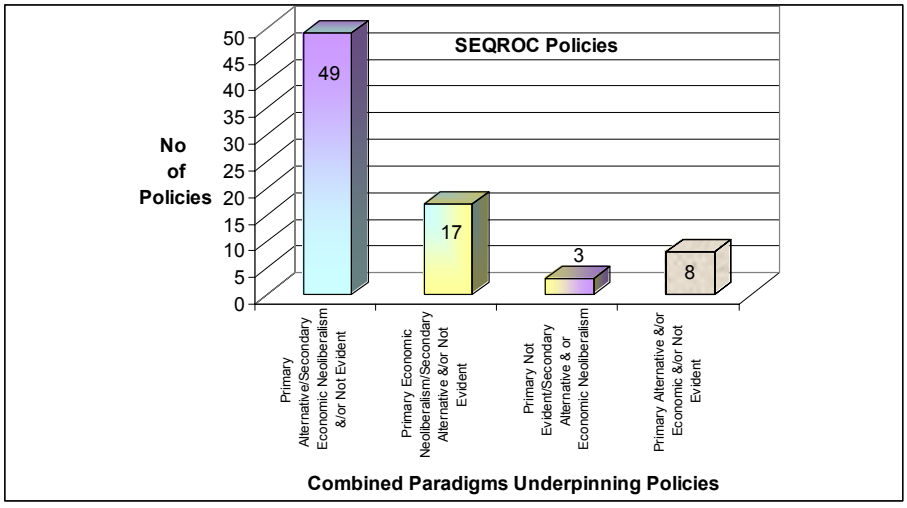


Figure 4: Combined Development Paradigms Underpinning SEQROC policies

Interestingly, the Gold Coast City Council was the only SEQROC member to develop policies underpinned by a reasonably even combination of economic neoliberalism and alternative development. For instance, the Gold Coast City Council Annual Report (1998/1999, p. 35) claimed to "support, enhance and promote tourism and

events as the major industry in the region". At the same time, the policy (Gold Coast City Council Annual Report, 1998/1999, p. 36) also suggested government should "in coordination with the tourism and events industry and the wider community, promote sustainable tourism within the City and its role in encouraging residents and visitors to value and conserve the City's unique natural and cultural assets".

Thus, Gold Coast City Council appeared to agree with the Australian Local Government Association (2004, p. 1) which maintained that "regional development is perhaps best viewed as a holistic process whereby the environmental, economic, social and cultural resources of a region are harnessed for sustainable progress in ways that reflect the comparative advantages offered by a particular geographic area". Considering that the Gold Coast City Council has a diverse and impressive event calendar and is arguably one of the most successful SEQROC members in facilitating events, the assumption could be made that policies, such as those produced by the Gold Coast City Council, reflect the holistic approach of the triple bottom line. These policies, which are underpinned recurrently by both economic neoliberalism and alternative development surely facilitate sustainable regional development. Furthermore, theoretically informed policy demonstrating an holistic approach to development surely has greater capacity to facilitate regional development which is striving to retain or attract population and generate investment and wealth against the backdrop of a globally competitive open Australian economy (Vigar, 1997).

No Development Paradigm

The references in the SEQROC policies with no evident paradigm underpinning them may be because the triple bottom line "is couched in vague language" promising "tradeoffs which don't necessarily have to be made" (McCauley's, 2003, p. 37). Moreover, SEQROC councils may be presenting "a thinned down notion of economic management, while adding back a little social and environmental content as if these are add ons, rather than integral to a government's responsibility" (McCauley, 2003, p. 38).

Policy comprising of rhetorical discourse which is devoid of theoretical underpinnings indubitably will struggle to facilitate regional development. Notably, there were no discernable development paradigms underpinning 12 (5%) of the SEQROC policies. Arguably then, scant or theoretically deficient references made in relation to the development of events within these SEQROC policies suggest that in some instances, SEQROC local governments demonstrated surprisingly little acknowledgement and/or awareness of the concept that the event industry is now a key player in the service sector and is currently favoured by many governments to deliver economic and socio-cultural benefits.

Whatever the reason may be for SEQROC policies with no evident paradigm underpinning them, the result should give cause for alarm as rhetoric without strong theoretical underpinnings will surely struggle to promote positive event related regional development. This is particularly alarming considering local governments increasingly have to find alternative means to raise future revenue to meet the financial pressures brought about from increased responsibilities (DOTARS, 2001). In order to avoid negative outcomes pertaining to development, the conceptual framework advocates that local government should endeavour to utilise development theory to inform and underpin any future policy pertaining to regional events to ensure such policy is appropriate and effective.

Conclusion

The event industry in Queensland continues to flourish and to varying degrees, Queensland local governments are increasingly viewing events as vehicles for the facilitation of development in the regions. While the results of the study revealed that SEQROC event policies displayed a propensity towards alternative development, undoubtedly and understandably so, the development of event policies will continue to focus on economic development within the region. It would however appear reasonable to propose that an holistic approach to event policy encouraging regional development is the key to the maintenance and improvement of the quality of life for those living in the regions of Queensland. Indeed, Raskall (1993, p. 50) argued that 'although economic rationalism may achieve efficiency objectives, these come at an unacceptably high equity cost since by concentrating solely on economic efficiency goals and ignoring the distributional consequences of policy, self-styled economic rationalism fails to achieve even its own limited targets and indeed sabotages them". Hopefully then, future event policies will not only consider economic issues, but will also identify and respond to the socio-cultural, environmental and political issues pertaining to events.

While the results of the study indicated that some of the SEQROC event policies were demonstrating a more holistic focus, the results also revealed that there were SEQROC event policies with no discernable development theory underpinning them. Such a result should give cause for alarm, as such policies are, or should be, underpinned by one or more development paradigms to ensure future development of event policy is appropriate and effective. However, the question must be posed as to what constitutes appropriate event policy development. This study presents the argument that a starting point for appropriate event policy development is, among other things, an awareness of the various development paradigms and utilisation of their associated theoretical underpinnings. While both socio-cultural and economic development are important elements of regional growth, the Bureau of Industry Economics (1994) warned that if events become a major focus of regional socio-economic policy, they may divert attention from the key activity of 'getting the basics right' as they do not address the fundamental structure of an economy. While it is arguably another study to determine what constitutes 'getting the basics right', it would appear reasonable to suggest that the appropriateness of basic elements within policy produced to facilitate development within regions will depend upon the goals and objectives of each region. Therefore governments should be cognisant of the ideological underpinnings influencing the focus, goals and objectives of their event policy. For instance, on the one hand, an event policy with strong economic neoliberal underpinnings may indeed overshadow the very essence of community events and thus damage the future of the event industry in the region. On the other hand, a community and or the event industry may require strong economic injection for survival, therefore local government policy with a strong economic focus may be required. Thus it can be assumed that ideally, local governments could utilise one or more of the development theories in the development of event policy. Perhaps more importantly though, is the need for increased awareness of the various development paradigms that underpin local government policy as this will assist in the development of future government event policy which should have the capacity to promote the growth of the event industry and concomitantly, regional development

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Micro Sporting Event Impacts in Regional New Zealand: The TRACE Sports Project

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Abstract

Event tourism is one of the fastest growing segments of the leisure tourism market. Most media and academic focus is on the on-field outcomes and economic impacts of mega sports events such as the Olympics and World Cup soccer. In real terms though many people (especially in rural areas) feel more directly the impacts created by smaller 'micro-events' like regional triathlons. If planned and organised effectively such events can create economic as well as social benefits for host community(ies). This paper discusses the ongoing development and underlying rationale of a web-based system (TRACE SPORT) that can enable communities, businesses and planners to better understand and estimate the impacts associated with micro sporting-events.

Existing attempts to provide on-line tools for event impact research are reviewed and critiqued. It is argued, from a community informatics perspective, that web-based tools can not only provide communities, businesses and planners with robust estimates of the local economic impacts associated with micro-sporting events, but can also play an active role in transferring skills associated with the research and data gathering process. In addition, web-based systems can foster cooperation and networking between key stakeholder groups.

The paper then outlines the approaches currently being taken to gathering the data that will enable use and later calibration of the model during 2005. To conclude, plans to spread the use of the web-based resource so that further customization and recalibration of the tool can occur are outlined.

Introduction

Sports tourism has been identified as one of the fastest growing domains of the leisure tourism market (Chalip & Leyns, 2002; Shifflet & Bhatia, 1999). This growth has spawned an array of research focused on 'mega' or 'hallmark' sporting events such as the Olympics, America's Cup yachting and World Cup soccer. Many people around the world are, however, more likely to experience the impacts created by much smaller 'micro-events' such as regional triathlons. If planned effectively and used strategically, such events can create economic as well as social benefits for the host community. On the other hand, if events are poorly understood (and planned) communities run the risk of missing an important economic opportunity. At worst, they may experience some degradation in quality of life and economic costs.

Governments have been fast to see the potential of large sporting events to generate economic benefits in urban areas (Orams 1999; Weed and Bull 2004). At the same time, local government, regional tourism organisations and community groups value the benefits associated with micro-events that take place outside core areas of economic growth. Unfortunately, relatively little is known about the economic impacts associated with these smaller events, partly because the cost and effort required to conduct ongoing impact research is often prohibitive.

Growing numbers of commentators are arguing that information and communication technologies (ICT), and particularly the Internet, may provide an important tool in attempts to maximise tourism's benefits for communities (Buhalis & Schertler, 1999; Mason & Milne, 2002). In this paper we discuss the creation of a web-based system that can enable communities to better understand and estimate the impacts associated with micro sporting events. The approach in this instance is to develop a model, based on neo-keynesian multiplier approaches, that provides robust local economic estimates while still being user-friendly enough to enable local communities to gather and/or analyse the research. The web-based system will also offer opportunities for stakeholders to share their experiences in conducting micro-event research. Through participant, local business and event organizer surveys/interviews, the research aims to contribute new theoretical and empirical insights to the important links between sports event management and regional development. This sports related tool-kit will eventually form part of the New Zealand Tourism Research Institute's (NZTRI) TRACE (Tourism Research and Community Empowerment) suite of online resources (see www.tri.org.nz).

Sports Tourism and its Impacts

Sports Tourism, defined as all forms of active and passive involvement in sport activity that necessitate travel away from home and work locality (Standeven & Knop, 1999), has grown rapidly in the last two decades. A recent report highlighted the extent of sports tourism on the world stage by stating that as many as 20% of tourists trips in England were for the prime purpose of sports participation, while 37 – 38% of domestic trips in Canada and America respectively, were for sports-related purposes (Ausport, 2000). From 1987 to 1997, the percentage of domestic travel for sports related purposes rose 10% in New Zealand with the number and variety of events increasing commensurately (Hall & Kearsley, 2001).

The growth of sports tourism is driven by a number of factors. The fact that sport is increasingly shaped by global technology, finance and media has inevitably raised the profile

of international and national events. This global presence has, in turn, necessitated the creation of a carefully programmed variety of sporting activities throughout the year. The increasing popularity of sports tourism can also be explained by the greater appreciation by Governments and planners of the economic value of sport, and their consequent willingness to invest public funds in event bids and infrastructure development (Hall & Kearsley, 2001; Kurtzman, 1995).

There has been a wealth of studies into the tangible and intangible benefits of sports tourism. Benefits reviewed include: raised community spirit and encouragement to participate in sport (Auld & McArthur, 2003); media attention and the raising of a local area's profile; adding animation and life to existing facilities; encouraging repeat visits; and assisting economic regeneration (Getz, 1991; Weed & Bull, 2004). The bulk of impact studies cover familiar economic terrain and are focused on large scale events that attract participants and/or spectators in their tens of thousands to predominantly urban settings. Sport events that have been subject to economic impact studies include: The America's Cup (Market Economics, 2003; Orams & Brons, 1999), various Olympics (Kasimati, 2003; Preuss, 2004), FIFA World Cup (Horne & Manzenreiter, 2004) and The Rugby World Cup (Jones, 2001). The majority of these reports trace the flow of spending associated with the event in the host community and identify resultant changes in sales, tax revenues, income and jobs (Lee and Taylor 2005; UK Sport, 2004).

Each of the aforementioned studies reported favourably on the economic benefits generated by events. NZ's America's Cup Defence in 2003, for example, generated $523 million of net additional spending in the NZ economy (Market Economics Ltd, 2003). A recent report, which summarises the economic benefits of 16 major sporting events, found that in nine of the sixteen events, the additional expenditure generated in the host economies exceeded £1.45m (UK Sport, 2004).

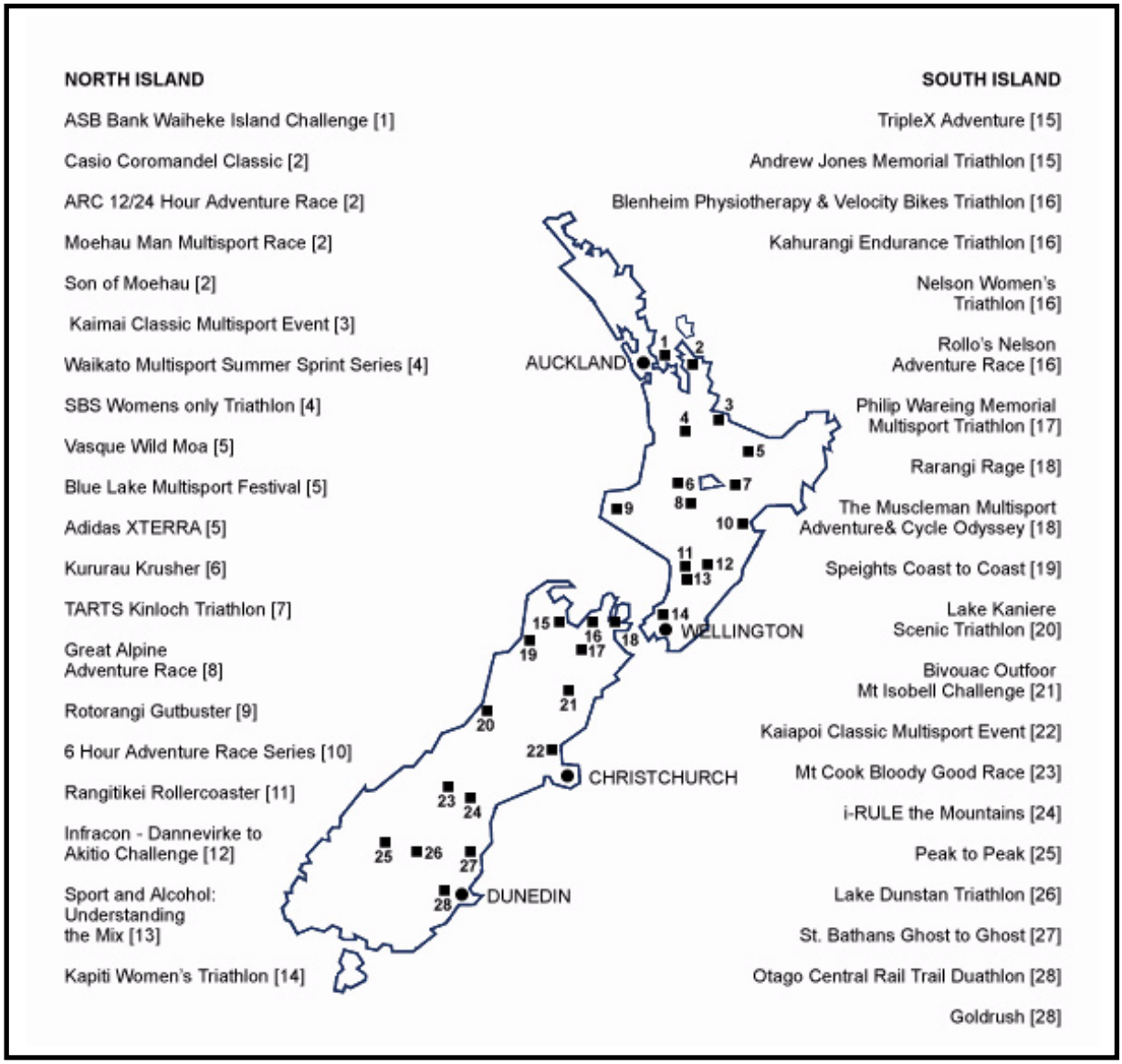
Recently there has been a growth in interest in the economic impacts of smaller sporting events (Ryan, 1996, 1998; Auld & McArthur, 2003). In New Zealand, for example, a number of studies have been conducted on local rugby matches (Higham & Hinch, 2002; Venture Taranaki, 2004) and sports-meets such as the South Pacific Masters' Games (Ryan & Lockyer, 2001). These studies highlight the strong impact on the local economy. Indeed Higham & Ritchie (2001) argue that these smaller local events offer many of the same benefits as their larger scale counterparts, including: generating tourism awareness through events promotion, the attraction of visitors and associated expenditure and the boosting of community spirit. Despite the relatively small size of the events that provide the focus for these past studies, it is important to note that they still draw visitor numbers (sometimes in the thousands) that are in reasonably large and often tend to take place in larger regional centres (Gibson, Willming & Holdnak, 2003).

'Micro sporting events' in smaller towns, where participants and spectators may number only a few hundred, remain relatively neglected by researchers, despite their potential to inject income and the fact that they usually operate within existing infrastructure limitations and require minimal investment of public funds (Lee & Taylor, 2003). New Zealand has experienced a proliferation of micro sports events in recent years (Ryan, 1998), particularly in triathlons, multisport and adventure racing (Figure 1). These types of events have comparatively low entry fees, variable equipment requirements and are held in small regional centres away from NZ's larger cities. Aside from the requisite landscape, regional areas also offer logistical advantages for event organizers, particularly for triathlon and multi-sport

events, which utilize (preferably low use) public roads. This has given smaller tourism centres the chance to reap the benefits from sport tourism.

At the same time micro-events can lead to negative impacts such as loss of amenity, noise and traffic congestion which can be magnified in small settings. Daniels et al. (2004) note the community issues associated with geographically limited economic impacts shutting out residents. Events can also lead to changes in communities' social and leisure habits and create social costs that are limited to the actual duration of the event (Fredline & Faulkner, 2000; Getz, 1991). Other costs such as financial burden and environmental damage may be felt over a prolonged period of time.

Figure 1. Map of Triathlons, Multi-sport and Adventure Racing Events Hosted in NZ



Understanding the Economic Impacts of Micro-Events

New Zealand's Regional Tourism Organisations (RTO) realize that sport and event tourism are essential to their survival and several have recently established event management units whose charter is to attract events with the potential to generate economic impacts and establish a portfolio of activities that feed into the strengths and character of their region. Hosting events is seen as an integral part of the regional imaging process (Hall & Kearsley, 2001) and many RTO are in the process of developing event calendars in order to coordinate and maximize the potential benefits.

The organisers of sport events and the public authorities who participate in their financing often want to quantify the impact of the event on the economy of the host region, on income and on job creation. This may assist in gaining the community and governmental support necessary to overcome concerns regarding the possible negative impacts (Milne, 1998).

Tourism is an information intensive industry, and control over information shapes the ability of different stakeholders to participate in, and benefit from, the industry (Milne, Mason & Hasse, 2004). Ability to gain more detailed information on the impacts associated with events can enable planners and communities to extract more economic yield per person. However, the key issue is how to get the information needed. In general, communities are information poor and have little exposure to research and related activities. The majority of micro-sport event organizers have a desire to better understand the impact of their events, as do local governments. However these stakeholders often do not have the time, resources or knowledge to conduct an economic impact assessment.

Issues of access to information and research tools, and the growing desire to understand economic impacts, has led to the growth of on-line toolkits designed to assist communities in better understanding the local economic impacts of sports tourism. A number of regional and local economic impact assessment models exist, ranging from full-blown input-output models through to the Canadian Tourism Research Institute's STEAM (sports tourism economic assessment model). A review and a brief critique of some of the major on-line resources currently available to communities, event planners and government are now provided.

For the purposes of this work one web-based tool stands out from the others because of its focus (sports tourism) and its emphasis on using gathered data to continually enhance the flexibility and accuracy of its modelling capabilities. STEAM was developed by the Canadian Sport Tourism Alliance, in association with Sport Canada and a number of other industry associations and research groups. The only information needed to generate results from the model is a basic knowledge of participant and spectator demographics, augmented with information contained in the event's business plan. Ease of access is achieved through hosting the model on the Internet. The model uses standardized visitor expenditure profiles, developed with data from both Statistics Canada, and primary data collected by associations.

Average daily expenditures of visitors to sporting events are calculated using Statistics Canada's Canadian Travel Survey. Measures including the person's role at an event (i.e. spectator, participant or media), the distance they travelled, their age and their length of stay, are used along with other demographic data and the location of the event. This allows an estimate to be prepared of visitor spending. The spending estimate is combined with capital and operations expenditures contained in an event's business plan to produce an overall expenditure profile, which is transferred to the economic impact assessment model

This data is then fed into a modified version of the Canadian Tourism Research Institute's STEAM model, which creates the economic impact estimates from the expenditure inputs. STEAM uses input-output methodology and econometric modelling techniques in addition to incorporating the tax structures of the host community.

In order to improve the calibration of STEAM, sport and industry partners have conducted a series of on-site surveys at key sporting events over the period 2002-2004. These surveys have been used to refine the assumptions used in calibrating the model as well as to identify the effects of other possible factors, such as the type of sport and competition (single location versus multi-day, multi-location). As more survey results become available, the model is re-calibrated and the subsequent estimated impact results more closely reflect those that would have occurred using a full-scale survey-based economic impact assessment.

There are several other examples of web-based economic impact calculators. The US Park Service's Money Generation Model, MGM2, estimates the direct effects of visitor spending for the primary tourism-related sectors of the economy and total effects across all sectors. Impacts are summarized in terms of sales, personal income, value added and jobs (www.prr.msu.edu/mgm2/MGM2web.htm). Impacts may be estimated for individual visitor segments. The model can be used to estimate economic impacts of current visitors, or to evaluate management alternatives. The spending and associated economic impacts of any change in the number or types of visitors may be evaluated with MGM2.

The US Arts & Economic Prosperity Calculator is a free and simple tool that makes it possible to estimate the economic impact of a non-profit arts organization, or entire non-profit arts community on a local economy (www.artsusa.org/economicimpact). The analyses are based on research findings from 91 communities that were part of *Arts & Economic Prosperity,* Americans for the Arts' national economic impact study of non-profit arts organizations and their audiences.

The NZ Tourism Research Council has also recently released a Tourism Toolbox (www.tourism.govt.nz/tourism-toolkit/tkt-situation-analysis/tkt-economic-impact.html). This is a free, web-based tourism planning toolkit, which contains a set of tools to help local authorities plan for tourism and tackle specific tourism-related issues. One of the goals of the toolbox is to give local authorities the ability to undertake their own economic impact studies. This is deemed important because national level data on the economic impact of tourism (International Visitor Survey and Domestic Travel Survey) is often not reliable at local authority level. The economic impact toolbox, which is part of the situation analysis section, contains checklists, survey methodology, examples and gives guidance. Two methods of establishing direct impacts are illustrated, a source of approximate multipliers is given, and copies of the most recent questionnaires used to derive the results are provided.

These web-based initiatives build on the key elements of community informatics (CI) – a discipline that emphasizes the design and delivery of technological applications to enhance community development, and improve the lives of residents. Commentators identify three strategies for using CI as an enabler of community development: as a marketing tool for local business; as a mechanism to bring together a range of 'linked' resources of value to improving quality of life; and as a distributed network that can assist the creation of new relationships and economic linkages. (Gurstein, 2000; Shuler, 1999). The CI literature focuses on five key areas in which ICT can enhance community quality of life. These are (O'Neil, 2002).:

- the promotion of strong democracy and participation in planning processes;
- the development of social capital;
- the empowerment of individuals, especially marginalized groups;
- the strengthening of community and 'sense of place'; and
- the creation of sustainable community economic development opportunities.

A key focus for CI proponents is the need for communities to move beyond having things done for them, and become active participants in their own development. Community informatics programs, like those outlined above, are often started and run by government agencies and are typically aimed at increasing generalized community benefits. They have a major focus on participatory planning processes, raising economic well-being of the collective and e-democracy. Loader et al. (2000) believe that this type of approach is another manifestation of 'top down' ICT policy. While governments and agencies have enthusiastically accepted the need to embrace the 'information society' the success of these projects is mixed at best, and is often curbed as budget cuts and other factors hamstring initial enthusiasm (Gurstein, 2000).

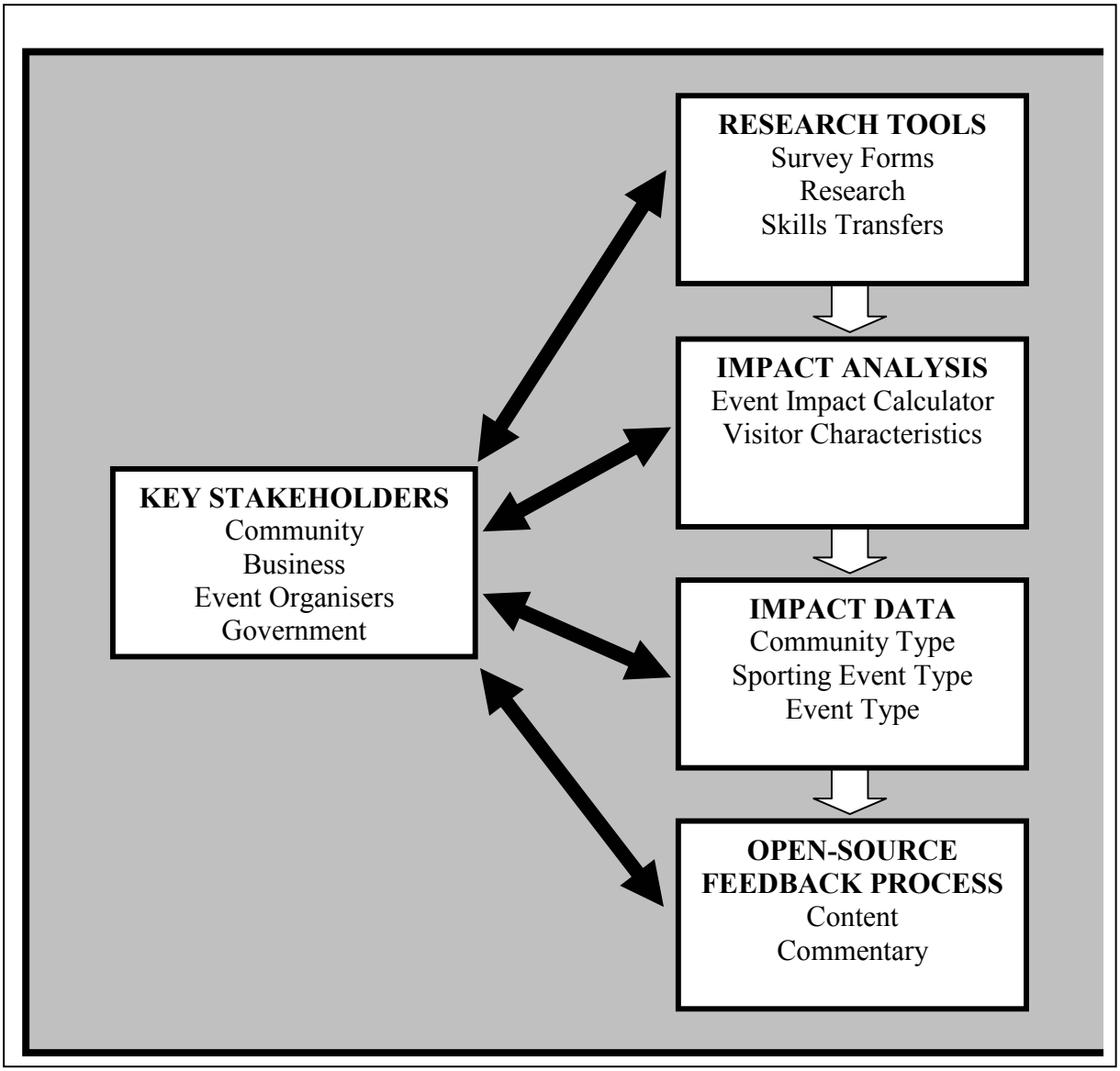
TRACE Sport

The models reviewed above rely on data that can be hard to generate at the town or locality level. In addition the best of the models - STEAM - requires considerable recalibration if it is to work effectively for different types of sporting events and economic settings. In addition both approaches require considerable expertise and/or training to be able to be used effectively. Indeed access to STEAM is restricted to members of the Canadian Sport Tourism Alliance who have attended a training workshop that is offered regionally across Canada - reducing opportunities for local mentoring and requiring considerable time input from participants.

To create a 'bottom up' approach to applied community informatics a 'hook' is needed to interest people in using the new technology (Loader et. al, 2000). In common with the Canadian STEAM, the objective of the TRACE SPORT research program is to develop a tool that is easy to use but also easy to access and be trained on, open-source in concept and with the methods and approaches being readily available on the Internet.

The first criteria, ease of use, will be achieved by enabling local stakeholders to access tools for gathering data and providing simple approaches for data analysis using online survey approaches refined by NZTRI in recent years. The second criterion, ease of access, will be achieved through innovative use of the Internet. Not only will data collection and analysis tools be available on the web, they will also be able to be updated and reworked by participants – who are requested, in turn, to feed their input back into the system. It is this open source approach to sharing and receiving information that has the potential to increase uptake and generate quality data for the calibration of the model (Surman & Wershler-Henry, 2001). The tool kit will comprise survey and other tools that can be downloaded and then used for data collection purposes. (Figure 2).

Figure 2: Key Components of the TRACE SPORT Economic Impact Model



The tool kit will also provide simple approaches for data analysis – including the provision of expenditure estimates and economic linkage data that can simply be combined with estimated visitor numbers to provide base line estimates for impacts

The web-site (Figure 3) will also offer opportunities for stakeholders to share their experiences in conducting micro-event research. In this manner, the project seeks to move beyond the economic impact studies conducted by professional firms on large scale sporting events in large population centres, and to develop the ability for the stakeholders of small sporting events in small population centres to conduct their own economic impact assessments. This will enable them to work cooperatively with local government and RTOs, a move which Higham and Ritchie (2001) consider essential in creating an integrated regional event tourism product to further serve the interests of the region. This approach also links to and builds upon the NZ TRC tool kit by developing a more interactive approach.

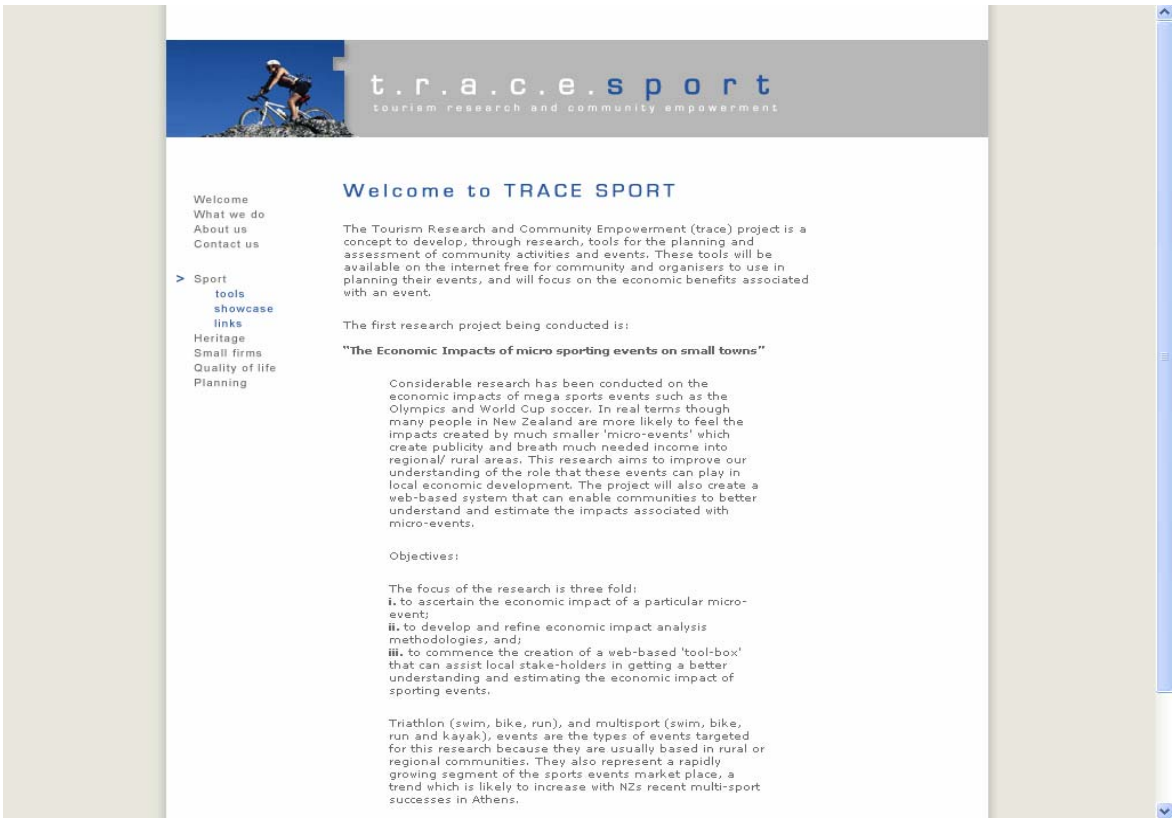
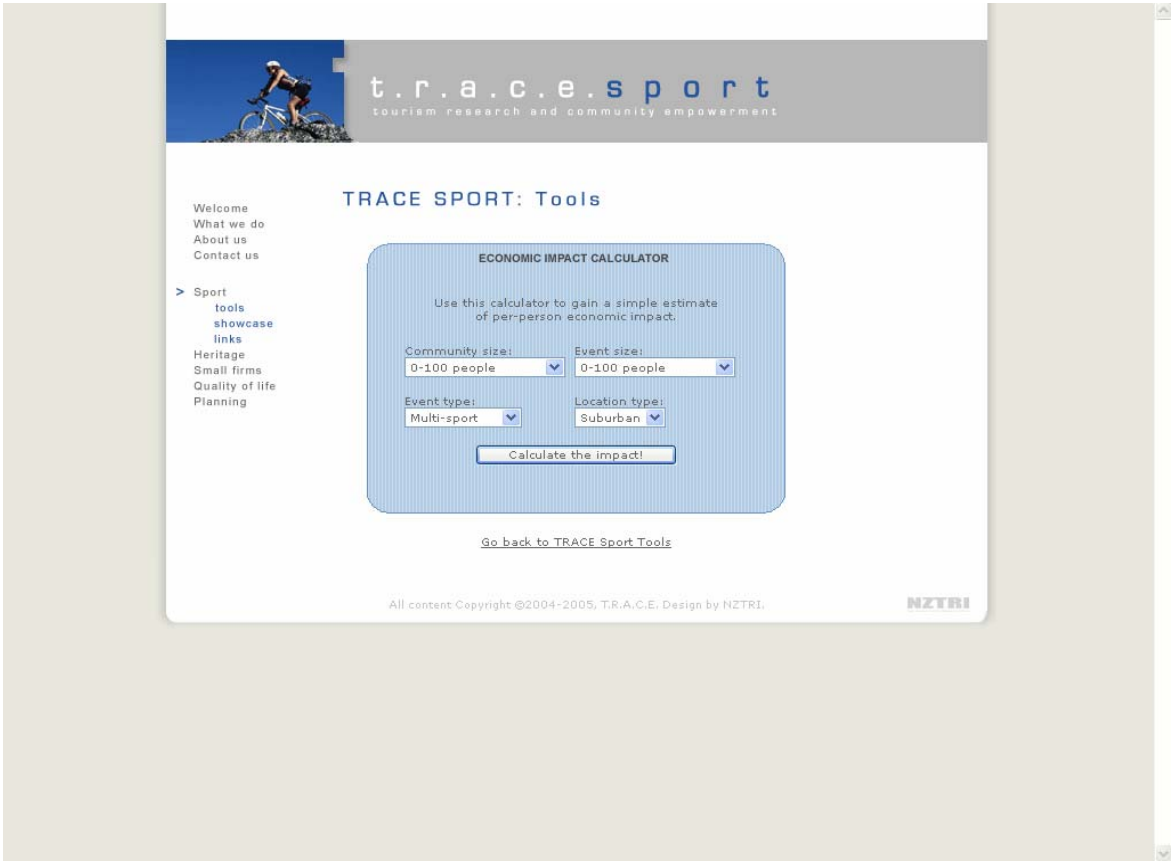


Figure 3. Trace Sports Website showing homepage and economic impact calculator page



Our approach is to use a model based on neo-keynesian multiplier theory (see Milne 1987; Milne, 1998) that can provide robust local economic estimates while still being user-friendly enough to enable local communities to gather and/or analyse the research. It is the direct impact attributable to additional expenditure that is the focus, in order to allow for meaningful comparisons between events.

As the number and array of communities and events using the system grows it will be possible for communities to have two choices in developing a better understanding of a sporting event. One will be to use the calculator (Figure 3) to search for communities and events that have a similar size, location and characteristics to those of a forthcoming event, in this case a more generic impact figure can be achieved. The other approach will be for the stakeholders group(s) to conduct primary research using the on-line tool kits and then utilising the economic impact model to derive more accurate findings. As the number and range of studies increases, so will the accuracy and applicability of the more generic approach.

Gathering the Information

The data to allow initial calibration of the model is being collected from six multi-sport/triathlon events during February-May 2005. Events have been chosen to provide a comparison of event size, type, sponsorship, profile and age. The research will also analyse the impact of support crews and spectators. The research revolves around several key elements: a survey (on-line) of participants/supporters/spectators with spectator surveys sometimes being conducted by hand; interviews with local businesses and expert interviews with event organisers and local government officials are also used. These are effective and inexpensive methods that enable us to 'triangulate' the data being collected (Oppermann 2000).

The participant/supporter/spectator survey consists of an online questionnaire. Email addresses are acquired from race organizers, and participants are made aware of the questionnaire through: a pre-event email, a short introduction to the study at the race briefing, a written explanation in their race packs and a post-event reminder email. Where applicable spectators are handed cards with the URL of the web survey and requested to complete the survey after their return home. The survey is designed to determine new spend and to establish total visitor number by visitor type. In order to do this, the survey determines the catchment area according to local, regional, national or international respondents and establishes the proportion of people whose main reason for being in the host community is the sporting event. It then quantifies the number of visitors that stayed overnight in the host community and the proportion of those that made use of commercial accommodation. The respondent is then asked to estimate how much they (themselves and close travelling party) spent in the host community and on what activities it was spent. The survey also accounts for training visits associated with the event. Basic demographic characteristics are also included to allow comparison with current tourism research and census data. An example of the surveys used in the research to-date can be viewed from June 8 at: www.tri.org.nz via the TRACE link.

Key businesses, from each tourism industry sector in the host community, are interviewed after the event, as are local government event managers and regional tourism organisers. Questionnaires are utilised to encompass the wider business community. Pilot trips to each location are undertaken and important local characteristics defined through observation and initial interviews with the event organisers. These trips provide the opportunity to develop

contacts and familiarise stakeholders with the research. The surveys and interviews again focus on determining economic impacts. The possibilities of leveraging, leakages, negative event externalities and the importance of tourism to the community (and businesses themselves) are also addressed.

Conclusions

Sports tourism is a vital component of economies around the world and it is micro-sporting events that often make their impact felt in more peripheral areas. There is only limited understanding of the true economic impacts of these small events and there is considerable work to be done in creating cost effective tools for those who want to better understand the economic yield of events and how they can be developed in a sustainable fashion.

This paper has argued that ICT, and particularly the Internet, can play an important role in helping to build closer relationships and linkages between New Zealand communities, businesses and sports tourism. The STEAM model from Canada is an excellent example of how technology can assist groups with limited resources to better understand the connections between sporting events and local economic development. The Trace Sports model outlined here adds important new dimensions to the STEAM model by building upon the basic principles of community informatics to develop a web resource that is open-source in nature and which facilitates the sharing of knowledge as well as the generation of economic impact figures.

Research elsewhere shows that ICT can help in strengthening linkages between visitors and local economies; and, in the long term, giving local people and communities more control over the tourism planning process (Hull & Milne, 2001; Mason & Milne, 2002). The key question remains, however, as to how we not only ensure that local involvement and participation occurs, but that it can be sustained in such a way that it leads to effective development outcomes. Just as in traditional communities, citizens must be motivated if they are to participate. Whilst the Internet changes the capacity and quantity of information that is available, Bimber (1998) asserts that it is not clear that it will also change motivation and interest.

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Why do Regional Community Cultural Festivals Survive?

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Abstract

This paper is concerned with research into the stakeholder positions that exist in destinations hosting community cultural festivals. The investigation explores the contribution of stakeholders in the survival of regional community cultural festivals. Each of four festivals fills an important role in its community's annual portfolio of leisure activities. The case study festivals have been conducted for between 10 to 70 years.

The paper discusses what community cultural festivals are and the roles they play in the lives of key stakeholders. The in-depth investigation increases our understanding of the experiences of individuals and groups engaged with community festivals. An examination of sustainability factors of each festival provides a better insight into its potential longevity.

The nuances of stakeholder influences and relationships are exposed through a multiple perspective approach. Patterns and structures of stakeholder involvement are identified through interviews, participant observation and secondary data. Four descriptive case studies are provided of the Jacaranda Festival in Grafton, Beef Week in Casino, Byron Bay New Year's Eve celebrations and Nimbin's Mardi Grass.

What emerges is that the longer established festival organizations, amongst the case study festivals, demonstrate survival through their consistent delivery of an event that encourages others to partner, share resources or invest in its management. In Byron Bay and Nimbin the fragile relationships between some groups can become a sticking point. Their festival organizations source required personnel and networks informally with individuals. Casino and Grafton have consistent support of the Council, a volunteer community committee, the media, individual residents and service clubs. The host communities of Casino and Grafton expect their festivals to survive because of the formal structures in place.

This study showed the survival of regional community cultural festivals is dependent on such factors as communal memory, willingness to work collaboratively, organizational traditions and experience. Acceptance by the residents of the host community and buy-in by local and regional stakeholders enhances the potential for the festival to sustain itself and become accessible to visitors.

Introduction

The collaboration that occurs when regional community festivals such as the Beef Week Festival in Casino, the Jacaranda Festival in Grafton, the Mardi Grass Cannabis Law Reform Rally in Nimbin and Byron Bay's New Year's Eve celebrations are hosted clearly demonstrates the nature and value of regional community cultural festivals for stakeholders. This collaboration suggests that social and cultural patterns emerge from highly localised decision-making processes. Festivals offer an opportunity for such decisions to be made, be accumulated and become embodied for local and shared consumption by all shareholders (Blau, 1994:16). The paper picks up this key theme of active participation by regional community stakeholders and what they contribute to the survival of community cultural festivals.

The Northern Rivers of New South Wales (NSW), Australia has a robust tradition of community festivals. The Northern Rivers region is comprised of individuals, communities and institutions representing diverse sub-cultures of geographic, demographic and psychographic influence. The region has a layered human heritage reflecting the waves of migration to the coast and its hinterland. The individuals and groups who have sought to stay since the indigenous settlement have contributed to the diverse regional cultures that include festivals.

There are a number of significant influences on the choices made in the organization and delivery of each of the four case studies. These include not only the personal or the intra-personal (Richins and Pearce, 2000:211) where the process is affected by the beliefs, attitudes and values brought to a situation by participants, but also by the external circumstantial influences that apply. The four case study festivals are situated at different locations on a survival continuum. This paper focuses on the analysis of partnerships and regional engagement to gain a greater understanding of how festivals may survive and provide benefits to regional stakeholders.

The purpose of these case studies is to understand the nature and roles of regional stakeholders in community cultural festivals. It describes the processes inherent in the delivery of such festivals from an in-depth perspective.

Literature Review

Survival and longevity are regarded as key festival success factors by Lade and Jackson (2004) especially if they demonstrate organisers' met objectives. While there are instances in the host communities of special events and festivals that have faced serious problems and failed to sustain their position in the community's social and recreational life, the paper recognises the value of stakeholder relationships to festival longevity. Community stakeholders enhance the festival's survival by providing a set of assets or strengths individually and collectively. These can included 'skills and knowledge, leadership, a sense of efficacy, norms of trust and reciprocity, social networks and a culture of openness and learning' (Labonte, 1999).

Getz (2002) identifies limited attention paid in the literature to the risk of failure and critical success factors that influence the longevity and sustainability of an individual's involvement with organisations that conduct such festivals. He suggests that research into the collaboration and risk sharing amongst festivals deserves greater attention. His study (2002:217) recognises the nature of the non-profit sector with particular forces and issues at play. He acknowledges the inherent lifecycle factors that can be analysed in the preparation and delivery of such festivals (Frisby & Getz, 1989: Getz & Frisby, 1988).

A growing interest in understanding the cultural identities of host communities in tourist destinations (Gilbert, 1989; Keogh, 1990; Ritchie, 1991; Ap & Crompton, 1993; Prentice, 1993; Ritchie, 1993; Robinson, 2000:*v;* Lade & Jackson, 2004; Mules, 2004*))* is shared by study stakeholders (see Figure 1.). Culture, identity and meaning are complex terms and are open to competing and complementary interpretations and definitions. The starting point is the notion that there has been a substantial transformation in the lives of residents in regional and rural Australia. Historians and social commentators (McGregor, 1981, 1999, 2003; Ryan, 1979, 1984; Ryan & Smith, 2001; Rogers, 1998; Mackay, 1993; Chigwidden, 2001) document the shift from homogenous conservative agricultural communities in the Northern Rivers region to diverse service orientated communities and suggest residents are having to deal with new challenges in their pursuit of an acceptable quality of life.

Festivals are situated as attractions in the tourism literature. Cultural products and institutions generally are like other consumer goods, regardless of the meanings that people attach to them. Blau (1994:2) suggests that tourism itself is a cultural phenomenon and that culture appears to have no shape to it because it is such a personal affair.

Methodology - Case studies

This case study approach utilised interviews, participant observation and media analysis. The cases are bounded by time and places with specific stakeholder themes under scrutiny. The case studies have been defined through prolonged and repetitive observation of the festivals and systematic in-depth interviews with festival organizers and key community stakeholders. The observations and interpretation of stakeholder intentions in community festival development and management were examined. Different voices in a community are accommodated and revealed through case study analysis. Attention is paid to the various contexts in which festivals are situated and who is involved and who is not in communities and how this influences the capacity of the festival to be sustained.

Festivals and their longevity have escaped below the traditional radar of triple bottom line accounting. Greater sense is drawn from qualitative data sources to establish how the festival in turn reflects its community roots and determines its future. Community festivals particularly are important to stakeholders. They celebrate a sense of place through organising inclusive activities in specific safe environments. They provide a vehicle for communities to host visitors and share such activities as representations of

communally agreed values, interests and aspirations. Thirdly, they are the outward manifestation of the identity of the community and provide a distinctive identifier of place and people.

The Four Regional Community Cultural Festivals

The following descriptive outline of the four case study festivals identifies the scope, scale and purpose of the festivals that leads to their survival and ongoing engagement with stakeholders.

The Jacaranda Festival, Grafton

The Jacaranda Festival was the first floral festival organised in Australia and was based upon spontaneous revelry, music, dance and a celebration for the beauty with which the City of Grafton and district is endowed. The lilac blossoms' appearance of the Jacaranda signals the special time in Grafton. In 2004 the Jacaranda Festival had been conducted continuously for 70 years. Ten thousand visitors and locals actively participate in the week-long festivities.

The broad community and the business sectors contribute to the Jacaranda Festival. Jacaranda Thursday allows the staff in the central business district to dress up in themed costumes, shops be decorated, and staff perform shows and attract the general public to the shopping precinct (Hinde & Deefholts, 1996). A Queen Crowning Ceremony opens the festival and the following Saturday night a procession along the main street comprising 130 entries ends the festival in the city's Market Square.

Observers note that minimal changes have occurred over the years in terms of the content of the program. There are day trippers in bus packages to special events like a market, river based activities, a floral display at the cathedral, displays in various city venues, champion gardens, concerts, a car speedway, an aircraft muster, dog agility trials, the Grafton City Council's fireworks display, greyhound races, the Jacaranda Baby Competition and a vintage car meet.

The volunteer organising committee is reliant on support from individuals, businesses and local government. The non-profit, community based organisation that has sustained the Grafton event simply solicits active individuals who have a vested interest in specific events under the Jacaranda Festival banner. It encourages personal links within the community and succession management has been undertaken on a 'turn-about' model. Numerous office holders have held other community and local government leadership positions. There has been considerable kudos invested in positions of management of the event now steeped in tradition.

Beef Week, Casino

Casino Beef Week commenced in 1981 as an event linked to a specific local economic driver, the beef industry. What started as a 12 day series of activities targeting locals and

visitors has been downsized in recent years to better suit local efforts and resources of stakeholders and the program elements they support. The annual program includes a dinner dance, and crowning of the Beef Week Queen with each of the up to 10 candidates representing a specific beef cattle breed. Each day there is broadly based community entertainment with a cattle theme. The highlight is a parade of cattle, horse drawn vehicles and commercial floats. A roundabout in the mainstreet is converted into a judging ring where 120+ live steers compete. In recent years programming has embraced aspects of the timber industry, local arts and crafts and shop displays.

A community-based committee manages the festival with strong support from Richmond Valley Council. The festival attracts sound business and media support and increasing attention in the tourist marketplace. It is held in May and attracts substantial interest from the drive market including caravan and motor home owners who base themselves in the town. Service club barbecues like Breakfast with the Butchers are no longer enough for the increasingly sophisticated festival attendee, and so a new element in the festival is Beef on Barker (Street). Local enterprises value adding to the beef sector with olives, nuts, vegetables, wine and dairy are now showcased in a sit down coupon-based foodfest. Participation by a significant number of locals suggests that the festival satisfies resident needs to gather, celebrate and communicate.

New Year's Eve, Byron Bay

The annual New Year's Eve community celebrations held in Byron Bay are a fragile affair. The establishment of a community safety committee by the Shire Council was seen as an opportunity to address concerns held by residents about the growing influx of visitors. It sought to redress the image generated by 'chaos' and 'mayhem' resulting during the New Year's Eve street activity in 1993/4. The negative national media coverage spurred volunteers to seek local solutions through strategic partnerships, rebranding the town and the annual street celebrations. This effort is ongoing. Extensive work has been undertaken to reorientate the target market, encourage families to return, provide participative opportunities for locals and holiday makers through workshops to prepare floats for a parade, harm minimisation strategies in relation to consumption of alcohol and drugs, and innovative waste management to deal with up to 30,000 people.

Organisers sought to capture the lifestyle of residents through engaging celebrations. Byron Bay is a tourism destination. The volume of summer holiday visitors and day-trippers from South East Queensland influenced the strategies employed to diminish pressure on infrastructure in the town's CBD. There is annual discussion, especially through the local media, on how local stakeholders can best deal with the pressures at that specific time.

The efforts of two particular residents were instrumental in getting Council to convene the Safety Committee to investigate ways in which a greater community voice could be had into the planning, management and promotion of New Year's Eve celebrations. As community champions they galvanized considerable local support to solve the challenges of staging a safe event for locals and visitors. Their determined advocacy was based on

personal experience and attributes in the area of organising, negotiating, networking and documenting local input. This particular individual stakeholder engagement has implications for other community cultural festivals.

Mardi Grass, Nimbin

The Nimbin Mardi Grass promotes itself as the biggest hemp harvest festival in the Western world. It regularly attracts over 10,000 people to the village of Nimbin (population 600) in the first weekend in May to celebrate all things hemp, like medicine, fibre, fuel and food. The setting for the festival's Parade is the main street of the village, with associated activities staged in adjacent parkland.

The event is organized as a drug law reform protest. Powerful emotional views are held within the host community about the festival. The volunteer management of the event annually deals with the community tensions that are generated. These include the interests of local businesses, landholders and visitors. Visitors don't appear to be aware of the community development issues associated with local stakeholders' different needs. Volunteers are the backbone of the event. There is a determination to keep the organisation locally based and structurally uncomplicated. The police, local government, Chamber of Commerce, tourism agencies and regional media are all significant players in how the image of the village is projected beyond the three-day festival.

There are seminars, markets, a hemp trade fair, hemp fashion shows, a pot art exhibition, street theatre and street music during Mardi Grass. There are seed swaps, a semi covert judging of the Cannabis Growers Cup, debates about the virtues and the hazards of cannabis use. The big crowd event is the Mardi Grass Parade.

Mardi Grass offers considerable cultural and tourism capital to the region. Backpacker tourism to Nimbin is growing mostly due to the media it generates. The HEMP (Help End Marijuana Prohibition) Embassy manages the festival through a major shopfront business and tourist attraction in Nimbin's main street. It is part museum, part drug education centre, part hemp merchandising outlet and part meeting place with internet cafe and organising office for hemp activists. Individual community activists have played significant leadership roles over time.

Festival Partners

Community cultural festivals are collaborative phenomena. This study showed that stakeholder partnerships are essential for their sustainability. Prosperity principles of respect, relationships, responsibility and renewal (applied by Desticorp 2004 in their analysis of the future of tourism) highlight the encounters between host and guests relevant to the festival context. Trusting relationships between multiple enterprises that generally exist independently of one another come into play for a festival. The mutual interdependency places substantial responsibility on each of the players involved in the collaboration. The process of evolution and change is observed in the case study festivals

being driven by individuals and agencies being mindful of the financial, human resources and 'in-kind' commitments being made.

Key partners or stakeholders (see Figure 1) identified in the case study festivals include local government, strategic alliances with regional and state government agencies, the local business community, special interest groups in destination communities, regional and local media, individual community champions, festival organisers, residents and visitors. This is closely aligned to those outlined by Allen et al, (2002).

Figure 1: Key stakeholders in Regional Community Cultural Festivals

Adapted from Allen et al 2002

The emphasis and level of participation by each partner in each community varies at different times. The interaction is influenced by the individuals involved, the organisational structures in place, traditions inherent in each community's socio-cultural exchange, the history of public engagement by public authorities and the appeal of the region to potential visitors.

Each festival's program represents a sum of the interactions between the partners. Each of the players influences the process as well as being affected by the finished product. It is noted that festivals support community social and economic enterprise. This can be through volunteer self-help groups, public or private commercial activities that are encouraged during the preparation of the festival or as a result of its placement in the annual calendar within each destination. These festivals generally support existing businesses, though a case can be made that creating new or more business is worthy of further investigation. Festival organisers speak of opportunities for local business development (Humphrys, 2003; Balderstone, 2003; de Graaf 2001) through value adding food production, arts and craft production and sale.

Partnerships that support the host community's sense of itself and its place through festival investment either in-kind, by sponsorship deals, by sharing resources or offering

media promotion help build confidence in the life of the festival. A diverse range of inputs identified in the Table 1 summary (below) amongst the four case studies, demonstrates the influence of the relationships and how they enrich the efforts of organisers and encourage local support for each festival. The formal and informal links become known to the potential audience for each event and help consolidate the impression of widespread awareness, satisfaction and value derived from the relationship for each contributing partner.

Table 1: Stakeholder roles in festival survival

STAKEHOLDER	ROLE IN PARTNERSHIP
Host community	• Produce and consume festival • Act as host for visitors • Free access to most of festival as audience • Contribute and celebrate cultural diversity • Traditional and new settler exchange of rituals, volunteer support and >75% of participants • Interest in creating a legacy • Target market supporting image of festival and identity for its promotion
Community Champions	• Individuals providing vision & leadership, generating enthusiasm, delivering advocacy and attracting respect and loyalty from organization members and wider community • Bringing goodwill and external recognition to festival
Volunteer co-workers	• Demonstrate active participation in community life • Establish and consolidate networks • Local problem solving • Personal skills development and empowerment • Greater understanding of local beliefs, attitudes and values
Festival Organisation	• Formal structure emphasizes identity and connection to host community • Offers safety and security for participants • Membership comprised of local community • Succession strategies • Community profile

STAKEHOLDER	ROLE IN PARTNERSHIP
Local Government	• Policy and planning frameworks • Events officers and project management personnel and infrastructure support • 'In-kind' and financial investment • Improve amenities for residents and visitors • Facilitate regional and government alliances and investment • Support tourism marketing initiatives • Reflect community traditions and interests
State and Federal government	• Provide funding to support elements of festival programs and value-add to economic initiatives and harm minimisation challenges
Regional Alliances (agencies and organizations representing sectoral interests)	• Desire to respond to locally agreed agendas • Offer financial support and advice • Encourage initiatives with regional outcomes, e.g. collaborative tourism promotion, arts development, regional cuisine, entrepreneurial initiatives • Some e-technology support
Business community (local and regional)	• Be open during festival! • Provide feedback to organizers on economic impacts • Provide sponsorship – 'in-kind' or financial • Collaborate in packages and promotion • Active involvement during event highlighting local products and services
Sponsors	• Demonstrate local corporate goodwill • Share target markets • Establish links to host destination • Share brand • Naming rights
Supplier, performers	• Provide entertainment reflecting local cultural objectives • Offer educational workshops, knowledge sharing and demonstrations • Repeat contributions builds loyalty

STAKEHOLDER	ROLE IN PARTNERSHIP
Special Interest Groups (local, regional, (inter)national)	• Festival acts as umbrella for diverse but themed pursuits • Consistent involvement brings repeat visitation & builds momentum • Encourages engagement in social action • Provide connection to community issues, concerns and interests • Attracts visitors from further afield • Offers broad network distribution of promotional material
Media (local, regional (inter)national – print, audio-visual, web-based)	• Significant coverage by regional print and a/v media, before, during and after festivals • Document and editorialise image and identity, generate archive • Promotion of regional lifestyle • International market reached through web casting, internet, documentaries • Stimulate debate and controversy • Encourage community responses • Sponsorship
University (Southern Cross University) Other education partners, TAFE, schools	• Provide research and evaluation services to assist with planning and management • Provide an audience for festivals • Provide entertainment for festivals • Provide industry training in event management
Visitors	• Interest in *doing what the locals do* • Curiosity to learn, discover and interpret local traditions • Repeat visitation substantial because of connection with host community (VFR or reunion) or event • Substantial visitation from SE Queensland • Word of mouth value

Each festival initially had strong links with their respective communities, but the growing number of visitors brings stress on infrastructure, pressure on internal relationships and resentment about the influx of outsiders. Again, the spectrum across the four festivals reveals differing levels of response to these issues. A number of interviewees commented on the way the festivals contributed to a social multiplier through increased

understanding of organisational activity and skills development in project management, leadership, public and private collaboration (Dunstan, 1999; Roberts, 1999). Organising a major festival takes a lot of individual and collective effort. To get the job done the organisers have to be able to give a lot of time personally and be able to call in a lot of favours and/or inspire volunteerism. Celebration can bind a community and it can also be the instrument that keeps community a fresh and constantly renewing experience, an elixir that keeps community relevant and responsive to the needs of the times. Annual festivals create a community of witness that marks the passage of time and notes the changing of the guard as new power relations arise and old ones change.

The festivals provide service clubs, community special interest groups, local government and businesses with opportunities to raise funds. Some fundraising involves new money with visitors contributing to the common good. This facilitates investment in infrastructure for residents. Some investment in the promotion of the destination using the festival themes adds to the image and identity developed in each community. The destination-marketing dollar increases at times connected to the festivals. The economic implications include greater visitation and increased expenditure by visitors, visiting friends and relatives (VFRs), hosts and local business anticipating the influx which is seen positively and encourages support for the festivals.

These community-based festivals appear to be generated for 'the common good'. Organisers each suggested that the festival audience was 'everyone' and that this open invitation reflected the hospitality of each community. There is an emphasis on festivals providing a mechanism to bring diverse factions of the communities into a shared experience. This study confirms Craik's assertion that partnerships work better in theory than in practice (Craik, 997:135). Each festival can count on a variety of stakeholders where the collaborations satisfy personal or group agendas, but rarely commit to a strategic approach for community development. However, these outcomes help prolong the life of the organisations committed to convening the festivals. Potential problems that can generate festival failure (Getz, 2002) are worked through by minimising problems of planning and marketing, human and financial resources, external pressures and internal organisational culture that may be ameliorated through the partnerships identified.

Discussion

The study notes that over time each festival has had to deal with significant internal challenges in terms of marketing and planning, human resource and financial management, organizational culture tensions and the impact of external forces. It is evident that during the lifecycle of each festival organizers have undertaken little research to inform management decisions, relying on the accumulation of corporate memory, traditions, individual and collective enthusiasm and experience. Festival organizers recognize potential areas of concern to be content and programming, venue and infrastructure support, promotional effectiveness, government investment and volunteer turnover. No festival organiser expressed concern for competition locally or within the region.

Case study organisers are mindful that ideas lose their currency or credibility and that the power exerted by individuals and sub-groups can easily begin to work independently of the dominant culture. There is recognition amongst all stakeholders that they are part audience and part supplier and the shared experience needs to be positive for ongoing collaboration. This study emphasises the dynamic human environment in which festivals operate, recognizing the population ecology framework of Getz (2002:214) by focusing on the wider community and festival stakeholders. Culture and leisure support and feed off one another (Trewin, 2001:273) allowing festivals to add meaning, memories and tradition to the locals' way of life. What emerges is that the longer established festival organizations amongst the case study festivals (Casino and Grafton) demonstrate a better chance of survival because of their consistent delivery of an event that encourages others to partner, share resources or invest in its management.

Issues arising from the commitment for key stakeholders to festivals are discussed. **Councils** in the Northern Rivers region generally see the planning and promotion of events in terms of creating employment, providing economic benefits to the local community and satisfying statutory rather than discretionary obligations. Festival organizers recognize the complex range of approvals, bureaucratic processes, and public safety implications and consent procedures that link them to Councils. The four case studies are located within different local Council jurisdictions that are developing not only festival policies but also cultural policies in line with state government obligations. There are resource implications for funding from state government to local council festival initiatives, thus providing leverage for increased external investment. Effective community festivals, in for the long haul, are supported by local government strategic plans, specific festival strategies and support for organizers in the development of their festival. The employment of event co-ordinators (undertaken by only one Council, Lismore City Council) allows policy and practice to be tackled in a transparent and equitable manner. This has provided a useful framework to engage other stakeholders.

At the heart of this investment by local government in the festival marketplace is a tension between what is regarded as a community cultural development role, notions of *public good* and an eagerness to invest in cultural infrastructure for material, electoral and symbolic gain as also found by Stevenson, (2000:93). Councils' Cultural Policy (Lismore Events Strategy, 1998; Byron Shire Cultural Policy, 2002)) reflect the values held by its constituency. These include partnership opportunities emphasising what unites rather than what divides a community; generation of mutual confidence and respect; recognition of the inter-relationship between cultural and social activity and demographic trends with concerns for transport, safe streets; recognition that the culture sector constitutes a series of industries and can create employment and enjoyment; integrity - moral uprightness and honesty; and customer focus - staff and services to be focused on the user.

Regional Strategic Alliances for the community cultural festivals recognize opportunities for partnerships that have ensured the festivals' longevity. The Northern Rivers Regional Cultural Tourism Organisation (NRRCTO), a cluster of tourism, local government and cultural interests, sought to assist organizers with collaboration and

communication. The Cultural Tourism Plan (Derrett, Wynn-Moylan & Ballantyne, 1995) recognised the importance and the impact of festivals and events on the annual calendars of residents and visitors through a vision to promote '*the diverse and unique culture of the region capable of setting a national example for artistic excellence and cultural authenticity while recognising the opportunities for economic growth and development'.*

The regional tourism organization is **Northern Rivers Tourism** (NRT). It has sought effective ways to create positive images of destinations within the region though little has been done to raise the awareness of visitors specifically to festivals. This has been left to individual event organizers and, in recent times, **Arts Northern Rivers** (the regional arts network). In 2002 NRT included a commitment to festivals as a substantial element of the attractions sector in its Tourism Action Plan. This recognized again that the festival organizers had a chance to engage with wider connections than their host community.

Festivals and events are encouraged in regional economies for their capacity to showcase the region, promote future tourism and business activity (Ritchie, 1984, cited Fredline and Faulkner, 2002:103). Commonly suggested advantages for the business sector (Getz, 1997) to be supportive of festivals and events include the prospect of increased business income, potential public and private investment in the destination, tax revenues and an improved standard of living for residents. The **Northern Rivers Regional Development Board** (NRRDB), the state government **Department of State and Regional Development** and **business communities** in each of the case study destinations have been beneficiaries of collaboration that identifies opportunities for direct and indirect employment, new money in the economy and chances for specific businesses to increase trade as a result of the event.

The **media** in all its guises does much to celebrate the sense of community and place, promote particular images and regional identity and to highlight elements of the cultural tourism agenda. Editorials, news items and advertising each contribute to the key factors pursued in this study. Regularly Editorials respond overtly to the dilemma facing communities as they search for ways to best address their aspirations.

The prevailing pragmatism of the tourism sector towards cultural products, along with government agencies' lack of data on the value of socio-cultural products to quality of life, the knowledge base, the economy and emergent labour-intensive cultural industries make it difficult to make a case for events sometimes. An emerging concern in the region is whether there are in fact *too many* events altogether. The 'events-led recovery' is a subset of the regional tourism dilemma to find the panacea for regional economic development.

Individual community champions within the four festival organizations demonstrate social entrepreneurship, and provide valuable insights, experience and skills in understanding the needs of the festival. Their personal attributes are placed in the service of the festival's longevity. Some garner local and external support and interest that encourages ongoing investment.

*'I think community champions are essential. I can't even conceive there being any social change or any cultural movement without someone who stands up and says, let's go in this direction folks, and they work on a vision, they work with goodwill, they collect volunteers around them' (*pers com. Dunstan, 1999*).*

There are challenges for community champions involved with festival organizations including *the difficulty of dealing with burned out champions. And there are seasons of them as well.* Such leaders *should be recognised as seasonal,* so that *people do it for a while and withdraw* One champion recognises another champion - someone who knows what you went through and had difficulty with, and offers to support the existing champion. *People with spirit, sustaining the spirit (*pers.com, Dunstan, 1999).

Festival Organisers conducting the case study festivals demonstrate traits compatible with volunteer non-profit organizations. Their evolution as event managers, their leadership styles and their connections to the host communities have as much to do with personal character traits as formal training in project management or academic pursuits. These festivals feature a dependence on word of mouth, attendee loyalty and repeat business in terms of marketing this content. Non-traditional low key approaches to marketing are evident e.g. use of publicity directed to their host community rather than the production of glossy brochures.

Each organization is involved at a grassroots level to provide what they see as non-exploitative experiences. Community-based activity teaches the skills necessary to become leaders, coordinators and analysts (Gunn and Gunn, 1991; Dunstan 1994). Skills learned in one area of activity, such as organizing a community cultural festival, can be translated into other community orientated activities as well as developing new businesses or alternative financial institutions.

Organizers are obliged to renegotiate partnerships annually. In two communities the fragile relationships between some groups becomes a contested area, as responsibility for action, investment in infrastructure and community engagement all generate stress. Nimbin Mardi Grass looks within the organization to source required personnel and networks informally with individuals, while in Byron Bay Council has not been consistent in its support of the volunteer community committee who generally use the media for a call to action by individual residents and service clubs. The host communities expect the Casino and Grafton festival organization to survive because of the formal structures in place.

Volunteer participants in the festivals organisations demonstrate an understanding that their contribution of unpaid time to something they believe is of benefit to others. The demographic mix amongst the volunteer based committees varies. Grafton and Casino management committees are comprised of people who have been involved for considerable periods of time. Executive positions are often shuffled amongst a small number of individuals who are dedicated to the long haul of participation. The saving on wages is seen positively in terms of sustaining the organization and festival. Through volunteerism they offer lifelong learning opportunities and civic partnerships that can be

transferred to other aspects of community life. Festivals can be a long-term investment in the aggregate value and principles that underpin that elusive sense of community.

Festivals and events offer an integrated approach to creating vibrant **resident** communities to which people aspire (Getz, 1997; Hall, 1992; Dunstan, 1994). Residents are the foremost target market of each festival. The 'buzz' generated by each festival encourages locals to attend at least one aspect of the event and they are most likely to be a repeat audience. Festivals serve the needs of residents. By providing a local focus they can satisfy specific industry niches like the beef industry in Casino

It is significant that **visitors** feature as event stakeholders. It is the visitor relationship with festivals that organisers and local governments particularly see as opportunities for longevity, economic gain and festival survival. Casino and Grafton festivals are specifically targeting visitors as their host communities are seen to be loyal and ensure festival survival. It is important to note that while visitors are attracted to each of the specific festivals, there are functional attributes of each event and its location that play important roles in the decision making of the attendee (Jenkins, 1999). The less tangible elements that make up the whole reason for visitors to travel to each destination and participate in each festival are complex.

Table 2 Visitation mix at study festivals
The key visitor groups contributing to case study festivals are:

(Inter)national media	Contributors to the festival programs
Families	Visiting Friends and Relatives (VFR)
Special Interest Groups and bus tours	South East Queensland market include day trippers
International Backpackers	Self Drive & FIT market

Visitor satisfaction can depend on the individual's perception of carrying capacity of festival sites. Respondents note the tolerance of host communities to tourism. Young people attending festivals in Byron Bay and Nimbin particularly find the crush from large numbers of participants an attractor, which has them return annually. Byron Bay's New Year's Eve celebrations are now actively de-marketed to reduce the demand for such entertainments amongst outsiders and allow the streets to be reclaimed by residents. The region's close proximity to the substantial conurbation of South East Queensland impacts significantly on attendance numbers.

The community's vision needs to resonate with its particular circumstances and possibilities, including local assets and constraints while connections among appropriate individuals and organizations are nurtured and consolidated. This can be achieved

through the deployment of adequate resources including money; people with available time, expertise, skills, knowledge/information; and social relationships and spaces for networking. For festivals to survive they need time to demonstrate that they are addressing issues over long periods which may mean speeding up processes as opportunities arise, or delaying to a more acceptable timeframe.

The significant features of festival survival evident in the four case studies cluster in three major areas of participation:

Table 3. Features of Stakeholder Contribution to Festival Survival

Independent/Community	**Festival Organisation**	**Partnerships**
An initial good idea that finds resonance with the host community;	Consistent delivery of a creative program that allows residents, visiting friends and relations, guests and repeat visitors to provide positive word of mouth promotion;	Satisfaction by stakeholders who believe they receive a sound return on their investment of finance, market access, time, energy, social outcomes;
Volunteerism is appreciated and nurtured;	Local infrastructure satis-factorily delivers accessible comfort/security/fun for participants and organizers;	A demonstration that the image and identity of the target market is one the existing audience wishes to perpetuate, and new subsets allow for diversification;
People with passion involved at all levels;	Organisational structure accommodates new members and develops succession management strategies;	Few barriers exist in terms of regular, informed community communication;
Individual's experience, influence as resource offered and tested	Consolidation of organisers' experience through documented corporate history, garnering of community respect and understanding of values held by residents;	Substantial partnership with local government, through effective communication, offers to leverage external funds, management and promotional support;
Clear connection of festival with landscape, lifestyle, heritage and economy	Willingness to take risks, respond to new ideas, sustain popular core elements;	Provision of effective links with regional media for editorial, corporate goodwill, sponsorship opportunities, advertising and controversy;

Independent/Community	Festival Organisation	Partnerships
Shared leadership skills of some individuals;	Provision of an umbrella forum for special interest groups;	Provision of fundraising opportunities;
Communal memory generated and consolidated	Interest of organizers to up-skill themselves through training in business and event organising;	Encourage greater visitation and prolong stay in region
	Organisation's objectives met annually	

This table clearly identifies the porous nature of the boundaries encountered by the festival stakeholders. This recognizes the value of communication to ensure partners are kept informed of each other's contribution to the design and delivery of the festivals. This knowledge satisfies the various parallel agendas individuals and agencies may have, and can be recognised as significant determinants of a festival's survival.

Conclusion

The active participation by individuals, groups and formal institutions of differing types and levels in community cultural festivals such as the four case studies manifestly informs the longevity of such festivals. The people factor looms overwhelmingly large in these festivals. Allowing key stakeholders significant opportunities to be involved, to collaborate and feel empowered, ensures the survival of these events. The outcomes and benefits for those engaged in the preparation, delivery and consumption of the festivals demonstrates that satisfaction with specific relationships has influenced the longevity of each festival. Some partnerships are bi-lateral, others multi-lateral, given the umbrella nature of the annual programs.

The critical factors ensuring successful collaboration include the need for partners to establish an effective communication process ensuring that organisations develop a shared vision and objectives for the festival with which they are engaged. Thorough ongoing monitoring and shared reflection of how the partnership is working by all parties is critical to strengthening and sustaining the relationships between organisations and achieving effective outcomes for each, and sustaining the festival to meet the target market's needs.

It is evident that for community cultural festivals to survive attention needs to be paid to the collective political and public will to ensure appropriate resources are mobilised, that risk taking is credible and the stakeholders value their involvement. It recognizes the nature of participation in regional communities in formal and informal ways by individuals and groups and how this contributes to festival survival. Personal and shared

aspects of a sense of community identity (Puddifoot, 2003) are amply demonstrated in concrete community festival settings as a variegated landscape rather than a uniform one (Blau, 1994:16). It acknowledges that festival organisers have finite and fragile resources, hence their dependence on effective relationships with other individuals and groups.

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Arts Events and Their Impacts

An Investigation into the Effectiveness of Arts Festivals Evaluation

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Abstract

With the increasing demands of stakeholders and professional development in festival organization, evaluation is becoming recognized as a valuable tool in demonstrating success and achievement of objectives. However, to date, research in this area has tended to focus on impacts, with limited research on the approaches of individual organizations to evaluation. This paper explores evaluation literature and research and presents the findings of an exploratory study into the approaches to evaluation of arts festivals in the United Kingdom. The study set out to explore arts festivals evaluation, to establish the significance of evaluation in terms of arts festival management and to examine the process of evaluation. The primary objective of the study was to establish to what extent the methods of evaluation used by arts festivals are effective as measures of their success.

Seven UK arts festivals organizers were selected for in-depth study, using a purposive method of sampling. This method ensured that a cross-section of festivals, by size and location, were included in the study. Semi-structured telephone interviews enabled issues to be explored in-depth, by providing an insight into existing practice and approaches within each of the organisations.

Arts festivals have significant social, cultural and economic impacts though only Edinburgh International Festival had impact studies published based on research of it. It was suggested that it is important for these impacts to be measured along with the internal evaluation of planning and management processes. It is believed that evaluation forms a crucial part of the event management process and should be carried out by senior managers within an organisation to enable it to learn and adapt, continually improve quality and encourage innovation. A variety of methods, models and levels of evaluation were discussed and it was suggested that the methods chosen should reflect the purpose of the evaluation and the audience for which the evaluation is intended.

Findings from the interviews suggest that there is a relatively clear understanding of the principles of event evaluation and it forms an essential part of their planning process. Evaluation is carried out at varying levels of advancement and effectiveness among the sample festivals with a variety of methods of evaluation used. All festivals indicated that they would like to conduct more evaluation, but are limited by funding. In addition, it was suggested that it is difficult to determine the effectiveness of their evaluation.

Recommendations arising from the study include: encouraging support for evaluation from funding bodies and professional associations; exploring standardization of evaluation methods to enable increased comparability of findings; sharing knowledge, experience and best practice among festivals; and, encouraging further research into arts festivals and event evaluation, with a particular focus on social and cultural, rather than economic, impact evaluation, and approaches to evaluation beyond impacts.

Introduction

Within the United Kingdom (UK) arts sector, which includes festivals, stakeholders are increasing demands for accountability in order to justify funding, while those involved in delivery are developing appropriate responses. Alongside this, interest in arts festivals research is increasing as the events subject area develops and matures, yet to date there appears to be a paucity of previous research into arts festivals in general, and arts festivals evaluation in particular.

The term 'festival' has been used for hundreds of years and has been used to cover a multitude of events (Bowdin, McDonnell, Allen and O'Toole, 2001). Getz (1997, p.8) provides a useful working definition of a festival, defining it as '*a public, themed celebration',* while Smith (1990, p. 128) provides a more detailed definition perhaps more useful for the purposes of this study, identifying festival as, 'A *celebration of a theme or special event for a limited period of time, held annually or less frequently (including one-time only events), to which the public is invited.'* The Policy Studies Institute (PSI, 1992, p. 1) provides a useful insight into the origins of festivals, stating that:

> A festival was traditionally a time of celebration, relaxation and recuperation which often followed a period of hard physical labour, sowing or harvesting of crops, for example. The essential feature of these festivals was the celebration or reaffirmation of community or culture. The artistic content of such events was variable and many had a religious or ritualistic aspect, but music, dance and drama were important features of the celebration.

Perhaps due to the diversity in types of art form and festival, and the comparatively limited research into arts festivals, the specific definition of an 'arts festival' is open to discussion. Getz (1997) describes arts festivals as universal, celebrating an art form, artist or historical event in the art world and suggests that such festivals may combine top performers in the field, unusual repertoire and educational events. Research for the British Arts Festivals Association (Allen and Shaw, 2001) suggests that arts festivals can be grouped into several categories, including high profile general celebrations of the arts, festivals that celebrate a particular location, art form festivals, celebration of work by a community of interest, calendar including cultural or religious festivals, amateur festivals and commercial music festivals.

From the above discussion it could be summarised that arts festivals involve the celebration of a theme or event, of human creative skill in areas such as poetry, painting and music, and may involve the celebration of an individual artist, artists, or historical art event. These celebrations are held for a limited period of time, annually or less frequently, and are open to the public.

Evaluation is becoming increasingly recognised as a valuable tool in demonstrating success and achievement of objectives. However, to date, research in events has tended to focus on, particularly economic, impacts (Formico, 1998; Getz, 2000; Harris et al, 2001), with limited research on the approaches of individual organisations to other forms of evaluation. In addition, much of the research appears to be from a tourism, rather than an organisational, perspective (Mossberg, 2000). Getz (1997) identified that it is not enough just to consider the economic impacts. He identifies that the social, cultural and environmental effects that can add to the development of society should also be considered. Further, Faulkner (1997) comments that evaluation has a significant internal role to play, in the input that evaluation has to the organisation's continuing planning and management processes.

In a study by the Policy Studies Institute on arts festivals in the UK (PSI, 1992) a number of festival organisers were interviewed to ascertain how they measured the success or otherwise of their festival. The main focus of this research was on evaluation methods and did not appear to examine the evaluation process in any great detail. More recent studies by BAFA (Allen and Shaw, 2001, 2002) focused on the economic, social and cultural impacts of festivals - the research was presented as a summary of the state of festivals today but did not focus on the process of evaluation or the methods used.

This study set out to explore arts festivals evaluation, to establish the significance of evaluation in terms of arts festival management, and to examine the process of evaluation. The primary objective was to establish to what extent the methods of evaluation used by arts festivals are effective as measures of their success. The paper commences with a brief overview of arts festivals in the United Kingdom and explores evaluation literature and research to place the study in context. It then moves on to present the findings of an exploratory study into the approaches of seven arts festivals in the United Kingdom.

Arts Festivals in the UK

During the early twentieth century arts festivals began to flourish in the UK and elsewhere. Following the world wars, the promotion of popular celebration became a thriving sector of the new industrial economy. The 1950s and 1960s saw the emergence of festival culture that is still around today, with PSI (1992) noting that, since 1945, arts festivals have become a prominent feature in the UK. During the late 1960s and through the 1970s, the number of arts festivals grew steadily; this coincided with the formation of the regional arts board funding structures and with the development of local authorities as providers of arts activities and facilities (Allen and Shaw, 2001). Arts festivals are now a prominent feature of cultural life in Britain - there are estimated to be over 550 annually in the UK, not to mention many more local one-day community festivals and carnivals (Allen and Shaw, 2001; Rolfe, 1992). Local authorities are considered to have been an important factor behind this development as they sought to capitalise on the tourism and economic development opportunities that festivals brought to a region (Rolfe, 1992).

Although comprehensive research identifying the value of festivals to the UK economy has yet to be conducted, a number of studies do provide a useful indication of the potential scale. In 1991 income generated from arts festivals was £40.6 million, of which 58% came from box office revenue and sales (catering and merchandise), 25% from public funding and 17% from business sponsorship (New Leisure Markets UK, 1995). Details of how many festivals generated this income were not available, however, the recent survey of 101 festivals conducted by BAFA (Allen and Shaw, 2001), revealed that income generated in 1998 and 1999 was £39.1 million, while the festivals spent £37.4 million, which could have resulted in spending in other areas of the economy of £93.1 million.

Further, on a regional level, a picture begins to emerge of the potential scale of the impacts. A recent study of eleven festivals in the East Midlands (Maughan and Bianchini, 2003) found that the festivals spent just under £990,000 in the region with an additional £570,000 estimated due to multiplier effects, while money spent by audiences amounted to some £7 million, with an additional £4.16 million additional income for the region estimated. Preliminary findings of a study of Edinburgh Festivals in 2004-5 estimate that the summer festivals alone generate around £135 million of new expenditure plus £38 million of income

for Scotland, mostly in the Edinburgh area (SQW Limited and TNS, 2005). As a result, it may be fair to conclude that the true value of arts festivals is likely to be many times the figures used above given the number of festivals being organised, though research has yet to be conducted to provide this level of data.

Evaluation

Many key textbooks in the events management field have explored evaluation to a greater or lesser extent (see, for example, Allen, O'Toole, Harris and McDonnell, 2005; Bowdin et al, 2001; Getz, 1997; Goldblatt, 2004; O'Toole and Mikolaitis, 2002; Shone and Parry, 2004; Silvers, 2004). Despite evidence that suggests that there is a growing interest in evaluation research in the tourism and events sectors (Mossberg, 2000), there does not seem to be a great deal of research concerning evaluation of arts festivals. This is found particularly to be the case in the United Kingdom (Prime, 1998).

There is a wide range of definitions of evaluation in events and the wider literature but the following only relate to events. Getz (1997, p. 331) defines evaluation as, 'the subjective determination of worth – to place a value on something,' while Bowdin et al (2001, p.271) identify it as, 'The process of critically observing, measuring and monitoring the implementation of an event in order to assess its outcomes accurately.' Further, Mossberg (2000, p.7) describes evaluation as, 'A systematic process for objectively assessing the outcomes of the event or programme, while in the wider arts context, Jackson (2004, p. 8) identified evaluation as the 'art of asking interesting and provocative questions'. It is clear that although there are different perspectives on evaluation, it will only measure what the organisers have identified as required within the process.

Festivals can have important economic impacts on local and regional economies as well as producing a range of social and cultural impacts. However, anecdotal evidence suggests that much of the research produced remains internal to the organisation, with summaries entering the public domain as press releases or reports rather than into the published research literature. This paper does not seek to explore impacts related literature, as this was beyond the remit of the current study, however, a number of authors have reviewed impact evaluation methods, which contribute to the wider evaluation literature and perhaps offer some useful techniques that can be adapted or adopted in evaluation generally. Burgan and Mules (2001) discussed issues relating to sampling and suggest making better use of existing data when undertaking economic impact studies. Carlsen, Getz and Soutar (2001) explored event impact evaluation in Australia and internationally through a survey of event industry experts. They concluded that a standardised model has not been produced, despite there being a clear need for this, and presented a number of pre-event and post event evaluation criteria that may be adopted by other studies. Further, work by Fredline, Jago and Deery (2003) developed a research instrument for social impacts, which may form the basis for a standardised approach to this aspect of evaluation, while Delamere (2001) and Delamere, Wankel and Hinch (2001) discuss the development of a scale for measuring social impacts of community festivals, an important area even for the smallest of events (Getz 1997). Finally, resource issues such as sponsorship and volunteer issues need to be evaluated, and in a tourism context, the additional spend of visitors in order to fully establish the worth of the event (Bowdin et al, 2001; Getz, 1997; Hall, 1997).

Recently, Arts Council of England has funded a range of projects relating to arts evaluation, which may have application for festivals. Reeves (2002) provided an overview of arts impacts research based on the literature available, focusing on the economic and social

aspects. One of the objectives of the study was to develop a practical resource to assist practitioners with effective evaluation. Further work commissioned as the 'National Arts Information Project: Evaluation Toolkit' (Comedia, 2003) includes an extensive practical overview of evaluation together with supporting evaluation tools developed in Microsoft Excel – participant and audience questionnaires and a project data template. The idea of the evaluation toolkit has also been explored by other arts organisations within the UK. Arts Council of Northern Ireland (Annabel Jackson Associates, 2004) focus on the evaluation of social impacts on participants of arts groups working in community and voluntary sectors. Further, Scottish Arts Council (2003; Dean, Goodlad and Hamilton 2001) have developed a pilot online toolkit for people and organisations to evaluate Scottish Arts Council funded arts projects, with using the toolkit a condition for grants.

Purpose of Evaluation

Evaluation is carried out for a variety of reasons and may be linked to the interests of the group or stakeholder that is pressing for it to take place – this will affect the factors that the evaluation focuses on (Bowdin et al., 2001; Feek, 1988). Evaluation can be distinguished from everyday comment or opinion as it is concerned with making judgements against agreed criteria (Feek,1988). hese criteria should be based on the aim and objectives that an organisation has set, which as a number of authors suggest should be specific, measurable, achievable, relevant and time-specific (generally referred to by the acronym SMART) (Allen et al, 2005; Bowdin et al., 2001) and link into the mission of the organisation (Phillips, 1993). Finally, Getz (1997) notes that it is important to consider effectiveness and efficiency, i.e. were the actions taken to achieve the aims and objectives effective and were the resources used in doing so used efficiently.

Research indicates that financial viability is crucial to a festival's survival. Consequently this is an area that is closely monitored, although this is not generally recognised as an appropriate measure of a festival's success. Bowdin et al (2001) note that one of the main reasons that event managers evaluate events is to report to stakeholders, though other factors of evaluation are considered equally important for a festival to measure its success, for example artistic content, audience attendance (Rolfe, 1992). Many 'smaller' British arts festivals are run by volunteers on low budgets and are purely concerned with 'providing entertainment' and consequently may not have either the budget or, they may believe, the cause to evaluate their festival. Conducting a full-scale economic impact evaluation can be a costly exercise, one which may be beyond the reach of many arts festivals (Shaw, P. 2000, personal communication). This perhaps suggests that there are cost limitations to arts festival evaluation.

The most basic information required for festival evaluation is the attendance at the event (Getz, 1997). This view is echoed by Rolfe (1992) who identifies that audience size and attendance are the principal means by which festivals evaluate their success. It may also be useful to have a set of benchmarks, targets or solid reference points in terms of quality, methodology and precedent against which progress can be measured Mosley (1999).

Authors have a range of views on the purposes of evaluation. Woolf (2004) focuses on two main purposes, to improve practice during a project and for future projects and to demonstrate what happened because of a project. Jackson (2004) summarises that evaluation is about evidence, causation, different perspectives, reflection and learning. Further, Getz (1997, p. 331) presents a number of practical reasons for evaluation, including the need to: identify and solve problems; find ways to improve management; determine the worth of the event;

measure success or failure; identify costs and benefits; identify and measure impacts; satisfy sponsors and authorities (accountability); and, gain acceptance, credibility and support. Although these and other authors offer a range of purposes, it is clear that evaluation can serve a clear need in the organisation.

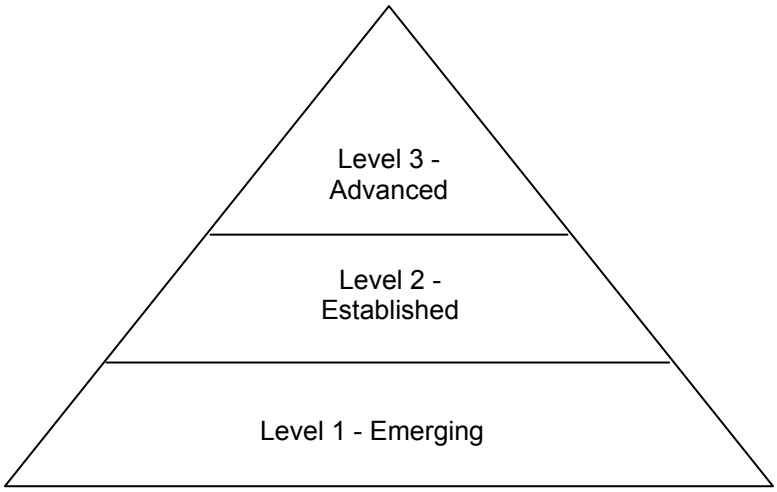
Evaluation can be viewed as an extension of the control function of management, and assists in the development of management processes and procedures for next hosting the event (Hall, 1997). Faulkner (1997, cited in Mossberg, 2000, pp. 6-7) expands on the benefit to the organisation of evaluation. He states that, 'Evaluation keeps an organisation in touch with changes in its environment and its performance with respect to this environment and is thus an essential prerequisite for responsiveness and adaptability.' evaluation can be thought of as a technique for ensuring accountability in the use of public resources dedicated to events (Mossberg, 2000), though it can also be argued that this is equally applicable to privately funded organisations no matter what the size.

In terms of event management, Getz (1997) suggests that the most important application of evaluation is to learn and adapt, to continually improve quality and encourage innovation. However, he goes on to say that evaluation can often be misused, a view supported by Feek (1988) who indicates that it can sometimes be carried out for the wrong motives. For example, Getz (1997) suggests that evaluation can be carried out to further careers, terminate employment or to show that an unpopular programme is too costly or ineffective.

Types and Levels of Evaluation

Allen et al (2005), Bowdin et al. (2001) and Getz (1997) identify three basic types of evaluation; formative (pre-event assessment), process (monitoring) and outcome or summative evaluations (post-event). Post event evaluation is generally viewed as the most common type of evaluation, with the visitor survey/questionnaire or the management debrief features of this method. Further, Woolf (2004, p. 51) suggests three levels to evaluation, based on the experience within the organisation and how this will inform management processes, which can be used as the starting point for self-evaluation. These levels are illustrated in Figure 1.

Figure 1: Levels of Evaluation



Source: adapted from Woolf (2004, p.50).

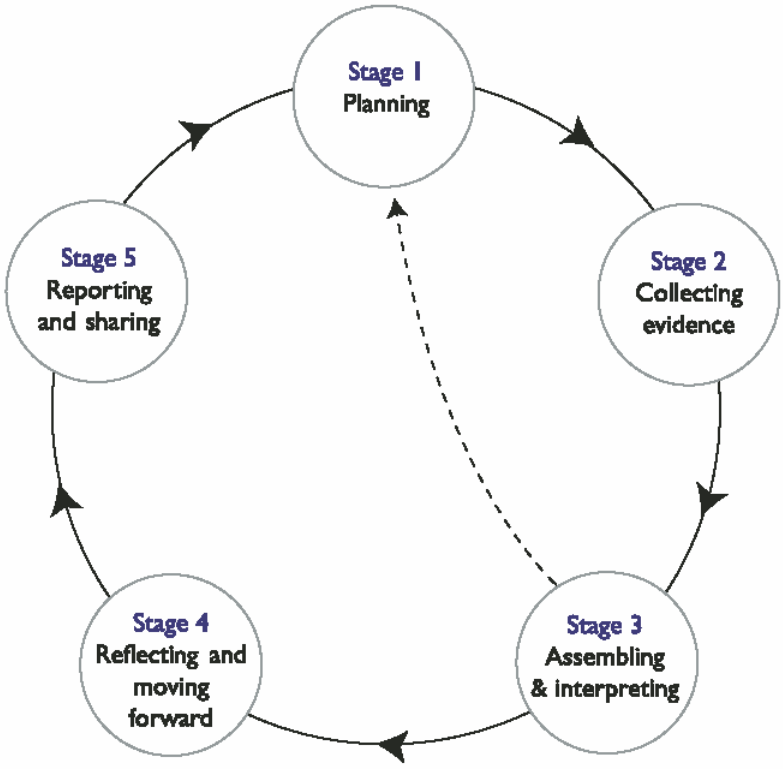
Level one suggests that the organisation is aware of the importance of evaluation, and usually plans to obtain some feedback, but they are not sure how to feed back the findings into future projects. Organisations carrying out evaluation at level two discuss evaluation at the planning stages of a project and decide how to collect data on their projects. However, they sometimes find it difficult to collate and interpret the data. Organisations carrying out level three evaluations view the process as integral to their practice, using a variety of methods to collect evidence and document projects. This final level organisation views evaluation as assisting them to make decisions and deliver higher quality arts projects.

There are a number of important considerations when deciding on the approach to take to evaluation, including who will actually do it. Feek (1988) notes that objectivity, competence and appropriateness are important elements to consider when deciding who should carry out an evaluation. The evaluation process either can be the responsibility of a central committee or of a senior manager, however the credibility of the evaluation may depend upon the person in charge as well as the methods used (Getz, 1997). Organisers need to balance bringing in an outsider, which costs money, against using an insider, which would cost the organisation in time and potential credibility of the findings (Feek, 1988). Woolf (2004) also points out that bringing in outsiders to conduct evaluation is likely to add considerably to costs and may also lead to less ownership over the project/event, a view supported by Mossberg (2000).

Process and Methods of Evaluation

With the range of literature available it is useful to explore the application of a particular approach to evaluation within this study. Woolf's (2004) 'Five Stage Approach to Evaluation' (Figure 2) provides an appropriate model to adopt, as it has been developed specifically with arts organisations in mind and focuses on methods of collecting evidence such as questionnaires, interviews, observation and focus groups, which would be used to conduct audience and participant surveys.

Figure 2: Five-stage Approach to Evaluation



Source: Woolf (2004, p.8)

Research suggests that methods of evaluation used by arts festivals vary according to the constitution of the festival, and often take the form of monitoring rather than evaluation (Rolfe, 1992). Mosley (1999) makes the distinction between monitoring and evaluation by suggesting that monitoring is a way of collecting information such as, numbers, actions about the progress of a project at any given time, and refers to monitoring as a 'spot checking process'. Rolfe (1992) also suggests that more formal methods are likely to be used in festivals that are run by local authorities. These may include performance indicators, cost benefit analysis, economic impact studies and meeting 'Best Value' criteria.

No matter which methods are chosen, it is likely that both quantitative and qualitative data will be required to evaluate achievement of the objectives. These may require a variety of tools, depending on the data and evaluator requirements, including questionnaires, visitor surveys, interviews, observations, focus groups and analysis of documents, for example financial and management records. .

Methodology

This exploratory study aimed to explore evaluation in arts festivals. Given the range of festivals available and the specific evaluation focus of the study, seven arts festivals were purposively selected for further in depth study through semi-structured telephone interviews. Although this approach presented limitations with the generalisability of the findings to other festivals, it provided an opportunity to explore evaluation from a variety of perspectives and provides useful examples of existing practice. Criteria used to select festivals for inclusion were that they should be a British Arts Festivals Association registered multi-arts festival taking place annually over a period of three days or more. They should receive some form of government funding and business sponsorship, have registered charity status, be professionally run by paid staff and not solely organised by local authorities. The festivals were from across the UK. Table 1 provides an overview of the festivals included in the study. These criteria were developed to ensure that only professionally run festivals were selected, which the literature suggested were more likely to conduct some form of evaluation.

Table 1 Background to the Festivals

	No of Events	Audience size	No of Employees
Brighton Festival	600-700	430,000 attendances	20f/t, 20 volunteers
Canterbury Festival	200-250	75,000	5f/t, 1p/t
Edinburgh International Festival	180	400,000	22f/t, 3p/t
Greenwich & Docklands Festival	50-10	55,000	3f/t, 1p/t
Harrogate Festival	50	32,000	4f/t, 1p/t
Norfolk & Norwich Festival	80	15-20,000	4
Salisbury Festival	100	50,000	5f/t, 5p/t

The festival director was contacted in order to identify the most appropriate person to take part in the research. Semi-structured interviews explored background data on the festival to establish size, nature and scope, followed by an exploration of issues relating to the significance, motives, process and methods of evaluation, together with gathering views on resources, limitations and use of evaluation data. Interviews were tape recorded, transcribed and then manually analysed, using a content analysis approach, to extract key themes, issues and ideas and to classify results.

Results

Festival Aims and Objectives

The festivals were asked to provide their aims and objectives. Harrogate, Edinburgh and Canterbury festivals' objectives appear to be clearly defined and could be said to be SMART. However, Greenwich and Docklands, Salisbury and Norfolk and Norwich Festivals were unable to provide clearly stated aims and objectives, as at the time of this study they were under review, due to the reorganization of the festival structure.

Understanding of Evaluation

One of the key points to emerge was that all of the festivals see evaluation as a way of ascertaining success, by reviewing what has been done against the objectives set with the aim of feeding into the planning process for the future. The Canterbury Festival described the evaluation process as a vital, integral part of the year-long administration culminating in a staff debrief and report post festival, which feeds into the planning for forthcoming years. They noted that evaluation based on not only box office revenue but also a wide range of qualitative and quantitative factors (see Table 2). The Harrogate Festival noted that, *"evaluation is a way of learning from what you are doing and is a practical way of improving what is being done."*

A further point made by the Brighton Festival was that evaluation concerns a whole range of information, which can be qualitative or quantitative, that is fed into future planning. Evaluation involves acting on outcomes from festival reports and taking those on board for next year and is an informed way of seeing what is successful.

Significance of Evaluation to Arts Festivals

Evaluation was reported to be a very positive activity to conduct and, as the Greenwich and Docklands Festival pointed out, it *"has to be part of the planning cycle."* Harrogate, Edinburgh and Greenwich and Docklands Festivals suggested that evaluation is an essential part of the planning cycle and forms an integral part of the planning process, which as Edinburgh International Festival suggested cannot be separated. The Canterbury Festival agreed and noted that 'constant evaluation is critical to continued growth and success of the festival. Norfolk and Norwich Festival suggested that evaluation was important as an acid test to establish how well the festival performed against their budgets by looking at box office targets and outcomes. Canterbury Festival noted that evaluation feeds into programming, marketing, audience development and into funding applications.

In terms of artistic evaluation, Brighton Festival believed that evaluation could affect the level of programming, whereas the Norfolk and Norwich Festival commented that, beyond

financial evaluation, it is difficult to measure things as the arts concern subjective elements, such as developing an appreciation of the arts, which are difficult to assess. The Harrogate Festival also believed it is important to be clear about what is being done, why it is being done and how effectively it is being done.

A similar issue for the Brighton Festival was that they evaluate event logistics i.e. what was difficult to manage, what was easy to manage. The Norfolk and Norwich Festival pointed out that they have to evaluate as a requirement of funding. Whereas the Harrogate Festival suggested that to evaluate because an organisation has asked for it to be done is possibly the worst reason to do it because there is no motivation to do it.

Main Purpose of Evaluation

A number of festivals including Canterbury, Salisbury and Edinburgh International, suggested that their main focus with evaluation concerns audiences. The Canterbury Festival pointed out that evaluation informs its audience development plans.

The Harrogate Festival pointed out that for them evaluation was a learning curve and the main point was to gain an understanding of where they are before being able to improve. Similarly, the Salisbury Festival pointed out that the main purpose in evaluation was to get it right next time, which is perhaps difficult as suggested by the Edinburgh Festival as evaluation is a complex issue due to the variety of issues that require addressing.

Elements of the Festivals that are Evaluated

The festivals evaluate a variety of elements. The key element evaluated by all festivals was finance. Salisbury Festival argued that the areas that tend to be most heavily evaluated have a direct relationship between the programme and the audience, whereas the festival tends not to evaluate areas such as venue suitability and front of house operations. Norfolk and Norwich Festival measures box office data against targets, whilst the Harrogate Festival and Edinburgh International Festival measure financial performance against artistic performance. Another key area highlighted by all festivals was that of marketing and in particular attendance and catchment areas.

Methods, Tools and Techniques

The festivals included in this study use a variety of methods, tools and techniques to collect data for their evaluations. Table 2 summarises these.

Table 2: Evaluation Methods, Tools and Techniques

Festival	Data	Technique
Brighton Festival	Audience Research	Face-to-face interviews Web Trend analysis Questionnaires
Canterbury Festival	Audience Research	Booking form analysis Focus groups Attendance/sales figures for ticketed and non ticketed events Audience feedback during festival

Festival	Data	Technique
	Artist/Community Participants Research	Questionnaires Artist feedback
	Financial	Budget Monitoring & Targets Box Office Revenue Assessing sponsorship targets
	Media	Print column inches & broadcast local & national
	Staff	Debrief (full time, part time & all volunteer stewards)
	Web Tracking	In the process of developing a new website with tracking statistics for audience analysis and will include a feedback/ review form
Edinburgh International Festival	Audience Research	Face-to-face questionnaires Self completion questionnaires Feedback forms Focus Groups Observation
	Media	Column inches, impact
	Visiting promoters Sponsors Financial	Formal evaluation and sponsor objectives; Street interviews with public Targets against actual
Greenwich & Docklands	Audience Research	Face-to-face interviewing Questionnaires Budget monitoring
	Financial Operational Stakeholders	Staff debriefing Meetings, discussions
Harrogate Festival	Audience Research	Focus Groups Telephone research
	Artistic Financial	Benchmarking Financial bottom line BCG Analysis Benchmarking
	Educational Staff	Focus groups, feedback forms Appraisals, Event feedback forms
	Media	Column inches, outcomes
Norfolk & Norwich Festival	Financial Education	Targets against actual budget Video Photographs
Salisbury Festival	Audience Research	Sales Figures Marketing report

One of the main methods of evaluation used by arts festivals is to analyse audiences and attendance figures. The festivals use a range of techniques to analyse audiences. One of the most common techniques reported was to monitor and evaluate box office figures, which the Edinburgh International Festival suggested was evaluation at a very basic level.

Edinburgh International Festival was the only festival for which impact studies were published and as a result, the issue was explored further with them. They suggested that economic impact evaluation can be useful for organisations such as theirs, as it makes their argument for public funding very easy. However, it should be considered whose role it is to conduct this sort of evaluation, as it is the people who are providing the festival with public money that are interested in how the money is being spent and the resulting economic impacts. It is therefore perhaps more appropriate that they should conduct this type of evaluation. The festival also suggested that to them social and cultural impacts are far more interesting, especially as their mission includes the promotion of cultural and education well-being of people in Edinburgh and Scotland, in addition to economic aspects.

Effectiveness of Evaluation Methods

The festivals were questioned as to how effective they felt the methods of evaluation used were. The general feeling amongst all festivals was that this was a difficult question to answer. Three of the festivals, namely Brighton, Norfolk and Norwich and Salisbury Festivals, commented that they couldn't answer the question. Salisbury Festival suggested that this was because there were so many different methods, but they did believe that there was room for improvement. Edinburgh International Festival pointed out that methods used could be more effective and that they are unable to do as much as they would like to, due to the costs involved. They made the point that they do what they can and they are very clear about why they are doing it, what they want the information for, and are very clear about "testing" what they do against their objectives.

Management of Arts Festival Evaluation

Festivals were also asked how the evaluation process was managed. This included establishing how results from evaluations are used, how the results are presented when evaluation takes place, and who is responsible for managing the evaluation process.

The results of evaluation had a variety of uses. Brighton Festival suggested very practical uses, for example evaluations would show where visitors to the festival are coming from, enabling the festival to address where adverts and brochures are placed. Harrogate Festival use results in a practical way to assess print and design, and this along with sponsorship, volunteer and staff evaluations is fed into future planning. However, the more important artistic and financial evaluations, which are difficult to quantify, need to be backed up by further audience research. All of the festivals pointed out that they use their results to provide information to external sources. Canterbury Festival pointed out that they use their evaluations in making grant applications, for marketing purposes and assessing their strategic place on a national level. They consider it important to have statistics, which enable them to compare with statistics compiled by BAFA in order to show where they fit into the national picture in terms of how festivals are run and how festivals market themselves.

Results from evaluations are presented in a variety of formats. The most common form was in a formal report presented to the festival's board of directors and other relevant stakeholders such as funders and sponsors.

An important factor in the evaluation process is when the evaluation takes place. Norfolk and Norwich, Salisbury and Canterbury Festivals reported that they evaluate after the festival, whereas all of the other festivals evaluate throughout the festival as well as post festival. The Edinburgh International Festival suggested that evaluation is a continuous process, further, Salisbury and Canterbury Festivals pointed out that to some extent the whole planning process is an evaluation.

As to who is responsible for managing the evaluation process, a variety of approaches were highlighted. Salisbury Festival pointed out that initially the senior managers, i.e. Finance, Marketing, General Manager and the Festival Director, are responsible for evaluating their areas. Evaluation is then 'spread down', so that feedback is obtained from everybody. Similarly, the Harrogate Festival meet up as a team, after the festival, and each member of staff is responsible for organising evaluations for their area of the festival - overall responsibility for evaluation is divided up between the team. Whereas Norfolk and Norwich Festival stated that overall responsibility for evaluation lies with the Festival Director, who liaises with the board of Directors and the Marketing Officer. Canterbury Festival noted that all staff (e.g. Director, Marketing Manager, Development Manager, Outreach Co-ordinator, and Festival Administrator) are involved in constant evaluation.

Festivals were also asked if staff within the festivals had received training in evaluation. The overall response from all festivals was that staff, although not specifically trained in evaluation, had attended arts training courses and had a wealth of experience. They also pointed out that they are aware of publications, such as 'Partnerships for Learning' (Woolf, 2004) and utilise other festivals' and arts organisations' questionnaires as guidelines for developing and producing their own.

Finally, the festivals were asked if they could identify what resources they allocate to evaluation. This received a mixed response. All of the festivals found it difficult to quantify a figure for evaluation, possibly as many costs are hidden in staff time, apart from where externally funded evaluation takes place.

Discussion

There appears to be a clear understanding of evaluation amongst the festivals, in the context of events management. Results indicate that festivals perhaps need to measure more than just the financial aspects, as other elements such as artistic content, audience attendance and social, cultural and environmental impacts are of equal importance, as well as internal evaluation. Indeed, findings from this study show that arts festivals also focus on other areas, for example public relations, programming, sponsorship, education and staff performance.

Clear aims and objectives are clearly important for evaluation – results suggest that some of the festivals interviewed, including Harrogate, Edinburgh International and Canterbury, are able to conduct effective evaluations as they have agreed criteria to measure against. However, it would also appear that those festivals that could not provide aims and objectives would perhaps have difficulty in conducting effective evaluations.

Feek (1988) suggested that evaluation can sometimes be carried out for the wrong reasons, however, it would appear that the arts festivals view evaluation as a crucial part of the event planning process, which they believe has to be done in order to avoid repeating mistakes and plan successfully for the next year. This also supports Goldblatt's (2004) assertion that evaluation, as part of the event planning process, is crucial to the success of events.

Findings suggest that the main purpose to arts festival evaluation could depend upon who it is that is pressing for the evaluation (Feek, 1988). It is clear that evaluation should be driven by the festivals themselves and not carried out solely for external purposes and should involve more than purely financial evaluation.

The focus for evaluation of the arts festivals appears to lean towards audiences. This is perhaps because festivals are increasingly required to be accountable to their funders, which include the Arts Council and other organisations that have a clear audience and cultural development remit, supporting the views of Bowdin et al (2001) and Getz (1997) that evaluation can satisfy the needs of sponsors, authorities and other stakeholders.

It was noted that it may sometimes be dangerous for an arts organisation to go down the route of economic impact evaluation, particularly if the festival or organisation has been set up to improve social conditions or to establish social inclusion partnerships. The objectives of that event may have nothing to do with economic impact and therefore it is not relevant to use that measure. As a result, the evaluation method, including impacts, needs to be appropriate to the purpose and nature of the organisation.

The methods used to establish the success or otherwise of arts festivals do vary, and in some cases can take the form of monitoring rather than evaluation in a true sense. However, it does appear that since Rolfe's (1992) study, all of the festivals have begun to utilise a wider variety of evaluation techniques, such as benchmarking, interviews, focus groups and visitor surveys.

Findings indicate that evaluations need to be carefully planned and that the festivals need to be dear about why they are doing evaluations and what it is they are trying to find out. It would also appear that more funding for evaluation is required to help festivals achieve their ambitions for effective evaluation.

It would appear that festivals do follow the various levels of evaluation as suggested by Allen et al (2005), Bowdin et al (2001) and Getz (1997). However, it is evident that some caution is required in evaluation during the festivals, as feedback can be anecdotal and could lead to hasty decisions being made.

Results would suggest that overall responsibility for evaluation lies with festival senior managers, and that Marketing Managers have an important role to play in arts festival evaluation. However, it is noted that evaluation may involve the whole festival team and that external assistance in planning and conducting evaluation is useful, though caution is required as the outcome of the evaluation can depend on who it is that is carrying out the evaluation (Feek, 1988).

Publications available through organisations such as the Arts Council of England, together with the sharing of best practice between festivals, is informing the development and improvement of evaluation in arts festivals. With the availability of this data and

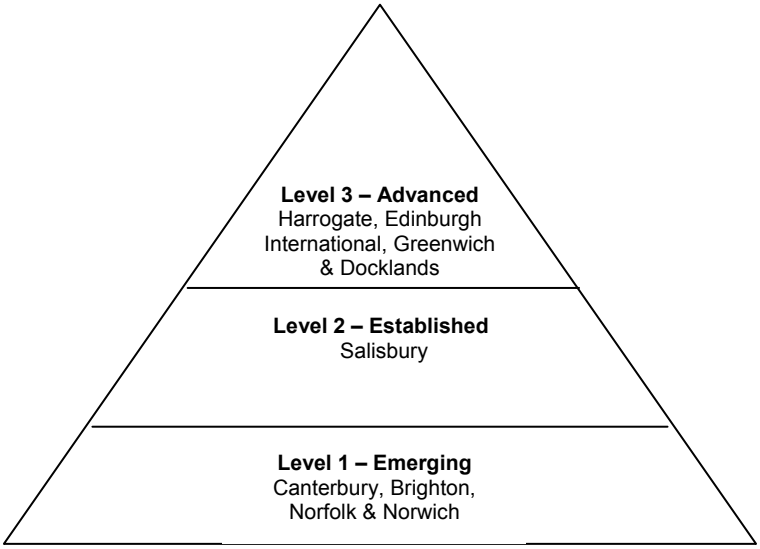
encouragement to collect using comparable data collection methods, it perhaps suggests that statistics at a national level could form benchmarks, which festivals could measure against.

There appears to be no single approach to funding evaluation - festivals believe that they are unable to do as much as they would like to due to lack of resources. This reiterates the point that perhaps funding bodies should be doing more to assist in evaluating festivals.

Conclusions

This study has revealed that evaluation is considered a crucial part of the planning process for arts festivals and has become increasingly important in recent years for some festivals, such as the Canterbury, Harrogate, Edinburgh International and Greenwich and Docklands Festivals. This is perhaps because festivals are required to justify their use of public funding and demonstrate their accountability to sponsors and other key stakeholders. Based on the research and an examination of Woolf's criteria (2004), it is possible to illustrate the levels of evaluation (Figure 3).

Figure 3: Levels of Evaluation



Source: adapted from Woolf (2004), p. 50.

The effectiveness of methods used was found to be difficult to determine, due to the range of methods used and the subjectivity of arts appreciation. The Harrogate Festival highlighted the difficulties in their use of artistic and financial benchmarks and it was suggested that perhaps national benchmarks could be established. All festivals believe that they could do more evaluation, which would assist them further in justifying themselves to stakeholders and measuring whether their aims and objectives have been achieved. It is important for the social, cultural and economic impacts of arts festivals to be measured. Within the study, economic impact evaluations of the Edinburgh International Festival highlighted the benefits to the local economies and made it easier to gain further funding. However, it is suggested that it can be dangerous for festivals to explore the economic impact evaluation route alone, especially if the festival's aims and objectives are concerned with social and cultural issues rather than economic impacts.

Recommendations

The study has shown that arts festivals carry out evaluation at varying levels of advancement and effectiveness, and use a wider range of techniques to evaluate than earlier research suggests. This is perhaps linked to the increasing importance placed on evaluation by some festivals, the arts sector in general and by the various stakeholders. In order for arts festivals to plan successfully and to justify their use of public funding, evaluation must be integral to the planning process, with clear aims and objectives stated to enable effective evaluation. A standardised approach should be adopted, for example, through increased use of the evaluation toolkits and publications available, which would assist in ensuring consistency and comparability of results. In addition, adopting a standardised methodology for evaluation of impacts would ensure that a true value of arts festivals could be calculated with confidence. Organisations, such as Arts Council of England and the British Arts Festivals Association, and other interested stakeholders, such as local authorities, could provide further encouragement for evaluation through assistance with funding and training, while sharing knowledge amongst the festivals would assist in achieving a standardised approach.

Through sharing best practice, and developing the robustness and design of evaluation in the future, arts festivals will be able to demonstrate the value of all aspects of their programme and increasingly the economic, social/cultural and environmental impacts.

The festival sector is fast moving, with a range of evaluation material being introduced over the past few years. Festivals continue to develop in terms of size and scope, together with improvements in their management approaches, systems and procedures. As a result, the findings provide a snapshot of the festivals included in the study but may not fully reflect the current position given the continuous improvements. Nevertheless, the findings provide an interesting insight into arts festivals evaluation within the UK and provide the starting point for further in depth research.

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Special Art Exhibitions and Local Impact: A comparative case study

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to analyse the relationship between festivals and special events' embeddedness in a local area and their impacts on local communities. Combining theory and evidence from our comparative study we propose an interpretative model suggesting that the more positive impact registered when the embeddedness rate is higher can be explained by two main factors: an emergent collaborative approach among stakeholders as regards cultural policies and a strenghtening of local communities' identity, distinctive value that can feed into the image of a special event creating an appealing authenticity. Triple bottom line evaluation was conducted in order to derive useful insights into events' effectiveness as a tool of long-term local development.

Keywords: exhibitions, event management, identity, local development.

1. Introduction

In recent years, festivals, special events and exhibitions with a strong cultural component have become increasingly popular topics in leisure studies and their growth in numbers, diversity and popularity has been enormous (Crompton & McKay, 1997; Getz, 1991, Thrane, 2002). Many communities have been developing festivals and events to celebrate their particular culture and traditions as well as for their economic and tourist benefits. Besides being sources of learning and knowledge, in fact, cultural activities and creative industries have been recognized as an economic sector in their own right; they have the potential to generate substantial returns on small financial investments and to promote local development (Getz, 1993). According to Stiernstrand (1996) the economic impact of festivals and special events arises mainly from the consumption of tourist product in a geographical area. McDonnell, Allen and O'Toole (1999) argue that tourism related services, including travel, accommodation, restaurants and shopping are the major beneficiaries of exhibitions.

In addition to enhancing local economies, festivals and special events, especially if strongly connected with local communities' traditions, can also reinforce social and cultural identity (Rao, 2001), improve the relationship between host communities and visitors (Besculides, Lee & McCormic, 2002) and promote a destination's image (Prentice & Andersen, 2003).

By offering the potential to foster local organization development, leadership and networking, special events can help the emerging of a community-based tourism more in keeping with community wishes and more sustainable over the long term (Russo-van der Borg, 2002).

Given the immaturity of events management as an academic field of study (Getz, 2000) and the dominance of issues associated with the economic dimensions of events, the analysis of art exhibitions' development opens up a series of questions regarding research areas still relatively under-explored: a) the social, environmental, and cultural impacts of festivals and special events on local communities ; b) the dynamics of special events organizers relations (Gursoy, Kim& Uysal, 2004); c) the operations of organizers and community partnerships; d) the changing relations between key interest groups; e) the scope of community involvement.

This study analyses the relationship between the results of a special event and the embeddedness in the local area where it takes place, relying on a comparison between two special art exhibitions. In this context embeddedness stands for the link between art exhibition and place in terms of involved actors and resources. Starting from a similar concept and from comparable territorial resources the two exhibitions followed different development paths as regards the involvement of local institutions and organizations and this led to different impacts on the local areas. This phenomenon seems to be explained by two main factors associated with embeddedness: a) an emergent collaborative approach among stakeholders to develop cultural policies for a destination involving collective learning and consensus-building; b) a great emphasis on local communities' identity that represents a distinctive value and can also feed into the image of the cultural events creating an appealing authenticity.

2. Literature review

Discussion about potentials of arts activities and events to accelerate urban renewal and to enhance city regeneration policies has consistently grown throughout the 1990s (Hall, 1996; Gibson & Stevenson, 2004) but, if the number of conceptual and empirical studies on festivals and special events has been increasing rapidly over the last few years, literature on arts festivals and exhibitions is comparatively limited. Arts exhibitions, sometimes known as blockbusters, are conceptualized as short-term special cultural events (Arcodia & Axelsen, 2005; Nica & Swaidan, 2004) focused on a specific art form offering unique opportunities for visitors to see particular kinds of work (Bowdin, McDonnell, Allen & O'Toole, 2001). They represent one of the fastest growing tourist attractions (Kim, Scott, Thigpen, 1998) and are often thought of as tourism and business generators (Stanley, Rogers, Smeltzer & Perron, 2000). To date, several studies have explored the role of events as image-makers for a destination and their contributions to urban culture-led regeneration (Garcia, 2004; Carlsen & Taylor, 2003; Erfurt & Johnsen 2003), but literature on the impacts of events and exhibitions on host communities is still dominated by studies that have primarily focused on their economic dimension (McDonald, 1990; Crompton, 1999) under the assumption that economic benefits of festivals and events are one of the main reason that lead to their organization (Walo, Bull & Green 1996). However sociology literature, adopting a community perspective (events as social services), suggests that special events' main purpose is to build social cohesion, by reinforcing ties within the community (Jeannotte, 2003; Matarasso, 2000). Events demonstrate, in symbolic form, the main values of local communities. This suggestion is consistent with the findings of tourism researchers according to which tourism-related events increase pride and create cultural identity, cohesion and increased knowledge about the culture of the area (Weikert & Kertstetter, 1996). Events and exhibitions create opportunities for cultural exchange, revitalize local traditions, increase the quality of life and improve the image of the community (Clements, Schultz & Lime, 1993; Van den Berg, Van der Meer & Otgaar, 1999). Chwe (1998) suggests that public events like special exhibitions play an

important role in creating a general common knowledge by providing a communication mechanism for residents to exchange social information. Rao (2001) argues that events and exhibitions also have a public goods aspect; each member of the local community, in fact, by participating in a special event can show his commitment to being a good citizen, developing strong relationships with others. In the tourism context it has been argued that host communities' reactions towards visitors also depend on the stage of event development. This factor might be relevant in two respects. First, the development stage in the host region will have an underlying influence on the impact of the event, because residents' perceptions of tourism in general will influence their reactions to tourists generated by the event (Faulkner & Tideswell, 1997). Second, the stage of an event's development also needs to be taken into account. It could be suggested that, in contrast with the tourism situation, communities' reactions to recurring events become less negative over time largely because organizers become more experienced at minimizing disruptive effects of the event and marketing it to the local public (Faulkner & Fredline, 2000). Longitudinal research on residents' reactions to one-off events has demonstrated growing support over time (Ritchie & Smith, 1991). In the case of recurring situations, successive exposures may result in locals becoming more adapted, either through the development of effective coping strategies or passively by becoming desensitized to its effects.While most studies have found a positive relationship between involvement in festivals and events development and favorable perceptions of them, a closer inspection of the results reveal that the relationship is more complex in many instances. Pearce (1996) suggests that the use of social exchange theory to explain host community perceptions of special events'effects has three problems. First it is based on the assumption that humans are "systematic information processors" whereas psychological research suggests that in some cases it is more likely they are "cognitive misers". Second, much of an individual's knowledge is socially derived, rather than the result of direct experience. Third; peoples' perceptions are formed within a societal and historical context. Thus, Pearce proposed an alternative theoretical framework based on social representations theory. The "social" element refers to the fact that these representations are shared by groups within a society and facilitate communication. They determine how people see the world, but are simultaneously determined by their interactions and communications within society (Purkhardt, 1993). Existing representations have strong prescriptive power but direct experience of an event or an exhibition provides communities with more information on which to base their perceptions. Thus, analyzing commonality or consensus in communities' reactions to tourism-related events it is possible to identify social representations widely shared (Madrigal, 1995). This enhances collaboration amongst local stakeholders to develop cultural policies for a destination and makes it possible to avoid the cost of resolving adversarial conflicts in the long term (Healey, 1998). Local collaborative events policy-making draws ideas from literature about inter-organizational collaboration, "communicative" approaches to events planning and citizen participation (Long, 1997). Attention is focused on the processes within collaboration through which relations can be built up among relevant stakeholders, and to the communicative forms through which their often conflicting interests and views can be identified and consensus developed (Bramwell & Sharman, 1999). Collaboration among local actors to develop new events and exhibitions is also a powerful force in the construction and maintenance of a local identity because it relies upon the historic symbols of the area as a means of attracting visitors (Palmer, 1999; Jeong & Almeida, 2004). One related research theme found in the sociological and anthropological literature and strictly connected with the interpretative model presented in the following paragraphs, is the authenticity of special cultural events and the embeddedness between place and special events' features and dynamics. Baum (1992) defines embeddedness as some "notion of actors" relative depth of involvement in social relations. Thus projects and events develop

coalitions of community members, service providers, non-profits, business, elected officials, universities and the like. These alliances not only bring together many potential resources but in themselves create capital and thus embody community development. Local organizational networks operating in an embedded logic of exchange promote economic and social performance through resource pooling, cooperation, coordinated adaptation and improvement of quality and structure of ties among actors (Uzzi, 2000; Azoulay, 2004; Bandura, 2002). Embeddedness, in this paper's context, refers to the process by which social relationships and local network structures between art exhibitions' organizers shape special events' development in ways that contributes to enhanced positive impacts on local areas. "Embedded" art events, connected with the social and cultural capital of a community, can increase the commitment that members of the local community feel toward one another and toward cultural activities (Stern, 1994).

3. Research Method

The use of a qualitative approach in this study, can be explained by the need of a methodology that can trace the development process of new exhibitions as it unfolds over time and is sensitive to the broader context and the perspective of the involved actors (Miles & Huberman, 1984; Lee, 1999). Following this approach, a method based on comparative case study has been adopted in this paper (Eisenhardt, 1989; Langley, 1999) in order to explore those conditions that influence the impacts on communities of culture-based festivals, events and exhibitions (Eisenhardt & Brown, 1997).

3.1 Research setting

In order to minimize the impact of context-specific conditions it was chosen to analyze two recent art exhibitions ("Duccio.The Beginning of Sienese Painting" and "Perugino.The Divine Painter") characterized by the same main link "painter-local area", identified on the basis of a set of selection criteria concerning both local area and the event itself. About the local area it was decided to take into consideration accessibility, cultural, tourist and economic resources, while on the event side, choice was determined by objective, time, location and organizational profile.An extra criterion was a minimum audience of 150.000 visitors. Starting from a similar concept, a blockbuster monographic exhibition in the painter's country of origin, it is possible to identify many similarities between the two events, as shown by the table below.

Exhibition	**Duccio**	**Perugino**
Objective	Promoting local artworks	Promoting local artworks
Time	1 year + 6 months exhibition	2 years + 6 months exhibition
Location	2 locations in 1 town + itineraries	6 locations in 4 towns + itineraries
Organizational profile	Cooperation between local actors	Operations contracted out
Visitors	248.858	171.930

Table 1-The main features of the two exhibitions

"Duccio.The begininnings of Sienese painting", took place in Siena between October 2003 and March 2004 and was the first special art exhibition on Duccio from Buoninsegna, initiator of Sienese art of thirteenth century. The exhibition was hosted in two different locations in Siena but the event programme also included some itineraries outside the main town through

small villages and pieces of local art and architecture. It was promoted by Monte dei Paschi di Siena Bank, a local financial institution with a proven experience in managing and financing cultural projects, characterized by a strong commitment to local development. Supported by Town Government, Monte dei Paschi di Siena took charge of planning, financing and implementing the event involving some local private and public actors.

"Perugino.The Divine Painter", held in Perugia between February and September 2004, was focused on Pietro Vannucci's artwork; born in Città della Pieve, near Perugia, in the fifteenth century, at the beginning of his career, he worked in Umbria, expecially in Perugia and surroundings. The exhibition was hosted in six different locations in Perugia, Deruta, Corciano and Città della Pieve and in its programme also included some additional itineraries and collateral initiatives; it was promoted by local representatives of the National Department for arts and culture, by the Foundation of Cassa di Risparmio di Perugia[1], by the Town Government and by the University's Department for the Arts. These actors played a significant role in projecting and financing the whole exhibition and were also in charge of political and public relations management throughout the whole event life cycle. Operation management was contracted out to a specialized company based in Milan that followed the exhibition's implemetation plan. Startup stage lasted two years and involved many public and private actors: balancing all their interests was quite challenging. Anyway, in both cases the exhibition aimed at enhancing an already existing cultural and historical heritage.

3.2 Data collection

Data collection was mainly based on semistructured interviews with the relevant institutional and private representatives involved in the process; both data on the event and related initiatives, and on their impacts on the local surroundings, were considered. Relevant actors were identified by a chain process: during the first round of interviews with the institutional partners, aiming at collecting background information on the event itself, each informant was asked to indicate other people who played a significant role in the exhibition's management: public actors, private sponsors, financial institutions, local tourist operators. Some informants were interviewed more than once but, in total, 10 interviews were conducted for each case study both during the ongoing exhibitions, and after their closure. In the first round we interviewed strategic planners and event coordinators who were asked to describe the exhibitions' concept and the process through which other players were selected. They were also asked to assess the main issues they faced and to give their personal opinions about the two exhibitions' results and their impacts on the surroundings. In the second round, it was decided to interview operations managers who were asked to describe their roles, the nature of their involvement (in terms of time, competencies, human and financial resources) and the interaction with other actors. Public government representatives were mainly asked to describe the nature of their involvement and their future intentions about the local cultural offering programmes, projects and objectives. Interviews lasted between one and two hours and they were tape recorded and transcribed. Field notes and transcriptions were examined after each interview to discuss emerging themes and prepare the following interviews. Multiple open-ended interviews helped the collection of both factual data and personal impressions and the reconstruction of a detailed chronology of the two exhibitions' development process.

[1] A local financial institution.

3.3 Data analysis

In order to go beyond simple descriptions and propose an explanation of the observed phenomena it was tried to develop an explanatory framework. First, data were searched out for similarities and differences that led to the identification of a number of key concepts. Then it was analysed for longitudinal connections between these concepts that suggested relations of direct dependence (Miles & Huberman, 1984). Data analysis used common methods for grounded theory building and followed the logic of comparative case study, according to which empirically grounded theoretical propositions are derived from the search discriminating variables that appear to influence the outcome of an observed process (Eisenhardt, 1989). The analysis of data combined with the within-case analysis with cross-case comparison, and can be summarized as a three-step process. The first one was based on an accurate coding of the interviews: it tried to identify all the references to the origins and to the development process of the two exhibitions, to reconstruct a storyline for each of them and to determine key features and turning points.

The second part of the analysis was aimed at the identification of variables (related to the embeddedness with a local area) that could affect the different impacts of the two exhibitions on the local communities. In the end, two variables were isolated, which assumed a different state in the two cases and whose combined effect seemed to explain the observed differences: main actors involved in the exhibition and territorial resources involved by the event organization. In this phase the objective was also to define the different kinds of impacts on local communities of the two exhibitions; three classes were identified - socio-cultural, knowledge-related and tourist. Results turned out from interviews and quantitative data related to the local areas and to the event.

In the final part of the analysis it attempted to capture a possible cause-effect relationship between the selected variables and the different local impacts, and this led to an interweaving of these variables into a meaningful pattern that will be presented in the following paragraphs: a conceptual framework centered on the exhibition, relating different impacts to self-reinforcing interactions between variables.

This interpretative model's development started with the analysis of the different local impacts associated with the two exhibitions in order to derive the possible factors related to them that could explain the resulting differences; it would have been quite difficult to identify discriminating factors between the two exhibitions and their influence on local results without the useful contributions of some of the interviewed actors.

4. Embeddedness in the Local Area: Resources and actors involved in the two exhibits

Comparing the two cases, two factors emerged as discriminating between the different exhibitions' impacts on the local areas: main actors involved in the exhibition, and territorial resources involved by the event organization. They are both related to the degree of embeddedness in the local area of each exhibition, i.e. the link between the event and the local area where it takes place. Main actors were classified by two dimensions (nature and origins) into four different categories:

- Local public actors;
- External public actors;
- Local private actors;
- External private actors.

Local and public attributes strengthen the relation between event and local area. These attributes were referred to the actors involved in the exhibitions' development process. As institutional representatives for the local community, local public actors positively mark the link between the event and the local area, since, in the event planning network, they hold the public stake. Local private actors can be powerful and legitimate stakeholders in the exhibition. They can be both profit and non-profit organizations. Although they do not represent the overall local community's interest, they are parts of it, and their presence can mark the link with the local area. External attribute, referred both to public and private actors, weakens the link between local community and event because it can imply a lack of strong commitment by local interests. The table below shows the actors' side of the two events.

	Duccio	**Perugino**
Actors involved	20	57
Highly involved actors / total actors	20%	26,32%
Local highly involved actors / Highly involved Actors	75%	53,33%
External highly involved actors / highly involved actors	25%	46,67%
Public actors involved/total actors involved	25%	35,09%
Public highly involved actors / public actors involved	40%	15%
Public highly involved actors / highly involved actors	50%	20%
Level of local public government involved	Siena Town Government (high involvement); Province Government (low involvement); Region Government (High involvement of its tourist operational department)	Perugia Town Government (high involvement); Other town governments (low involvement); Province Government (low involvement); Region Government (Political and financial involvement)

Table 1- Main actors and their involvement in the two exhibitions

The exhibition on Duccio involved a lower number of actors and a relatively higher proportion of local actors than the other exhibition. External actors were extensively involved in the Perugino exhibition since, as previously noted, the operations management was contracted out to Arthemisia, a specialized company based in Milan. Furthermore, the contribution of Sienese public actors was more significant than in Perugia: 40% of Sienese public actors, in fact, were highly involved, which means that they gave not only a financial and political contribution but also an organizational and operational one. As regards territorial resources, the events' embeddedness in the local area refers to the amount of local resources involved in the event organization.

Local resources that may have contributed to the event can be divided into:

- Cultural: heritage promoted by the event;
- Economic: local funders and local employees;
- Tourist: integrated promotion of the event in the local tourist and territorial policy;
- Accessibility: availability of internal transport within the local area.

A positive relationship has been registered between the amount of local resources involved and the embeddedness rate. Table 2 below compares the two exhibitions with regard to the territorial resources side.

	Duccio	Perugino
Cultural resources		
Number of itineraries	1	12
Number of sites promoted by itineraries	7	15
Economic resources		
Main funders	Monte dei Paschi di Siena National Department for Arts and Culture	Fondazione Cassa di Risparmio di Perugia National Department for Arts and Culture
Local funds	€ 2,6 million	€ 2,5 million
Local actors involved	100%	64,28%
Tourist resources		
Availability of tourist packages	yes	no
Accessibility level		
Number of public transport lines within the local areas	10 in Siena 1 within the local area	37 in Perugia 2 within the local area

Table 2- Main kinds of territorial resources involved in the two exhibitions' development process

On the side of territorial resources involved in the two exhibitions' development, the one on Perugino turns out to be more intensely linked to the local area. Fifteen heritage sites in twelve different towns near Perugia were promoted in the event program through 12 itineraries, while Duccio's exhibition involved four towns in one itinerary. On the tourist side, Duccio's exhibition was more integrated in the local area promotion, while the lack of tourist packages related to Perugino's exhibition weakened the potential strength of the event to promote the local heritage. On the economic side, in both cases the main funders were local financial institutions, supported by regional agencies of the national department for arts and culture. Finally, analyzing both the main actors and the territorial resources, the Sienese exhibition can be considered more embedded in the local area than the one located in Perugia. More significant support by local public actors, higher involvement of local employment and a more intensive sites promotion within a smaller area, strengthened the link between the special exhibition and the local area.

5. Findings

As regards the impacts of the two exhibitions on the local areas, impacts that can be direct and indirect (Gazel & Schwer, 1997), the embeddedness in specific communities implies that beyond the direct economic and tourist results it is important to also consider the many significant indirect effects concerning:

- Local Economy: impacts on local economy can be direct (on tourism and trade) or indirect (on other industries like craft, agriculture, services). Indirect effects on the local economy are hard to measure and are strictly linked to impacts on tourism. Therefore, we consider the direct effects on tourism;
- Knowledge Management: impacts on knowledge are mainly related to learning processes for local managers, that can be expressed by the number of local operators involved in the process, and to community knowledge improvement, that can be expressed by the number of local tourists and visitors;
- Local Heritage: impacts on the local area concern effects on local heritage in terms of restorations and minor sites promotion.

By taking into account these factors it is important to draw attention to the long term impacts of each exhibition which proved to be the most significant ones. If only results in terms of visitors had been considered, in fact, the economic rationality would not have supported the investments required by an exhibition's development. Thus, a proper evaluation scheme for event performances should consider returns in terms of social, cultural and economic results over the long period. Since the two special art exhibitions taken into consideration were based on their embeddedness in a local area, triple bottom line evaluation is even more necessary. The table below compares the main results for the two cases.

	Siena[2]	**Perugia**[3]
Direct results		
Visits[4]	248.858	265.968
Local economy		
Tourist arrivals in the area	278.183	176.017
Tourist arrivals variations (with respect to the year before)	21.28%	9.85%
Tourist arrivals in hotels	219.383	153.678
Tourist arrivals in other accomodations	58.800	22.339
Tourist Arrivals in other accomodations Variations	22.43%	20.4%
Number of beds in hotels in the area	10.260	5.184
Variations of beds in hotels in the area	2.14%	1.86%
Number of beds in other accomodation solutions	17.231	4.524
Variations of beds in other accomodation solutions	9.83%	2.69%
Knowledge management		
Italian tourist arrivals in the area[5]	173.276	120.935
Italian tourist arrivals variations	47.91%	8.99%
Regional tourist arrivals in the area	32.457	23.375
Number of exhibition published book	1	6
Cooperation with University	For scientific purpose and marketing planning	For scientific purposes
Number of visits from schools	1001	635
Local community involvement - initiatives of local promotion	Special promotion for local cultural associations, doctors' association, national environmental association (FAI), Rotary Club, recreation agencies. Local Promoter: Monte dei Paschi di Siena	Local distribution of Perugino's special postcard, 7 public presentation conferences during the exhibition, local people's free visits (5 schools, 5 handicap associations, policemen, tourist operators, church representatives,

[2] Data refers to Siena surroundings, where province operational tourism agency operates. Sources of data are: Monte dei Paschi di Siena for event data and information, regional and town statistics department for tourist data. We collected data on Sienese area to study the impacts on the territory and not only on Siena city.
[3] Data refer to Perugia surroundings as defined by regional tourist department. Sources of data are: Arthemisia (event operational manager) for event data and information, regional and town statistics department for tourist data. We collected data on Perugia area to study the impacts on the territory and not only on Perugia city.
[4] Visits are number of tickets sold in each location. They are not the number of visitors because, especially for Perugino, many visitors visited more than one site.
[5] Italian and regional tourists were taken into account as measures of knowledge creation and dissemination within the community at national and local levels.

		cultural associations, other Italian town representatives)
Proposal for the future	-Improving Siena image as a cultural site	-Improving cooperation among local actors
	-Networking for a sustainable tourism planning	-Enhancing planning in the long term: special exhibition every two years and minor exhibitions in between
Local heritage		
Restorations	Santa Maria della Scala, Affreschi, Duomo Window, Majesty	Many churches and affreschi
Future planning	-2005: rest, no big events planned -2006: events to increase visibility	-2005: itineraries in Umbria on Giotto and his people -2006: special art exhibition on Pinturicchio

Table 3- Different impacts on local communities

As the table above shows, both exhibitions had significant impacts beyond the direct results. Visits to the Perugino exhibition were higher, because this event was located in six different sites and 'visits' counts the number of tickets sold in all the sites, rather than actual visitors. Many differences between the two cases can be identified on the side of indirect impact. As regards the economic results the increase in tourist movements and in tourist accommodation offerings was considered. Data are related to the areas near Siena and Perugia in order to analyse the territorial impacts of these events. Siena tourist arrivals show a significant increase: during the exhibition period, in fact, there was a preference rate of 21.28% higher than the year before. Their distribution between hotels and other accommodation solutions was quite uniform: for both sectors demand improved by 20-22%. Perugia shows lower performances as regards hotel demand, as opposed to other accommodations, which instead increased by 20%. Supported by evidence on the supply side (beds in other accommodation solutions increased by 10% in Siena and 2.7% Perugia), wider territorial impacts can be seen on non-hotel accommodations, often located out of the most known tourist routes.

Moving to the issue of knowledge management, the focus was on the impacts on local community's learning opportunities both professionally and artistically. Therefore Italian and regional tourist arrivals were considered in order to test the effectiveness of a special art exhibition as national and regional cultural driver. In Siena and surroundings an increase in Italian tourists is evident: 48% more tourists visited the Siena area between October 2003 and March 2004. Also, the number of the two exhibitions' published books can represent a measure of knowledge management performances with particular regard to knowledge diffusion, since publishers will keep on selling these books after the event, and outside the local area.

As regards knowledge creation and diffusion, relationships with educational organizations are very important. In Duccio's event planning, the relationship between Monte dei Paschi di Siena and Siena University was intensive, both on the scientific and the managerial side, while in the case of Perugino, the local university was only involved for scientific support. The effectiveness of knowledge management should also be evaluated on the basis of local public actors' learning about cultural events management, and on future proposals. In Siena, local public actors aim at focusing on territorial marketing and on building a local network in order to support the sustainable tourist development of the area. In Perugia, local actors are trying to improve cooperation, so that extreme individualism does not lead to wastage of time and money.

6. Embeddedness, Community Involvement and Local Development

The longitudinal analysis of the cases suggests that the two determinants of the exhibitions' embeddedness in the local areas, identified in the previous paragraphs, can't explain, alone, the different impacts on the local communities. Their combined action underpins a self-reinforcing virtuous circle that affects the events' development process by two dimensions: an emergent collaborative approach among local stakeholders as regards cultural policies and activities, and a stronger local cultural identity as shown by the following model:

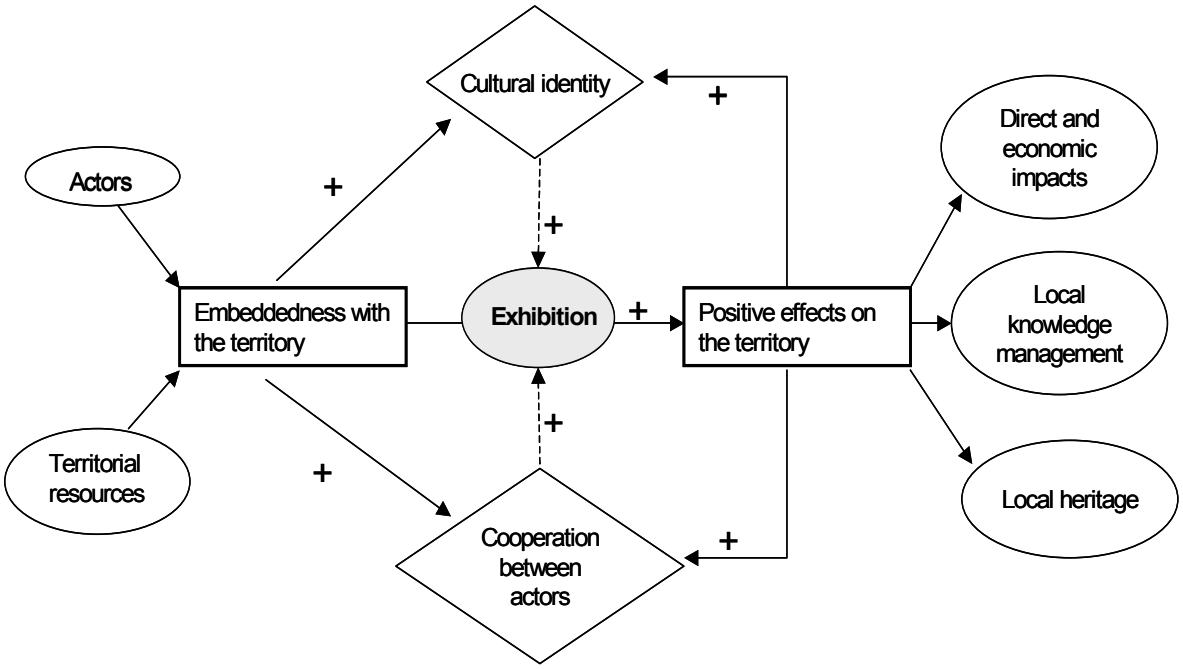

Fig. 4- Interpretative model of special art exhibitions' impacts on local areas.

High embeddedness rates are associated with positive impacts of special events on local areas, since a strong relationship between place and event fosters cooperation between actors and a strengthening of the local sense of belonging (Derrett, 2003); many potential benefits occur when stakeholders in a destination collaborate together and attempt to build a consensus about culture and tourism policies. Besides avoiding adversarial conflicts and supporting political legitimation among local stakeholders, collaboration improves the coordination of programmes and related actions, and promotes consideration of the economic, environmental and social impacts of events. The resulting outcomes are often more efficient and sustainable (Joppe, 1996). This paper's findings showed a coherent picture. In the case of the Duccio exhibition, a strong collaborative approach among local relevant stakeholders and their deep involvement in each stage of the event's development, led to greater positive impacts on the local community. As Gunn (1994) suggests, citizens feel more thoroughly engaged in developing a cultural event if they participate from the start of the planning process, while they are more likely to construct their concerns in adversarial terms and to adopt entrenched positions if involved only at a late planning stage (Healey, 1998). Furthemore, the policies developed by collaborative alliances are likely to have more leverage if they arise out of the "local knowledge" of the participants (Healey, 1997). Without sustained attention being paid to the interests, frames of reference, values, identity and attitudes of all participants, this

involvement may be seen as unpowerful. A great emphasis on local communities' identity as a distinctive value that can feed into the image of a cultural event is required not only to convey an appealing authenticity to the event itself but, above all, to enable local communities to be identified, through past and present traditions, as a distinctive group (Palmer, 1999). This heavily affects the heritage industry, as can be observed in the case of the Duccio exhibition, leading to an emphasis on specific aspects of the past as being representative of what the local area is really all about - or perhaps what it should be about.

7. Conclusions

This paper reports findings from a comparative study of factors that promote positive impacts on local areas as consequence of an exhibition's development process. It has been argued that the more an exhibition is linked to the local area where it takes place the greater are its positive impacts. It has been observed how this relationship is often the result of a collective learning process among local stakeholders that, besides strengthening communities' cultural identity, also contributes to consensus-building. To explore the factors affecting exhibition impacts, two recent Italian art exhibitions were analyzed. The comparison of the two events allowed for an investigation of the underlying distinctive features on the basis of rich, qualitative data. The research setting was a specific type of exhibition characterized by a strong connection between painter and local area. While the distinctive features of the exhibition context that has been identified seem to apply to other types of events, it can't be excluded that other traits, specific to these types, may affect impacts in a different way. However, the relevance of the study should not be judged from the generalizability of its findings, but on the insights that it generates in a relatively underexplored field such as art exhibitions' impacts on local communities.

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Festivals, Art and Mentoring: Disseminating knowledge, enhancing skills and developing networks in regional Victoria

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Abstract

Many regional festivals use art as a vehicle to engage with a broader cross-section of the community; highlight the artistic talent of their region; introduce art to their region; and to distinguish theirs from others. Regional Arts Victoria and Arts Victoria recently piloted a mentoring program, *Directions,* for regional festivals that indicated an interest in developing their artistic direction. Three experienced artistic directors were selected to participate in the program as mentors, and each of these mentored two festival directors whose festivals are located in Regional Victoria.

The aim of this paper is to highlight the potential of mentoring within the context of festival management by exploring the outcomes of *Directions.* A case study approach is used, and although this limits the generalisability of the results to other festivals, the information gained provides insights into managing festivals within the context of artistic direction.

A number of themes emerged from the study that appear to have broadened the perspective of 'art' in those festivals participating in the program. Furthermore, the program has highlighted that while festivals and artistic directors in regional locations experience varying degrees of isolation, they have a great deal of creativity and skill. *Directions* provided organisers of the festivals with the confidence to make decisions that enable them to capitalise on their extant creativity and skills. Festivals are then able to be marketed against their competitors with unique selling positions, which is important for sustainability. The results obtained through the evaluation of this pilot program provide Regional Arts Victoria and Arts Victoria opportunities to effectively assess the need for such programs for festivals in regional Victoria in the future.

Introduction

With the advent of the 'experience' economy (Pine and Gilmore, 1998), it is not surprising that Australia's festival sector is now highly competitive; some 1300 festivals are now staged in Australia, which play a major part in Australia's social life (Anon., 2002, 2003). Steel (2003) noted that while art festivals are primarily concerned with notions of artistic excellence, the capacity to nurture creative talent and to add cachet to the host city's cultural and social capital are also important. In 1996, the Australia Council for the Arts, however, identified that some sectors of the Australian community experience restricted access to the arts (Anon., 1996). Since then a number of initiatives have been launched to engage new audiences with the arts including youth and multi-cultural groups. Organisations charged with promoting the arts in Australia, including the Australia Council for the Arts and Regional Arts Australia, have identified that festivals are a practical way in which they can engage Australian communities in the arts.

From a managerial perspective, many regional festivals see the arts, in its various forms, as a way in which they can add further creativity to festival programming. The inclusion of an artistic program can, therefore, be an effective means of distinguishing one festival from another, hence improving competitive advantage and the probability of sustainability. Sustainability in this context refers to the continued staging of a regional festival that engages the skills and commitment of the local community in a healthy and strategic manner.

Realising the artistic directions of festivals, however, is not an easy function. Even experienced artistic directors walk a tightrope between artistic integrity and satisfying festival stakeholders (Hede & Higgs, 2004). Robyn Archer, for example, who recently completed her term as artistic director of the Melbourne International Arts Festival (MIFA), earned a reputation for adventurous programming (Watson, 2003) over a long period. In 2003, Archer selected the play '*I am blood'* because she perceived it to be an 'epic work of ritual brutality and primordial urges' (MIFA, 2003). Its inclusion in the program attracted attention to MIFA and drew attendees and non-attendees into critical debate on the art form. While public reaction to the play was polarised, its impact seems to have only benefited MIFA. It could have, however, gone the other way. Archer has the expertise and intuition to know that *'I am blood'* would work. The anecdote highlights the risks associated when delivering the arts to the public through festivals, even when artistic directors are highly experienced.

While it has been acknowledged that festivals are an appropriate vehicle to deliver the arts to communities, public funding specifically available for festivals to develop their artistic direction and programming is limited. Festivals Australia is a Commonwealth Government grant program designed to assist the presentation of arts and cultural activities at Australian regional and community festivals. In 2002/2003 it granted $0.9 million. In 2003/2004, this amount was only marginally increased to $1 million (Anon., 2003). An increasingly competitive festival sector means that festival organisers will likely have fewer opportunities to gain public funding to direct towards their artistic directions.

Furthermore, as more festivals begin to participate in artistic activities, the need for festivals to demonstrate that they have strategies in place to realise their artistic goals will be imperative for successful funding submissions to organisations like Festivals Australia. This is particularly relevant as some social commentators see that festivals are draining the funding opportunities from many traditional arts organisations (Craik, McCallister, & Davis, 2003). While there is no evidence to suggest that festivals are experiencing a backlash as a result of this view, this may occur in the future. There is a need, therefore, to develop professional artistic directorship skills within the management structure of festivals. This is applicable to festivals in both metropolitan and regional locations; however it has particular implications for those festivals in regional locations.

This paper explores the potential of mentoring within the context of regional festivals by evaluating the outcomes of *Directions,* a pilot of a mentoring program initiated by Regional Arts Victoria (RAV) and Arts Victoria (AV) in 2004, for three of the six festivals participating in the program. First, the paper provides a background to *Directions.* The paper then proceeds with some background to the regional arts festival context, the role of mentoring generally and within the arts. The three case studies are then presented. Finally, the findings are discussed and recommendations made with regard to mentoring within this context.

Directions

RAV and AV are key funding bodies for organisations participating in the production and delivery of the arts in Victoria. Producing and delivering the arts are new territories for many festivals. While there is little public documentation on this issue, there is anecdotal evidence to suggest that funding bodies see that there is discrepancy between understanding the concept of artistic direction and how it is realised in the festival sector. In response to this, RAV and AV piloted a mentoring program for festivals in regional Victoria. The aim of *Directions* was to assist organisers of regional festivals to define and develop the artistic direction of their festivals by offering them mentoring from experienced artistic directors.

The Regional Arts Festival Context

It is well-documented that regional Australia has experienced considerable change in the past few decades. Banks noted that one major social problem for Australia is the dislocation of regions as there are fewer wealth-generating activities than there are in metropolitan locations. Kenyon and Black (2001) stated that 'small town Australia is currently at a crossroads' (p.1), but also highlighted that there is considerable creativity in regional Australia to assist in renewing small towns. Regional Australia appears to be attracting new residents after a population shift away from it. The ABS reported that more Australians are choosing to live in regional areas (Anon., 2003), hence there is a need to (re-)develop social and cultural capital in these regions. Festivals are clearly seen as a vehicle for developing social and cultural capital as they build community pride (Wood, 2002); celebrate important occasions and anniversaries (Clark, 1981); and provide opportunities for the exchange of information or goods and services within, and between, communities (Ryan, 1995).

Festivals are social and cultural 'players'; agents of cultural and social change. As such, their organisers are 'expected to act like other industries, developing professional management skills, performance indicators and other markers of a

mature and ultimately self-sustaining enterprise' (Craik et al., 2003, p.22). Naturally, there is a wide range of skills within festival management of varying quality. Not all festival organisers will have the skills to be successful in fulfilling their organisational objectives. Indeed some festivals fail (Getz, 2002). Hede and Higgs (2004) identified a number of critical success factors for festivals including accessibility, audience development, capacity to develop social cohesion, strategic alliances and the effectiveness of the artistic director.

Mentoring as a management tool

Mentoring has been traced to ancient Greece (Freedman, 1988), but Tenner (2004) suggested that contemporary mentoring only emerged in the 1970's. Indeed, Tenner suggested that, today, mentoring is as much a career tool as is a curriculum vitae or a resume. Du Bois and Neville (1997) refer to Nettles' (1991) description of contemporary mentor programs as those that are seeking to establish 'a one to one relationship between [the mentor] and …the mentee in meeting academic, social, career or personal goals'.

Although there is ample literature on the topic of mentoring, particularly in education [see, for example, Booth (1993); Edwards and Collison (1995); and Zanting, Verlop and Vermunt (2003)], and 'at-risk youth' [see, for example, Freedman (1988) Price, Price and Toomey (1980)], much of it lacks a common understanding of what constitutes mentoring. Stone (1999) clarifies some of the nuances between mentoring with other related concepts, including coaching and counselling. Coaching is described as the function of hiring, training and evaluating one's 'team'; counselling is the function of communicating with those on the team who are not performing well; but mentoring, which is directed at the best performers on the team, encompasses being a 'role model, coach, broker, and advocate…. sustaining their motivation despite limited opportunities' (Stone, 1999). There appears to be some overlap of concepts, but overall mentoring is a multi-dimensional activity with various foci that involves instructing, advising, providing feedback, evaluating and challenging the mentee (Zanting, Verlop and Vermunt, 2003).

DuBois and Neville (1997) identified that much of the contemporary research and literature on the topic of mentoring, particularly of youth mentoring, has focussed on the establishment of mentoring programs. A number of universities in Australia, for example, use mentor programs as a means of retaining students. Austin, Covalea and Weal (2002) describe the evolution of one such mentoring program and its transformation from an informal to a formal one through a process of review. Policies were ultimately developed in relation to mentor co-ordination, activities, training for mentors and feedback. There are further plans to improve the program including the use of online communication opportunities, social functions for participants and the linking of the program into a formal subject for academic credit.

Sipe (2002) noted that a number of studies have been undertaken to identify the reasons that mentor programs are successful. She noted that there is consensus in the literature that the 'key to creating effective mentoring relationships lies in the development of trust between two strangers' (p.253) and that this critically relies on the approach of the mentor. Parra et al. (2002) highlighted that previous research on mentoring has identified that 'more positive perceptions of program training and support should predict greater benefits and relationship continuation' (p. 369).

Mentoring in the arts

Mentoring is less goal-oriented than a traditional teaching relationship and success is measured in terms of depth of knowledge and competency rather than content curriculum covered (Collin, 1988). Mentoring in the arts focuses on creating and facilitating networks, enhancing pathways and engaging in essential discourse. Mentor schemes are currently used for Indigenous, metropolitan and regional arts programs for this purpose by organisations such as the Australian Film Commission, Arts Victoria, Chunky Move and the Alice Springs Youth Arts Group.

Arts practitioners living in regional areas have limited access to didactic experiences in their field; the mentoring relationship offers a process in which participants are engaged appropriate to their capacities. In addition to the observable skills required in the arts industry, success can depend on a range of complementary skills and knowledge not formally encountered by arts organisations, such as writing grant applications, networking with other organisations, flexible and creative approaches to engaging with the surrounding community (Hunter 2005). The mentor relationship facilitates the enhancement of these types of skills by demystifying the processes and making clear the pathways that lie before the practitioner.

Methodology

This paper draws upon the Fillis' (2000; 2004) argument that new theory generation can benefit from embracing non-traditional modes of enquiry. *Directions* was evaluated using a qualitative approach, specifically the case study method. Interviews were conducted with mentors and mentees about their experiences in the *Directions* program soon after its completion. A series of interview questions was developed on the identified and emerging issues for the festivals concerning artistic directions, their expectations and the short-term and expected long-term outcomes of participation in the program. These were mirrored for the mentees and the mentors. One committee member from each of the festivals participating in the program, nominated by RAV, was interviewed and their mentors were interviewed. Telephone interviews were conducted by trained interviewers; the interviews recorded, with the permission of participants, and then transcribed for thematic analysis. This current study extends the studies by Rentschler and Geursen (1999 a and b) on art museum case studies and follows the methodology employed for these studies. As such the interviews were analysed, with emerging themes grouped under the headings of enhancing pathways, audience development and facilitating networks for decision-making. By collecting and organising the data in this way, the rich information was provided for case study analysis. The three festivals that are the focus of this paper are the Stratford on Avon Shakespeare Festival (Gippsland); the Moss Vale Music Festival (South Gippsland); and the Celtic Festival (Bellarine Peninsula).

Stratford on Avon Shakespeare Festival

The Shakespeare festival was first staged in Stratford, Gippsland, in 1991 with presentations of a "Midsummer Nights Dream" and "Twelfth Night". In late 1995 the committee for that festival reformed and the Stratford on Avon Shakespeare Association produced the Stratford on Avon Shakespeare Festival in 1996, with a more diverse program that included a village fair. Since then, the festival has been

held annually, with further expansions to the program that includes workshops, performances and events from a variety of companies over a 10 day period.

A number of issues became apparent for the Stratford on Avon Shakespeare Festival as a result of its participation in *Directions*. While the issues are not directly related to artistic direction, they were seen to have the potential to impact on the capacity of the Festival to conceptualise and realise any set objectives with regard to its artistic direction in the future. The committee members and Stratford on Avon Shakespeare Festival mentor worked together to accurately identify, and then articulate, those issues that were considered to be of priority.

One key issue identified related to human resource management. Since the festival's inception, a core set of volunteers have been involved in the festival and they now have a diverse set of skills relating to festival management. However, the skills possessed by this group of volunteers require further diversification and improvement to enhance the sustainability of the festival. It also became clearer for the committee, through the mentoring process, that relying too heavily on the goodwill of a small number of individuals can drain those individuals, which has obvious implications for the festival's sustainability. Through the mentoring process, it was also identified that there is a need to develop more realistic expectations of the volunteers involved in the festival. Tensions between paid and unpaid participants of the festival also need attention.

Solutions to these issues include developing strategies to enhance the skills of the committee members, or 'up-skilling'; skills transfer from the committee and, it was noted by the mentor 'outsourcing some of the most complex and time-consuming aspects of the festival'. These issues relate to both the general management of the festival and to its artistic direction. The committee plans to distinguish areas of festival management and logistics that can rely on volunteers and those that are more suitable to paid employment. Furthermore, formalising the roles and responsibilities of both paid employees and un-paid volunteers is required. The committee intends to network and collaborate more actively with other festivals and discuss approaches to human resource management, explore a range of policies and examine position descriptions. These solutions are associated with the process of succession planning and resource allocation, which are important for any organisation's sustainability. Furthermore, the Stratford on Avon Shakespeare Festival staff now realise that they compete for funding, both generally and in relation to the arts, against other sophisticated festivals, hence, there is a need to act promptly upon these issues.

Another issue that has emerged for the Stratford on Avon Shakespeare Festival is that the geographical and thematic boundaries constrain the festival and require appraisal. The festival is branded by Stratford and while this is useful for providing the festival with a 'sense of place' and the town with an identity, it has perhaps contributed to the fact that the festival has not gained strong support from the local shire and residents beyond Stratford. Similarly, the festival's theme has placed a boundary on it, which needs to be capitalised upon more effectively in the future. Solutions to this issue, which were identified through the mentoring process, include identifying a broader set of stakeholders for the festival, beyond Stratford and beyond 'Shakespearians', and communicating with them in an engaging manner.

While the mentoring process has assisted the committee to identify that there is considerable work to be done to ensure the sustainability of the Stratford on Avon Shakespeare Festival, the process has highlighted to the committee that the festival is based on very strong foundations. Furthermore, it has emphasised the importance of celebration of its achievements and its contributions to Stratford and the Wellington Shire Council's social, cultural and artistic development.

The National Celtic Festival

Held in Portarlington on Victoria's Bellarine Peninsula, the National Celtic Festival is Australia's largest arts and cultural Celtic event. Celtic traditions of music, dance, food, literature and language are showcased over a three day program through the use of stage and street performances, workshops and displays. The festival has grown in a short period of time, into a multi-day and multi-venue event, that appeals to local and visiting communities. It is innovative and is clearly in a stage of growth.

The organisers of the National Celtic Festival, together with their mentor, identified that there is a need to:

- develop strategies that will enable the festival to advance to a new level of programming and artistic direction. This issue was identified as a priority for the festival, as it is important that festival growth and support are maintained.
- capitalise on the recognition the festival has gained from Australian Celtic Council, which is significant in itself, but it is important that this recognition transcends festival boundaries and moves into national and international arenas.
- resolve the challenges inherent in the presentation and aesthetic appeal of festival venues, particularly regarding the images that they project for artistic direction.

These three issues pose challenges for the National Celtic Festival, and participation in *Directions* has provided the organisers of the festival with greater confidence to devise solutions for them.

Through the mentoring process, organisers of the festival recognised that decisions often need to be made in an entrepreneurial style. That is, risks need to be taken, but these need to be calculated. Indeed, the mentoring process developed a confidence in the organisers with regard to their decision-making skills that they did not have prior to taking part in *Directions*. It was stated that *Directions* 'really lifted our [the Celtic Festival's] confidence and enthusiasm and gave us more drive to work on those [artistic] areas'.

Some decisions require stepping outside of the 'comfort zone', and the organisers are aware that this is required to advance the festival and position it nationally, culturally and artistically. As a result of participation in *Directions,* the organisers of the festival are now forward planning, thinking laterally and finalising a number of aspects of National Celtic Festival's three-year strategic plan. The organisers now realise that there are opportunities to harness arising from the fact that Celtic traditions of art and culture are being accepted and interpreted in Australian communities in exciting and novel ways. For example, the film *Lord of the Rings* showcased aspects of Celtic culture to Australian communities, some of which have been embraced by new, non-traditional or fringe markets for Celtic culture and art. This phenomenon provides the

National Celtic Festival with opportunities to communicate with the new audiences about Celtic culture and art and diversify its market. The organisers of the festival are mindful, however, that while there are opportunities to diversify its market and develop new audiences, there is still a proven market for the festival that holds more traditional views of Celtic culture and art. Their task is to manage the tension between tradition and innovation in a creative and inclusive manner.

The recognition that the festival has gained from the Australian Celtic Council is going to be used to develop both national and international links and raise the national and international status of the festival. The organisers of the festival are developing strategies to target specific organisations that they may be able to develop both cultural and artistic synergies with the festival. Organisers of the festival are currently recruiting support from organisations located in other parts of Victoria, other states of Australia and overseas to complement the collaboration with local groups.

A major outcome of the National Celtic Festival's involvement in Directions is that the organising committee is energised with new ideas and that this was considered to be 'infectious'. It was stated that participation in Directions has '*…affected* [our] *drive…and in turn that's passed on to others. We had a meeting the other night and we've got a totally different excited focus now and that's passing on to other people. We're passing on these ideas to people go away and feel much more proud of the festival because they've got innovative things to do.'* In this way, *Directions* is being used as a springboard for enhancing skills and disseminating knowledge about artistic direction in the festival sector.

The Moss Vale Music Festival

Moss Vale Music Festival is a 'world music festival'. The festival, in its fourth year, is held in the historic Moss Vale Park, Moss Vale, South Gippsland, every February. The organisers have been successful in attracting well-known musicians to perform at the one-day festival. In 2004, for example, Gillian Welch, a widely acclaimed international singer and musician, was the lead act on the program and in 2005 Ritchie Havens, who opened the first Woodstock concert, performs at the festival.

The mentoring process involved the committee examining, with their mentor, what it was that they wanted to achieve with regard to the festival's artistic direction. One of the issues that the mentor identified for the Moss Vale Music Festival was that there was a need to set aside time to think in a strategic manner about artistic direction, as well as festival management. Like most festival organisers, the organisers of the Moss Vale Music Festival are occupied with the logistics of staging this year's festival and do not often have the time to develop strategies and long-term plans and to realise these plans. The process assisted Moss Vale Music Festival's volunteer organising committee to develop 'a strategy that is going to work over time, something for now and something for the future'. Furthermore, the process assisted the organising committee to clarify that although they wanted to retain the 'world music' image that the festival had developed; they saw the need to more actively engage with the local community. The committee felt that this could be achieved by developing the festival's artistic direction and program, but were unclear as to how could this be realistically achieved.

Moss Vale's mentor stated that there 'was so much talent [within the Moss Vale Festival], but what they needed was someone to give them a perspective and help them facilitate their ideas'. This was not just about artistic direction, however. It was about developing relationships and partnerships with the diverse range of stakeholders of the festival in the local community. For example, relationships were strengthened with the local farmers in the Moss Vale region. In 2004, hay bales were used to buffer the sound of a very noisy generator—a utilitarian function. In 2005, hay bales were used as part of an art installation and emerged as a symbol of the Moss Vale region: the plight of the local farmers in recent years and a celebration of the harvests that the farmers were experiencing after years of drought. Participation in the mentoring program was instrumental in identifying and accentuating the connection between the festival and the local community with the use of this novel and symbolic artistic installation.

Each year, some of Moss Vale's youth volunteer as 'roadies' for the musicians who perform at the festival. The organisers of the festival value the youth participation as most are musicians themselves and handle the instruments and equipment appropriately. After the Moss Vale Music Festival, the youth stages its own music festival on the Sunday. The two programs are separate, but following the mentoring process, the organisers of the festival now recognise that the link between the two programs should be enhanced.

In 2006, the opening of the Commonwealth Games will coincide with the Moss Vale Music Festival. As a direct result of the mentoring program, the committee has already approached the local shire about how they can work together to harness opportunities arising from this international event. Moss Vale Music Festival's world music image will become a feature of the shire's Commonwealth Games event strategy. The organisers also plan to work closely with the Indigenous community to ensure that it is represented in the Festival program in 2006.

For the future, the committee believes that it now has the confidence to make decisions with regard to the festival's artistic direction. As a result of their participation in *Directions*, organisers of the Moss Vale Music Festival '…feel more secure that we don't have to get huge amounts of money, that if we are thinking long term we can do something that aids the artistic development as well as the specific things for that year'.

Furthermore, participation in *Directions* provided the committee members with opportunities to develop networks with other festivals in regional Victoria. Now they realise that other festival organisers around Victoria are experiencing similar difficulties with regard to festival management and that solutions can be made by networking with each other.

Emergent themes for the festivals

Each of the case studies is unique and it is clear that each has a specific focus in relation to its artistic direction. There are, however, commonalties between the festivals that are worthy of consideration. The dominant themes that emerged in the information gained from the festivals and their mentors include:

- **Disseminating knowledge.** The most obvious method of dissemination of knowledge was through the mentor/mentee relationship, but the processes that were taken to deliver *Directions* meant that knowledge was also disseminated in other ways. The mentees, for example, were able to access the other two mentors in the program through the initial introductory sessions. Discussions were had, as a group, about the mentors' own festivals and the ways in which they solved problems that they had faced concerning the artistic direction of their festivals. The mentees also developed channels of communication among themselves through the course of the project which meant that there were opportunities to disseminate knowledge gained from *Directions*, as well as knowledge that had been acquired previously by the mentees. Furthermore, *Directions* was strongly supported by AV and RAV and representatives from these organisations attended group sessions at various stages of the project. This provided mentees opportunities to gain insights into the goals of these organisations and their operational processes.
- **Enhancing decision-making skills.** Despite the fact that regional festival artistic directors have considerable creativity and skill, these organisers of regional festivals are often tentative about making decisions 'outside the square' in relation to artistic direction. The contact that '*Directions'* offered the participating organisers of regional festivals with their mentors and with other stakeholders highlighted that many of the ideas they were 'floating' were worthy of implementing—it is just a matter of making decisions and feeling comfortable with those decisions. *Directions* appears to have offered the organisers involved in the festivals the confidence to make decisions that in the past they were tentative about. Furthermore, *Directions* has provided guidance to the mentees that they often find difficult to access in their hometowns.
- **Developing networks in regional Victoria.** Compared with metropolitan festival directors, regional directors are more isolated. The problem posed by this fact compounds the limited opportunities available for holding successful regional festivals. Attempts made by festival directors to sustain their festivals are frustrated by isolation, structural arrangements and a lack of networks. A strong mentoring opportunity provides not only new networks but also community development opportunities. These include developing capacity to monitor strategies and artistic direction in their festivals, as well as providing assistance to one another in reviewing direction. Festival sustainability is enhanced by working with networks across the sector, within the sector and outside it, so that co-ordination is improved, efficiency and innovation in economic and social development are increased and social development in isolated areas progresses. *Directions* offered festival directors skills, confidence and networks to broaden horizons.
- **Enhancing pathways.** Although festivals in regional locations are generally resource and time poor, there is a need for committees to take the time out of operations and logistics to develop strategies that use art as a vehicle of development. This involves defining and articulating what 'artistic direction' means for the festival. Following from this, while there is sometimes the connotation that art is fluid and boundless, it is imperative that policies and procedures are developed from strategic plans and objectives.
- **Audience development.** Art is seen as a means of developing new audiences. It is seen as a way of tapping into new markets that had otherwise not been

considered for festivals and therefore a means of enhancing a festival's sustainability. There are challenges associated with developing new audiences successfully. Festivals need to broaden their own perceptions of their festival by understanding the perceptions that potential markets have of them, and the themes that they associate with them.

Recommendations for further research

Parra et al (2002) use the relationship between perceptions of mentoring programs, their derived benefits and relationship continuation as a measure of mentoring success. Using this approach, information gained about the program from mentor and mentees suggests that this pilot program of *Directions* was successful. As a pilot program, the program was relatively informal. Research on mentoring suggests that formalisation is usually introduced into mentoring programs as they progress. In the future, if the program is to continue, based on the work of Austin, Covalea and Weal (2002), it is recommended that policies be developed in relation to mentor co-ordination, activities, training for mentors and feedback. Online communication opportunities may be particularly useful to address some of the unique issues that relate to festivals in regional locations.

While this study explored the implications of *Directions* for the festivals shortly after the completion of the program, the impact of the program may be better evaluated using a longitudinal approach. It may be useful to explore the impact of *Directions* on the festivals, and the participants of the program, in two or three years time. Indeed, this line of inquiry is recommended by the authors. In this study, mentoring was applied within the context of festivals to enhance the artistic direction of festivals. However, the underlying principles of *Directions,* where knowledge was disseminated, skills were enhanced and networks developed in the regional Victoria festival sector, can be applied to other aspects of festival management. For example, knowledge, skills and networks in risk management, volunteer, or financial management could well be enhanced through similar mentoring programs in Australia's festival sector.

The limitation of this study is the convenience sample of festivals in regional Victoria, but the study provides insights into some of the issues that these festivals are facing and the approaches developed to overcome them. Clearly, the program has direct benefit to the festival and participants of the program, but through the dissemination of the outcomes of the project, other festivals can learn from *Directions.* Evaluation of this pilot program provides an opportunity for RAV and AV, in particular, to assess the need for such programs and, as required, develop programs to meet the needs of the burgeoning festival sector in regional Victoria. The information gained from this study can also be used by a number of other stakeholders in the festival sector, nationally and internationally.

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Event Industry Issues 2

The Impact of Transnational Events On The Host Country: The Case Of South Africa *

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Abstract

The global research report by the World Travel and Tourism Council indicates that tourism generated direct and indirect employment for approximately 231 million people worldwide in 1998, or about one job in nine workers. According to the report, global tourism is a R3.6 trillion industry and will be a R8.0 trillion industry by the year 2010, providing jobs to about 328 million people. There were over 600 million international travellers in 1998 (Edgell, 1999:111– 120).

After becoming a democratic country in 1994, South Africa was rated as one of the most sought after holiday destinations in the world. The local MICE (meeting, incentives, conferences and exhibitions) is worth more than R20 billion annually. South Africa has the following convention centres in three large cites: Durban International Convention Centre, Sandton International Convention Centre and Cape Town International Convention Centre.

The large cities need to take advantage of this tourism growth for economic benefits. According to Louw (1999:1) large cities across the world are the most important tourist destinations. Urban areas have the ability to attract visitors across the world with facilities such as convention centres complemented by high standards of resources, urban areas with sustainable tourism development and economic growth in general.

The paper shall discuss the following:

- The background of International convention centres in South Africa
- The impact of MICE in South Africa
- The availability of infrastructure to capture world market
- How to position themselves as international conference destination
- How can local communities benefit from spin-offs
- Awareness of the impact of MICE to local communities.
- Women empowerment through the MICE.

Although different convention centres have different interpretations of strategies for development, the paper will attempt to bring together workable strategies from each three international convention centres and recommend synergised strategies that could be used to maximise benefits from international events.

Event Management:
An emerging field of business opportunity in India

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Abstract

The new millennium has brought new challenges for companies representing different industries throughout the world. Companies communicating with prospective customers are facing one such challenge. The traditional tools of marketing communication such as television, newspapers, magazines, radio etc. are effective, but companies in different segments like FMCG, service and industrial sectors are simultaneously looking for new and effective ways of marketing communication. Events can well achieve this motive. The traditional and other contemporary tools are effective in marketing communication but not efficient because wastage in these tools is on the higher side. Events bring the companies and their target customers to one rendezvous. In short, events do niche marketing for the companies, where the customers take back a memory and association with the brand. An event provides a platform where companies can communicate their specific ideas to their customers by associating their brand with the event. Events range from weddings, birthday parties, meetings, seminars, workshops, fests, fairs and exhibitions, to sports, religious and spiritual mela, fashion shows, musical concerts, quizzes, promotional campaigns, rallies and brand launches. Thus, events provide immense opportunities for companies to convey their particular idea to the people. These ideas can vary from company to company, and they are building their image and customer awareness to show that they are socially responsible, technologically advanced and customer caring. Whether, good or bad, an event always creates a unique impression on the public. That is, the public can never forget an event good or bad. This forget-me-not quality is what event managers and their clients crave.

The present paper attempts to highlight the importance and role of events in the success of business in general. It also highlights the recent trends in the field of event management with specific reference to the Indian corporate sector.

Introduction

The history of events is as old as the history of mankind (Avrich, 1994). An event in its universal and literal form would be any occasion when something happens, or something needs to be done to organize the same (Gaur & Saggere, 2001).
The Maha-Kumbh Mela at Allahabad has the distinction of being the biggest attended fair anywhere in India, if not the entire world, making it the biggest event of its kind. As per the estimates of government of India, around 40 million (Times of India, February 18th, 2001) people attended this religious fair in 2001. Similarly, Pushkar Mela in Rajsthan has the distinction of being one the biggest attended fairs with 20 million attendees (Business Today, December 7-21, 1993). India has roughly 5000 such fairs and festivals (Statistics on Tourism, Government of India, December, 2001). These represent the biggest organized effort in events from ancient times. Originating on religious lines, these melas - which literally mean fairs—have always been a meeting ground for big and small traders, across the Indian subcontinent. Traditional games and entertainment have always been a part of such events. The euphoria generated in the fair was not only good for the participants and audience, but also for the economy of the region as a whole . Ancient events such as Indian fairs and festivals with their visually spectacular depiction of epic themes, interwoven with singing, dancing, and emotion were a means of expressing the spiritual and cultural traditions of a community(Gaur & Saggere, 2001).
It's only in their recent avatar as a marketing medium that events are attracting corporate attention and simultaneously getting corporatised themselves. An events organizing agency does everything from offering consultancy for a communication strategy, to managing the post event media coverage. An event agency, like ad agencies, conceptualizes the event according to the product and the target audience specifications. Given this trend, a new breed of professionals has emerged — the event professionals. The job profiles that they display start from assessing the brief and deciding on an appropriate strategy to the final execution of the strategy (Lobo, 2004).

Rural India comprises of over 75,000 villages. The TV penetration here barely crosses 11% and the Internet effect is infinitesimally small (Gaur & Saggere, 2001). Therefore, to obtain reach for their communication campaigns, various corporations have resorted to events as a strategic alternative. Having made a humble beginning, events have now come a long way in terms of classification and specialization that are possible in this field. In fact, in this new millennium, events as a medium will be catering to all demographic segments of the population. Events have proved to be a versatile marketing communication tool since they can be easily customized to cater to the needs of a diverse range of industries, eg pharmaceutical, financial services, automobile, cosmetics, garments, telecommunications, tourism and travel. To add to the benefits that an event offers, live media integrates the three traditional modes of marketing communication, viz. advertising, sales promotion and public relations (Kotler, 2004). An event can also act as a focus for specific campaigns, and helps to give guidelines to media-related decision-making such as when to change, stop or introduce new campaigns.

Events and Event Management

Marketing guru Philip Kotler defines events as occurrences designed to communicate particular messages to target audiences. Suresh Pillai, M.D., Eventus Management, considers events as an additional medium whereby two-way (or active) communication is possible. Deepak Gattani, Director, Unirapport Events, one of India's foremost events agencies, defines an event as something noteworthy which happens according to a set plan involving networking of a multimedia package, thereby achieving the clients' objectives and justifying their needs for associating with the event (Gaur & Saggere, 2001). A more comprehensive and new definition of an event is that "an event is a live multimedia package carried out with a preconceived concept, customized or modified to achieve the clients objectives of reaching out and suitably influencing the sharply defined, specially gathered target audience by providing a complete experience and an avenue for two way interaction." Events have become an increasingly significant component of destination marketing (Getz, 1997; Hall, 1992; Van den Berg, Braun, and Otgaar, 2000). Events are being used to increase visitation (Light, 1996; Ritchie, 1984), reduce the seasonality of tourist flow (Higham & Hinch, 2002; Ritchie & Beliveau, 1974), improve a destination's position in the market (Brown, Chalip, Jago, & Mules, 2002; Roche, 1994), and foster destination development (Bramwell, 1997; Chacko & Shaffer, 1993). Each of these outcomes depends, at least in part, on the attendance that events generate. Increases in visitation and the effects on seasonality of visitation are a direct result of event attendance. Effects on market position depend on events media, sponsorship, and word of mouth, each of which are a function of the events spectator appeal. The destination development that an event engenders is largely driven by the attendance it is expected to generate (Faulkner et al., 2000).

Management of an event encompasses all activities involved in planning, organizing, staffing, leading and evaluation of an event. In fact, all operational tasks for an event such as ground work, venue selection and stage design, arranging the infrastructural facilities required, liaison with artists/performers and networking with other activities such as advertising, PR, ticket sales, etc. fall under the purview of event management. The activities required for managing events require certain steps to be followed and they are called the 5 C's of events. The first is Conceptualisation of the creative idea/ambience followed by the Costing i.e. calculation of cost of production and margins on the event. Canvassing, for clients/sponsors, customers/audience and networking is the next step. Depending on the customers needs and marketing objectives, Customisation of the concept is required. Carrying-out is the final and most important part of event management, which is concerned, with the execution of the event (Gaur & Saggere, 2001).

Factors that have led to the growth of Events and Event Management

The commercial exploitation of event management began almost seven or eight decades ago in India. The first commercial exploitation of events can be traced back to Bidi (a form of cigarette) manufacturers. Among the pioneers in event management in India was Lever Brothers (now Hindustan Lever). Its spirited men went from village to village, and demonstrated and taught the masses the use of soap through events. The commercial use of events has been nurtured in the International arena for a long time and we can say that the commercial use of events in India has been the

result of the same international thought of Lever Brothers. Even after having been conceptualised for so long, the commercial use of events in India did not grow at a rapid pace. It is only in the last decade of the 20th century, after the liberalisation, globalisation and internationalisation of the Indian economy, that the event business started taking a considerable role in the marketing communication mix of Indian companies. Since 1995, the number of entertainment and community events subsidised by enthusiastic advertisers has increased. They apparently recognise this as a new media form possessing the unique ability to breakthrough the clutter of thousands of commercial messages that bombard customers daily. An event can enhance and link other elements of the promotional mix- advertising, public relations, sales promotions, and direct marketing - to create a singular and high visibility experience for the consumer.

Event as a Marketing Tool

Events literally bring products to participants in an innovative and personally involving manner (Gaur & Saggere, 2001). For example, when Camlin was interested in introducing active school students to its new product line of Artoons sketch pens, in addition to advertising in the expected magazines and TV options, it sponsored drawing competitions at premier city schools. It offered product giveaways and demonstrated the product's features and benefits through a huge float and a road show covering most schools in South Bombay in the tour.

Events can subtly, yet effectively, reinforce the brand image of the product or service in the interest of the consumer through an event association using celebrities, locations and/or acknowledged industry leaders (Anonymous, 2004). In 1998, soft drinks manufacturer Coca-Cola India acted as the title sponsor of part of the Asha Bhonsle Live Concert Tour organised by UNIRAPPORT Events, a division of UTV. The concert was an elaborate tour of 10 cities. The audience had the opportunity to watch Asha Bhonsle live in concert. Coke obtained the opportunity to present the event and use tickets for the show as giveaways, thus effectively tying a brand building exercise with increasing customer traffic in its retail outlets as well as a sales promotion campaign. Events, therefore, offer innumerable opportunities for the sponsors to extract all possible mileage available in the marketing lexicon.

Because many events like the one mentioned above are either media-owned or media-designed, it seems obvious that this new tool should be part of the media planner's repertoire. It is the media planner who will be in a position to identify event opportunities that meet their clients' communication goals, and who has the relationship with the media vendors to negotiate the best deal.

Though sponsoring of a big event like a rock show, an Olympic Games or a cricket tournament invariably means sharing the limelight with other companies and other brands, the customisation of events totally serves the communication agenda of a company. Communication through live media integrates the functions of advertising, sales promotions and public relations.

Events vie for a very small share of the marketing budget pie as of now (Lobo, 2004). But as the importance of events as a marketing tool builds up, it will eat into a larger portion of the marketing budget pie vis-a-vis other currently popular modes of

marketing communication such as television advertising and Internet banner ads. It will thus become part and parcel of the integrated campaign. This is so because events help in addressing the diverse marketing needs of a company. The following section provides the details of these needs, and also explains how these are addressed by events.

Diverse Marketing Needs Addressed by Events

Brand Building

Brands have become important for the survival and growth of companies, therefore companies are making efforts at brand building (Stewart, 1996). Events help in brand building by:

- Creating awareness about the launch of new brands/products.
- Presentation of brand description to highlight the added features of product/ service.
- Helping in the rejuvenation of brands during the different stages of the product life cycle.
- Helping in communicating the repositioning of brands/products.
- Associating the brand personality of clients with the personality of the target market.
- Creating and maintaining brand identity image building.

Focusing the Target Market

Events help in focusing the target market by:

- *Helping in the avoidance of clutter* Even though some events do get congested with too many advertisements due to their popularity, events still provide an effective means of being spotted, and aid in decongesting the advertising clutter (Divekar, 1994). For example, title sponsorship/co-sponsorship of a major event provides the sponsor with immense benefit, since the sponsor's name is mentioned along with an event eg. Samsung Cup 2004 (international cricket tournament between India and Pakistan). In fact, in some events, especially in sports, the entire tournament or event gets the name of the official title sponsor for the tournament. The Coca-Cola Cup and the Hero Cup are just two such examples for the game of cricket, wherein the menace of clutter is not only curbed during the events, but also in the traditional media!
- *Enabling interactive mode of communication* Events generically provide an opportunity for buyers and sellers to interact. They also provide a foundation for the exchange and sharing of knowledge between professionals. Be it exhibitions or other events, provision is invariably made for stalls or other interaction points such as seminars, workshops or conferences in the areas designated for the event. Usually, industry specific organisations with many companies as members arrange for such events, where new developments in the industry as well as those by individual companies are presented to their collective customer population.

For example, the IT industry in particular has taken a very big liking to this benefit and has been especially hot on the events calendar.

Implementation of Marketing Plan

Events help in carrying out certain marketing activities by:

- *Enabling authentic test marketing:* Events bring the target audience together, thereby creating an opportunity for test marketing of products for authentic feedback. The seller can identify exactly the traits and other characteristics that are desired. Especially during the prelaunch stage of the product, events provide good opportunities for giving away products and keeping track of the performance of the gadget or service before actually launching it on a large scale either nationwide or worldwide.
- *Enabling focused sales and communication to a captive audience:* In an event, changing the atmosphere or web surfing is not possible. The audience is more or less bound to witnessing one particular event. In such a situation, it is very favourable for sellers to put forth their presentations without any diversions. Such a situation is very valuable given the ineffectiveness of traditional modes of communication in holding the attention of the audience (Alba, 1983). Especially in a rural setting, any event that is jazzy and filled with glitterati will not only be a crowd-puller but also a captivating tool that can be used for marketing communication.
- *Increasing customer traffic in stores:* Sometimes newly opened venues, showrooms, retail outlets, etc. need to attract the attention of their target audience and entice them to visit. Events can be conceptualised to increase customer traffic. They can be customised to make available, concepts ranging from retail store specific events organised on a small scale to an in-between link connecting an increase in customer traffic with a mega-event such as a one-day international cricket match or a music concert using tickets or passes for the event as giveaways.
- *Enabling sales promotions:* It is a fact that events have a say in almost every type of marketing decision that a company takes. Sales promotion is a very significant winner from the benefits that events offer. As part of a well-planned, optimised and economised strategy, a newly launched timeshare concept vendor affiliated to the RCI group tied up with theatres in the plush locales of Mumbai. Cine-goers to movies such as *Kuch Kuch Hota Hai*, at the Liberty Theatre, were given questionnaires upon entering the hall. They were enticed to fill in the form immediately with the promise of a lucky prize. The questionnaire basically requested personal information such as age, marital status, and monthly income from the respondents. The lucky draw was just a formality. The resort wanted to segment and target specifically couples who were in the age group 28-60 years and who had a combined monthly income exceeding Rs.20,000 per month. The spending patterns on holidays were also scrutinised. Couples falling into this segment were then invited for an organised hard sell consisting of educating the potential customers on the concept of time-shares. An instant discount of 25% valid for only that presentation was also dangled in front of the potential customers. With this exercise and shift in strategy to events, the timeshare vendor had increased its hit rate from 5% to 15% overnight. They were meeting 480 couples who were qualified leads every day for the duration of the event, as compared to an average of 100 unknown couples in the entire duration of their sales promotion exercise earlier. Thus, using a variety of delivery systems - direct mail, sampling programs, newspaper inserts, point-of-purchase displays, in-store coupons or in-pack flyers and other such micro events woven together - can help develop and deliver the promotion message to the right audience.

- *Helping in relationship building and PR activities:* Practitioners of this marketing function believe event marketing campaigns have the ability to create long-lasting relationships with closely targeted market segments, a role that it is increasingly expected to play in the years to come (Stewart, 1996). Relationship building is not restricted to end user customers; most events are also targeted at enhancing distributor and sales representative relations. Taking dealers on foreign jaunts and honouring sales reps with visits to overseas exhibitions such as the K-98 exhibition in Germany is a well known way of using trade events for relationship building. Musical concerts, international star tours, road shows, and corporate meets all qualify as PR events.
  Another set of events that certain companies religiously sponsor is specific focused events organised by prestigious colleges. These need not be youth oriented product or service companies, but companies looking to attract and recruit some of the best and talented minds in their business.
- *Enthusing and motivating the sales team:* The need for interaction is not restricted to external customers only, and end consumers are not always the focus of live media exercises. Sometimes, events are used as a platform to kick off a product within the company. Glitzy launch conference events go a long way in enthusing the company's sales team that has to sell products to demanding customers. This is especially popular amongst pharmaceutical and other FMCG (Ohmae, 1982) companies who have a whole army of sales representatives on the field at any given point in time and who need to be kept at their peak performance levels.
- *Providing an avenue to affirm presence:* After the restructuring of its relationship with Proctor & Gamble, Godrej Soaps Limited needed to send out the right signals to the world that it was still in good shape and ready to bounce back into the market with renewed vigour. It needed to assure its investors as well as customers of its strong presence and resolve to continue business as usual. Thus, to affirm its presence in the minds of its stakeholders and the general public, Godrej sponsored the Miss World contest in 1996, thereby sending out strong and healthy signals.
- *Generate immediate sales:* Most events let firms install an exclusive booth and give the permission to exploit the opportunity to merchandise (Nazareth, 1996). Events such as the annual limited period discount sales from Wrangler and Van Heusen are authentic stock clearance and seconds sales aimed at generating immediate sales.
- *Generating instant publicity:* An event can be designed to generate instant publicity upon the implementation of a marketing strategy. The e-commerce start up Half.com, which wanted to sell products such as CDs, books, movies and games over the Internet, was up against major and strong competition. This example explains how an event can be designed to benefit all the strategic partners.
- *Recruit new distributors and sales representatives:* In events such as trade shows and exhibitions, a sort of industrial courtship can also be seen, in that firms are constantly on the look out for new distributors and sales reps in new territories. This is especially so when overseas business partners are sought. The fact that the visitors to the event are authentic, coupled with the opportunity to interact over a period of time, lends credibility to this exercise. Contacts made during shows can lead to long-term business relationships that are commercially beneficial to all. Again using the IT industry and the

Bang!inux 2000 event as an example, the sponsors listed below wanted to show their affiliation to the new movement, i.e. the open source and free operating system of Linux. By building products and platforms based on Linux, the sponsors can at least ensure that new business partnerships and strategic re-seller agreements that can be arranged and attracted during the event, consider them, i.e. Linux as a first option.

Marketing Research

Events help in conducting marketing research by:

- *Helping in the creation and sustenance of a panel of consumers:* Surveys or announcements during events can be used to attract and select from the audience a truly representative panel of consumers, who can be used to provide feedback to the company on the products/brands that it manufactures or trades. The panel so formed is sure to be more informed about the product as well as the issues involved with it.
- *Enabling market database assimilation, maintenance and updating:* By keeping track of their reach and its effectiveness, as well as interacting with the audience that actually turns up for the event, event sponsors can assimilate an authentic database. The database can be used to track various marketing trends. Events can then help in maintaining and updating the database. Changes in the demography of the target segments can, therefore, be closely tracked.
- *Providing instant feedback and the opportunity for an authentic and instant market research:* Most feedback from surveys carried out by market research firms are error-ridden when carried out by third parties, or suffer due to deficiencies in the methodology of data collection and lack of authenticity. Events provide a host of audience-friendly occasions, wherein the required data can be collected both instantly and authentically. Either the reverse side of invitations/passes can be directly used for printing questionnaires, or separate handouts can be distributed during the event itself. The instant gratifications that can be provided in the form of lucky draws and gifts during the breaks in the event act as an incentive for the target audience to at least participate. Thus, events also lend tangibility to marketing, since the uses of events designed to achieve specific objectives can be directly measured, if so desired. Events thus help in generating qualified sales leads.

Relationship Building

Events help in relationship building by:

- *Giving relationship management a proactive feel:* Sony and Aiwa have offered free service camps for their music systems and other products. Similarly, free service camps for Maruti and Daewoo car owners have also been held. Events such as these help not only in building up a rapport with the customers, but also help in reducing the cognitive dissonance, which is very common in the purchase of these types of products. This type of relationship is very proactive in nature because many studies have proved that reduced cognitive dissonance leads to the repeat purchase of the brand (Stewart, 1996).
- *Creating a forum for bringing together key corporate influencers, decision-makers and businessmen:* The main objective of the 12-city IBM Solutions Forum '98, organised by Tata IBM Ltd. and spread over a few months, was to bring to the doorstep of key people in the industry, the wide range of IBM

Technologies and cost-effective solutions available for all sizes of business. It also sought to demonstrate to these key people, IBM's clear leadership in the areas of PC product solutions, servers, industry-specific solutions and electronic business solutions. The forum also provided a platform for presentations and discussions on packages - both international such as CATIA (a CAD-CAM product), and those developed by Tata IBM's software partners in India.

- *Creating a forum for career match making:* One of the most frequently held career fairs is the Brassring Career Event, held in the Santa Clara Convention Centre in Santa Clara, California by www.Brassring.com. One such event was held in August 2000 to facilitate friendly face-to-face interaction between software professionals looking for career opportunities and recruiters looking to hire the best talent.

Creating Opportunities for Better Deals with Different Media

A single sponsor may find it difficult to network with the different media. The volume of business generated by one sponsoring firm may not be lucrative enough for the particular media to offer substantial room for negotiation, whereas professional event organisers are in touch with the media components daily (Madona, 1997). This enables negotiations by event organisers to be more fruitful, than when an individual company negotiates with the media. Negotiations could be in terms of rates (per cc for print media and commercial time on the electronic media) offered free in relation with the sponsorship amount. While on television and radio, free commercial times are bartered by the event organiser, in the print media, advertising space can be bartered. This may not be possible for individual clients.

Classifications of Events

Variations in the core concepts distinguish the various categories of events. Based on this principle, events as a marketing tool can be broadly classified as under:

1. Competitive Events
2. Artistic Expression
3. Cultural Celebrations
4. Exhibition Events
5. Charitable Events
6. Special Business Events

Competitive Events

This may involve a test of physical strength, mental ability and talent, or a combination of these. Competitive events can be divided into various types. These are contests which test sporting skills, artistic talents, knowledge levels or compare participants on the basis of any other parameter as a constraint within a certain set of rules and regulations applicable to all. Sports, Talent and Beauty contests are the most visible examples of competitive events (Gaur & Saggere, 2001).

Competitive events, being the most popular events category, have tended to become mass audience oriented. The live telecast opportunity for the vision media and thereby increased scope for reach and revenue - has tended to blur the interaction part of the benefit that events provide. In addition, the excitement generated during such an event grips the spectators. Any interaction diverting their attention from the contest could be

perceived as an intrusion. Therefore, competitive events provide more reach and fewer interactions. Given these characteristics, competitive events are primarily used for:

- Visibility and exposure to the brands
- Prolonged impact
- Corporate/brand awareness
- Consolidating the positioning of brands
- Merchandising and sale of licensed products around the event

The most popular competitive events are sporting events like the Olympic Games, the World Cups of cricket and soccer; and beauty contests like Miss Universe and Miss World.

Artistic Expression

Artistic expression events relate to the presentation of artistic talent as entertainment to the audience. It may involve singing, dancing, theatre, etc. and is a form of expression of emotion and freedom. Music concerts, dance ballets and other stage performances are the most popular forms of artistic expression. These are purely for the sake of entertaining the audience (Gaur & Saggere, 2001).

Since entertainment is the sole and major objective at such events, the audience resents any commercial interaction, though the client and event organiser may appreciate substantial interaction. Therefore, events for artistic expression provide opportunity for more reach and fewer interactions due to which the major benefits that such event offers to potential sponsors are:

- Consolidation of the image of their brands
- Post-event mileage
- Excellent coverage prospects
- Live or deferred telecast
- An avenue for expression of the personification of the brand image
- Universal appeal among different sections of society

Cultural Celebrations

Cultural events include get-togethers and celebrations of events that carry mythological, religious significance and/or have traditional values attached by a particular community with homogenous characteristics. Fairs and festivals are well known events in this category. Starting from the innumerable rural festivals that may also involve business transactions between merchants from far and near, to college festivals, is essentially a get-together. College festivals involve friendly contests and performances by and for the student community, while rural fairs and festivals are essentially a local affair. Such events comprise of a host of smaller events that could be from the other categories. Fairs and festivals have their root in religious tradition and rituals. These were basically designed to pass on knowledge to the next generation by the elders. For instance, the concept of Holi evolved from the celebration of a good harvest into a colourful festival heralding spring with an added mythological significance of Vishnu Bhakta Prahlad and his devotion, making Holi a festival that combines faith in god with the celebration of a good harvest.

Given the openness, free entry and informality of most cultural events, sponsors with innovative interaction points are actually appreciated by the audience. Since most of

the audience at such events usually walks in of their own free will, they are more receptive. The intervals in between the smaller events also offer interaction opportunities. Since cultural events provide greater opportunity for interaction and reach, they provide participating sponsors:

- A strategy for focusing on a particular community
- Reach into the heart of the rural population
- A platform for mass communication
- An opportunity to communicate to-the-point
- Avoid any sort of clutter
- Chance to innovate
- Direct sale opportunity

Exhibit 1 shows a detailed list of rural festivals in India and the audience they draw:

Exhibit 1: Top Rural Festivals and Celebrations of India

Festival & Fairs	**Major States in which Celebrated**	**Estimated Total Audience in Lakhs**	**Month or Year**
Lakshmi Kalyanamahawesam	Andhrapradesh	3	Jan-Feb
Sri Manyamkooda	Andhrapradesh	2	Jan-Feb
Venkataswamy Jatra	Andhrapradesh	2	Jan-Feb
Basant Panchami	Bandakpur, MP	2	Jan-Feb
Kumbh Mela	Uttarpradesh	300-400	Jan-Feb
Makar Sankranthi	Madhyapradesh, Uttarpradesh	16	Jan-Feb
Feast of St. Sebastian	Kerala	4	Jan-Feb
Utsavam	Kerala	5	Jan-Feb
Mahashivaratri	UP, AP, Karnataka, Kerala	24	Jan-Feb
Marasormam Convention	Kerala	4 lakh	Feb-Mar
Mela Gurukul	Haryana	5 lakh	Feb-Mar
Makaravilakku	Kerala	14 lakh	March
Omalloor Cattle Fair	Kerala	4 lakh	March
Ram Navami	Bihar, Uttarpradesh	6 lakh	Mar-April
Kundam	Tamil Nadu	3 lakh	Mar-April
Nukullamma Teertham	Andhrapradesh	2 lakh	Mar-April
Sahib Hola Mohalla	Himachal Pradesh	2 lakh	Mar-April
Feast of St. Thomas	Kerala	3 lakh	April
Sri Sundereshwara	Kerala	2 lakh	April
Meena Bharany	Kerala	3 lakh	April
Pallivetta	Kerala	2 lakh	April
Feast of St. George	Kerala	4 lakh	April
Karthika	Kerala	2 lakh	April
Eallazhagar	Tamil Nadu	3 lakh	April May
Pydhithalamma Utsavam	Andhrapradesh	2 lakh	April-May
Feast of St. Mary	Kerala	2 lakh	Sept.
Phalgu Rishi	Haryana	3 lakh	Sep-Oct.

Festival & Fairs	Major States in which Celebrated	Estimated Total Audience in Lakhs	Month or Year
Vaishnav Devi	Jammu & Kashmir	3 lakh	Oct-Jan
Kartika Poornima	Uttarpradesh	11 lakhs	Oct-Nov
Dussehra	Utrarpradesh	3 lakh	Oct-Nov
Sonepur Cattle Fair	Bihar	2 lakh	Oct-Nov
Vautha	Gujarat	2 lakh	Oct-Nov
Pushkar Mela	Rajasthan	300	Nov
Peria Kirthigal	Tamilnadu	10 lakh	Nov-Dec
Chirappu	Kerala	2 lakh	Nov-Dec
Pir Makhdim Sahin Ura	Maharashtra	3 lakh	Dec
Grutualliga	Andhrapradesh	2 lakh	Dec-Jan
Mallikarjuna	Andhrapradesh	2 lakh	Dec-Jan

Statistics on tourism, Government of India

Exhibition Events

Exhibition events relate to the presentation of goods and services at a common location for the purpose of either sale or display, which may be commercial in nature or may be a non-commercial display of rare arts, ancient artefacts or other skills. Exhibitions, shows, displays, sales are all words used to mean the same event. Exhibitions essentially are a way of expressing workmanship in either the technical or the artistic field. Trade shows are the most common types of display and sale events. Exhibiting things is an ancient profession.

Exhibitions in general provide scope for lesser reach and maximum interaction. Depending on whether the exhibition is for a single client or multiple clients, the scope of reach can be modified. The advantages that exhibitions offer have been identified as follows:

- Create quick awareness and enlightenment about a product or service
- Allow companies to generate an aura of excitement around the brand by capitalising on media hype
- Live demonstrations educate potential buyers in handling, using and taking care of the product
- Offer firms the opportunity to create a database on prospects by listing the names of persons/companies visiting their stalls in the fair
- Trade fairs also provide manufacturing firms an opportunity to interact with their end consumers face to face and understand their perceptions, priorities, prejudices, and problems about the product
- Marketing experiments aimed at testing a new product concept, new packaging, or an incentive scheme can be conducted on the groups of people visiting the fair
- Firms can also use this opportunity to test an ad copy
- Exhibitions are also emerging as a mode of distribution for many direct marketing firms

Charitable Events

Collection and dispersal of funds for social welfare and creating awareness for a worthy cause comes under the category of charitable events. Mass based social welfare events usually employ concepts from other event categories such as music concerts, cricket matches etc. for espousing the cause. These help not only in creating awareness, but also aid in fund raising for research into problems being faced by mankind, such as fatal diseases and natural calamities like earthquakes, cyclones floods, droughts and most recently the tsunami. Charity events are necessarily cause-oriented and depending on the requirement of the cause, in terms of teach and interaction desirable, the event category to be employed is chosen. Institutional goodwill events such as awards, parades, charity fashion shows, sponsorship of athletic teams comprised of kids, and sponsorship of community events can all be called charitable events since only goodwill and no direct commercial benefit is sought from the event. The most recent example in this context is of Telethon Concert HELP! organized for the benefit of Tsunami victims and broadcast by 17 channels in India on February 12, 2005.

Charitable events provide high reach but low interaction opportunities. The benefits that such event provides to sponsors are:

- Societal marketing opportunity
- Positive rub-off on the firm's image
- Free media publicity
- Better than the best advertising for goodwill generation
- A possibility of the entertainment tax being waived

Special Business Events

Such types of events are different from the events discussed above and are conducted to get noticed for direct commercial gain. Special business events usually provide equal opportunity for reach and interaction. In fact, since these are client driven, most special events are usually interaction oriented as much as reach oriented. The entire event is customised to accommodate the requirement of the clients.
With the entry of multinational brands into India, there has been a sudden spurt in mega-launch activities using innovative ideas. The advantage from such events is that the invited audience gets a first hand experience of the product. Moreover, the accompanying media coverage lends much credibility to the product. Creating and celebrating an event is a sort of investment in brand building. In fact, reports say that after a mega-launch using a pop music and dance evening as the launch event, Smirnoff was selling two and a half times more than it expected to sell in Mumbai. Mega-launches give a flying start to a brand, though how long and how much it would subsequently fly depends on the intrinsic strength of the brand and not on the launch event alone. When Samsung Electronics India Information and Telecommunications Ltd. launched its True I range of cell phones in Mumbai, the company flew in a troupe of women dancers from Sydney who performed through 45 vigorous and vivacious minutes in a splash of colour and song. The idea was to convey to the consumer similarities between the product and the event — trendy, colourful, youthful and fashionable.

Retail Events

There is also a growing emphasis being placed on special events by retailers. They all have a common objective - to generate sales. Special events are expected to attract customer traffic. Thus, customers can be exposed to the merchandise the store wants to sell. Because of the growing importance of special events, some retailers have combined the responsibility for special events with publicity.
Different types of special retail events are merchandising events, demonstrations and showings, special sales inducements, film and television based events and web-based events.

Event Management: A Multi-Crore-Rupee Opportunity

The coming of age of the events industry in India can be seen from the fact that a rough conservative estimate of the money involved in professional events would be Rs 11,600 crores (Suvarna, 2003) by 2006, a figure which has been growing at 50 to 100% per annum. Several competitive, artistic and cultural events are conducted in India each year. The competitive events like sports competitions, beauty contests and fashion shows are expected to grow at an even faster pace than previous years. In sports, India is preparing to organize the Commonwealth Games in 2010 in New Delhi. Other sports competitions include domestic as well as international cricket and hockey tournaments, athletics, marathons, auto rallies, etc. The first international motor sports event, the Asia Pacific Rally, was held in December 2003. Standard Chartered Bank has sponsored Mumbai International Marathon in February 2004. The main event management companies in this area are Sportz PR, Showdiff Worldwide, etc. Earlier beauty contests and fashion shows were primarily restricted to Metros and a few big cities, but now they are slowly getting acceptance even in the growing and small cities.

Music concerts, dance ballets and other stage performances are the most popular forms of artistic expression. Events related to music and entertainment are usually organized by TV Channels such as Sahara One, Sony Entertainment Television, Zee Group, Star Network, etc. These companies organize such events on a regular basis in different parts of the country. Astounding responses from the audience, particularly youth, for live presentations by national and international stars of the entertainment industry, again provide immense opportunities for Event Managers.
Corporate managers for marketing their products and services nowadays view cultural and religious occasions in India as lucrative occasions. That is why the companies want better organization of such occasions by event managers. Such events vary from Ganesh Chaturthi, Navaratri to Maha-Kumbh and Pushkar Mela. Hundreds of crores of rupees are invested in these celebrations. Further corporatisation of these events is expected in the coming years that will provide immense opportunities to event managers.

Charitable and special business events also bring tremendous opportunities for event organizers. The charitable events are organized to help the victims of natural disasters such as earthquakes, cyclones, tsunami, etc and of fatal diseases like AIDS, cancer, etc.

Rs 11,600 crores is the estimated chunk of market that is available for professional event organizers in the above discussed fields of events to exploit, given the fact that most events get done in-house by either corporations or other institutes. In fact, some

more ad hoc calculations would reveal that family events, especially marriages, also involves enormous amounts of money assuming that 1500 weddings and other family ceremonies at an average expenditure of Rs 2,50,000 take place in India every day we would get a whopping figure of Rs 37.5 crores spent per day. College festivals form another major area and such college festivals are invariably totally in control of youngsters in the 17 to 21 years age groups. This number crunching done here is just to explain the enormity of the industry and the opportunity therein.

At present, only the metros (Delhi, Mumbai, Colkata, and Chennai) and some other big cities such as Ahemdabad, Hyderabad, Bangalore and Chandigarh are the favourite places for event managers. Gradually, other cities are also emerging as lucrative destinations for event managers. There are around 25 other cities in India other than the above mentioned which can be good rendezvous for various events. In addition to this, rural and sub-urban India also provides a good potential for the development of events. There are around 75,000 villages in India. The TV penetration here barely crosses 11% and the Internet effect is infinitesimally small. Therefore to obtain reach for their communication campaigns various corporations have resorted to using events as a strategic alternative. Some companies in event management like C. Factory are also looking at rural and sub-urban markets in India. Thus, events can cover all the categories of markets from rural to elite society giving immense opportunities for event managers.

Problems Faced by Event Managers in India

Being new in the Indian context, the event business is facing some bottlenecks, which are hindering the growth of event organization. The Indian government is not prepared to handle the spurt in event business. There is no adequate legal framework existing for the proper conduct of events. Event managers have to procure around 12 to 15 licenses regarding the conduct of various events in different parts of India. India is a federal republic of 28 provinces and each province has a different legal and administrative structure. The tax structures imposed by these provinces are also different. Tax rates vary from 10 to 50%. Law and order needs to be maintained during the event execution, and is one of the most important factors to be considered by event managers. The security system to maintain law and order during various events is provided by the state government. This has been a major problem faced by the event managers. Thus, the state (province) government should understand the importance of events business and thereby provide an adequate legal framework, security support, and a beneficial tax structure. Events should not violate the ethics, values and social norms possessed by the society. For example beauty contests and fashion shows are not accepted by the Indian society as a whole, except in some of the big and comparatively modern cities. Rural and sub-urban India possesses immense opportunities for events businesses, but the local state level companies are still extremely reluctant to consider events as a better marketing communication tool. Thus, these companies need to know the importance of events.

Conclusion

We foresee the growth of events businesses at a gargantuan pace in India. At present, there are many small, and a few big event management companies whose number and business are bound to increase in the near future because of increasing acceptance of events as the most effective and efficient tool of marketing communication. The diversified marketing needs of companies such as brand building, focusing the target market, implementing the marketing plan, marketing research and relationship building are exactly fulfilled by events. Globalisation has also acted as a boosting factor for events business in India. The growing adoption of events will give impetus to the Indian economy as a whole. The Commonwealth Games to be held in New Delhi in 2010 has already given a boost to the development of infrastructure and an opportunity for employment to thousands of people thereby. Simultaneously the growth in events business will have implications, both positive and negative, for the society as a whole and government functioning. Event Management in India in the coming years is likely to develop as a specialized/professional field. Consequently, India is likely to witness a spurt in the demand for trained professionals capable of understanding the ideological basis of events and having sufficient operational skills to execute events profitably and help in its growth. Since events as a field of business is relatively new in the Indian Corporate World, the legal framework to regulate and support such business is lacking. India being a federal polity always brings in problems of uniformity of business laws including laws relating to event management business. This calls for a uniform, rational and comprehensive regime of regulatory and supportive legal administrative framework, which can allow professionals to handle the substantive business unifocally rather than dissipating energy in negotiating procedural bottlenecks.

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Managing Reputation in Event Planning Companies

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Abstract

This paper provides a comprehensive review of the literature, and a content analysis, on how event planning companies could manage their corporate reputation to gain a competitive edge. One issue that needs to be recognized is that this paper adopted Fombrun's (1996) four drivers, which helps companies build strong and favorable reputations, as an underpinning model of this literature review.

Results of the content analysis indicate that event planning companies not only need to build a strong relationship with their customers, but also with their suppliers, employees, and communities as well. Finally, some important possibilities for the implementation of reputation management by these companies are discussed

Keywords: Reputation, marketing, event planning, corporate image, competitive advantage, tourism

1. Introduction

Over time, the event industry has played a key role in human society and has long existed as part of the tourism and hospitality industry (Shone & Parry 2004). Interestingly, an event is arguably number one in delivering the greatest return on investment [ROI], comparing with other marketing tools (Meeting Professionals International 2004a, 2004b; Shermach 2004). An event comprises many unique attributes. It can be categorized as giving "once in a life time" experiences for the participants; it is generally expensive to stage; it usually take place over a short time span; it requires long and careful planning; it generally takes place only once; it carries a high level of risk, including financial risk and safety risk; and it involves many stakeholders, including the event management team (van Der Wagen & Carlos 2005). Alternatively, its characteristics can be grouped as being its uniqueness, perishability, labor-intensiveness, fixed timescales, intangibility, personal interaction, ambience, and ritual or ceremony (Shone & Parry 2004).

Apart from the significance of event planning in today's business, however, the range of possible factors influencing event planning companies is evidently very wide, especially a high level of competition. Several authors discuss the influence from a high level of competition among event planning companies. Current business trends, including globalization and cost pressures which affect many industries worldwide, force most event planning companies to reexamine their businesses, focusing on their core markets while trying to stay ahead of the competition by seeking out new business niches and new revenue (Morel-Duquesne 2003). Accordingly, event planning services are overwhelmingly introduced to the marketplace more rapidly than ever. Thus, consumers

need an unprecedented level of knowledge to differentiate the massive array of services that compete for their attention (Meeting Professionals International 2004a).

Even though an event is often viewed as number one in ROI, corporate customers are not yet outsourcing fully to events planning companies, but rather employ their own in-house event planning staff. Part of the reason is because those event planning companies have not succeeded in establishing sufficient public awareness, knowledge and preferential standing (Meeting Professionals International 2004a). As a result, this issue influences event planning companies to become more flexible, otherwise they could risk losing clients that may only want to outsource the actual production of an event (Hemsley 2003). Event planning companies also need "to practice what they preach" and strengthen their own marketing mix to reach their prospective clients more effectively (Meeting Professionals International 2004a).

In an effort to cope with such challenges, it is believed that companies should place stronger emphasis on their corporate reputation. Building and maintaining a good reputation could be beneficial to companies in a number of ways (Devine & Halpern 2001), such as facilitating companies to: command premium prices for their services (Kowalczyk & Pawlish 2002), retain customer loyalty (O'Rourke 2004), survive from controversy (Greyser 2003), seek an international expansion (Kitchen & Laurence 2003), create a sustainable competitive advantage (Devine & Halpern 2001; Dowling 2004; Kowalczyk & Pawlish 2002; Podnar 2004), recruit the top candidates to the company, enhance employee morale and loyalty (Arnold et al. 2003; Devine & Halpern 2001; Fombrun 1996; Houston 2003; Kitchen & Laurence 2003), encounter fewer risks of corporate crisis than others (Fombrun 1996; Kowalczyk & Pawlish 2002); and have greater stability in stock prices (Kowalczyk & Pawlish 2002).

This concern leads to the importance of reputation management as a strategic approach in surviving highly competitive situations. As it is vital to comprehend the fundamentals of corporate reputation, therefore, the next section of this paper reviews a foundation and development process for better understanding and enhancing corporate reputation.

2. Reputation management

A number of articles have been written on corporate reputation. Yet, it would be impossible not to refer to Fombrun's (1996) work as he is a leading authority in this area (Balmer & Greyser 2003). According to Fombrun and van Riel (2003), corporate reputation is a collective representation of a company's past actions and results that represents the company's ability to deliver valued outcomes to stakeholders. Corporate reputation also determines a company's relative standing both internally with employees and externally with its stakeholders, in both its competitive and institutional environment.

Corporate reputation is one of those rare interdisciplinary subjects. Normally, the search for a competitive advantage has been usually focused on the products and markets for goods and services. For that reason, the key success factors have been commonly identified in the form of market share, profitability, and return on equity (Mahon 2002). Opportunely, managers and researchers have begun to recognize that competitive

advantages based on corporate reputation, as an intangible asset, can prove even more enduring than those that result from traditional strategic positioning (Fombrun 1996).

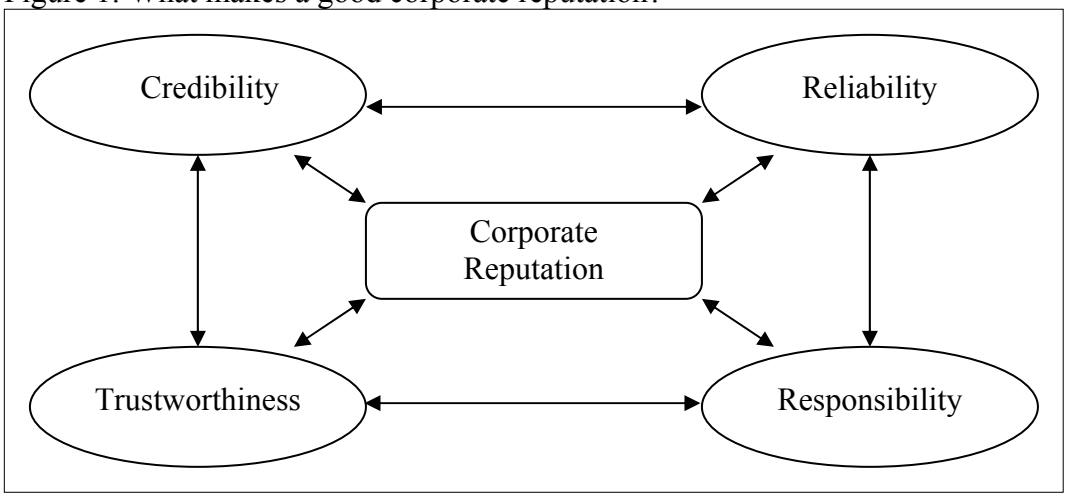
Healthy corporate reputation requires a good reputation management process. According to Marconi (2002), reputation management is the orchestration of initiatives designed to promote and protect its corporate reputation, which should be recognized as one of the company's most important assets. Moreover, reputation management also aims to help shape an effective corporate image as well. Although reputation management is a very focused and specialized practice in and of itself, it goes beyond the routine public-relations and investor-relations functions that have been the standard for decades.

To advance our understanding, it is crucial to review the development of reputation-building as part of any reputation management process. Generally, corporate reputations are perceptions held by people inside and outside a company. However, different stakeholders seek or expect different things from companies. In essence, employees expect trustworthiness, suppliers demand credibility, customers expect reliability, and communities expect responsibility from companies (Fombrun 1996).

Corporate reputation is evaluated by the stakeholder's direct experiences with the organization, any other form of communication and symbolism that provides information about the firm's actions and/or a comparison with the actions of other leading rivals (Gotsi & Wilson 2001). However, it can be formed even when the experience by any particular public is not direct as long as this is passed on either directly through word-of-mouth, or indirectly via the media or other publics (Caruana 1997).

Respect and trust are a foundation of corporate reputation that creates a competitive advantage. Just like individuals gain reputation by greatly endowing their own skills through training and education, so too do companies create value by investing in a variety of activities that encourage their stakeholders to perceive them as reliable, credible, trustworthy, and responsible (Fombrun 1996). To illustrate such a statement, the following figure shows the reinforcing network of factors that helps companies build strong and favorable reputations with their principal stakeholders.

Figure 1: What makes a good corporate reputation?



Source: Fombrun (1996)

Basically, customers demand companies to be reliable, while suppliers require companies to be credible. Moreover, employees need to be able to trust companies, whereas communities ask companies to be responsible (Fombrun 1996). As a corporate reputation derives from those stakeholders' overall evaluation of companies (Gotsi & Wilson 2001), therefore, it is very important for companies to invest heavily in building and maintaining good relationships with their stakeholders (Fombrun 1996; Hayes 2001; Pruzan 2001).

In an age of high competitiveness, clearly, corporate reputation is essential. Consequently, it is important for companies to advance their understanding on reputation management in order to enhance their corporate reputation. Whilst academic studies in diverse fields are devoted to the conceptualization and measurement of corporate reputation (Berens & van Riel 2004; Carmeli & Freund 2002; Devine & Halpern 2001), there has not been focus on the deployment of corporate reputation in the field of event planning business. This has raised the question as to how event planning companies should employ a reputation management approach. In an effort to respond to the issues, the next part of this paper reviews literatures to identify how event planning companies could successfully manage their corporate reputation.

3. Managing reputation in the event planning context

To examine relationships between event planning companies and their stakeholders, this paper employs Fombrun's (1996) four drivers toward corporate reputation in the event planning context. As a result, four areas, which are: reliability, credibility, trustworthiness, and responsibility, are reviewed and discussed.

3.1. Reliability

Customers expect companies to be reliable and also demand that the products of companies they respect be of better quality and more reliable than those of lesser-known competitors, although sold at the same price. As businesses that rely on people skills, information, and know-how normally depend heavily on their reputations to attract customers, therefore the effects of reputation on customers are arguably strongest in the service sector, where judgments of quality are especially difficult to make (Fombrun 1996). As the event planning business is part of the service sector (O'Brien 2000), the term "services" is more commonly used than "product" because of its nature of business. From an extensive review of the literature, reliability, as one of key drivers in the event planning context, could be segregated into three traits, which are: show professionalism, deliver return on investment, and implement crisis management.

3.1.1. Show professionalism

Professionalism is very important in the process of building a reliability image toward customers. The event planning business is seeking greater professionalism and quality standards to become more competitive (Hing et al. 1998). Professionalism is recognized to be beneficial to event planning companies in various ways, such as saves time and

cost, helps to reduce stress and complications, makes organizational partnerships more effective, and adds to the overall sense of security in event planning (IMEX 2004).

Yet, the challenge to professionalism in the event planning business is to deliver key messages and education in a creative, motivational, highly effective manner (Marketing Leadership Council 2003a). Moreover, planners are also challenged by the customer's expectation of lasting impression events (Swisher & Barker 2001) as the key to effective events today is satisfying experiences (McDonald 2004). Consequently, professionals in the event planning business must continue to prove the strategic value that they bring to their organizations, and prove to executive decision-makers that events can have a significant and positive impact on the bottom-line and in turn help customers achieve their strategic goals (Incentives & Meetings International 2004).

In practice, many event planning companies show a strong focus on professionalizing their business operations. A New York-based event designer and production company professionalizes its service by re-evaluating traffic flow of paperwork and inter-office communications and management. Another event planning company in California now employs the "working smarter" ethos by hiring a database administrator as a part-time consultant to manage its information. This will allow the company to be more strategic. Furthermore, management from a Dallas-based event design company denotes that as clients continue to search for and hire industry association professionals, this will lead to greater industry gatherings and study industry publications, allowing more opportunities for future growth (Hurley 2001). These examples therefore reflect an importance of professionalism in event planning companies.

3.1.2. Deliver Return on Investment [ROI]

In today's environment, all kinds of businesses are analyzing how they can achieve faster, better and cheaper results to add value to their core strategy (Marketing Leadership Council 2003b). In the event planning context, the existence in the literature strongly supports this issue by agreeing that customers who outsource their event planning to outside companies increasingly demand ROI from their events. This issue has been strengthened by Davidson (2003) that cost-conscious customers not only continue to insist that planners squeeze every last penny out of reduced meeting budgets and secure the best bargains available, but also demand proof of the strategic value of the events they organize or host, and this can be demonstrated in a tangible form of ROI.

Unquestionably, knowing whether or not an event has achieved ROI is critical. However, one of the planner's most vital and often overlooked-jobs is to prove, in a tangible way, that a meeting was effective (Sioux & Zimmerman 2002). Clearly, planners need to keep pace with the higher expectations of the customer. Tracey Brenneman, senior sales manager of a destination management company, adds that event planning companies could boost the event's ROI by developing the creative details, from the beginning to the end of the event (Swisher & Barker 2001). In addition, the greatest ROI could also be generated when event planning companies employ different approaches to reach individual event markets (Hoyle 2002).

3.1.3. Employ crisis management

Although the event planning business has been recognized as a highly competitive industry, event planning companies are working even harder to survive, as they have been influenced by recent crises such as the September 11 tragedy and other ongoing turmoil in the world. Indeed, the September 11 crisis in 2001 stopped travel and event planning activities by creating a fear of flying, which resulted in corporations immediately calling off out-of-country and out-of-state events (Allen 2004).

As a result of this crisis, event sponsors have been faced with the decision of either canceling their event completely or taking risks by holding the event with fewer people. As a result, massive no-shows have left planners and suppliers reeling, with each side looking for ways to protect its downside risk (Foster 2001). Apart from the terrorism crisis, moreover, other crisis issues also need to be addressed. Further development of crises, such as SARS, the war in Afghanistan and Iraq, and the tsunami crisis also had an immediate domino effect on the hospitality industry that was felt around the world and forever changed the way event planning business would be operated in years to come as well (Allen 2004).

A fire crisis near San Diego, USA, in 2003 provides a good example of crisis management that has been implemented in the event planning business. Two large citywide gatherings were in San Diego during the fires. Although the fires were far enough away that they did not pose an imminent threat to these events, the San Diego Convention and Visitors Bureau (CVB) kept attendees calm by explaining the situation. Meanwhile, the CVB also informed clients around the country by sending out e-mails containing information on the fires, including links to web sites for air quality indexes, local media outlets, and the San Diego Convention Center, as well as a standard news release meant for attendees who would soon be visiting San Diego (Successful Meetings 2003).

Whatever the cause of the disaster, clearly, a well-prepared and implemented crisis management plan is essential (Schweitzer 2001), in order to strengthen a company's image of its reliability. Undoubtedly, crisis management should become part of the working process in event planning companies (Amer 2004).

3.2. Credibility

In general, suppliers demand companies to be credible and show good faith when dealing or placing orders with suppliers. Suppliers also request companies to convey the risks of their strategies, provide warnings of impending problems, and disclose material facts that might influence the company's assessment of their performance (Fombrun 1996). In the event planning business, relationships between suppliers and event planning companies can be categorized in a form of either exclusive, preferred, or based on the specific needs of the individual event. By knowing the capabilities and future availability of suppliers, event planning companies will be able to make better business decisions about the markets that they may potentially enter (Goldblatt & Supovitz 1999).

Although it is believed that event planning companies and their suppliers work continuously to present their customers with creative options that will meet their [customers'] objectives and give them a return on investment (Allen 2004), the relationship between suppliers and event planning companies has also been influenced by a changing business situation. Two of these key issues are shortened lead times and a competition between suppliers and event planning companies.

The event planning business has long been shaped by shortened lead times (Successful Meetings 2005). According to Davidson (2003), the uncertain status of the global economy forces many customers to shorten their planning cycles and postpone a commitment on their budgets until the last minute, because of the volatility of the markets. Gecker (2003) supported and explained that according to the changing internal structures of customers' companies, and the high attendees' concern about air travel, many planners are faced with shortening lead times that have been cut down from months, to weeks, to days. As a result, Chapman (2003) reported that suppliers are now under pressure to solve short-term problems, but they will even cause long-term problems if they alienate their clientele. If suppliers deal with planners in an unfair commitment, it is likely that planners will complain to twenty of their [planners] friends and it will be very difficult for those suppliers to secure business again.

A competition between suppliers and event planning companies could also turn their relationship to be competitive rather than cooperative. According to Allen (2004), suppliers no longer just solicit sales from event planners and wait for an opportunity to bid for an event. Conversely, they are going directly to the end-users, which are customers, knocking on the door and introducing their company and their service. Suppliers, such as airlines, hotels, transportation companies, destination management companies, décor companies, vendors, venues and restaurants, have their own in-house event planning and event management teams that are actively involved in closing sales as a means to building their business, and are either handling the event in partnership with the customers and their designated event planning company or cutting out the role of the event planning company completely.

The importance of credibility is echoed by Anne Picillo, President of Custom Made Meetings & Conferences, USA. Planning short-term meetings has several complexities especially the tight room inventory. To overcome this challenge, Picillo suggests that the planner needs first to be patient, then to act quickly in an organized manner. More importantly, the key is to develop relationships with certain suppliers, such as restaurants and hotels, and to have open communication with clients on matching their desires to their budgets (Torrisi 2005).

These issues show that a collaborative relationship between planners and suppliers is strongly needed (Hignite 2004; Meeting Professionals International 2004c) in order to create suppliers' perception of event planning companies as credible. As companies in many industries are now increasingly entering into long-term strategic relationships with their suppliers (Rix 2004), it is crucial to conclude here that event planning companies too should maintain close and collaborative relationships with their suppliers

3.3. Trustworthiness

The relationship between companies and their employees plays a vital part in developing a company's image of trustworthiness. According to Fombrun (1996), trust is an indicator of increasing professionalism in the managerial ranks. Generally, employees expect the companies they work for to be trustworthy. Employees also rely on being treated fairly and honorably in job assignments, salary decisions, and promotions. In addition, employees also ask of companies that they respect the employees' fundamental rights as individuals and as citizens.

Indeed, the interest in this area has increased over years. According to Dowling (2004), companies have long realized the value of corporate reputation as a strategy to motivate their employees. Since 1984 Fortune magazine has published a corporate scorecard ranking of 500 companies. This is widely known as 'America's Most Admired Companies'. For CEOs, their company's rank not only provides a competitive benchmark that is used to define the company's status, but also to motivate employees.

A factor influencing a company's image of trustworthiness also involves the customers' perception toward companies. According to Maathuis et al. (2004), customers'interest in companies has been increasing in the areas of the company's trustworthiness and how they [companies] treat their employees. Kowalczyk and Pawlish (2002) agreed and added that a customer's perception of company's trustworthiness and how they treat their employees could affect a customer's purchase decisions as well. Davies and Chun (2002) also observed that how customer-facing employees perceive the company they work for can influence how customers perceive the same company in a number of ways. Consequently, this development places remarkable pressure on companies to develop initiatives and programs that sustain the well-being of all their employees, not just top management (Fombrun 1996). As a result, it is recommended that companies should build and promote their corporate reputation by treating employees with respect and invest in them (Middleton & Hanson 2003).

Like companies in other industries, event planning companies want to hire and maintain individuals who will in turn enhance a company's marketability to its customers. In addition, companies are seeking not only the employee's knowledge, skill, and experience, but their personality and reputation as well. They [event planning companies] know the value that acquiring a set of sought-after skills brings to their clients and how it can raise their company's profile and their profits (Allen 2004).

Yet, a number of studies showed that low employee loyalty and high turnover could negatively affect the event planning company's image of trustworthiness. According to the Professional Convention Management Association (1999), employees became less loyal due to a business trend of outsourcing, downsizing, and contingency work arrangements. Goldblatt and Supovitz (1999) added that many employers also fail to recognize the fact that they are competing for a relatively small work force of skilled and experienced professionals. With a high turn over rate, event planning companies could be perceived by their customers as unstable and financially unsound. Hence, Allen (2004)

suggested that staff turnover should be minimized, as event planning companies rely heavily on professionals with specific skills to run this business.

In an effort to act in response to such issues, certain concerns should be taken into consideration. Goldblatt and Supovitz (1999) recommended that event planning companies should keep in mind that a good employer-employee relationship is actually a partnership. Simply put, the employer is buying the time and expertise of an employee, and therefore has the right to expect the loyalty of his/her staff. At the same time, the employee is providing services that the employer is essentially reselling to his/her customers at a profit, and may be considered one of the products or services of the company. As a result, the employee has the right to expect a fair wage, good working conditions, and the respect of their employer. When this mutual respect is lacking, it is likely that low morale and high rates of turnover can be expected.

The importance of trustworthiness has been emphasized by Reed Exhibitions. As the world's biggest exhibition organizer, Reed Exhibitions aims to create trust by incorporating the following concerns into its strategy: give highest priority on recruiting, develop and retain outstanding people, recognize and award achievements, respect its people, believe in open and honest communication, and behave in an ethical and principled manner. While managers are directly responsible for the development of their staff, it is important that the company empowers its people to maximize their potential and contribution (Reed Exhibitions 2005).

Therefore, it can actually be a competitive advantage not only to hire the best employees available, but also to retain them as long as possible. This would suggest paying competitive wages, providing a safe, fun, and attractive workplace, and offering benefits available within the financial ability of the company to provide. Although there is no legal obligation to provide employee benefits, doing so would make an event planning company a more competitive employer (Goldblatt & Supovitz 1999).

3.4 Social Responsibility

A concept of corporate social responsibility [CSR] initially started when communities asked that companies recognize their responsibility to participate in the social and environmental fabric of their neighborhoods (Fombrun 1996). Interestingly, later on it is believed that companies could enhance their corporate reputation by incorporating this concept into their strategy (Argenti & Druckenmiller 2004).

As healthy business requires a healthy community (Lewis 2001), companies should at least put back as much as they take from their social and physical environments. Companies that ignore the well-being of their local communities demonstrate an obtrusive disregard for their residents. On the other hand, companies that employ a concept of good citizenship as a core value will enable closer integration of work and leisure, of individual and organization, of individual and community, and of company and community (Fombrun 1996).

Like the community, customers also take an interest in how companies deal with environmental issues (Maathuis, Rodenburg & Sikkel 2004). Given the heightened attention paid to corporate social responsibility by a variety of stakeholders, there has been a significant increase in the number of annual CSR reports (Argenti & Druckenmiller 2004). As a result of the growing importance of corporate social responsibility, there is a need for a much more sophisticated and anticipatory approach to safeguarding reputation (Regester 2001). Interestingly, 'Green Meetings' is one of those approaches and it has been introduced to the event planning business to encourage an environmental concern among companies in the event planning business.

The Green Meetings initiative [www.greenmeetings.info] was developed in 2003 by the Convention Industry Council's Green Meetings Task Force. This program aims to create minimum best practices for event planners and suppliers to use as guidelines for implementing policies of sustainability. Planning and executing a green meeting does not only involve being environmentally responsible, but doing so can have economic benefits for the event planners as well. Selected examples of things that could lessen the environmental impact include: using recycled materials, recycling materials used, reusing items, and reducing materials used (Convention Industry Council 2004).

Yet, it is important also to point out how the event planning business actually implemented this concept. Research executed by the Meeting Professionals International [MPI] (2004d) showed that only a small amount of professionals in the event planning business applied a concept of environmental concern. A brief survey was conducted to evaluate a level of practice in various aspects. Regrettably, of those surveyed, 25 % indicated that they have set practices and policies for producing environmentally responsible meetings, whilst 86 % of those surveyed did not have a stated environmental policy.

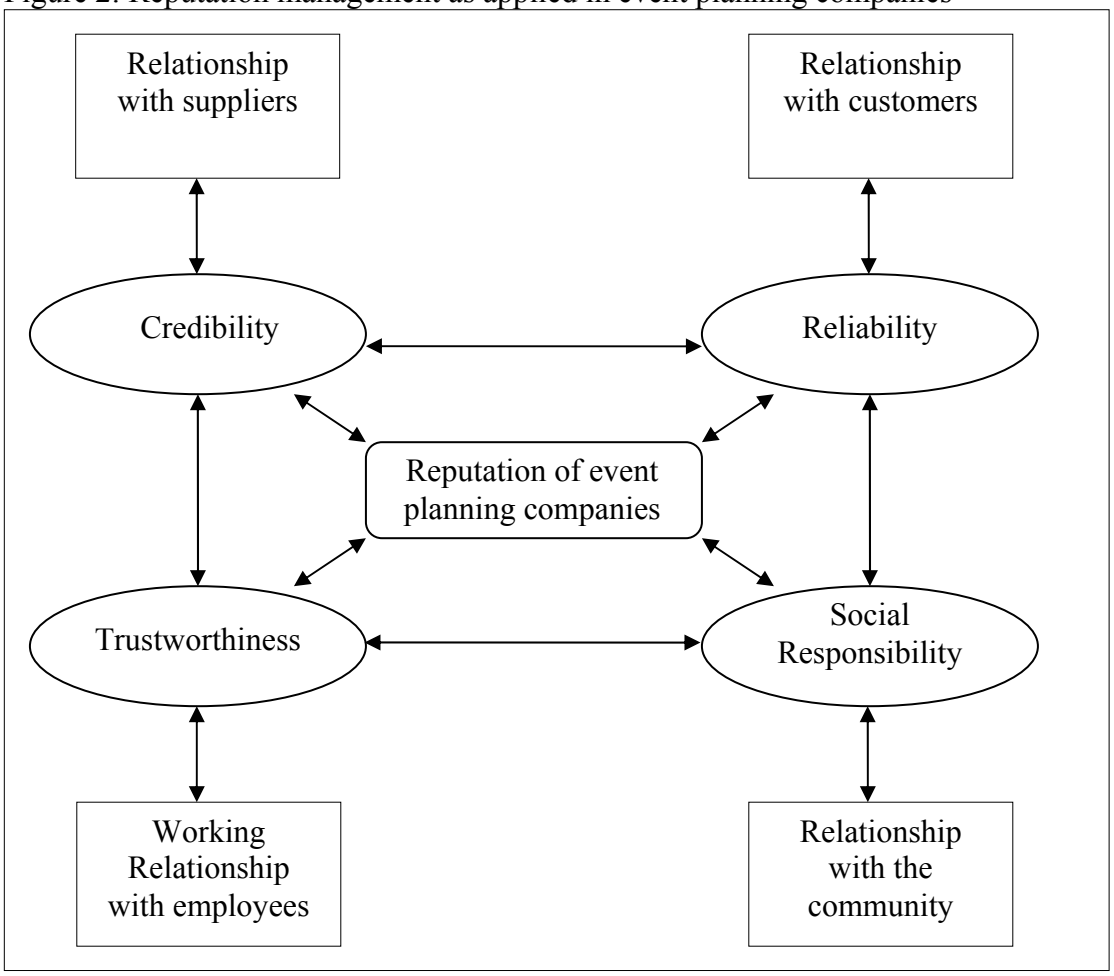
To sum up, companies are now well aware of the corporate social responsibility issues as the community's interest in this issue has been increased significantly. Although the Green Meetings initiative has made an attempt to increase an environmental awareness, sadly, less action has been taken by companies in the event planning business. This gap could be fulfilled by at least incorporating the concept of corporate social responsibility into the company's strategy. By doing so, the company's image of responsibility could be improved and therefore enhance the overall level of corporate reputation.

4. Conclusions and Managerial Implications

In an age of high competition, it is crucial for event planning companies to understand and be able to advance their corporate reputation, mainly because event planning businesses depend heavily on their reputations to attract customers. By utilizing Fombrun's (1996) drivers that strengthen a corporate reputation, it is recommended that event planning companies should build their image on reliability, credibility, trustworthiness, and responsibility in order to enhance their corporate reputation.

Firstly, reliability is based on how customers perceive a company. To build an image of reliability, it is recommended here that companies should show professionalism, deliver return on investment, and employ crisis management approaches. Secondly, credibility relies on suppliers' attitude toward companies. To be recognized as credible, companies must maintain a close and cooperative relationship with their suppliers. Thirdly, trustworthiness is perceived by how employees see their employers. Companies could encourage such views by nurturing a good working relationship with their employees. Last, but by no means least, social responsibility is assessed by the community. To strengthen an image of responsibility, companies should embody an environmental concern into their strategy. To illustrate these four drivers, this paper proposes a corporate reputation concept for the event planning companies as shown below.

Figure 2: Reputation management as applied in event planning companies



Source: Adapted from Fombrun (1996)

Remark: Arrows in figure 2 could be either positive or negative influences.

Although it is believed that Fombrun's (1996) drivers could enhance the corporate reputation of event planning companies, one issue that needs to be recognized is that different companies will deploy different strategies to build a strong corporate reputation. The analysis also revealed that event planning companies, like companies in other industries, largely focus on a relationship with their customers. However, it is also

important to establish a good relationship with other stakeholders as well. Fortunately, competition, as a key influence in event planning companies, forces companies to achieve excellence in at least one trait while maintaining strong competence across all the others. Apart from the financial asset, therefore, event planning companies need to invest heavily in the intangible asset resembling a corporate reputation.

5. Implications for Future Research

The review of literature outlined in this paper suggested six character traits that should be implemented among event planning companies. This result also provides researchers with guidelines to develop a measure of corporate reputation in the event planning business, both for academic and applied purposes, which could be constructed in the form of a 'balanced score-card'. There are several potential possibilities for future research. The first step is to conduct exploratory research with stakeholders on how they perceive an image of event planning companies and which traits boost their corporate reputation. Secondly, descriptive research is recommended to test the findings from an exploratory research. This could lead to a solid foundation for a corporate reputation's balanced score-card [BSC] or reputation quotient [RQ] as well.

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Event Management Courses and Careers

Challenges in the Development of an Undergraduate Special Event Management Specialisation

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Abstract

This paper chronicles the development of the special events management program at La Trobe University, Melbourne, Australia.

This program has been offered as core specialisation in the undergraduate degree program within the Bachelor of Business (Tourism and Hospitality) since 1998. Currently students who are enrolled in the Bachelor of Business (Tourism Management) and the Bachelor of Business (Sport and Leisure Management) may enrol in the unit's Special Event and Meetings Industry Management, Services Operations Management and Hospitality Service Delivery Strategies as electives. The Sport and Leisure Management program also offers a core unit in Sport Event Facilities Management, again available to the other undergraduate programs as an elective.

The challenge of embedding suitable course content of an events' specialisation, within the tight framework of a generalist business undergraduate degree is discussed. The ongoing debates as to the amount of vocationally oriented content compared to theoretical concepts to be included in event management degree programs are considered, as is the appropriateness of competency based education in the higher education sector. It is noted that the Australian Vice Chancellors' Committee considered 'the commitment of education to the creation of knowledge and difficulty in evaluation of higher order thinking skills as concerns', when applying competency based principles to higher education.

The appropriateness of the course objectives, content, and assessment regimes employed within the units are examined within the context of student feedback through a quality instrument used to monitor student satisfaction with the program over a five-year cycle.

Introduction

This paper chronicles the development of the special event management program at La Trobe University, Melbourne, Australia. This program has been offered as specialisation in the undergraduate degree program within the Bachelor of Business (Tourism and Hospitality) since 1998. From 2005, students who are enrolled in the Bachelor of Business (Tourism Management) and the Bachelor of Business (Sport and Leisure Management) may also enrol in the new subject Special Event and Meetings Industry Management, that replaces the previous capstone subject Event and Conference Management (ECM). A range of other event management related subjects may be selected as elective subjects. The Sport and Leisure Management program also offers a core unit in Sport Event Facilities Management, available to the other undergraduate programs offered by the school as an elective. When these subjects are combined with the business core, learners are provided with a strong foundation to develop careers in a wide range of event-related occupations.

During 2005, there will be more than 960 students enrolled in undergraduate programs at the School of Sport, Tourism and Hospitality Management at La Trobe University, all of whom may choose to enrol in event management subjects, subject to the capacity of the school to deliver the programs (School of Sport, Tourism and Hospitality Management, 2005). A major concern is the potential of oversupply of graduates not only in sport, tourism and hospitality management but also in events management. This will be discussed later in this paper.

Tourism and Hospitality Undergraduate Programs at La Trobe University

Michael (1999) first publicly documented the innovative course structure first offered in tourism and hospitality at La Trobe University from 1996. He detailed the origins of the program from tourism related research interests in economics, sociology and art history and the pre-existing business/hospitality degree offered at the Wodonga campus. The original degrees offered were innovative in that they had nationally accredited vocational (TAFE) diplomas embedded into the degree programs. Skills specific practicum subjects were delivered by participating a network of public and private Vocational and Educational Training (VET) Colleges, whilst the business core and capstone tourism and/or hospitality management subjects were delivered by the University. A cross accreditation arrangement allowed students to graduate with both a VET diploma and a La Trobe University degree.

Events Management

A third year undergraduate capstone subject, Events and Conference Management (ECM) was first offered in 1998. Originally, only students enrolled in the Bachelor of Business (Tourism and Hospitality) were permitted to enrol in this subject. This limited the potential enrolment pool to a maximum of 120 students per year. In its original offering the subject was strongly focussed on MICE management, due to the original cohort of students having a strong hospitality orientation. Through a process of quality

improvement the content of the subject shifted to include more event management topics, such as the management of volunteers, risk management and the sourcing of sponsorship The advent of a tourism management degree in 1999 saw students from this program requesting access to ECM. As a result of a major course review and restructure, students enrolled in the tourism management degree were permitted to enrol in ECM. This restructure of the programs shifted some of the course content delivered by VET colleges to University delivery. The course restructure, created an opportunity for students to select from a wider range of elective subjects from across the School's offerings. By 2002, there were 96 students enrolled in ECM. However, this cohort of students were no longer as homogeneous as the earlier intakes. The restructure saw some dilution of hospitality skills, as the food production subject was deleted. The tourism management students had no hospitality components embedded as a core component in their course. As a result students attempting ECM from 2001, depending on their degree structure, may not have completed the applied operations management and services marketing component, which was common to the former cohort undertaking ECM.

TABLE 1Overview of the Subjects Applicable to Events Management Offered at La Trobe University.

BUSINESS CORE	**DISCIPLINE CORE**	**ELECTIVE SUBJECTS APPLICABLE TO EVENT MANAGEMENT**
* Business Accounting * Management Accounting * Marketing * Economics * Human Resource Management * Business Law * Enterprise Management * Management Communications * Information Systems **NB Business domain areas not actual subject names**	* Food and Beverage Services * Accommodation Operations Management **or** * Travel and Tour Operations * Tourism Computer Reservations Systems **or** * Introduction to Sport Management * Introduction to Sport Business **Elective** - Industry Practicum	* Special Event and Meeting Industry Management * Sport Facility and Event Management * Sport Marketing and Sponsorship * Elite Athlete Management * Sport Policy Formulation and Management * Sport Governance ** Tourism & Leisure Psychology & Consumer Behaviour ** Strategic Management for the Leisure Industry ** Cultural Interactions ** Tourism Venture Planning ** New Tourism and Leisure Business Marketing ** Government Business Relations ** Destination Marketing & Management ** **Content may be applied to Event Management**

As a result, for the post 2001 student cohort, the content of ECM needed to shift, from a focused logistics and operations management approach, to one building on the common prior knowledge and skills gained in the introduction to tourism and hospitality subject and the business core that is shared by both degrees. The resultant subject included elements of event tourism with an outcome of students producing a detailed feasibility study for either a special event or MICE activity.

During 2003 a Sport and Leisure Management Degree was introduced by the School. Many of the new subjects in this new degree program were directly applicable to event management, see Table 1. The flexibility of the trio of degrees offered within the School allows students to take electives freely from the other programs. This arrangement permits students to effectively "cherry pick" an events management major, although there is no specialist events management stream promoted as such by the School.

The Challenges of Course Content

Cooper, Shepherd and Westlake (1996) discussed the development of tourism and hospitality curricula. They outline a range of approaches appropriate to curriculum design in tourism and hospitality programs, including a content approach advocated by Pickup and Wolfson (1986) and a more student centred process approach of Knowles (1984).

When designing an events specialisation within a business degree, La Trobe University has similar constraints to other providers, in that the necessity to provide core business subjects creates inevitable trade-offs in what may be delivered with respect to an ideal events management program. For example, ideally it may be desirable to include an entire subject in stage management; due to the tight degree format this area could only be included as a sub-topic with the ECM subject. A new subject has been introduced, Sport Facility and Events Management that focuses on the development of a feasibility study for a special event. Both of these subjects allow students to build on and apply foundation business knowledge to the management of events in areas such as, financial management, marketing, operations management, contract law and liability and HRM. The specialist event management subjects tease out the peculiarities involved in events management, such as the management of volunteers, sponsorship and operational issue such as crowd control, signage, ticketing, transport and logistics. The delivery of events capstone subjects offered at La Trobe University have been modified from what was a more content-based approach, to providing students with a greater degree of autonomy in the selection of their major event project, that is a more process based approach to learning.

As desirable as it may be to develop a highly specific program in events management, a broad business core provides students with a strong business foundation to apply business management principles in the new capstone subject Special Event and Meetings Industry Management that replaces the former ECM from 2005. This new subject requires the development of an integrated events operational plan.

The argument of a generalist versus a specialist orientation in vocational education is not a new one. The Australian Vice Chancellors' Committee considered 'the commitment of education to the creation of knowledge and difficulty in evaluation of higher order

thinking skills as concerns' (AVCC 1994). In an earlier paper, Collins (1983) argued that there are advantages of having a technical generalist orientation rather than a specialist education that can inhibit job prospects.

Cooper, Shepherd and Westlake, (1996) commented on the debate as to the need to include vocationally related transferable skills into course content versus a more generalist approach to tourism and hospitality curricula. This question has not subsided when designing curricula for events management programs. The program at La Trobe University has sought to embed vocationally specific knowledge and skills in the foundation years of the program, whilst developing a broad range of business skills. In order to challenge the learner's higher order cognitive domain the capstone subjects offered in events management now take a less prescriptive approach to content and a more process learning approach as advocated by Knowles (op cit). Students are given a high degree of autonomy in choosing the 'events' that they plan, and the development of the event plans are supported by student based seminars and tutorials.

Student Feedback

The capstone Events and Conference Management subject at La Trobe University has been continually developed since 1998. The content and delivery has been modified as a result of both student and industry feedback as well as peer evaluation. Feedback is gathered through a formal end of course evaluation and through informal feedback in tutorials and through social contact with students undertaking the course. Student feedback has been positive with students reporting overall satisfaction with the course ranging from 88% to 47% over a five-year period, see table 2 for details. There are a number of trends that should be highlighted. Student satisfaction levels with the subject were highest when the subject was delivered both face to face and via the Web CT interface. Although the number of major assignments was reduced to a single major work, the rigour of the assignment was increased. This corresponded with increased student dissatisfaction with the subject workload. However during this period there was an increasing trend in the amount of paid employment students were engaged in and a general decrease in the amount of time students dedicated to study in the subject.

TABLE 2 Student Evaluation of Events Management Subject.

	OVERALL SATISFACTION WITH COURSE	APPROPRIATE WORKLOAD	EMPLOYED GREATER THAN 16 HOURS PER WEEK	LESS THAN 3 STUDY HOURS DEDICATED TO EVENT SUBJECT PER WEEK
2000 N=60	**88%**	**86%**	**n/a**	**n/a**
2001 N=32	**72%**	**67%**	**n/a**	**n/a**
2002 N=42	**64%**	**74%**	**39%**	**71%**
2003 N=75	**53%**	**60%**	**49%**	**68%**
2004 N=85	**47%**	**47%**	**41%**	**49%**

Open ended student responses indicated that although the workload was considered high, those students who achieved higher grades felt that the major assignment of either an integrated feasibility plan for a major event or an operational plan for a business event was invaluable, for example "the assignment was very useful and gave me an insight into my future career an a conference organiser".

Modifications to Subject Delivery Based on Feedback

In its original format ECM required students to complete both a feasibility study and an operational plan as individual assignments. The expectation was that although the assignments could be based on fictitious events the assignments were expected to reflect accurate costs in the planning budgets and be based on real suppliers, venues etc. Assessment elements, such as the market research, were expected to be an accurate reflection of the proposed market to be served. In other words, the assignment should have the potential to be delivered in the real world, as well as fulfilling the academic requirements of referencing sources used. It became apparent that better students were spending an inordinate amount of time on the assignments. As a consequence in subsequent years students were given an opportunity to prepare either a feasibility study or an operational plan. Furthermore, the weighting for the assignments was increased from 40% to 60% to more accurately reflect the challenge of the tasks required.

In 2001, in addition to face-to-face lectures, the lecture material was posted on a Web CT server. In addition, virtual tutorials were offered in addition to conventional tutorials, via the threaded discussion feature of the software. This innovative delivery proved extremely popular with students, with the site receiving over 16,000 hits from the 96 enrolled students. During this period student satisfaction levels with the course peaked, with 88% of students reporting as being very satisfied or extremely satisfied with the course. The downside was that face-to-face lecture attendance dropped to 25%-30%.

The Oversupply of Graduates

Cooper, Shepherd and Westlake (op cit) discussed the development of tourism and hospitality programs in the UK. Nearly a decade later the issues raised with respect to tourism and hospitality education, such as the potential to saturate the labour market with graduates, industry recognition, and accreditation of degrees have relevance to the development of specialisations in events management and are still pertinent to tourism and hospitality education in Australia and event management programs in particular. The proliferation of tourism and hospitality degrees in Australia is a major concern. In 2005, over 68 undergraduate tourism and or hospitality degrees are being offered from the 23 University members of the Council for University Tourism and Hospitality Education (CAUTHE). Of the 68 degree programs, 22 of these offer majors and or degrees in event management (source CAUTHE Member University Websites, 2/2005).

It is of concern that Westlake (1997) identified that only 5% of employment in tourism enterprises is at management level and 9% at supervisory level. It seems that the provision of education and training in tourism and hospitality and by inference event

management is inversely proportional to the employment opportunities. It would appear that if the proliferation of tourism and hospitality programs and events management specialisations at Australian tertiary institutions is to continue, divorced from the realities of the labour market, then students will desert these courses. Again this reinforces the argument for a broad generalist business core to provide portability for graduates in the labour market. Needless to say, anecdotal evidence suggests that many new undergraduate enrolees continue to have unrealistic expectations of post graduation employment outcomes.

When the initial program was developed at La Trobe University it was envisaged that the events management specialisation would take 60 to 120 students. However it seems that events management has become 'flavour of the month' in the hospitality, tourism and now sports management degrees. During 2004, more than 162 students enrolled in the ECM capstone. With more than 68 tourism and or hospitality undergraduate degrees with at least 23 offering specialisations in event management, serious questions must be asked about the capacity of industry to absorb graduates.

Conclusions

This paper outlined the development of the event management program within the School of Sport, Tourism and Hospitality Management at La Trobe University, Melbourne, Australia. The program is offered as part of a generalist Bachelor of Business degree. The limitations of developing an ideal events management program within a generalist business degree were highlighted as was the evolution of the suite of subjects offered in events management. Some of the literature cited indicated that the challenges of appropriate content and style of course delivery are not unique to this program, nor is the potential to saturate the labour market with graduates.

Whilst ultimately the longevity of the program will be determined by the undergraduate student market, it is a concern that there seems no cross institutional monitoring of the supply side of educational provision in tourism and hospitality and events management in particular.

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A Critical Analysis of the Design and Implementation of an Event and Venue Management Programme: A case study of the University of Wolverhampton

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Abstract

The University of Wolverhampton has offered degree programmes in 'Venue Management' since 2001. The critical review of the programme in 2003-04 found that there were great strengths in it, including improvement to quality systems. However, weaknesses included a) inadequate recruitment of students and b) its inflexibility in terms of taking students at a variety of points of entry (i.e. second semester starts, and three semester top ups). Also, the content of the degree was considered to be limited in its appeal, to UK students, as it did not provide a global flavor that would attract overseas recruits.

The programme was subsequently reviewed and amended in an attempt to build on its strengths and address the perceived weaknesses. The main aim of this case study is to critically analyse the design and implementation of the development of BA (Honours) Event and Venue Management, which is provided by the University of Wolverhampton. This case study will be undertaken in the hope that it will provide useful guidelines for those involved in the events industry in general and in event education in particular.

1. Introduction

Despite being a relatively new subject, 'Event Management' is an area of study in higher education that has grown rapidly over the last decade (Jago and Harris, 1999; Hartz and Jago 2001). This growth, can be attributed to the rapid expansion of the events industry and an associated increase in labour demand. Accordingly, a number of event management courses and degree programmes have been developed in Australia, North America, New Zealand, United Kingdom, Hong Kong, China and Korea. There is also a debate, highlighted by Jago and Harris (2001), as to whether event education should be delivered as a 'formal education program' or as a short training courses.

Previous research on the educational and training needs of the events industry is limited. Examples include a study by Perry et al (1996) which concluded that an integrated event management programme should include five knowledge domains: 1) legal/financial; 2) management; 3) public relations/marketing; 4) economic/analytical; and 5) ethical/contextual. Along the same lines, a number of other studies have been conducted on the same topic (Harris and Griffin 1997, Royal and Jago 1998; Jago and Harris 1999) in an attempt to explore the importance of various skills and knowledge dimensions as well as the most effective delivery modes. Jago and Harris (2001) observe that the main findings of these previous research studies are consistent with the key skill/knowledge areas. These areas are identified as 'innovation and creativity', 'planning', sponsorship management', 'financial management', 'public relations', 'time management', and 'people management'.

On the other hand, curriculum design undoubtedly affects the student experience with different curriculum framings resulting in students graduating with a range of 'perspectives, attitudes and competences' (Tribe 2002:340). Therefore, it is the intention of this research study to focus on the process of curriculum design and implementation of an event management programme in Higher Education, which is provided by the University of Wolverhampton.

2. Background

The University of Wolverhampton has offered degree programmes in 'Venue Management' since 2001. The programme was academically linked to the subject areas of leisure, tourism and hospitality management in that it has a service sector orientation and focuses on both customer and product-related perspectives. However, unlike these related disciplines the Venue Management programme was exclusively concerned with a particular operating environment, namely that of "public assembly facilities". In this regard, it could be claimed that the programme had closer links with the emerging subject discipline of events management. Indeed, the only significant discriminatory factor was that the Venue Management programme extended beyond the traditionally accepted bounds of the event management discipline into the area of theatres, casinos, nightclubs etc. The actual range of venues covered by the programme was not regarded as discordant, as there is a growing recognition of the shared knowledge and skills-base required by the managers of all venues (Rogers 1998). Finally, it should be noted that the programme was distinct from and had limited disciplinary congruence with programmes concerned with facilities

management, which tend to be exclusively concerned with subjects such as the design, development and management of buildings.

The critical review of the programme in 2003-04 found that there were great strengths in it, including improvement to quality systems. However failures in the programme were a) an inadequate recruitment of students and b) its inflexibility, in terms of taking students at a variety of points of entry (i.e. second semester starts, and three semester top ups). Also, the focus of the degree was found to be limited in its appeal, to UK students, rather than providing a global flavour attractive to overseas recruits. In addition, the programme offered the degree of 'Venue Management' that did not attract some UK students, which could at least in part be attributed to a lack of market understanding of the title. The programme was therefore restructured and re-focused in order to more effectively appeal to a broad market and in particular the discrete overseas market. The restructuring comprised of three main actions. Firstly, an international dimension was added to the new programme by changing the focus of some modules from a national to an international perspective. Secondly, the name was changed to 'Events and Venue Management' to make the content and context more explicit within the title of the programme. Finally, the change of the degree name necessitated certain changes to the content and structure of the programme (refer to Table 1).

The main aim of this article is to critically analyse the design and implementation of the validation of BA (Honours) Event and Venue Management, which is offered within the School of Sport, Performing Arts and Leisure (SSPAL). This aim will be achieved through addressing the following points:

a) A brief contexualisation of the learning programme and its assessment regime;
b) An analysis of the programme design and issues arising from its implementation, the desired outcomes, the learning experience and the methods used to monitor and address student achievement;
c) An analysis of the learning theories and frameworks that underpin the design of the learning programme, as well as the theoretical principles which underpin the assessment.

3. Methodology

Researchers vary in their definition of case-study methodology. In Eisenhardt's (1989, p. 534) view, a case study 'focuses on understanding the dynamics present within single settings'. For the purpose of the present study, the researcher follows the definition of Yin (1994, p. 13) of case study research: 'an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident'. Yin (1994) also indicates his preference for case study if 'how' and why' questions are being posed and the researcher has no control over events.

A case study approach was chosen for the purpose of the exploration as suggested by Eisendhart (1989), since it can capture the reality in greater detail. Moreover, Yin (1994) reiterates that the 'case study method allows the researcher to investigate a contemporary phenomenon within its real life context when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident, and in which multiple sources of evidence are used.' Accordingly, this case study uses different sources of evidence

such as documents, archival reports, focus groups with students, interviews with tutors and external examiners.

Case study research by its nature raises questions about its external legitimacy and reliability. However, the merits of the approach have been well established by a number of authors (e.g. Diesing, 1972; Mohr,1985; Eisendhart,1989; Yin, 1994). However, generalizability, as discussed by Hussey and Hussey (1997), was not the main objective of this research article, rather the field study was viewed as a means of discovering what is happening in practice and to assist in the development of a better understanding, which might inform the curriculum design and development of event management courses in other academic institutions.

4. Rationale for Change

The programme title was changed from BA (Hons) Venue Management to BA (Hons) Event and Venue Management. The rationale for this change included a desire to more explicitly reflect the relationship between events and their root venues that did not exist within the original programme. In doing so, the academic team recognized the success of event management undergraduate programmes currently delivered in a range of institutions nationally and internationally. Further endorsement came from the external examiner for the programme; who stated that his own institution had experienced recruitment problems with similarly titled courses. Accordingly, it was determined that the name change was warranted because of the way the programme title influenced the perceptions of potential students rather than the course content or approach. It was believed that a refocus of the marketing strategy to highlight event management as a key feature of the course would be successful in attracting students. In addition, the change of the title of this pathway required revising its aims, objectives and learning outcomes, with a view to more fully incorporating the events aspect.

In summary, three types of change were included to the curriculum content:

a) an upgrading or downgrading of the status of some modules from core[1] to core option modules or vice versa;
b) a replacement of some modules with modules of similar outcomes from SSPAL's existing portfolio of Leisure, Tourism and Hospitality and
c) changes to the value of credits of two particular modules.

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[1] At Wolverhampton University, modules fall into three types:

1) **Core –** student must study and pass all these compulsory modules to meet the requirements of his/her award
2) **Core option –** student must choose a set number from this group of modules in order to meet his/her course requirements. In some cases student may have to choose all modules in this group.
3) **Elective –** student make up the balance of his/her award with electives. This scheme allows students to include more modules from their subjects, select modules from a different subject area or choose modules that are skills-based. In addition, the University Elective Programme (UEP) enables students to select blocks of modules in Languages, Information Technology or Business to provide a specific 'flavour' to their programme of study.

These changes to the content were suggested for the following reasons:

- The change of the title of this programme necessitated a revision of content and structure with a view to incorporating the events management aspect into the programme.
- The generic learning outcomes were reviewed and found to be satisfactory, but changes were introduced to improve the framework for their delivery.
- The amended general and specific modules of the programme provided students with additional subject specific and generic knowledge, applied experience and skills.
- The replacement of a small number of event and venue specific modules by service sector modules was undertaken to consolidate resources and achieve the maximum economies of scale.

A detailed description of these changes to the programme is presented in Table1.

5. Programme Aim

The Event & Venue Management Course aims to produce capable, creative future leaders for the event and venue management sector of the leisure, tourism and hospitality industries. This is achieved by developing graduates with an in-depth knowledge of consumer markets, an understanding of the consumer and the consumer experience and a practical awareness of the nature of contemporary event & venue operations. This knowledge is combined with a thorough grounding in managerial, marketing, business information systems and financial principles and highly developed personal, transferable skills. Such graduates are increasingly being sought after for their industry specific knowledge and expertise.

The BA (Hons) Event & Venue Management course aims to:

- Enable students to demonstrate a critical understanding of the concepts and theories of Event & Venue Management and the underpinning contributions of a range of relevant disciplines.
- Ensure an awareness of the interaction between venues, venue management, organisations and local communities, as well as the wider environment.
- Develop the ability to critically analyse the application of theory to practice.
- Ensure an appreciation of the ethical issues associated with the operation and development of event & venues.
- Provide opportunities for the development of a range of key skills relevant to personal, vocational/professional development.
- Develop applied research skills.
- Meet the needs of event and venue employers at international, national, regional and local levels.

Table 1: A Summary of Changes to the Programme

Original Level 1 Modules	**Original Level 2 Modules**	**Original Level 3 Modules**
@Introduction to Venue Management *Management Skills Development **Finance & Economics Contract Catering **Introduction to Events Management ***PR for Venues	@Venue Operations Management *Research Methods for Venue Management **Venue Law **Venue Design & Development **Food & Beverage Retailing ***Venue Merchandising & Sales ***Venue Impacts	@Dissertation: Venue Management *Strategic Venue Management **Contemporary Issues in Venue Management* **International Venue Management **Event Management* **Leadership in Venue Management ***A to Z of Venue Licensing ***Sex, Drugs & Rock 'n' Roll: Social Responsibility for Venue Managers
Revised Level 1 Modules	**Revised Level 2 Modules**	**Revised Level 3 Modules**
*Introduction to Venue Management *A-Z of Venue Licensing *Introduction to Events Management **Introduction to Researching in Leisure, Tourism & Hospitality **Management for Tourism & International Hospitality **Finance and Economics for Leisure, Tourism and Hospitality ***Leisure Providers ***Study Skills	*Venue Operations Management *Events Management *Venue Design & Development **Research Methods for Leisure, Tourism and Hospitality **Law for the Management of Leisure Services **Marketing for Tourism and Hospitality Organisations **Marketing Sports and Leisure Services ***Food & Beverage Retailing ***Contract Catering ***Career and Skills Development (15 Credits) ***Venue Merchandising & Sales	*International Events Management *Sex, Drugs & Rock 'n' Roll: Social *Responsibility for Venue Managers **International Venue Management \\\Dissertation: Venue Management ***Strategic Management of Leisure Services ***Personal and Professional Development in the Tourism and Hospitality Industries ***PR for Venues ***Contemporary Issues in Leisure Services

@ Core Module (30 Credits)
* Core Module (15 Credits)
**Core-option Module (15 Credits)
\\\ Core-option Module (30 Credits)
*** Elective Module (15 Credits)

6. Programme Design and Development

An examination of the literature reveals that there are three types of curriculum model a) rational/objective models (e.g. Tyler, 1949; Tapa, 1962), b) cyclical models (e.g. Wheeler,1967; Nicholls and Nicholls, 1978), and c) dynamic/interaction models (e.g. Walker, 1971; Skilbeck, 1967; Macdonald and Purpel, 1988). These different groups of models represent different areas of emphasis (Print, 1993). The rational models emphasize the fixed sequence of curriculum elements, which start with statements of objectives and are followed by other elements in a fixed order. Similarly, cyclical models are an elaboration of rational models in that they are essentially logical and sequential in approach. However, cyclical models view the curriculum process as a continuous activity that constantly updates itself. On the other hand, dynamic models view curriculum processes as flexible, interactive and modifiable. That is why developers can begin with any curriculum element, progress in any sequence of

elements, interrelate between elements constantly and to relate them more directly to perceived learner needs.

It should be noted that the idea of constructive alignment was used by the team as it is clearly in line with the philosophy that underpins the University of Wolverhampton's validation process. The idea of constructive alignment, developed by Biggs (2003, 2002a and 2002b), has two dimensions: a) what the teacher does to learn and promote student learning, and b) what students do to learn and promote their own learning. Constructive alignment assumes that all aspects of teaching and assessment are intended to support high-level learning. It is a system and an approach to curriculum design that optimizes the conditions for quality learning (Biggs, 2002a).

Biggs (2003) argues that what the student does to learn is more important than what the teacher does. From the teaching perspective the questions and decisions are:

- What do I intend students to learn (what learning outcomes do I want them to achieve)?
- What teaching methods will require students to behave in ways that are likely to achieve those outcomes?
- What assessment tasks and criteria will tell me that students have achieved the outcome I intend?

Constructive alignment therefore served as the basis for the restructuring of the Venue Management programme. It provided a step-by-step process that permitted the development team to take the changes from concept to reality. It helped the team to manage the programme validation and turn a plan into reality through effectively linking the outcomes to both the assessment and learning experience. This will be explained in more details in the following sections.

7. Learning Outcomes

The Event & Venue Management programme was developed as a response to the requirements of the industry including the operators of conference and exhibition venues, theatres, casinos, nightclubs, visitor attractions, sports stadia and music venues. The programme was intended to equip graduates with the management skills needed to help ensure the future success of the sector and their successful career progression within the sector. In doing so, the programme addresses the needs of the event and venue management sector of the leisure, tourism and hospitality industries. Indeed, the programme is academically linked to the subject areas of leisure, tourism and hospitality management in that it has a service sector orientation and focuses on both customer and product-related perspectives.

The Event & Venue Management programme development allowed a much-improved framework for the learning outcomes to be developed. The subject specific programme outcomes are consistent with the published Unit 25 benchmark statements. In addition, the learning outcomes are designed to meet the needs of different stakeholders such as the student, the teacher and external parties (see Table 2).

8. Design, Organisation & Content of Modules

The curriculum was designed to underpin the proposed learning outcomes and to provide an appropriate student experience. Throughout the planning of the curriculum, reference was made to the subject benchmark statement for Hospitality, Leisure, Sport and Tourism. This is appropriate because the proposed programme is academically linked to the subject areas of leisure, tourism and hospitality management; it has a service sector orientation and focuses on both customer and product-related perspectives.

The subject benchmark statement does, however, differentiate between courses in hospitality, leisure, sport and tourism, while the BA (Hons) Event & Venue Management combines elements of all four subject areas. Thus, the programme has been designed to take account of the benchmark guidance in all four subject areas.

Table 2: Learning Outcomes

LEVEL ONE The intention at Level One is to provide the necessary underpinning knowledge and skills. At the end of this level students will be able to: 1. Demonstrate an understanding of the multidisciplinary nature of event and venue management. 2. Demonstrate an understanding of concepts and theories associated with event and venue management. 3. Describe the nature and range of event and venue management operators/operations. 4. Outline the environmental influences on event and venue operators and their operational activities. 5. Explain the theories and concepts that underpin the management of events & venues. 6. Examine the nature and characteristics of the events that serve as a focus of venue management operations. 7. Demonstrate the development of a range of skills. 8. Utilise a range of source material to investigate the subject area.
LEVEL TWO The intention at Level Two is to enable students to develop their knowledge and begin to develop their ability to apply theory to understand practice. At the end of this level students will be able to: 9. Explain and evaluate the theories and concepts associated with event and venue management. 10. Discuss the application of a range of management concepts and theories to event and venue operators and their associated operations. 11. Explain and evaluate the domestic and international nature and dimensions of event and venue management. 12. Evaluate the appropriateness of a range of research methods to event and venue operators. 13. Evaluate the contribution and impacts of event and venue operations in social, economic, environmental, political, cultural and other terms. 14. Further develop independent learning skills. 15. Demonstrate the development of a range of vocational skills.
LEVEL THREE The intention at Level Three is to enable students to critically evaluate both event and venue management practice and theory. At the end of this programme students will be able to: 16. Critically appraise the current issues associated with event and venue management. 17. Critically analyse event & venues from both an operational and strategic management perspective. 18. Critically analyse the application of management theories to practice. 19. Demonstrate the ability to synthesise the application of management theories to practice in the workplace. 20. Identify, research and make recommendations on problems being experienced by event and venue operators. 21. Demonstrate the development of a range of independent research skills.

The BA (Honours) Event and Venue Management programme can be accessed in a number of ways. Students can enter at Level 1, Level 2 or Level 3, in September or February, depending on their qualifications and experience. This is checked through a thorough mapping exercise, which is approved through the school APL boards. The team have allowed for February entry at Level 2 to accommodate 18 month top ups. Students may study full or part-time and consideration is being given to the introduction of block delivery. Table 2 presents a list of modules of the Event and Venue Management programme.

9. Teaching, Learning & Assessment

9.1 Teaching

Percival et al. (1993) state that good teachers have to select suitable teaching and learning methods in order to achieve their learning objectives. There are a range of different teaching and learning methods available for teachers such as role playing, debates, brainstorming, discussion, demonstrations, case studies, audiovisual presentations, guest speakers, or small group work (Elton 1978; Forsyth and McMillan, 1991). It is proven that student performance and enthusiasm are significantly affected through the utilization of different teaching methods (Forsyth and McMillan, 1991). Accordingly, all modules use teaching methods that enable students to explore how theories apply to industry. These include case studies (both written and live), guest speakers, visits, work-related projects and current Information Technology applications. In many cases the assessment is based on the evaluation of practice using theories and concepts.

9.2 Learning

An examination of the literature uncovers the fact that different students learn in different ways (see for example Marton, 1975; Marton and Saljo, 1997; Ramsden, 1988; Biggs, 1987; Cotton, 1995; Entwistle, 1996; Fry et.al., 1999). It has been proved that students adopt three different approaches, which are the surface, deep, and strategic for achieving learning (Honey and Mumford, 1982). Most scholars, if not all, agree that good teachers should support and assist their students to become deep learners rather than surface or strategic learners.

In the same context of identifying how students learn, there have been different categorizations of learning styles (see for example: Pask, 1976; Wolf and Kolb, 1984; Honey and Mumford, 1982). The classification of Honey and Mumford (1982) is perhaps the most widely used in the teaching and learning literature. They have suggested that learners develop different learning styles that emphasize preferences for some mode of learning over others. Accordingly, they offer a four-fold classification of activists, reflectors, theorists and pragmatists. It should be noted that interrelationships do exist between these learning styles, which means that the preferred learning style of any individual will include elements from two or more of these four categories. In addition, Lashley (1992:2) suggests that “the design of programmes, lecturer support for students and the delivery of learning experiences all need to be shaped to students’ learning preferences”. Clearly, different teaching and

learning strategies should be considered to meet the wants and needs of these different learning styles.

Effective learning objectives should work within the overall aims of the programme to which they relate, and should also ensure that the essential knowledge and skills are covered such as the decision-making skills, problem-solving skills, communication skills, interpersonal skills, professional skills, IT skills and so forth (Noble, 1999; Race, 1999).

Here are some of the strategies that have been considered in developing the current programme in order to a) encourage students to take a deep approach rather than a strategic or a surface approach and b) satisfy the wants and needs of different learning styles.

Different methods of teaching and assessment are used to discourage students from memorising and to reward students for understanding, making connections, and effectively engaging in critical analysis and evaluation. Learning objectives, teaching and learning approaches and assessments are aligned to assist students to achieve the learning outcomes. Students are encouraged to be active participants in learning through creating interactive sessions giving students opportunities to discuss, debate and compare their understandings with each other and with tutors. Students' active participation in the teaching process is encouraged with them being frequently asked for feedback and input. They are also actively encouraged to ask questions within both lecture and workshop settings, whilst a virtual learning environment (VLE) is used as a platform for subject specific forums. Students are informed what they need to do to succeed in the modules throughout the lectures, workshops and other tasks and activities such as assignment guidance. Students get assistance to evaluate their progress by encouraging them to critique their own work, analyze their strengths, and work on their weaknesses. The modules are designed in a way which matches students' prior knowledge and learning skills and helps students to develop further. The ideas, knowledge, and accomplishments of prior students are shared with the class as a whole. Students are shown copies of the best assignments from previous years (e.g. presentation on video tapes, essay and report). Class time is provided for students to read or to watch these assignments. They are asked to evaluate the assignment through identifying its advantages and disadvantages.

9.3 Assessment

There is little doubt that assessing students' performance is the most important thing for them, in order to achieve their objectives (Brown and Knight, 1994). Therefore, teachers have to carry out this assessment professionally and effectively to: a) monitor, support and motivate students; b) maintain standards; c) provide feedback to students and themselves; d) prepare students for life (Race and Brown, 1998; Brown and Knight 1994). There are two different types of assessment: a) informal and *formative*, within the teaching process and b) *summative*, making formal decisions about progress and level of achievement (Biggs, 2003). Assessment is carried out by a) the module tutors, b) the students via self-assessment and peer assessment and occasionally by c) external bodies (Brown and Knight, 1994; Freeman and Lewis, 1998). To be effective, assessment needs to be valid, reliable, practicable, fair and useful (Percival et.al., 1993).

In all modules both the formative and summative types of assessment are used. The formative assessment is used to prepare students for the summative ones. As suggested by Ellington and Earl (1996), a range of different assessment methods is also used (Table 3), in order to a) prevent assessment being biased against students that have particular problems with one particular method, and b) make sure that students are equipped with the necessary skills needed for their potential careers. These different types of assessment include reports, essays, presentations, projects, case studies, seen and unseen examination, debate and work-based assignments such as work placement (Table 3). Assessment is carried out on both individual (e.g. report or essay) and group (e.g. projects, presentation or debate) bases. Students are given feedback as quickly as possible, normally one or two weeks after submission. Students are also given some indication of how well they have done and how to improve through both general feedback to the whole class and a specific feedback with grades to individuals.

In short, a varied range of assessment methods are used within the Event and Venue programme, and it is intended that the assessment methods are all fit for purpose. With that in mind, the following principles have governed the assessments within the programme:

- Assessment purposes and criteria are clear;
- Assessment activities relate to learning outcomes;
- Feedback helps students to measure their own progress against learning outcomes;
- Results reflect students' performance;
- Facilities and resources provide equal opportunities;
- Modules provide timely feedback.

Table 3. Range of Assessments in BA (Hons) Event and venueManagement Core Modules

Module Code	No of Credits	Essay/ Seminar paper	Presentation/ Debate	Report	Case Study	Exam	Management Simulation	Resource File	Reflective self analysis	Dissertation
VM1000	15	√			√					
VM1005	15	√				√				
VM1003	15	√	√							
TR1007	15	√						√		
TR1008	15	√		√						
TR1005	15	√	√							
VM2000	15						√			
VM2002	15		√	√						
VM2003	15	√	√							
TR2011	15		√	√						
LR2002	15			√		√				
TR2010	15	√	√							
LR2006	15	√	√	√						
VM3004	15	√	√							
VM3007	15	√	√							
VM3003	15		√							
VM3000	15		√	√						√
LR3010	15	√			√					

10.Student Support & Guidance

HEQC (1994) and DfEH (1996) research projects have emphasized the fact that guidance and support starts when the student first approaches the institution, continues throughout their years of study, and should carry on beyond the completion of their studies.

The School of Sport, Performing Arts & Leisure uses a personal tutor system as a foundation for student support and guidance. A personal tutor handbook is available to assist staff in these matters. Each student is assigned to a full-time member of academic staff who provides appropriate assistance throughout their programme of study. Students may access their personal tutor by booking an appointment, however there are three points in the year when personal tutor sessions are compulsory; this compulsory feature helps to ensure an effective progress review element to the tutorial system. Students are encouraged to seek the advice of their personal tutor through an office hours system. Each academic member of staff is required to make three hours available on a weekly basis for student appointments. Personal tutors are required to understand the School and University systems for student support, so that they can make appropriate recommendations to their tutees. The SSPAL personal tutor handbook assists with these matters.

11. Programme Evaluation

One year on from validation, here are some positive aspects which indicate our success so far:

- Very good feedback from students regarding the modules and our teaching and leaning methods and approaches;
- Positive feedback from the external examiner;
- Good links between theory and practice (e.g. guest speakers, case studies and field trips);
- Some genuine examples of shared and enhanced practice;
- Professional body involvement.

In short, the team believes that it has achieved the programme outcomes so far. However, as well as the positive aspects there is always room for further improvement in areas such as:

- strengthening the links with the existing international institutions/agents with a view to identifying opportunities for more effective targeted promotion of the programme;
- improving awareness and image of the product in key markets with a view to further increasing student recruitment for future years;
- monitoring the external environment and identifying other opportunities for increasing student recruitment as and when they arise;
- organizing Employers' Forum – in an event focused manner;
- extending employer links and developing more extensive placement and work experience opportunities;

- introducing a series of value-added initiatives which would see students being offered to acquire additional professional qualifications whilst studying for their degrees;
- developing diverse modes of delivery for the programme including distance learning and block delivery;
- increasing the student engagement with the University's virtual learning environment, especially the interactive learning opportunities.

12. Conclusion

This case study has critically analysed and evaluated the curriculum development and redevelopment process of the BA (Honours) Event and Venue Management programme. It has looked at the design, implementation and evaluation within the context of constructive alignment. Specifically it has considered the links between the outcomes, assessment and learning experience. It has also discussed the impact of external environment (i.e. QAA and professional bodies) on the design and implementation of the programme. Finally, the outcomes of the changes were discussed and some areas for further improvement suggested based on student feedback, external examiners' feedback and tutors' feedback.

To sum up, designing and implementing our event and venue programme has been an interesting and a challenging process with most of the important things happening quite well and some of the challenges being solved. In short, it has been a fascinating journey with far more dimensions than the team members thought there would be when they started. However, there remains a need to ensure that the hard work and dedication of staff is rewarded and this can only be achieved via an effective recruitment campaign, which sees a sustainable number of students being recruited onto the programme. This remains a difficult challenge, especially as more and more HE institutions both within the UK and elsewhere develop events management programmes.

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A Review of Event Management Job Advertisements in Australian Newspapers

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Abstract

Strong growths in the event management industry worldwide have spurred the need for appropriately educated and trained event managers and for a re-evaluation of educational and job training curriculum to meet these new challenges. The event industry in Australia has achieved an excellent international reputation, but in order to maintain its position as a world class event destination and as a world class producer of events, it is imperative to provide professional event managers who meet the skill level the industry demands. While there is some literature that focuses on the tourism and leisure job market and a developing literature base that focuses on event management training, there are few studies that can underpin a national agenda for event management skilling.

Event Management Employment in Australia is a long-term nationwide project that investigates a variety of issues concerning labour trends in Australian event management. The specific aims of the study are to ascertain the learned skills and personal attributes sought from event managers; to further the understanding of the educational needs and training requirements of the industry and to determine the compatibility of industry demands with current educational and vocational provisions; and to suggest institutional and on-the-job avenues through which event management education and training needs can be pursued. This is an ongoing study and it is hoped that it will contribute towards a broad scale understanding of the event management job market in Australia.

This paper reports the results of a content analysis of 1002 job advertisements sourced from capital city newspapers. The advertisements were tracked, recorded and analysed for a twelve month period. As a popular yet research neglected recruitment medium, job advertisements provide current, relevant and accessible data on the perceived needs of an industry. An analytical framework was devised for the analysis of the advertisements themselves. The results reveal several interesting trends including the plethora of relevant job titles, geographical concentration of the event management job market and a series of skills and attributes sought of event managers. The results of this study will help establish a basis from which to develop a classification of event management skills and attributes required by the industry.

Introduction

The event management industry has emerged as a significant player in the Australian economy. As the industry grows and matures, it is important that high-quality individuals with appropriate skills and attributes are employed. This will help to ensure professionalism in the field, equip managers with the necessary skills to deal with challenges and ultimately help to sustain the delivery of high quality events (Harris & Jago, 1999). As Newell & Shackleton (2000:111) report, people are central to organisations: "when we talk about 'organizations' we are obviously talking about people who make up organizations, since by definition an organization cannot act. Continued success is dependent on attracting and retaining high-quality individuals who can respond effectively to … dynamic environments". Conversely, employing individuals that do not meet job requirements can be detrimental to organisations as they may cause disruption to the workplace, increase training costs, contribute to a loss of productivity and high turnover rates (Mathews & Redman, 2001).

It is therefore vital that appropriate relevant and effective skills and attributes of employees are identified for particular organisations and industries, and certainly for the emerging event management industry. Discerning the skills and attributes of event managers however, may be as hotly debated within and between academia and in practice, as (Snyman, 2001) reported for information managers. Nevertheless, there is growing demand for greater collaboration between academia and event practitioners to increase the uptake of research findings and to produce graduates that are equipped with the skills to handle the challenges of the industry (Neale, 2000).

A small number of Australian studies have responded to the above issues and have included the perspectives of practitioners to ascertain the skills and attributes of event managers. Harris & Jago (1999) provided a succinct overview of three survey-based studies that have been conducted in Australia. Included in their review were Perry, Foley and Rumpf's (1996) survey of 53 event managers that attended the Australian Events Conference in Canberra that year. These managers were asked to rank 19 pre-defined requisite knowledge and attributes and they identified the following 10 as being of importance to event managers: project management, budgeting, time management, relating to the media, business planning, human resource management, contingency management, marketing, sponsorship and networking. Perry et al., (1996) further reduced these knowledge and skill requirements into five main knowledge domains of an event manager. Listed in order of importance, these were: legal/ financial knowledge, management knowledge, public relations / marketing knowledge, economic/analytical knowledge and ethical/contextual knowledge. However, when managers were asked to list the essential attributes of good event managers, Perry et al., (1996) found the following in order of importance: vision, leadership, adaptability, high organisational skills, good communication skills, marketing skills and people management skills.

Royal & Jago's 1998) study of 42 special event practitioners in Victoria rated all their eight listed skills as being very important to their profession. They included in order of importance: planning, organisational, sponsorship knowledge, marketing, human resource management, administration, public relations and finance skills. More than half

the respondents also listed additional skills, the most common being: time management, leadership, flexibility, communication and people management skills (Royal & Jago, 1998).

Harris and Griffin's (1997) study of 84 event organisers in New South Wales found that most respondents classified their 11 pre-defined knowledge and skill categories to be of either significant or moderate importance to event organisers. These included: general management, planning and organisation of events; event development and programming; finance; marketing; event operations; understanding of community expectations and support; event monitoring and evaluation; professional knowledge and event bidding and feasibility analysis. Respondents did not mention additional skills (Harris & Griffin, 1997).

The above studies therefore show a level of consistency with the appearance of several skills in all studies. Except for the work of Arcodia and Barker (2003), however, analysis of the skill and attribute requirements of event managers remained at the periphery of these studies, with the main foci being the development of training and education needs. This may account for the prevalence of learned skills in pre-defined categories and the appearance of personality traits when respondents answered open-ended questions. There has not yet been a nation-wide study of the event management job market and skill requirements and this is critical given that Australian occupational standards for event management positions have yet to be established. This is despite the existence of Canadian, American and British occupational standards for several event management related positions such as 'special event manager' and the Australian National Training Authority (ANTA) having covered about 78% of Australian industries with competency standards by 1997 (Smith & Keating, 1997).

It is hoped that a nationwide study of event management job requirements will help provide further support to the current literature, contribute towards a broader scale understanding of the event management job market and thus provide further leverage for the development of Australian occupational standards for event managers. To gain an indication of current employer requirements, a nationwide, on-going study of job advertisements in event management has commenced.

Methodology

National studies of event management skills and attributes are difficult to conduct because it is a rather disparate field but as Getz (2000b:11) states, this is common amongst "emerging fields or quasi-professions". While an all-encompassing definition of events may not be possible (Jago & Shaw, 1998), for the purposes of this study, events are defined as a "unique form of tourism attraction, ranging in scale from mega events such as the Olympics and World Cup Rugby, through community festivals to programmes of recreational events at parks" (Getz, 1991 in Tassiopoulos, 2000: 10). It encompasses all event types listed under Arcodia & Robb's (2000) three broad categories of events, including: the Meetings, Conventions, Incentives and Exhibitions (MICE)

sector, the festivals and events categories. Therefore activities such as sporting events, community celebrations and conferences were included.

As a research neglected recruitment medium, job advertisements provide current and accessible data (Mathews & Redman, 2001). It is during the initial recruitment phase that companies are able to specify the required skills and personality attributes of event managers. Not only do job advertisements contain information to attract appropriate individuals, they can also represent occupational, organisational, industry and societal artefacts and can therefore contain rich and insightful information (Rafaeli & Oliver, 1998). Yet only a few job advertisement studies in tourism and leisure have been identified. Crossley (1992) analysed recreation and tourism related job advertisements of a major U.S newspaper for a year to guide course development at the University of Utah. Keung & Pine (2000) provided a longitudinal study of hotel job advertisements listed in a major Hong Kong newspaper to indicate changes in hotel recruitment over a ten year period. The ANZ Bank has analysed the number of Internet job advertisements in major Australian cities on a monthly basis since July 1999 (ANZ, 2002). These figures are combined with the number of advertisements in major daily newspapers over the same time period to predict changes in national employment growth (ANZ, 2002). Arcodia and Barker (2003) conducted a study which specifically analysed the content of 105 web-based job advertisements in event management. This study identified a variety of skills and attributes which were relevant for the industry.

To provide a further analysis of required skills and attributes in event management, 1002 advertisements was analysed using content analysis, a commonly used method in studies of advertisements (Crossley, 1992; Demets et al., 1998; Headrick, 2001; Mathews & Redman, 2001). For all advertisements, general information were recorded when provided, including the job title, location and industry type. Job and candidate specifications were classified into skills and personal attributes respectively and were classified into more specific criteria that emerged from the data. Pre-defined criteria were avoided, in order to allow employer requirements of event management personnel to emerge. The resulting categories were not mutually exclusive, for example marketing skills require communication skills. However, when a specific criterion was mentioned in an advertisement, it was thought to be important in its own right and was therefore recorded.

The advertisements were tracked, recorded and analysed for a 12 month period. As a recruitment medium, job advertisements provide current, relevant and accessible data on the perceived needs of an industry. An analytical framework was devised for the analysis of the advertisements themselves. The results reveal several interesting trends including the plethora of relevant job titles, geographical concentration of the event management job market and a series of skills and attributes sought of event managers. The results of this study will help establish a basis from which to develop a classification of event management skills and attributes required by the industry.

Findings & Discussion

Event Management Job Titles

The range of job advertisements that include event management responsibilities in their descriptions and which therefore can be linked to event management skills and attributes is extensive. In the sample of advertisements, and the subsequent cataloguing of them, 355 different position titles were identified. Many of these job titles may be initially misleading because the titles do not appear to have an association with event management; for example, International Sales and Distribution Officer, Media Advisor, Public Affairs Officer, Sales Coordinator, Visitation Executive, and Youth Project Worker. However, a careful reading of the actual job descriptions lead to the identification that such jobs did indeed have either an event management focus or contained responsibilities in event management.

Geographical Distribution

As mentioned, the job sections of the major Australian newspapers were analyzed, and these included The Courier Mail (Queensland), The Sydney Morning Herald (New South Wales), The Advertiser (South Australia), The West Australian (West Australia), The Canberra Times (Australian Capital Territory), and The Age (Victoria). Table 1 shows how many event management related job advertisements occurred in each of the major newspapers.

Table 1: Event management related positions advertised in each of Australia's major newspapers in 2002.

Newspaper	**Event management related positions advertised**
The Sydney Morning Herald	380
The Age	175
The Courier Mail	135
The Canberra Times	123
The Advertiser	107
The West Australian	82

The majority of advertisements advertised positions located in the newspaper's State of publication. Each newspaper however, also advertised some positions that were located in other states. Table 2 shows how many event management related job positions were located in each state.

Table 2 – The number and percentage of Event Management jobs located in each Australian State in 2002.

Location of Job	Number of positions available in each State	Percentage of total positions advertised
New South Wales	356	35.5
Victoria	177	17.7
Queensland	123	12.3
Australian Capital Territory	113	11.3
South Australia	104	10.4
Western Australia	84	8.4
Northern Territory	3	0.3
Tasmania	1	0.1
Location not specified	41	4.1

The geographical distribution of the event management related positions is not surprising, with the division generally following Australia's population distribution. Furthermore, it would be expected that New South Wales would record a significantly higher number of event management related jobs because the year the study was completed was only two years after the 2000 Sydney Olympics and Sydney was still riding the tourism and event-related 'high' created by this mega-event.

Event Management Skills and Attributes

Two main elements of human capital can be discerned from job advertisements - skills and personal attributes. Skills are tangible and measurable and have been referred to as the visible competency component (Spencer & Spencer, 1993). As Perry et al. (1996) infer, knowledge and skills can be taught and through training and experience can be learned and developed. Personal attributes on the other hand are synonymous with the personal characteristics of an individual. They represent hidden and innate qualities such as personal attitudes, traits and values that are more difficult to develop and have been referred to as the invisible competency competent (Spencer & Spencer, 1993).

Skills

Table 3 lists each of the skills for which the job descriptions were analysed. It shows both the number of advertisements and the percentage of advertisements that mention each skill.

Table 3 – The number and percentage of times certain skills were mentioned in the job advertisements.

Skill	Number of advertisements mentioning the skill	Percentage of advertisements mentioning the skill
Organizational / Planning Skills	507	50.60%
General Communication Skills	386	38.52%
Team Skills	378	37.72%
Customer Service Skills	355	35.43%
Computer Skills	333	33.23%
Building Internal / External Relationships	285	28.44%
Marketing Skills	281	28.04%
Leadership Skills	278	27.74%
Oral Communication Skills	234	23.35%
Administration Skills	218	21.76%
Written Communication Skills	197	19.66%
Sales Skills	187	18.66%
Analytical / Evaluation Skills	163	16.27%
Budgeting / Financial Management Skills	162	16.17%
Presentation Skills	160	15.97%
Policy Development & Implementation	152	15.17%
Fundraising / Sponsorship Skills	132	13.17%
Media Relations	96	9.58%
Database Management Skills	89	8.88%
Negotiation Skills	82	8.18%
Problem Solving Skills	66	6.59%
Bar & Food-Handling Skills	62	6.19%
Driving Skills	54	5.39%
Print Production Skills	47	4.69%
Decision Making Skills	43	4.29%
Occupation Health & Safety	31	3.09%

The skills in Table 3 are listed according to the number of advertisements (percentage of advertisements) mentioning the skill. The higher the skill in the table, the more times it was mentioned. From the analysis it can be seen that the skill that recorded the highest percentage of references in the job descriptions was organizational and planning skills, with just over 50% of the job descriptions requiring applicants to demonstrate this skill. Job descriptions mentioning this skill used terminology such as ‘highly organised’, ‘highly developed planning skills’, high level capacity in strategic planning processes’, ‘excellent organisation skills’, ‘demonstrated ability in strategically planning events’, ‘ability to handle multiple projects’, and ‘ability to handle prioritised tasks in pressure situations to meet deadlines’.

While organisational and planning skills were mentioned in a considerably higher percentage of the job descriptions than the other skills, many of the other skills were mentioned in a considerable percentage of the job advertisements and therefore should still be seen as significant skills for event management employees. The next four most mentioned skills were each cited in over 30% of the advertisements. General communication skills were cited in 38.52% of the advertisements. Team skills were cited in 37.8% of the job descriptions. Team skills required applicants to demonstrate such abilities as 'commitment to working collaboratively', 'working in a team environment', or 'understanding of the importance of a team'. Customer service skills were mentioned in 35.4% of the job descriptions. The advertisements requiring applicants to demonstrate customer service skills used terminology such as the ability to 'promote the organization's commitment to customer service both internally and externally', 'demonstrate commitment to an outstanding level of customer satisfaction', and 'demonstrate an excellent sales history with a strong customer focus'. Computer skills were required by 33.2% of the job advertisements. These advertisements asked applicants to demonstrate abilities such as 'relevant computer knowledge', 'strong computer skills', 'knowledge of, or competence in a specific computer program', 'Web skills', 'development and management of a website', or ' strong knowledge of computer hardware and software'.

The next five skills were each cited in over 20% of the advertisements and therefore can be considered as being reasonably important skills for event management employees to possess. The skill of building internal/external relationships was cited in 28.4% of the advertisements, and required applicants to demonstrate abilities such as 'building effective relationships with clients/stakeholders', 'finding new business opportunities', 'converting new business into long term accounts', 'nurturing relationships', and 'networking'. Marketing skills were mentioned in 28% of the job descriptions. Leadership skills were cited in 27.7% of the advertisements. These advertisements asked applicants to demonstrate abilities such as 'leading and managing a team', 'leading a team to achieve optimum outcomes', 'instilling confidence in others', selecting and supervising', 'staff management', 'rostering staff', or 'human resource management'. Oral communication skills, cited in 23.4% of the advertisements, required applicants to have 'excellent verbal communication skills', 'effective listening skills', 'the ability to give public or media presentations', or 'cold-calling skills'. Administration skills were mentioned in 21.76% of the job descriptions.

The remainder of the skills listed in Table 3 were mentioned in fewer than 20% of the advertisements. These skills, therefore, while important, do not appear to be as significant to event management related positions as all of the abovementioned skills. It must be pointed out however, that while written communication skills were cited in fewer than 20% of the advertisements, this was only slightly below the 20% mark, recoding a reference percentage of 19.66%.

Attributes

Table 4 lists the sixteen personal attribute categories which emerged from the data. It shows both the number of advertisements and the percentage of advertisements that mention each attribute. As in Table 3, the attributes are listed according to the number of advertisements (percentage of advertisements) mentioning the skill. The higher the attribute in the table, the more times it was mentioned.

Table 4 – The number and percentage of times certain attributes were mentioned in the job advertisements

Attribute	Number of advertisements mentioning the attribute	Percentage of advertisements mentioning the attribute
Motivated	229	22.85%
Flexible	164	16.37%
Positive	164	16.37%
Friendly	140	13.97%
Committed / Dedicated	105	10.48%
Tenacity	97	9.68%
Energetic	87	8.68%
Respectful/Mature / Professional	81	8.08%
Accurate	77	7.68%
Creative	76	7.58%
Dynamic	72	7.19%
Independent	71	7.09%
Innovative / Strategic	58	5.79%
Initiative	56	5.59%
Sensitive	27	2.69%
Trustworthy	20	2.00%

From the percentages listed in Table 4, it can be seen that attributes are generally mentioned in a considerably lower percentage of the job descriptions than the skills. As compared to the most highly cited skill, 'organisation and planning skills', which was mentioned in just over 50% of the advertisements, the most highly cited attribute, 'motivation', was only mentioned in 22.8% of the advertisements. Position descriptions mentioning the attribute of motivation used terminology such as 'a self-starter', 'drive to succeed', 'hungry for success' and 'highly motivated'.

Other attributes that could be seen as relatively important to event management employees included flexibility, positiveness, friendliness, and commitment/dedication. Position descriptions mentioning flexibility, cited in 16.4% of the advertisements, used terminology such as 'able to engage in occasional weekend work', 'a flexible approach and willingness to try new methods of working', and 'a flexible attitude'. A positive nature, also mentioned in 16.4% of the advertisements asked for an applicant who would 'demonstrate high self-esteem', 'a can-do attitude', 'enthusiasm', 'adopt a positive approach to issues/values/people's feelings'. The attribute of friendliness, cited in 14%

of the position descriptions asked for applicants with 'exceptional people skills', 'a friendly approach to customer service', a friendly nature', a warm personality' or 'a people person attitude'. Commitment and dedication was cited in 10.5% of the advertisements. Job descriptions asking for this attribute used terminology such as 'a committed professional', ' committed to the innovative quality of services', an individual who is dedicated to the industry', commitment to a positive outcome', 'commitment to excellence', or ' a person who just gets on with it and gets it done'.

Conclusion

The event industry in Australia continues to sustain an excellent international reputation, but in order to maintain its position as a world class producer of events, it is vital to provide professional event managers who possess the skills and attributes the industry demands. As mentioned at the outset, the purpose of this study was to undertake an investigation of event management skills and attributes sought by Australian employers. Job advertisements were sourced from capital city newspapers and were recorded and analysed for a twelve month period.

Several skills and attributes of event managers have emerged. Some of these skills such as communication, problem solving and leadership skills have previously been identified as being generic professional skills (Hearn et al., 1994). Others however, support previous findings of event managers' requirements, such as the importance of planning and organisational, marketing and financial skills (Harris & Griffin, 1997; Royal & Jago, 1999) and the emergence of computer skills as the highest ranked practical skill requirement is a new but expected result.

Overall, personal attributes featured less frequently in the advertisements than skills. This may indicate that relatively greater importance is given to the latter. However, the listing of such attributes as motivation and positiveness adds another important dimension to the requirements of event managers. Further data collection and analysis are needed to ascertain the significance of these results and the relative ranking of the skills and attributes.

Event Management Employment in Australia is a long-term project that seeks to fill the current gap in labour trends data in the Australian event management industry. This is an ongoing study and it is hoped that it will contribute towards a broad scale understanding of the event management job market by developing a classification of event management skills and attributes required by the industry.

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Experiential Learning in Events Management Education: Developing reflective practitioners

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Abstract

This paper reports on findings from longitudinal research into student perceptions of the effectiveness of, and learning from, practical applied work in a University unit on conventions and events management. The study now reported is the second in a series, and follows after refinements were made to the unit as a result of the first iteration of research. The value and importance of student reflection emerged as a significant developing theme throughout this longitudinal project. The reflective theme exists as a strong thread through the literature on management education as well as the tourism and hospitality disciplines, and a focus on reflection was taken up in refinements to the delivery of the unit in 2004.

In the research to follow these refinements, some validation for the reflective theme and the changes to the unit was taken from the identification by students of *Self reflection* as a new key concept in their opinions, thoughts and feelings about the unit. In that the experiential mode of learning in this unit therefore appeared to raise student reflection as an important trait in the learning, this mode of learning was seen to offer congruencies with contemporary calls for 'reflective practitioners' in tourism and hospitality.

Keywords: Tourism and hospitality management education; Events management; Experiential learning; Student reflection; Longitudinal research.

Introduction

This paper reports on findings from longitudinal research into student perceptions of the effectiveness of, and learning from, practical applied work in a University unit on conventions and events management. The study now reported is the second in a series: the initial research was undertaken during 2003 (Fallon and Daruwalla, 2004), and recommendations from that initial study were incorporated into the teaching of the unit in 2004. Data were subsequently collected later in 2004 using the same research instruments as were used in the initial 2003 research. The 2004 changes to the unit are the focus of this subsequent 2004 study and, because the subsequent study relates so strongly to the 2003 research, a brief outline is included here.

The initial 2003 study

Convention Management was a core unit in the second year of a three-year Bachelor of Business (Hospitality Management) degree. The unit had two aims: first, to provide students with the knowledge, and an appreciation of the skills, required to effectively design, plan, stage, manage and evaluate a broad range of conventions and events. The second stated aim was to allow students to explore their ability to apply this knowledge and exercise these skills, within a framework of experiential, problem-based, student-centred individual and group learning.

The unit was offered over a 13-week semester, and classes explored the full range of theoretical concepts associated with convention and events management. The assessments consisted of individual work as well as a group project which required students to plan, stage and evaluate 'any special event'. The only defining limitations for students in choosing the type of event to stage were that:

- Self-selecting groups of no more than five students were to plan the event for at least 20 participants;
- Events were to be staged in either week 10, 11 or 12 of the semester; and
- There was a prohibition against deriving personal profit from the exercise. (This meant that approximately half of the events contributed to the on-campus experience of other students, while the remaining events raised funds for charities.)

For the purposes of the unit, students were assessed on their written report of their events, and the published assessment criteria for the event reports required students to include a description and an analysis of the group's planning, implementation and evaluation of the event. It was this group project which formed the focus of students' experiential learning, and the longitudinal research.

For the initial 2003 study, two research instruments were used. Survey 1 invited students to complete an open-ended statement about their opinions, thoughts and feelings of the practical activities which had formed part of their work in the unit. Survey 2, administered after responses to Survey 1 had been completed, invited responses, on a five-point Likert scale, of students' perceived level of their knowledge in 16 topic areas relating to the management of conventions and events (McCabe, Poole, Weeks and Leiper, 2000; Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell & Harris, 2005). These are listed in Table 1. The Likert scale ranged from a rating of '5' representing 'detailed and extensive knowledge' to '1' being 'no knowledge'. After completing Survey 2, participants who felt that their recall in Survey 1 was insufficient to record

what they really wanted to, were invited to include any revised or additional opinions, thoughts and feelings in a designated section on the reverse side of Survey 1. The purpose of accommodating students' later reflections in this way was based on research practice aimed at not 'contaminating' or 'leading' data resulting from recall.

Topic areas listed in Survey 2
Planning Conventions
Business Planning
Sponsorship
Interactions with Sponsors
Marketing Conventions
HRM for Conventions
Convention Suppliers
Site and Venue Selection
Managing Convention Operations
Logistics and Staging
Managing for Quality
Controls, Budgets, etc
Risk Management
Evaluating conventions
Working in Teams
Communicating in Teams

Table 1: 16 topic areas relating to conventions and events management

In the initial 2003 study, two cohorts of students were surveyed: the 2002 cohort and the 2003 cohort. The 2002 cohort had completed the unit 18 months before they were surveyed, so their responses were taken to have represented a delayed recall. The 2003 cohort had completed the unit in the previous semester before the survey, so their responses were based on more immediate recall.

Students' responses in Survey 1 (the open-ended statements) were analysed using a type of affinity diagram approach (Besterfield, Besterfield-Michna, Besterfield, Besterfield-Sacre, 1999). Responses were clustered into ideas or issues and, in all, 11 separate 'Key Conceptual Clusters' were identified in the responses (see Table 2).

Key Conceptual Clusters
Learning
Practical aspects
Teamwork
Other skills
Enjoyment of unit
Valuable
Knowledge
Conflict
Challenging
Nexus between theoretical and practical components
Workload and time issues

Table 2: Key Conceptual Clusters taken from Survey 1 responses

The most frequently mentioned responses from students related to their (positive) learning from the unit, to the practical aspects of their work and to teamwork issues (for which both positive and negative thoughts and feelings were recorded). Students' responses in Survey 2 (rating their perceived level of knowledge in 16 topic areas) were interpreted using frequency counts. In a collective analysis of both the 2002 and the 2003 cohorts, students rated 'working in teams' and 'communicating in teams' as the areas where they gained the most knowledge.

The results of the initial study broadly indicated that students perceived the value of experiential learning, and a thrust of student responses suggested that their practical applicability of theory was greatly enhanced by actually staging an event. The study recommendations indicated an opportunity, in the subsequent delivery of the unit, to adopt more circumscribed guidelines for students regarding their event objectives, and there was a suggestion that the inclusion of more reflection from students could enhance the learning experience. The initial 2003 study incorporated a call to extend the research longitudinally.

Outline of this paper

This paper is divided into five parts. The first includes an explanation of the enhancements made to the unit, as taught in 2004, while the second part has an outline of the research design when data was gathered in 2004. The third part reviews related literature, with attention to the importance of reflection in student learning and later professional practice. The fourth part analyses the data from the more recent 2004 research (with some reference to the 2003 study), and the fifth part has the conclusion and recommendations.

Enhancements Made to the Unit in 2004

Two pertinent changes were made to the delivery of the unit in 2004:

1. Students were required to complete an additional assessment task in 2004. This 'Individual Reflective Report on the Group Event' was stated to be an individual assessment item, and was to be submitted, separately, on the same due date of each group's Event Report. The Individual Reflective Report carried a weighting of 5% of the overall marks in the unit.

2. In 2004, one of the objectives of each group's event was prescribed to be compulsory. This compulsory objective required that each event should 'benefit some members, or group, of the community (however that is conceived by the group of students)'. However, no sanction was proposed for any event that failed to adopt (or achieve) this compulsory objective.

These changes were deliberately included to follow the recommendations of the initial 2003 study.

- The inclusion of a separate assessable reflective report from each student was intended to underscore a connection found in the literature between experiential delivery modes, and student learning through reflection (Kolb, 1984; Lashley,

1999; Pearce & Sutton-Brady, 2003). The reflective report was intended to invite students to reflect not only on their learning through the unit, but also on the practical aspects of staging the event and other knowledge acquisition including that of interpersonal dynamics and organisational development skills.

- The requirement that each student event should include, in 2004, a community benefit as one of its objectives was a response to student feedback in the 2003 study. This feedback voiced students' difficulty in conceiving 'any event', without being given some initial parameters. The nature of the compulsory community-benefit objective was intended to engage students in a measure of academic service learning (Speck, 2001).

Design of the 2004 Research

Because the subsequent 2004 research was intended to form the more recent part of an ongoing longitudinal study into student's opinions, thoughts and feelings about their learning experience in the unit, and in order to build upon the data bank, the same research instruments were used in the 2004 research. Survey 1 invited students to complete the same open-ended statement about their opinions, thoughts and feelings, and the reverse side of the sheet allowed for students' revised or additional statements after they had completed the second survey. Survey 2 invited student responses, on the same Likert scale, of their perceived level of knowledge in the 16 topic areas relating to conventions and events management (Table 1).

In the 2004 study, two cohorts of students were again surveyed: the 2003 cohort (students who had completed the unit in 2003) and the 2004 cohort (those who had studied the unit in the previous semester in 2004). For the 2004 study, therefore, the 2003 cohort were understood to have given delayed-recall responses (having completed the unit 18 months earlier), while the 2004 cohort had the more immediate recall (having studied it in the previous semester). By this second administration of the same research instruments, the 2003 cohort had been surveyed twice in all: the first time in 2003 (providing their immediate-recall responses) and the 2003 cohort was surveyed for the second time in 2004 (to give their delayed-recall responses). Such delayed-recall responses from the 2003 cohort allowed the possibility that students' experiences in the intervening 18 months (between studying the unit in 2003 and providing survey responses in 2004) may have contributed in some way to students' perception, in 2004, of their study undertaken during 2003. The delayed recall could present as either a diminution in students' perception of their learning or, with intervening experiences, their perception of their learning could have been enhanced.

The second administration to the 2003 cohort of the same research instruments (as part of the 2004 research) would have exposed those students to a familiarity with the instruments when they were used for a second time to collect data as part of the 2004 research. However, on both administrations, students were handed an Information Statement at the commencement of the data collection process in compliance with the *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Research Involving Humans* (2001). Among other things, the Information Statement clearly identified the purpose of the study, and what was being requested of students as part of the research. For this reason, any bias due to familiarity experienced by the 2003 cohort from completing

the same survey instruments for a second time, as part of the 2004 research, would have been minimised: on *both* occasions, students were given detailed information about the research. In addition, there was a 12-month gap between each administration of the research instruments, and this relatively lengthy gap between administrations was taken to further minimise any possible bias resulting from familiarity with the instruments.

There were two different longitudinal dimensions to the research. The combined effect of the 2003 and the 2004 studies is that they can accommodate:

1. Responses from three separate cohorts of students who completed the unit in sequential years – 2002, 2003 and 2004;

2. Time-based variations in the nature of the responses from students – the 2003 cohort gave 'immediate-recall' responses in the 2003 study (having completed the unit in the previous semester) and the same cohort gave 'delayed-recall' responses in the 2004 study (having completed the unit 18 months earlier).

These longitudinal dimensions of the study are represented in Table 3.

	Year in which students completed the unit		
	2002 cohort	**2003 cohort**	**2004 cohort**
Year in which students were surveyed	2003	2003 & 2004	2004
Responses requiring immediate recall		**x** Immediate recall responses from the 2003 survey	**x** Immediate recall responses from the 2004 survey
Responses requiring delayed recall	**x** Delayed recall responses from the 2003 survey	**x** Delayed recall responses from the 2004 survey	

Table 3: Longitudinal dimensions of the research

Related Literature

Recent literature spanning a range of related discipline areas outlines two converging threads that appear to impact events management education and student learning. The following discussion canvasses literature on management education as well as the tourism and hospitality disciplines.

First, from the perspective of business and management generally, Jamali (2005) asserts the need for a new management paradigm. While the traditional management orientation focussed on productivity and managing available resources (Khalil, 2000), the pace of change in the techno-socio-economic environment has presented new challenges for managers. For Jamali, the new paradigm "revolves around teamwork, participation and learning" (2005, p. 109).

This inevitably has implications for management education, too. The emphasis on cognitive learning, focussing on models, theories and facts, was criticised by Beck (1994) for furthering the more traditional, positivist orientation towards management. Instead, given the less static, content-oriented contemporary business management landscape, the need now appears to be more for 'reflective practitioners' who have the capacity to cope with the fluidity of contemporary business (Jack & Anderson, 1999). So, for management education, "the emphasis is generally on active experimentation, reflective observation and nurturing the ability to deal with new problems in context specific ways" (Jamali, 2005, p. 111).

The second thread to impact events management education is taken from tourism and hospitality management literature. Event evaluation – the process by which actual event outcomes are measured against the planned event objectives – is well recognised as good events management practice (Shone, 1998; McCabe, Poole, Weeks &Leiper, 2000; Rogers, 2003; Van Der Wagen & Carlos, 2005; Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell & Harris, 2005). Among the reasons offered for evaluating events are the consequent ability of the event managers to make more informed decisions (Allen et al, 2005) and because evaluations enable those involved in the event to learn from the experience (Van Der Wagen & Carlos, 2005).

Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell and Harris (2005) explain event evaluation as part of a three-stage cyclical process involving planning (drawing on the event objectives), implementation (operationalising the event plan) and, finally, evaluation (which can involve measuring various reports of the event outcomes against what was planned to occur). The cycle is completed when the insights drawn from the evaluation stage are then incorporated into the next planning stage: and the cycle begins again.

In the event management context, this evaluation stage is an opportunity for the event manager's reflection about, and measurement of, what actually occurred at the time the event was staged (the implementation stage), against what was planned to occur (the planning stage). Such reflection by the event manager about these earlier stages of the cyclical process, offers clear parallels with Schon's notion of the 'reflective practitioner' (1983). For Schon, reflection can occur as 'reflection-*in*-action' – sometimes expressed as 'thinking on your feet' – and 'reflection-*on*-action' – a sense-making activity which is done later, after the event, with the intention of using hindsight to develop a fuller understanding of what previously occurred. An event manager can be seen to have access to both forms of reflection:

- First, event managers are able to undertake the 'thinking on your feet' reflection of, for example, actively managing the staging and logistical matters that arise during the event; and
- Secondly, good events-management practice (according to Allen et al, 2005) requires event managers to engage, with hindsight, in a type of sense-making activity that assesses the event implementation against event planning.

This dynamic formulation that occurs at the evaluation stage of the three-stage event management cyclical process also offers parallels, in a pedagogical sense, with Kolb's experiential learning cycle (1984). Kolb's four-stage cycle includes concrete experience, observation and reflection, formation of abstract concepts and, finally, testing in new situations. For the event manager:

- ‘Concrete experience’ is gained from the event manager’s activities at the time the event is being staged;
- ‘Observation and reflection’ can occur both during the staging of an event and, afterwards, when an event manager would be expected to report to relevant stakeholders, for example;
- ‘Formation of abstract concepts’ is possible as the outcome of this reflective exercise, perhaps in order to contribute to an understanding of what (in the earlier planning and staging of the event) went right and what went wrong; and
- ‘Testing in new situations’ is available by drawing on these understandings, and taking them into different events, or the subsequent staging of the same event.

The parallels with Schon’s reflective practitioner and Kolb’s experiential learning cycle both draw on notions of an event manager learning from reflecting on the practical experience of staging an event. An overarching theoretical framework for these types of processes can be found in action research and action learning methodologies (Reason and Bradbury, 2001). Because those methodologies can contemplate reflective learning from the action of practice, the similarities between event evaluation and these methodologies have been suggested (Fallon & Sullivan, 2005).

The concept of “life-long learning” offers another parallel with the principles of event evaluation. This is especially so in the context proposed by Van Der Wagen and Carlos (2005), because evaluations enable those involved in the event to learn from the experience. It is perhaps no coincidence, then, that life-long learning is reported to be an important attribute for management as well as for tourism and hospitality graduates (Littlejohn & Watson, 2004; Jamali, 2005).

These threads throughout the experiential learning, management and the tourism and hospitality literatures are understood to signal a common call for graduates who have access to the skill of reflection and reflective practice, as part of a professional process of continually learning from practical experience (Littlejohn & Watson, 2004; Jamali, 2005; Van Der Wagen & Carlos, 2005). However, in a climate when higher education students engage in the “relentless pursuit of marks” (Maher, 2004, p. 52), students’ motivation and expectations are striking: “tell us what we need to do, [and] we’ll do it” (Ottewill & Macfarlane, 2003, p. 34).

Against this type of background, there can be a tendency for educators to frame learning outcomes in terms of minimum thresholds required for a pass grade. But this can stifle creativity (Maher, 2004). What’s more, Lashley (1999) has pointed out that, even though it is clear that hospitality managers need to be reflective practitioners, the learning preferences of hospitality students “do not naturally include theorising and reflection” (1999, p. 180).

However, Maher (2004) suggests that educators can encourage creativity by taking a less controlling attitude to students’ learning activities. This can mean taking a more open view towards learning outcomes and assessment. For Ottewill and Macfarlane (2003), the challenge for educators is to address student motivation by stimulating their interest, and recognising that “education is as much an affective activity as a cerebral one” (2003, p.40). Because experiential learning methods are often premised

on a more "open view" of assessment (Maher, 2004), and because those methods have an emphasis on the "affective activity" of the learning experience (Ottewill & Macfarlane, 2003), the experiential learning approach would seem to be especially suited to contemporary hospitality management education, in general, and events management education in particular. Specifically in tourism and hospitality, this connection between activity and theory is also consistent with Tribe's depiction of the "philosophic practitioner" (2002, p. 338). The philosophic practitioner would be able to bridge the transverse between conceptual schemes and practical experience resulting in "continual adaptive learning" (ibid. p.354).

For the student of events management therefore, an experiential approach to events management education not only offers an opportunity for 'reflection-*in*-action' (while staging the student-run event) but also, with appropriate reflection-based assessments, there is a corresponding opportunity for 'reflection-*on*-action' that can be taken into post-graduation professional practice (Schon, 1983). Similarly, the experiential educational approach enables students to 'form abstract concepts' (on the basis of the student-run event) that can be tested in the 'new situation' of professional practice (Kolb, 1984). This focus on reflection from experience is shown to be apt for the new management paradigm (Jamali, 2005) and, according to Allen at al (2005), it is a hallmark of good events management practice. In addition, the experiential learning approach would seem to be suited to contemporary hospitality management education (Maher, 2004; Lashley, 1999).

Analysis of the 2004 Data

This section of the paper first outlines the methods used to analyse the 2004 data, and then discusses the findings resulting from engaging those methods of analysis.

Methods of analysis

This paper's analysis is limited to the data collected in the 2004 study. A full analysis of both the 2003 and 2004 data addressing all of the longitudinal dimensions of the research (see Table 3) is beyond the scope of this paper. Nevertheless, this analysis of the 2004 data takes a comparative theme, and two forms of comparison are employed:

1. Comparison between the immediate-recall responses of the 2004 cohort with the delayed-recall responses of the 2003 cohort.

2. Comparison between the immediate- and delayed-recall responses of the 2003 cohort (which were surveyed in both 2003 and 2004).

For each of these comparisons, data from Survey 1 (students' opinions, thoughts and feelings) are discussed separately from the Survey 2 data (students' perceived level of knowledge). The open-ended comments from Survey 1 were subjected to interpretive paradigm analysis (Jennings, 2001) and arranged into the 11 Key Conceptual Clusters identified by the 2003 study (Table 2). The Survey 1 data was represented numerically based on the Key Conceptual Clusters, and this allowed for frequency counting of these key concepts. For the Survey 1 data, the comparisons were made on the basis of these frequency counts.

In analysing the data from Survey 2 (students' perceived level of knowledge), the mean of the accumulative value of each cohort's Likert ratings was calculated for each of the 16 topic areas. In this case, these mean scores constituted the basis for comparisons between the student cohorts.

Findings

Data analysis, for the 2004 research, was based on 29 responses from the 2004 cohort and 44 responses from the 2003 cohort. The difference in the number of responses from the two cohorts may have been because the surveys were administered to the 2003 cohort in a hospitality management core unit while, for the 2004 cohort, there was a more general setting of a unit that attracted students from other discipline areas. This 'dilution' of both cohort and ambience was taken to have had some bearing on the return rate of the surveys from the 2004 cohort. Additionally, the return rate might also have been influenced by 'cohort characteristics': anecdotally it was thought that the 2003 cohort of students was more engaged generally in their studies. This appeared to have been borne out by the manner in which the 2003 cohort expressed their responses (both positive and negative) in Survey 1. The 2003 cohort used more expressive words, they demonstrated their sentiments with greater intensity and their responses were generally longer and more articulate than those of the 2004 cohort.

1. Comparison between 2004 and 2003 cohorts

Students' open-ended comments of their opinions, thoughts and feelings about the experiential component of the unit were recorded in Survey 1. These responses have been analysed in terms of the 11 Key Conceptual Clusters in Table 2. Students' perceptions of their level of knowledge in the 16 topic areas of conventions and events management (see Table 1) were rated using the Likert scales in Survey 2. This data was analysed by calculating each cohort's mean score on each of these topic areas.

- Survey 1: Opinions, thoughts and feelings about the experiential learning

Key concepts such as *Learning*, *Teamwork*, *Enjoyment*, *Value*, and *Workload and time issues* were areas of marked differences between the 2003 and 2004 cohorts. However, other key concepts such as *Practical aspects*, *Other skills*, *Knowledge*, *Conflict*, *Challenging* and *Nexus between practical and theoretical aspects* were fairly similar between the two cohorts. Table 4 outlines these differences in terms of percentages of the total responses from each cohort.

	2003 *(n)*	**2003 (%)**	**2004 *(n)***	**2004 (%)**
Learning	26	59	20	69
Teamwork	19	43	15	52
Enjoyment	17	39	7	24
Valuable	18	41	5	17
Workload and Time	6	14	13	45

Table 4: Differences between 2003 and 2004 cohorts in terms of Key Conceptual Clusters

Of particular interest are the differences between the perception of value of the unit and in terms of workload issues. The greater perception of value (finding the unit valuable) for the 2003 cohort might be ascribed to responses that what was learned in the unit proved beneficial not only in terms of helping to negotiate subsequent units, but also in helping define career choices in conventions and events management. The 2004 cohort's more blasé attitude, on the other hand, might be surmised as stemming from the recency of their experience and not having had many opportunities to "practise" their knowledge and learning from the unit.

Enjoyment of the unit and *Workload and time issues* raised other interesting points of differentiation. The 2003 cohort (in both the 2003 and later 2004 administrations of the survey) mentioned the enjoyment and pleasure they received from completing the unit, despite recording some negative experiences. On the other hand, data from the 2004 cohort indicated that enjoyment seemed less an issue and workload and time demands more of an issue for them. This focus on workload and time issues appears to be a function of the 'immediacy recall' aspect because students who completed the unit more recently focussed on this aspect. On this comparison between the cohorts, time appears to have the mitigating effect of reducing the focus on workload and time issues (functional aspects of learning) while increasing the focus on higher order learning aspects (such as being valuable to career aspirations and enjoyment). This identifies a reflective element in students' responses.

A further aspect of students' opinions, thoughts and feelings includes the apparent emergence of new Key Conceptual Clusters, from the 2004 cohort responses. Broadly defined, these include *Self reflection* and as corollaries to it *Self knowledge* and *Self confidence*. These concepts became apparent in the responses from those students who were required, as part of the 2004 enhancement of the unit, to submit a Reflective Report after the events were staged. A relationship could therefore be supposed between students' identification of *Self reflection* (as a component of their learning) and their work on the Reflective Reports. This would seem to provide a basis for the continued use of the Reflective Report in subsequent iterations of the unit, if only in an effort to attempt to validate the key concepts which emerged from the 2004 cohort responses.

Also, students reported on the scope for *Creativity* to be expressed in experiential learning. This creativity had been bounded by the broad parameters of the unit outline, but it also encouraged self interpretation and self initiative in developing and coming up with the theme. This is consistent with the identification of 'creativity' as a theme in the literature.

- Survey 2: Students' perceived level of knowledge

To develop an understanding of each cohort's collective perceived level of knowledge in the 16 topic areas, a mean score was calculated for each of the topic areas, and the cohort's responses were treated separately. These are shown in Table 5.

	2003 COHORT	2004 COHORT
	Mean scores	Mean scores
Planning Conventions	4.0	3.9
Business Planning	3.4	3.4
Sponsorship	3.2	3.6
Interactions with Sponsors	3.3	3.6
Marketing Conventions	4.0	3.6
HRM for Conventions	3.6	3.0
Convention Suppliers	3.6	3.1
Site and Venue Selection	4.1	4.1
Managing Convention Operations	4.0	3.7
Logistics and Staging	3.8	3.6
Managing for Quality	3.5	3.3
Controls Budgets etc	3.7	3.3
Risk Management	3.2	3.1
Evaluating Conventions	3.9	3.7
Working in Teams	4.2	3.9
Communicating in Teams	4.3	3.9

Table 5: Mean scores for 2003 and 2004 cohorts in 16 topic areas
(Survey scores were taken on a five-point Likert scale, with 5 representing 'detailed and extensive knowledge' and 1 representing 'no knowledge')

In general terms, the topic areas that rated highest were similar across the cohorts, with only slight variations among those topics in which students perceived the greatest knowledge. These included *Planning conventions*, *Site and venue selection*, *Working in teams* and *Communicating in teams*. This is also broadly consistent with data from the 2003 study.

2. Comparison between the immediate- and delayed-recall responses of 2003 cohort

The second comparison analysed differences between the 2003 cohort's responses in 2003 (their immediate-recall responses) and 2004 (their delayed-recall responses), for the Survey 2 data. These results are presented as the cohort's mean scores in each of the 16 topic areas, for both iterations of the research (see Table 6).

	2003 COHORT	
	Mean scores for 2003 study	Mean scores for 2004 study
Planning Conventions	3.9	4.0
Business Planning	3.3	3.4
Sponsorship	3.1	3.2
Interactions with Sponsors	3.5	3.3
Marketing Conventions	4.0	4.0
HRM for Conventions	3.2	3.6
Convention Suppliers	3.6	3.6
Site and Venue Selection	4.2	4.1
Managing Convention Operations	3.8	4.0
Logistics and Staging	3.9	3.8
Managing for Quality	3.6	3.5
Controls Budgets etc	3.4	3.7
Risk Management	3.1	3.2
Evaluating conventions	3.8	3.9
Working in Teams	4.1	4.2
Communicating in Teams	4.1	4.3

Table 6: 2003 cohort's mean scores in 2003 compared with 2004 for perceived level of knowledge in 16 topic areas

Some 45 responses were received from this cohort in the 2003 research, and 44 responses were received from the same cohort as part of the 2004 study.

Analysis of the data revealed that students' perceived level of knowledge increased with time. The 2003 cohort ranked 11 of the 16 topic areas higher in 2004, compared with the level of knowledge they perceived themselves to have acquired immediately after completing the unit in 2003. This might indicate that they had had an opportunity to both 'practise' and reflect on their learning, and that the passage of time enhanced their levels of confidence about their own perceived knowledge of conventions and events management. Such practice and reflection on learning, for most students, would have been available in the 12-month period between the 2003 and the 2004 research, through students' further study in the course of the third year of the degree program, and through their part-time work in the hospitality industry.

In analysing the 2003 cohort's Survey 1 textual reflections, for the 2004 study, it was evident that students saw the experiential learning as having been enjoyable, valuable and challenging, and they were able to see the conjunctions between theory and practice.

Findings that emerged from this data analysis can be broadly summarised as follows:

1. Elapsed time appears not to have dimmed the intensity of feeling for the 2003 cohort. While they reiterated their call for more experiential-based learning in core curriculum and assessment and the opportunity to 'practise' the theory, they were nonetheless able to articulate perceived drawbacks in the unit (such as the failure of some staff to attend the events).

2. With the passage of time, the 2003 cohort appeared to have more positive responses in their levels of knowledge from the unit. It might be surmised that this emerged as a function of students having the opportunity to 'practise' what they had learned in the intervening 18 month period, in addition to having more experience and points of comparison as they had reached the end of their degree program.

3. While the 2004 cohort also reported positively about the experiential learning, they seemed more concerned for functional aspects of the learning – this cohort found less enjoyment, but identified more workload and time issues. This trait is not uncommon in immediate recall where 'recency' focuses on operational, immediate issues as opposed to 'deeper' aspects of the learning.

4. Students have reported new opinions, thoughts and feelings (in the form of emergent Key Conceptual Clusters) as a result of the refinements to the unit. In that one of these refinements required students to prepare a reflective report, this could be relevant to students' identification of 'self reflection' as a new key concept. Another new key concept related to the opportunity for students' creativity in staging their events.

Conclusions and Recommendations

This paper has examined, as part of longitudinal research, the role of experiential learning, reflection and perceived levels of knowledge of conventions and events management, in undergraduate students. The analysis of the 2004 iteration of the research has highlighted the impacts of the refinements made to the unit, based on the prior research, and has compared the effects of immediate and delayed (longitudinal) recall on students' perceived knowledge.

There were some striking similarities in the responses from the two cohorts of students studied. These included the aspect of learning in students' experiential work in the unit, and issues of teamwork. However, the value of this type of experiential learning, students' enjoyment in it and their perceived level of knowledge seemed to have been enhanced with the passage of time.

This underscores student reflection as a significant developing theme throughout this longitudinal project. The reflective theme exists as a strong thread through the literature on management education as well as the tourism and hospitality disciplines, and a focus on reflection was taken up in refinements to the delivery of the unit in 2004. In the research to follow these refinements, some validation for the reflective theme and the changes to the unit can be taken from the emergence of *Self reflection* as a new Key Conceptual Cluster in students' open-ended comments of their opinions, thoughts and feelings about the unit. In that the experiential mode of learning in this unit therefore appears to raise reflection as an important trait in the learning, this mode of learning would seem to be congruent with contemporary calls for 'reflective practitioners' in management as well as tourism and hospitality. Because the unit's newly introduced Reflective Report enabled students to 'practise' reflection, with a lecturer's assistance and in the relative safety of a university environment, it also provided students with a pre-professional opportunity to 'experience' reflection as a necessary component of the events management experience.

The paper concludes with a call to continue the longitudinal approach to research and its role in building a foundation for events management education. Further, it is recommended that the role of longitudinal research be examined with a view to setting up a data bank of information that would allow for cross referencing between different tertiary approaches to events management education and practice.

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Event Education Issues

Event Management Students' Reflections on their Placement Year: An examination of their "critical experiences"

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Abstract

As a link between higher education and industry, experiential learning is a process that is currently recognisable and acceptable to both. This article focuses on BA (Hons) Event Management students, within the Tourism, Hospitality and Events (THE) School at Leeds Metropolitan University (United Kingdom), who as part of their degree, have a sandwich/placement year, within industry.

This research was carried out qualitatively and inductively in order to build theory which is grounded in the voices, actions and reflections of those studied. It examines two cohort groups of students, based on a sample of 44 written reflective portfolios of at least six specific learning situations, "critical incidents", within their placement organisations.

The research also aims to enhance the integration of the placement into teaching and learning strategies within the University, and has wider implications for industry engagement within such educational programmes. The students' reflections led to the development of two main themes. Firstly, reflections related to the placement organisation (or more specifically the incorporated themes within the context of social, political, cultural environments in which the reflections occur) and secondly, reflections by the students on themselves as individuals, (or more specifically, the themes of independence, career, credibility, self – esteem, skills and knowledge).

Findings indicate that the experience of learning within the placement organisation was beneficial and rewarding to students and reflective writing encourages both cognitive and affective behaviour. Findings also indicate that the work contexts in which students operate are not stable and unchanging environments in which they can easily learn and develop. For students, the socio–emotional dimension has significant implications for making sense of their learning via their critical incidents.

Keywords: Event management, Experiential learning, Placement, Student reflection.

Introduction

Within the United Kingdom (UK), the Dearing Report (1997) set a broad vision of a higher education system which should inspire and enable individuals to grow intellectually, be well equipped for work, contribute effectively to society and achieve personal fulfilment. As such, Dearing (1997) clearly articulates the link between education and the world of work and endorses the value of some exposure of the student to the wider world as part of their programme of study. It recommends that:

> "All institutions should … identify opportunities to increase the extent to which programmes help students to become familiar with work, and helps them to reflect on such experiences." (Recommendation 18).

The purpose of higher education has been formulated as:

> "giving students the tools with which to reflect and learn from experience."
> (Thorne, 1995 p 184).

The Dearing Report (1997) additionally related to enhancing students' skills for employment. The Harris Report (2001) and the Quality Assurance Agency (QAA) Code of Practice on Career Education, Information and Guidance (CIEG) have added further impetus to the debate on graduate employability (Maher, 2004).

Work–based placements, of varying duration, form an integral part of many first and higher degrees from a broad spectrum of subject areas within the United Kingdom (UK) higher education system. Fell and Kuit (2003) refer to the QAA definition of placement learning as:

> "a planned period of learning, normally outside of the institution at which the student is enrolled, where the learning outcomes are an intended part of a programme of study. It includes those circumstances where students have arranged their own learning opportunity with a placement provider, with the approval of the institution."

This traditional year long sandwich / placement, is often viewed as the exemplary form of work placement, combining a long period immersion in the workplace setting with course relevance and well developed structures of support and monitoring of the experience (Harvey, Geall and Moon (1997).

The aim of the study was to examine the reflections of BA (Hons) Event Management students on their period of pre professional work experience. The main purpose was to identify critical factors affecting students' experiences and learning outcomes of this period, combined with an analysis of the students' evaluations of their practice in order to improve the enhancement of the practice into learning, teaching and assessment strategies within the curriculum.

Reflection

It is clear that much continuing professional development in UK higher education is influenced by the reflective practitioner paradigm (Clegg, Tan and Saeidi, 2002). It is found within a variety of professional contexts notably, nursing (Johns and Freshwater, 1998, Burns and Bulman, 2000), social work (Fook 1996, Jennings, 2001 and Dreuth and Dreuth–Fewell, 2002), initial teacher training (Loughran, 1996), and within adult learning processes (Barnett, 1977, Boud, Keough and Walker, 1985, Mezirow, 1991). However, doubts have been made about the clarity of Schon's concepts (Eraut, 1995, Bleakley, 1999, Clegg, 1999).

Schon (1983) suggests that engagement in reflection can occur in two ways; either by "reflecting on action", after the experience, or by "reflecting in action", during the experience. Schon (1987) emphasizes that in practice, students should also learn a kind of reflection–in–action – devising new methods of reasoning, constructing and testing new categories of understanding, strategies of action, and ways of framing problems (p 39).Thus the placement ought to be reflective in the sense that it provokes students to systematic reflection on their experiential learning.

Experiential Learning

Pre–professional practice within higher education is a form of experiential learning (see Boud, Cohen, and Walker, 1993, Henry, 1989, Kolb, 1984, for idea, types and modes of experiential learning). Moon (2004) concluded that there is no one definition of experiential learning – it is often locally defined. Moon (op cit) also comments on both employability and experiential learning. Firstly, referring to a declaration of intent that the student should engage in meaningful and purposeful learning. Secondly, the situation is relatively unmediated – this means that there is not any immediate guidance to the learner as to how to direct their attention. Thirdly, the material of learning tends to be ill–structured. In the process of most experiential learning, reflective learning is involved.

Henry (1989) distinguishes eight different approaches to experiential learning, which include placement, action learning, personal development, independent learning, problem based learning, project work, activity based learning and prior learning. Involving the students personally puts them more in control of the various learning opportunities. This personal development approach usually uses a process of reflection (Henry, 1989). Rawson (2000), comments on higher education as the start of a lifelong process of personal development for the future of a viable learning society.

Guile and Griffiths (2001) drawing upon learning theory, adult education and curriculum theory, aimed to prove the basis of a new pedagogic model for supporting learning through what Henry (1998) refers to as "placement". Guile and Griffiths (op cit) discuss different models (traditional, experiential, generic, work process and connective models) to work experience. These models embody changing responses to policy, to the learner, to skills needed and to pedagogy. Leeds Metropolitan University has largely adopted the "experiential model" of work experience encompassing Kolb's (1984) learning cycle, but it does have components related to other models.

Methodology

According to Ryan , Toohey and Hughes (1996) the most common method of investigating such a placement year, or practicum, has been the satisfaction survey (collected from students, graduates and employers). The technique fails to reveal the multitude of variables involved, especially when investigating issues involved in experiential learning. It is vital to capture the diversity in the students' understanding of the essence of learning. Thus, research on the placement year should be carried out qualitatively and inductively, analysing students' individual experiences (Valo, 2000).

Data collection

For this study the key source of data was from students' portfolios of evidence – Leeds Metropolitan University's term for a written self–reflective journal. The focus of the research was self–defined criticality, as it was the students' personal written representations of salient experiences, six learning situations or "critical incidents" (Tripp, 1993, Griffin, 2003) that was of importance. Introductions to such terms were via student placement handbooks and pre placement preparatory modules. The empirical research was collected over two consecutive years, incorporating a total of forty–four student portfolios. Such portfolios are completed by the students on placement and submitted for marking by their academic visiting tutor in the September of their return to university. The assessment criteria using the learning outcomes of the placement year are used for evaluation purposes.

As a sampling strategy, a non- probability sampling strategy of voluntary sampling was used, the sample is self–selected (Blaxter, Hughes and Tight, 2001). Confidentiality of individual students and their placement organisations was addressed by keeping subjects anonymous (using a numbering code).

Data Analysis

The portfolios were read by the author several times in order to obtain an understanding of the students' placement related reflections and the possible themes involved. Familiarisation of the data is key. The author followed an interpretative, contextualised and emergent nature of theory development. The analysis of this qualitative rich text in the "voices" of the students through their portfolios led the author to grounded analysis.

As such, grounded theory allows the researcher to enter the life–world, real world of the students own understanding whilst maintaining research rigour. (For procedures in qualitative data analysis, see - Glaser and Strauss, 1967, Glaser, 1978, 1992, Strauss and Corbin, 1990, Miles and Huberman, 1994). Though grounded theory has split into two camps, each associated with the original author, this does not detract from a number of constants which are used regardless of the version used. These include the comparison of data to develop concepts and categories, the gradual abstraction of the data, the writing of the theoretical memos which help track the process and provide a sense of re orientation and saturation of the data which requires the author to stay in the field until no new evidence emerges (Rennie, 1998). The author will use direct quotations from the students' critical incidents and will provide some interpretative commentary framing the key findings.

Placement Preparation

Facilitating study skills amongst undergraduate students has seen two approaches prevailing. de Vries and Downie (1988) discuss the integration of such transferable skills within subject modules while Hand et al (2000) focus on stand–alone modules that support the wider module portfolio. At the time of the study, pre placement students at level one, that is year one of undergraduate study, encompassed an integrative approach via a Personal Skills for Managers (PSM) module, a pre requisite module for progression to the placement year. This was combined, at the time, with a stand alone module – Short Course Accreditation Scheme (SCAS) which supported preparation for the placement year, having a compulsory underpinning phase, but the students decided if they wished to complete the coursework within their placement year to achieve the certified award.

Students need to be engaged as a whole person. This includes the three domains of actions (behavioural), thoughts (cognitive) and feelings (affective). This point has been supported by the work into individual learning styles (Honey and Mumford, 1986). They described four learning styles: activists, reflectors, theorists and pragmatists claiming that each of us had a preferred learning style or preference. These four styles fit very clearly with the stages of the experiential learning cycle as described by Kolb (1984). Pre placement students engaged with both in their PSM and SCAS modules.

Smith, Sekar and Townsend (2002) comment on the relationship between the approach students take and the way in which they learn and a difference in the literature between surface, strategic and deep or reflective learning. Reflection is a way of maximising deep learning and minimising surface approaches. Moon (1999) comments on the language of reflection and its correlation to a deep approach, “relating ideas, “looking for patterns”, “checking” and “examining cautiously and critically”, all imply the involvement of reflection. However, these approaches are not constant and students may adopt a deep or surface approach depending on the circumstances and their intentions.

Within their PSM module, students had to produce a general learning agreement / contract. This would be adapted towards a specific learning agreement with their placement organisation.

Placement handbooks with a theoretical explanation of the reflective cycle (Kolb, 1984) are allocated and seen as something concrete to hold on to and refer to while in the process. Whilst on their placement year, students are assigned an academic visiting tutor (in the main from the Events Centre) and a work supervisor with whom they will develop their specific learning agreement. Passing the placement year allows students to progress to their third year, level two. The placement period, a year, is taken in the second year of their four year course and includes four weeks holiday. It is usually paid and geographically dispersed.

Findings and discussion

Almost all of the students in the sample felt positively toward their placement period as a whole. Commonly, the students reported that it had provided a rewarding learning experience from which they could apply the learning to their future studies and working lives. The students appreciated the real world environment with real tasks, projects, events and colleagues adding to their learning experience overall. It is of note that there were few critical voices to the learning experiences.

When analysed through grounded theory methodology, the students' reflections led to the development of two main themes;

1) Reflections related to the placement organisation (or more specifically the incorporated themes of the induction process, social, political, cultural environments in which the reflection occurs).
2) Reflections by the students on themselves as individuals (or more specifically the incorporated themes of independence, career, credibility, self–esteem, skills and knowledge).

Reflections related to the placement

Overall, it was positive to read the extent to which the students interacted with more experienced staff, contacts, clients and real people in the outside world and how they participated within these communities of practice. Participating in the workplace raises questions for the provider of work placements (Faculty Placement Office). Firstly, the extent to which the organisation enables the student to participate in interacting with more experienced staff and secondly, to recognise that students need to learn in ways different to those they learn in university.

Theoretical underpinning

Many students commented on theoretical underpinning at university and their practice within their placement organisations. They considered subject topics and key skill development relevant in the main:

> "Planning the programme from my conference and meeting course became relevant when I took up briefs from the client to plan their itineraries," (*conference organiser*) (13)

> "I had some knowledge of simple costing…I found it quite beneficial and rewarding to put these into practice with real life strategies and budgets." (*club promotion organisation*) (42)

Others found that the skill base established within their first year of studies was not enough:

> "Your writing ability also seemed to be a barometer for your success within the company." (*communication organisation*) (27)

> "Multi – tasking is a new concept to me." (*event organiser*) (20)

> "Something I thought I had control of was not good enough. My time management let me down." (*local authority events department*) (4)

Induction

Placement students have to assimilate into organisational cultures. Once they have been through the organisational induction period they have to undertake tasks with the minimum of on–going supervision and be able to self–regulate (Harvey, Geall and Moon, 1997). Induction processes were generally commented upon favourably, though due to the nature, size and complexity of the placement provider, induction processes varied in time period, depth and financial input spent on the student by the organisation.

> "The induction programme (*major car organisation*)…runs for seven days, taking in tours of the various facilities along with a small amount of product knowledge training, two days of team building and a day of company community programme." (14)

> "Unfortunately, (*event production organisation*) did not include me in any of their training programmes, as I was not considered as permanent staff. I do not feel as if I was fairly treated, as I am very keen to learn and any knowledge gained would have benefited the company." (35).

Learning agreements

Both students (17) and (31) below are engaging in learning contracts effectively as a negotiated working agreement related to self – determined learning outcomes.

> "I decided that a specific learning plan was necessary to ensure what I wanted out of this placement (*hotel complex*), namely management experience and event organising skills… getting the management to agree to my plan was more difficult than I thought." (17).

Commenting on the use of on going negotiation skills student (31 - *corporate entertainment organisation*) comments:

> "The learning agreement will be reviewed at regular intervals, and additional learning objectives will be added. Supplementary job information, projects completed and experiences logged will show learning, which can be assessed against the course learning outcomes and key skill areas". (31).

Organisational issues

Commenting upon cultural and social barriers and mechanisms around such within the placement organisations some students commented on issues including management styles, office communications, office politics and inter-personality issues**.**

> "I learnt to work in a team (*major retail partnership*), but also learnt to set clear boundaries to other colleagues within the office. I was

> subjected to a variety of management styles, not all of which were positive, and a number of personal conflicts. This taught me how damaging negative office dynamics can be when you are not managing effectively. Communications were poor in the office and this made doing the job very stressful". (15).

Models such as (Kolb 1984) assume students learn in structured and sequential ways and that learning is "under the students conscious control when, in practice it is not always so" (Burgoyne, 1992, p 43). Within their organisation, student (35) experiences a sense of powerlessness, lack of individual control and access to opportunities. Views such as (15) on inter-personality issues and organisational politics are seen as a positive and real issue (Coppey, 1995).

The images an individual holds about an organisation and the way it functions, becomes part of the inner world of that individual and cause emotions, values and responses to develop. In this way the student both influences and is influenced by the organisation (Grisoni, 2002).

"It was difficult coming into a professional office environment for the first time, especially within the city (*London business district law firm*). They helped me build knowledge and understanding of how a law firm is structured and the ethos behind it" (25).

The images of an organisation were reflected upon, challenged and amended over time by student (14).

> "My attitude to (*formula 1 racing organisation*) has changed considerably. My first impression was that it was a very glamorous job, however, I now have a full understanding of the demanding workload over the full season and the effects of such a heavy schedule on the lifestyles of people involved." (14)

Harvey, Moon and Geall (1998) assert that the ethos of the student environment and the placement organisation can place significant pressures onto the individual particularly in identifying when to seek advice and assistance. Student (38) is an example of this point.

> "The Managing Director (*event venue organisation*) has a very autocratic style of management… When I did have a problem I found it very hard to tell him because he was not very approachable… I would hope that if I was a manager, my colleagues could approach me." (38).

Most students developed close working relationships with their supervisors and used them for support and career guidance.

> "The professional relationship with (*supervisor x, conference organiser*) meant we talk about where I was going in my future career, and he offered support and guidance which I really appreciated. I am now positive it's (*events*) what I want to do as a career, although I'm still debating what I want to specialise in." (13).

Emotion

It is suggested that emotion is central to reasoning and decision making, and both too little and too much hinders the process (Damasio, 2000). This suggests that to ignore or dismiss feelings is not productive: one should embrace and be aware of such. Engagement in the learning cycle requires the student to be both intellectually and emotionally engaged (Kolb, 1984). Learning is reinforced by the socio–emotional context in which it occurs. Learning entails working with emotions and feelings, which much traditional teaching seeks to avoid. Grisoni (2002) refers to Vince and Martin (1993) who identify cycles of emotion which can either promote or inhibit learning, depending on the emotional reactions to the anxiety felt when engaging in new experiences.

Price (1998) also refers to this "affective domain" and how emotions are expressed, learned and experienced consciously and unconsciously. Emotion can lead to anxiety and defence, but can heighten awareness and sensitivity to what is happening around the student (Fineman, 1997). Emotions can therefore trigger new ways of being and relating as one engages with the possibilities of the situation.

Powerful emotions, such as anger, also arise within placement and may be useful for the student, if uncomfortable, to focus on. Anger is often seen to be an inappropriate professional emotion beyond the professional boundary, but Bolton (2001) asserts that reflective practice is an appropriate location for exploring it.

> "Having had so much to do with the planning of these themed parties, being unable to see or experience the end result (on not being asked to attend the specific client themed xmas party), I felt very much on my own, exhausted, used, lonely, isolated, angry, tired, dispirited and not part of the team". (37).

Whilst showing raw emotions, relevant to the time, place and context for the individual student, her summary of the overall placement experience is commented upon as:

> "Overall, I have found my placement an invaluable experience. At times it has been fun and enjoyable … at others exhausting, demanding and undermining of my confidence and patience". (37)

Reflections On Themselves

Self–efficacy is a term used to describe a person's belief in his or her ability to perform a task successfully (Bandurra, 1986). Bandurra comments, "people who have firm belief in their efficacy, through ingenuity and perseverance, figure out ways of exercising some control, even in environments containing limited opportunities and many constraints" (Bandurra, 1993, p 125). On the other hand, people who doubt their self–efficacy, "produce little change, even in environments that provide many potential opportunities" (Bandurra, 1993, p 125).

Students who posses the three components of: self–esteem, values and skills and knowledge and the "power to perform", have an "independent capability" (Stephenson, 1993, p 17).

Examples of students engaging in such issues are:

> "As I became more knowledgeable about internal processes (*accounts*), I did enjoy the fact that the rest of the department turned to me for advice. This role gave me a chance to interact with many other departments and gave me quite a high profile with the suppliers." (14 – *automotive organisation*).

Student (14) is commenting on their performance levels, credibility and status within the organisation and how this had developed over time.

> "I actually found this event (*public relations show - communications organisation*) to be a great confidence booster and it was noted that I had conducted myself in a professional manner… I enjoyed having the opportunity to work more independently and exhaust ideas I had… by the end of the campaign I felt completely settled in the working environment." (7)

> "The event developed both my communication skills, and self – esteem." (37 – *event production organisation*.

> "I gained communication skills by observing other peoples (*conference organiser*) techniques and reflecting on the reactions they received. Depending on the outcome, I either applied new methods or attempted a new idea." (13)

Self–efficacy is strengthened through student's (13) observation of another person, successfully modelling a performance of the target learning task (Bandurra, 1977). It is of note that the breadth, depth of responsibility and influence that the students had over their working lives developed progressively over the placement as they proved themselves to significant others and themselves.

Conclusions

It is evident that for the majority of students, the experience of learning within the placement organisation was beneficial and rewarding. The reality of the world expressed by the student in the form of a reflective journal does encourage both cognitive and affective behaviour, which challenges them to integrate these into their own personal belief systems as a result of their experiences (McFarlane, 1998).

It is clear that the actual work contexts in which students operate are not all stable, unchanging, transparent environments in which the students can easily learn and develop. Students and Higher Educational Institutions (HEI's) need to understand workplaces as a series of "interconnected activity systems" (Engestrom, 2000) which have a range of "communities of practice" (Lave and Wenger, 1991). Some students found learning within such environments difficult and emotionally taxing.

Findings show many students created their own learning experiences and developed a strong and progressive self–efficacy. The students engaging successfully in difficult tasks and contexts, implies that they are in fact learning through a process of self organisation and enculturation (Cobb, 1999), and that these processes occur while individuals interact with more experienced and knowledgeable others in the organisation. Negotiation of their learning during the placement via on-going learning agreements with their host organisation is seen as a social and collaborative process. Such is not only through and with their allocated supervisor, but with many others within the organisational team, and is both formal and informal. Learning is seen by students as a collaborative and social process. Emotional relationships do have implications for making sense of the learning via these critical experiences and more research is needed to explore the socio–emotional dimension.

Most students were committed to their workplace and found the overall experience to be an empowering one. The results demonstrate the value of placement and experiential learning in the development of capability. It is critical that the programmes of study should be rooted in a notion of capability which relates directly to the nature of the learning which is undertaken. Capability is implied here as a capacity to move beyond conventional competence to being able to work effectively in unpredictable and changing contexts (Doncaster and Lester, 2002).

Results also suggest that capability cannot be defined too closely and hence there is unlikely to be a formula of competencies or absolutes which add up to capable practice. Clearly different bundles of abilities and attributes are identified, developed and enhanced which are appropriate to the individual and their placement organisational context.

Moon (1999) considers all journal writing as creative as unexpected thoughts, meanings and insights can emerge. There are difficulties to overcome. With some students it is the importance of self–discipline associated with maintaining reflective journals. Some have hang ups about how to write having become constrained by the "proper" way of writing in the form of essays or reports. For some the concept of writing about personal issues has posed a problem. Ghaye (2000, p. 6), referring to this, comments for some "reflection on practice" for example, "is either too painful or too threatening to undertake…", whilst Moon (1999) debates the laundering of journals and students writing down what they think the visiting tutor wants them to read.

Lavelle (2003) distinguishes between deep and surface approaches to student writing strategies. Since this research, a more robust approach to the encouragement of reflective writing has been adopted within some pre placement Level 1 student modules. Some now encompass assessed reflective writing elements. It is clear that practice of writing in this style is necessary. The concentration on six "critical incidents" was considered an effective strategy for assisting such written reflections.

All returning placement students meet with their visiting tutor post placement to discuss their reflective portfolios. This verbal discussion draws out information and issues which may not be apparent in the student's critical reflections. Some students,

though understanding the usefulness of completing such, may not produce their best work or reflect to their full capacity.

Additions to teaching and learning strategies are that returning students, level 2, now write a synopsis of their placement which can be accessed by all level 1 students as a reference tool. These level 2 students also meet level 1's pre placement to discuss key aspects of the placement year. After initial briefings to both groups by personal tutors, the discussions are student led, placement focussed with a "warts and all" discursive approach. The benefits are that level 1's (pre placement) learn from level 2 "experts". In this way students are introduced to sources of knowledge and expertise other than academic staff. Students also become further aware of their individual responsibility within the placement process and have opportunities to "buddy–up" with others - an informal e-mail, mobile telephone exchange operates.

The findings have also led to the development of an integrated Personal and Vocational Skills Development Module (PVSD) at level 1. This replaces the former generic PSM and SCAS modules and engages deeper with placement preparation and planning. Focus is on learning contract development, reflection, curriculum vitae development, reflective writing, key skills, relationship management and learning from significant others.

Additionally, reflective portfolios are also useful to the Faculty Placement Office. Such a "student snapshot" of their experiences can be allied to visiting tutors' detailed reports, creating a more holistic view of the placement itself, the organisation and potential future relationships. It can aid vetting systems and the guidance and support provided via the placement handbook (for students) and employer handbook.

The research demonstrates that the placement provides opportunities for students to demonstrate skills and abilities that are employability skills, which are seen from the perspective of work. Within a sandwich degree the contribution of such learning does inform the students' process of personal development. Returning level 2 students within their skills module (Personal and Professional Skills for Managers - PPSM) re-engage with their reflective placement portfolios to aid their individual developmental workshop selection and personal action plans and re – engage with their established networks and contacts found within their placement organisations. They use such to assist with their current and future levels of study, linking theory to practice.

The placement year and reflections on "critical incidents" within such enables students to add to their individual Progress Files and Continuous Professional Development. Clearly experiential learning within a well arranged and actively engaged with placement is productive for the individual and can ease their transition between higher education and industry.

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Experiential Learning Produces Capable Event Management Graduates

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Abstract

Event management delivery is complex and many of the vocational skill sets required are embedded within the applied management and social sciences body of knowledge. In learning, demonstrated skill competency is preferable to knowledge on its own. Learning via conceptual and creative challenges applied to work contexts is also more effective than the same learning via case studies and hypothetical situations. The purpose of this exploratory study is to investigate the effect of long duration 'experiential learning' on students within a graduate programme in Event Management at CPIT, New Zealand. A 16 item survey instrument was administered to 19 current students and a 12 item questionnaire was administered to 6 recent graduates. Students endorsed the role of internship in exposing them to industry and in linking theory to practice. Students also reported a reasonably homogenous range of concrete experiences within internships and many opportunities for repeat learning of work tasks. These results suggest that the long duration event internship gave them confidence to enter the workforce and understand what was needed.

Keywords: Service-learning, Event management, Experiential learning other

Introduction

Many tertiary programmes use 'experiential' or 'service' learning to complement learning in the classroom. Service learning has been written about extensively (Gray, Ondaatje, Fricker, & Geshwind, 2000; Hilosky, A., Moore, & Reynolds, 2000) and is defined as *student placement in industry to serve the community*. Within the university sector 'service-learning' is a limited concept of a practicum aligned to a form of community service (Johnson, 1995). It will often but not always include opportunity for 'experiential learning' in topic and employment areas relevant to the students' chosen vocation. Experiential learning is an inclusive term coined to mean learning from experience in industry introduced by Dewey (1933) and later Kolb (1984).

The field of event management study is relatively new in New Zealand and Australia and there has been comment recently on the role of education in this industry (Grafton 2005). The tenor of this discussion has been focused on the suitability of tertiary training as a platform for work readiness in the event management industry. Industry practitioners argue there is a need to examine in detail the nature of this training and the relevance it has to what actually occurs vocationally for event practitioners. The issues surrounding these disparate views appear to focus on the extent to which graduates might be work ready at the end of their course of study and how they translate classroom based learning into vocational work contexts. Academics would argue that they were work ready for limited or beginner roles in the industry covering the full range of tasks involved in crafting events. Practitioners on the other hand would dispute this indicating that many will never be capable to work in the field and others will need to gain work experience before being employable. This is directly correlated with the inability of an academic assessment process to screen applicants in some vocational work competencies.

In this contentious context between the world views of academics and practitioners the need to consider experiential and service learning for students studying event management is of paramount importance. The connection between event management training and practical hands on 'experiential' learning has been stated (Southall, Nagel, LeGrande, & Han, 2003; Cawley, 1999; Grafton, 2004).

Foundation work on experiential learning models is best understood by studying the Kolb learning process. Out of the classroom 'experiential learning' has been defined as learning through experience and has been identified as making important contributions to higher learning (Kolb, 1984). Experiential learning becomes the key focus of the out of classroom experience in this model. Kolb suggested that in order to understand how we learn from concrete experience we must consider a dialectical relationship between four learning modes: concrete experience; observation and reflection; abstraction; active experimentation (Kolb, 1984: 21-22). The Kolb model can be used to assess the conditions that are most likely to result in demonstrated competence in a workplace practice. The model is cyclical and indicates the importance of opportunities to complete and repeat work tasks.

Kolb outlined the rationale for experiential education:

> ‘To learn is not the special province of a single specialized realm of human functioning such as cognition or perception. It involves the integrated functioning of the total organism – thinking, feeling, perceiving and behaving’.
>
> (Kolb 1984, 310)

Bennett, Henson & Drane (2003) were able to identify that service learning when applied to sport management has multiple benefits for the participants. A study of 157 colleague students enrolled in sport management pointed out many advantages of this approach. Some of the research dealt primarily with the experiential part of the service learning programme which has relevance to this study in so far as it provides a benchmark for perceptions of the validity of experiential learning. Real world experiences were rated high as an advantage of service learning and low as a disadvantage. The two top advantages they listed were (improved social interaction 80.3%) and (added experience to my resume 77.7%). This latter point is echoed as a key criticism of university based training in that students cannot build up industry experience through that training (Cawley, 1999). Higher scores within the study questions indicated greater agreement that the statements were true (1-7 point likert scales). Another finding indicates that sport management students were prepared but not quite operating at the point of challenge within this particular service learning experience which led to relatively low scores for linking the service learning experience to the classroom (realistic understanding of theory 4.02) and (better understanding of classroom theory 3.47).

There was a more positive result related to student enjoyment of the service learning experience (5.64). One potential finding was that service learning often does not provide thorough emersion in industry. A key factor in maximising the benefits in service learning is the length of exposure to that industry sector. Semester long exposure would better allow for the repeated cycling of Kolb’s four stages making it possible to improve skill level as the model predicts (Wittmer & Johnson, 2000).

Despite the research suggesting the value of service and experiential learning this component often makes up a very small percentage of the training at the tertiary level. The gap documented by Grafton in what the teachers know and what the practitioners do seems therefore to remain wide.

In order to overcome this knowledge and skill gap students are likely to benefit through the opportunity to practice newly learned skills in a functional and relevant environment (Johnson, 1995). The question for event trainers then becomes how to create these functional environments and how to ensure they are relevant to industry while at the same time presenting credible theory models that underpin practice. It is not enough to put students into real contexts. It becomes important to ensure they have the right level of challenge, that there are opportunities to repeat and reflect on concrete experiences and that the learning is integrated with cognitive challenges as well.

Another key factor again related to sport management training is the amount of involvement the ‘teacher’ has in the practicum and particularly involvement with the industry practitioners. Success has been attributed to making the practitioner and teacher

roles not separate and distinct but dual aspects of the same function (Southall, Nagel, LeGrande & Han, 2003). This approach has been supported at a recent Event Educators forum in Australia (Grafton, 2005). There appears to be precedent within sport management for the likely success of experiential learning and long duration service learning models. This approach is favoured by students in higher learning institutions and with greater collaborative involvement of teachers and industry practitioners it should be possible to maximise learning for work and employability.

Given the divergence of opinion around experiential learning versus classroom learning this exploratory study was designed to consider the extent to which the internship training model used at CPIT supported the findings for service learning indicated in the study by Bennett et al (2003).
The simple method was designed to yield information for a future more detailed longitudinal study to consider whether prolonged exposure to experiential learning and experience repetition leads students to be work ready and productive in higher level work contexts further into their careers.

Method

Participants

Participants included 19 students currently completing their study in Event Management at CPIT, Christchurch New Zealand and 6 recent graduates who completed the training and have been in the workforce for one year. Current students (2004 intake) when surveyed had completed a total of 18 weeks of their 23 week internship, each internship is for a period of 30 hours per week . Recent graduates were selected on the basis that they had completed the course in the last intake and had been working in the event management field since that time. This introduces a bias into the findings that only students gainfully employed in the event management industry were asked to complete the survey. It was practical to use these graduates as they could properly reflect on internship and current experience. There were a number of graduated students who were not working in the event management field or who had left Christchurch or New Zealand.

Experiential Learning Component

The experiential learning component of the course is substantial making up a total of 65% of the learning time. Selection into internship is based on formal interview and application (some of the interns are offering fulltime employment at the end of the internship programme). Student and intern provider are matched by interview, as per a normal recruitment situation and determine the outcome of the selection process. Students are required to complete assessments during these internship periods and many of the assessments integrate the work they are doing while on internship and connect it back to the work they did in the block course theory delivery. Block courses are interspersed between internships. Interns mentor the students and are required to take students through a learning journey. The learning journey comprises: Internship 1, introduction and analysis of the intern providers systems and business processes; Internship 2, running a complex event under supervision; Internship 3, evaluation and review. Intern supervisors are given copies of the assessments and learning outcomes

and are required to mentor the student while on internship; they provide formal feedback for 2 hours each week. Intern supervisors and CPIT academic staff are in continual contact over the progress of students. Students and interns are required to complete a performance appraisal and action list (of things that need to be worked on) and a referee summary. Variability in internship offering (the content of the event organizations work) has been an issue as has the timing, level and quality of intern mentoring by the industry practitioner from that organization. A further concern has been the timing of work tasks in internships with reference to the theory delivery and the learning journey.

Instruments

Two methods were used to collect information for this exploratory study of experiential learning. The first was a cross-sectional survey[1]. The survey consisted of a 16 item survey instrument. Question one asked the length of time the candidate had in the workforce prior to entry to the programme. The first portion of the questionnaire (Items 2-4) requested information on exposure to the event management industry. Portion two (items 5-8) asked for descriptions of the link between the practical and theory learning. Portion three asked for a rating for enjoyment of experiential learning (items 9-10). The next section was designed to seek information on the event organizing activities undertaken in internship and the level of repetition and patterns within these activities (items 11-13). The final two questions focused on exploring new skills gained (item 15) and general information about experiential learning (item 16). The second method involved a qualitative one-on-one interview. A 12 item open ended questionnaire was devised to determine how graduates of the course had been affected by the experiential learning one year out.

Results

The quantitative survey design followed the question format of the work of Bennett et al, (2003) and where possible parallels were made to this study. Open ended qualitative questions were added for both current and graduated survey groups and were focused more on confirming the value of concrete experience as a means of acquiring event organizing skills.

The overall result suggests a positive correlation in agreement with the notion of a student internship for those who study event management. Several questions were asked about the level of exposure the internship gave students to the industry, the link to the application of theory, the range of event organizing activity undertaken and the frequency this activity was repeated along with student perception of the value of this experiential learning process. By and large the results indicate greater support for long duration internship as compared with the short duration service learning experience as they related to learning about the event industry. This is not surprising in that industry internships are clearly focused on vocational outcomes where as service learning has a greater number of potential outcomes including an additional dimension of service to the community.

[1] See (Bennett, Henson & Drane, 2003) for a 39 item survey instrument as a model to some of the questions asked in this survey.

Several questions were asked about student exposure to experiential learning, the link to theory and the event organizing activity undertaken. The students responded to a seven point Likert scale anchored from *strongly disagree* (1), to *strongly agree* (7).

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics for Experiential Learning Items

Category/Item	*M*	*SD*
Exposure to the Event Management Industry		
I Learned a great deal about how event organisations worked	**5.68**	**0.98**
The organisation I worked for was more complex than expected	**5.05**	**1.23**
The experience helped me clarify my career choices	**5.63**	**1.04**
Theoretical Application		
I was able to try out concepts I learned in class	**4.63**	**1.42**
The experience allowed me to grasp theoretical concepts in a more realistic way	**5.42**	**0.94**
The experience helped me understand the in-class lectures	**4.79**	**1.32**
My learning of event management concepts was enhanced through the internship experience	**5.63**	**1.60**
Personal Enjoyment/Fulfillment		
The experience made me feel better about myself	**4.63**	**1.53**
My internship experience was enjoyable	**5.05**	**1.19**

Note. All responses are on a seven-point Likert scale with higher responses indicating greater agreement that the statement is true of the respondent.

Note. Survey items from Bennett, G., Henson, K., & Drane, D. (2003)

Exposure to the industry

Exposure to the event industry was the most strongly endorsed category (see Table 1). The highest mean score for all categories (M=5.68) indicated that students 'learned a great deal about event organizations'. High scores were also shown for the 'complexity of the organization' (M= 5.05) and 'the assistance with career choices' (M= 5.63). These scores were higher than those presented by Bennett et al (2003) suggesting the degree of engagement in the organisation must play a part in the learning, the understanding of the organization and the ability of students to make career choices. Current students expressed a number of comments about the exposure they were having

> Very good for networking, and helps you decide what area of Event Management you want to get into. Gives you an insight into the industry before you start applying for jobs.
>
> The internship segment of this course is vital to gain a good working knowledge of the industry. Unless students are able to put into practice what they have learnt how are they to know the importance of any of the planning tools!?

The six graduates had similar but more informed retrospective responses to this question.

> The internship covered the basics of everything but I didn't get the complete whole picture until I actually project managed an entire event myself though.

Although these are by and large a positive reflection of the experience there were a few of the students who indicated that it was important to gain a reasonable match of company and student expectations. These same students had had difficulties in respect to this matching. A general theme about this exposure was that it gave students insight into work practice and industry contacts that they would otherwise not have had. Especially important for them seemed to be the ability to make new industry contacts, form new relationships and know which companies were involved in which aspects of event delivery. Graduated students remarked that these contacts are now being used by them in their work.

Theoretical Application

Experiential learning as a process has the advantage of allowing students to be able to learn concepts models and processes that would eventually be relevant to a particular vocation. There was some endorsement of this as it related to current students 'learning of event management concepts' (M=5.63) and 'ability to grasp concepts in a more realistic way' (M= 5.42). Positive, yet weaker endorsement existed for the other two items surveyed, 'tried out concepts I learned in class' (M= 4.63) and 'understanding of class lectures' (M=4.79). These responses were measurably higher than Bennett et al (2003) results for the same questions. Many of the students worked at a beginning level within their event organizations. At this level theory becomes distilled down to basic event organizing tasks that in many cases bear little resemblance to the theoretical models that underpin this activity. It is likely as a result that students find it hard to recognize the theory model within the daily grind of event delivery.

In the next section we consider what students say about the frequency and the overlap of these practical work tasks and the paradigms and models that drive them. Much work is done within the students' qualification to show the relevance of theory and this may account for the reasonable endorsement of these items within the survey. Current student comment on this aspect was interesting in that it showed an awareness of the need to make the link between theory and practice.

> So good to experience the reality of working in an organization. What theory you actually do use in real life situations. You are exposed to all types of situation good and bad which teach you heaps.

> In this industry it's definitely a must to combine theory and practical. What I didn't learn in my internship I learnt in class e.g. the sponsorship classes. I've seen the sponsorship manager in action but never really understood the process so now when I go back (after) the next block I'll take more interest in what she does plus look at it more critically.

Graduates tended to stress the importance of the practical models and tools, the jargon and to a lesser extent the theory models. This is because the relevance of the theory is not realized in a practical sense except (in the students eyes) through the various tools and plans that form the basis of their current work within the industry.
The next section discusses what the intern event organizing activity actually was. This should help us understand the students' perspective**.**

Event Organising Activity

Table 2. Summary of Event Organising Activity Undertaken in 20 Week Event Industry Internship

Activity	No. Respondents	Average times repeated
Communicating	**11**	**48+**
Planning	**9**	**9**
Writing Letters	**7**	**46**
Fetching and Carrying	**7**	**24**
Liaison	**6**	**85+**
Developing Proposals	**6**	**10**
Writing Schedules	**5**	**23**
Administration	**4**	**55+**
Logistics	**4**	**12**
Networking	**4**	**11+**
Customer Service	**3**	**167+**
Site Management	**3**	**2**
Marketing	**2**	**3**
Crisis Management	**1**	**3**

Note. Numbers with '+' denote one respondent with score counts much higher than the rest. Highest of all response scores given to calculate number presented.

Two items were used to assess the types of concrete experiences students were having in their internships. It is useful to have a benchmark of what types of practical activities they were being asked to do and how often to identify whether students were being given the opportunity to follow Kolb's dialectical path through concrete experience, reflection, abstraction and experimentation. Table 2 highlights the types of event organizing activity students were engaged in. Students were in primarily event management organizations spread throughout the three sectors (private/commercial, public and voluntary) results are therefore reasonably typical of event organizing activity requirements of entry level workers. The 14 generic activities listed have been summarized from 19 current students who made 72 responses. Students were given the opportunity to list up to 4 event organizing activities that they spent 'the most time doing' in the internship. They were also asked to state the frequency (number of times) they did each of these activities within the 20 weeks of internship. The frequency of repetitions for each respondent were summed and then divided by the number of students who did the activity to give the 'average times repeated' figure in the right hand column of Table 2.

The range of activities undertaken by students on internship is reasonably homogeneous. Key activities were those indicated to be about communicating and we could include

networking, liaison, customer service and letter writing as similar types of experience requiring business communication skills. Another theme in the activities would be to group medium to lower level co-ordination activities, these would also include writing schedules, site management and logistics roles. More significant higher level tasks were not well represented with the exception of those students involved in planning and developing proposals.

A range of open ended questions asked for comments about 'employable skills' that were gained as a result of the event organizing activity they did.

> Proposal writing, understanding of time frames, understanding of work place communications, and how they fail/succeed
>
> Ability to ring up cold and approach sponsors, and write to them, dealing with performers
>
> Have a great new network of event contacts I have built relationships with other event organizers and suppliers etc. Stronger computer and planning skills. Good sponsorship and networking skills

Many of the student responses focused on areas of vocational importance in the workplace such as understanding business communications, being able to write letters, and telephone manner because they were using these repeatedly in their internship organizations.

Responses from four of the six graduated students referred pointedly to the boost in confidence.

> Yes definitely got better at all of it (event organizing activity from internship) especially liaison with clients as grew confident through internship.

For some students preparing for or having an experience is not where they gain their greatest learning. Time is needed to process and reformulate their perceptions. In this sense graduates tended to see the activities undertaken in internship as now making them more confident. This additional confidence they argue leads to improved competence.

In both surveys the question of whether internships involved patterned activity was explored. Patterns help distinguish the flow of work activity. Patterned activity tended to follow one or other of two types of event organizing activity. The first was related to sponsorship and involved research, proposal development, initial and subsequent meetings then on to holding the actual event. The second involved registration or customer service activity where bookings/registrations were taken and entered into databases, follow up communication occurred and then onto the event organising. In this sense it is possible to see from the patterns that many of the interns were focused on only a section of an event. From satisfaction levels indicated it can be determined that this was still challenging. Student satisfaction with their internships often hinged on the

extent of control they had over a particular project. Graduates on the other hand were generally given the whole task of running the events from scratch[2].

> The experience of experiential learning is invaluable however; it depends on your employers/workplace the level of experience gained. In my case it has been a broad ranging experience but constricted to my work places industry

Two survey items were asked to assess *personal fulfillment* and *enjoyment* from the internship. The first rating (table 1) 'it made me feel better about myself' (M=4.63) although positive was lower than that identified for Bennett et al (2003). This is likely because there was no service component to the internship and the concept 'better' may have appeared out of context for intern students. The second item 'my internship experience was enjoyable' had a reasonably positive rating (M= 5.05) indicating that for this group the experience overall was a positive one.

This was also the impression gained from recent graduates. Although these were students who had gained work within the industry and this may have positively skewed their perception of the process.

Discussion

Unlike findings in the Bennett et al (2003) study of Sport Management service experiences it appears that the level and duration of the internship programme within the Graduate Diploma in Event Management at CPIT did provide adequate challenge. Positive results for exposure suggest these students felt they learned much about the event industry and the skill sets required to be an effective worker within it. This was further reinforced by the interviews with graduates of the programme. One of the key findings of the study was the distillation of what was important 'experiential' learning. This was determined to be mainly business communications skills such as telephone manner, networking and letter writing tasks and not the very much more complex tasks of project management, complex integrated marketing and target analysis among others associated with much of the theory learning in this field. It appears that this familiarity with key tasks performed in the internship has lead to an increase in the confidence of students that they can perform and contribute within industry. It may be that they were in some way shielded from the more complex decisions but this is likely in the early part of an internship as their capabilities are assessed. As mentioned by some if they could not do the tasks they could at the very least observe them being done, or as was the case with one student read through the processes and documentation. Through adequate completion of a range of industry specific tasks such as scheduling, various planning roles, site and stage management and all types of client and stakeholder communication students argue they now have the confidence to be able to complete the required tasks when they are employed. This provides support for the notion of long duration internship programmes. Another surprising characteristic of this exploration was the degree of homogeneity in the

[2] It should be noted that two of the graduates worked in a company that gave full responsibility for events to each employee rather than disaggregate it.

tasks required of students and the degree to which these were focused on general business communication. Here there were differences for graduates who were now able to work on complete events having been through the process in internship of working on part of the event. The responses to theory practice links were also positive for this study accepting that there was a need for a good match between student and internship organization so that genuine interest of the student showed through. The positive response is to be expected given the weighting of 'experiential learning (65%) to theory 'classroom' learning at (35%) for the Graduate Diploma programme. What theory that was covered was grounded in practice, and this showed in the responses. There are some cautions attached to these findings in that the responses were favourable because there was a strong culture of acceptance of this type of learning. One reason for this was related to the average length of work experience of students prior to entry at 2-5 years. These students are much more familiar with industry and are likely to want concrete experience as their example, as opposed to abstract case material. Another was the fact that at least two thirds of the students had in the past completed theory based university degrees and applied to study event management primarily because they were able to access a substantial industry placement. One area not covered in this study was the role of the social sciences, leisure and social theory and how they might be learned and interpreted through an experiential learning process.

Conclusions

Given the recent growth of event management as a field of study much interest has been generated in the industry. The experiential learning process investigated here is an excellent example of one method of ensuring the training is realistic and placed in an appropriate learning context. The learning context needs to be acceptable to industry and this has become a problem. Industry wants, by its admission, people who are capable of doing the detail work, the repetitive tasks and the boring mundane roles that comprise the bulk of the work. Industry wants confident communicators as well. Many would argue that the best way to train people for the event management field is by giving them hands on practical experiences such as those expressed in this study. The theory of learning expressed by Kolb gives us an ability to place theory learning into a practical context. This if done correctly with the involvement of both academics and practitioners becomes a powerful event education experience that will have a lasting effect. A further more detailed longitudinal study could track progress of graduates trained via experiential learning as compared with classroom based learning.

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Training Event Leaders to Work in an Environment of Hot Action: The course development processes for mega events.*

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Abstract

Leadership theory is relevant to event managers during two distinct phases – the long lead up period to the event and the short period of operational implementation. During the operational phase, many events are also characterized by a large workforce of short-term volunteers and contractors. For this reason, organizers of mega events have concerns about motivation and potential attrition of paid, contractor and volunteer staff. *Event Leadership* training has been a key element of the overall training plan for the Summer and Winter Olympic Games as well as the Commonwealth Games.

This paper looks closely at the process of developing leadership training for the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games. It illustrates a number of issues relating to course development, including varied stakeholder positions; lack of outcome focus; and limited understanding of the context and situational variables at play in the unique event environment.

Introduction

After a five year interval following the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games, this may be a good time to respond to the training evaluation report produced by Tzelepi and Quick (2002). Their research reported on the effectiveness of a course called *Event Leadership* which was compulsory for all staff in supervisory and management positions at the Olympic Games. There are lessons in this account for anyone involved in training design for any event, particularly a large scale event such as a mega or hallmark event. The issues relate primarily to stakeholder involvement, conflicting ideas, tight deadlines and approvals which characterize many elements of event planning. This article, unlike the research on training outcomes conducted by Tzelepi and Quick, looks at the inputs, focusing on the training needs analysis and course development process.

This is a personal account from someone who was involved in the development of this course over a six month period, two years before the Games. Fortunately for all of us, pain is something that is hard to remember once one has well and truly recovered. It is only with the healing process of time, and the rosy afterglow of a highly successful mega event, that I am able to revisit the process of designing training for an Olympic Games.

In 1998 I was seconded to the Official Training Provider for the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games, a public provider, TAFE NSW. This organization was charged with developing and delivering all training required by SOCOG management in the lead up to the event and all Games related training. My early roles included a high level training needs analysis for the 110,000 workforce and the development of the *Event Leadership* course. This was a team effort, including TAFE as the training provider answerable in the main to SOCOG's Workforce Training Team. Cultural differences between these two bodies will be elaborated later.
There are a number of factors that make training difficult to design in the event environment, and it is hoped that this short paper will contribute to a better understanding of the many constraints, pitfalls and pleasures associated with this work.

Leadership theory and event management practice

Several perspectives on leadership can be gained from reviewing recent literature in this field. Three perspectives that are most relevant for event managers would be those analyzing the following three organizational contexts:

1. **The traditional business environment**

Most studies have looked at the topic of interpersonal influence and have focused the level of direct supervision. In particular, the emphasis has been on the character and style of the leader, the characteristics of followers and the impact of various situational variables on the leader's choice of appropriate style (Osborne, Hunt et al. 2002; Zaccaro and Horn 2003).

Hersey and Blanchard (1977) provide one such example, where the job maturity of the follower is shown to be an important consideration for choice of leadership style. These theorists suggest a 'telling style' for novice employees and a 'delegating style' for more job mature employees. This has relevance to some event environments in which the period of employment (or volunteering) covers a span of mere hours. Indeed, this highlights one significant difference between the event environment and that of the traditional business. As Shone and Parry (2004) describe it, events are generally short-life organizations.

> The issue for event managers, then, is about how to organize an effective event, possibly with a disparate range of people, whose reasons for being there may be social rather than commercial, and who will work towards an objective over a relatively short period of time without too much concern about the style of the organization they are working with (Shone and Parry 2004 p.194).

These authors point to several other situational variables, such as the scale of the event; profit/non-profit motive; level of volunteerism; team development opportunities (or lack thereof); stakeholder involvement and public support.

As Zaccaro and Horn (2003) have found, most studies have focused on direct leadership. At higher organizational levels however, leadership involves systems-wide influence. Studies and models of executive leadership are scarce. Mega events such as the Olympic Games would provide a fertile field of study, in Sydney's case demonstrating partnership and conflict between private and public sectors.

Finally, it must be pointed out that the average business environment can be described as stable or static if contrasted with that of the event operational environment which is essentially dynamic. It is also quite often a crisis context. Osborne, Hunt et al (2002) describe crisis contexts as those representing 'dramatic departure from prior practice and sudden threats to high priority goals with little or no response time' (p.800). Indeed Zaccaro and Horn (2003) use a descriptor that could often apply the event implementation phase, calling it 'the edge of chaos'. No doubt many event practitioners can identify with this.

2. The project management environment

The Project Management Body of Knowledge Guide (PMBOK® Guide 2000) characterizes projects as being temporary and unique, 'a project is a temporary endeavor undertaken to create a unique product or service' (p.4). The component processes of project management which include scope management, communications management and risk management are useful in event planning, offering a context for leadership which is deadline driven. However, the most common application of these principles is to Information Technology and Engineering projects, which may lack the creative element evident in many large event productions. Shone and Parry (2004) refer to the characteristics of events: uniqueness; perishability; intangibility; ritual and ceremony; ambience and service; personal contact and interaction, labour intensiveness; and fixed timescale.

As Christenson and Walker (2004) suggest, with greater structure comes 'greater rigidity in decision making, less creativity in problem solving and ultimately an advocacy positioning of stakeholders' (p.47). A potential risk in adopting PMBOK® type planning is thus rigidity. However, the authors advocate for the development of project vision 'that defines the project's soul so that it anchors project participants through their core values to a project outcome that all can relate to' (p.41). The topic of transformational leadership will be revisited later in this discussion, however the juxtaposition of formal project management principles and visionary leadership is an unusual one.

3. The environment of command and control

With increased threats to mass gatherings, emergency planning is vitally important and this lends itself to the military leadership concept of autocratic command and control. Here the rigidity and clarity of the structure ensures that standard procedures and instructions are followed to the letter. Most law enforcement organizations favor these traditional bureaucratic para-military structures. Evacuation procedures (as defined by Australian and international standards organizations) provide an example of well established command and control structures and standardized operating procedures (standing plans) that lend themselves to autocratic decision-making.

The study of transformational leadership

The evidence supporting the value of transformational leadership is wide ranging (Godard and Lenhardt 2000; Pawar 2004). Transformational leaders (while not necessarily charismatic) inspire their followers to transcend their own interests to meet the goals of the organization, and they motivate and empower their teams (Burns 1978). In the event environment this also entails a shared culture and management of stakeholder power relationships. Christenson and Walker (2004) suggest that while in many projects 'accepted critical success factors were absent at one time or another, a strong project vision may have been significantly responsible for the ultimate success of the project' (p.39). They go on to say that,

> What is particularly relevant to project organizations where multiple stakeholders have varying specific ideals of their desired project outcome is that a transformational leadership is insufficient by itself. Visions need to be communicated clearly and simply, often in terms of metaphor with a powerful visual image or sensual symbol of achievement that resonates with those stakeholders required to commit to delivering those outcomes (p.43).

The Training Needs Analysis for Event Leadership

The goal of developing an *Event Leadership* training course for the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games was to provide a highly motivated workforce that would be loyal, hard working and attentive to the needs of the athletes, spectators and other external

customers, as well as to the needs of internal customers working in other functional areas. Anxiety over volunteer and staff attrition was a significant consideration for planning recruitment and training for the Sydney Olympic Games. There were rumours of high attrition rates in Atlanta, over 20% in some areas, which in turn lead to poaching of accredited staff and volunteers. The population catchment for the 110,000 workforce in Sydney was much smaller than it had been for previous Olympic Games. For this reason, high levels of motivation and optimal retention were primary aims for the course.

However, as Tzelepi and Quick (2002) point out, demonstrating direct links between training and the achievement of corporate objectives is difficult since there are multiple variables at play. For example, recruitment of volunteers from country areas in order to 'free up' the Sydney workforce was one strategy that could be linked to the low attrition rate achieved in Sydney, reported variously as 'below 2% (English 2000), or 'around 3%'(Lynch 2005), and 4% (GamesInfo 2000). Whatever the final statistic, this was a low rate for an event of this size, where some level of attrition is inevitable and needs to be built into workforce planning. Indeed the outstanding performance of the volunteers was recognized by the IOC President,

> At the conclusion of the Games he said, 'They were the best, very well prepared, they always knew what to do. They have been, with the athletes, the most important part of these Olympics.' Dubbed the greatest success story of the Games, their commitment and skills were complemented by their warmth, positive attitude and patience (GamesInfo 2000).

While it would be pleasing to attribute at least part of this success to the leadership training undertaken this is not possible, particularly given the findings of Tzelepi and Quick,

> Regardless of the reasons why respondents attended the course, all had a strong expectation that they would gain specific skills and knowledge. However, although it can be concluded that they, more or less, gained the knowledge they were expecting, they were not universally satisfied with that which they obtained. The general impression was that the course was informative, and covered a variety of subjects, but did not result in the expected skill acquisition. (Tzelepi and Quick 2002 p.255)

The stated objectives of the program were to

- explain the generic role of the supervisor, the chain of command, and relevant venue terminology;
- describe the event environment in context of the Sydney 2000 Games;
- explain and identify the composition and management of the event workforce;
- appreciate the motivations and expectations of key stakeholders;
- explain the skills required to be an effective event leader;
- discuss the tools and tips currently used by event leaders to build and manage teams effectively; and
- appreciate the challenges facing event leaders based on real life scenarios taken from past events (TAFE 2000 p.3).

The course was a four hour program delivered to between 20 and 40 participants. One can immediately see that achievement of these course objectives in this amount of time, with an extremely diverse audience, was going be difficult to achieve. As an Olympic Games trainer, one knew that maintaining the participants' attention would always be problematic. If a participant could not see the value of the training within the first few minutes, he or she would leave to attend to other more directly relevant work. Others would disappear in response to phone calls or slide away during tea breaks. While this was not common, training had to be perceived to be more relevant to the individual at that moment than the demands facing them back at their desks or venues.

In terms of content, the course needed to establish the *context* for event leadership, as it differed from the conventional business environment. This was extremely difficult to do, given that the physical infrastructure for the event was still on the planning boards. Describing the frenetic environment of an event when venues reach full capacity was also challenging. A further part of the context was the integrated workforce of paid, volunteer and contractor staff. Participants in the training courses were really keen to get a feel for these contextual variables and this was difficult to do without authentic video materials from behind the scenes at previous events.

Who were the intended audience?

The training was a requirement for anyone who would undertake a leadership role during Games time. Everyone, whether supervising staff, volunteers or contractors, was required to attend *Event Leadership* training. In total the workforce consisted of 130,000 people, working together as one Gamesforce:

- 50,000 volunteers in 3,500 roles
- 3,500 paid staff and
- 76,500 contractor staff.

In total 2282 participants attended *Event Leadership* training. This figure does not include customized *Event Leadership* training delivered to other organizations 'outside the tent', those outside of the SOCOG selected workforce, such as sponsor employees.

Who were the stakeholders?

The two major players involved in designing the training course were the SOCOG Workforce Training Team and the Official Training Provider, TAFE NSW. Differences in training approaches became immediately apparent when any form of pre-reading or assessment was precluded by SOCOG. Indeed, as the project progressed, the design moved back and forth along a continuum of entertainment and skill/knowledge acquisition. This entertainment focus was understandable, given SOCOG's aim to achieve an upbeat, positive and highly motivated workforce. The organization worked hard to develop a culture that was loyal, committed, enthusiastic and patriotic and this needed to be built into the training across most courses. TAFE NSW, as a public training provider, was keen to build in real knowledge acquisition and skill development in order to leave a training legacy after the Games. However, achievement in terms of formal college curriculum or national competency standards was not feasible. This created some

healthy discussions in all training design phases. Tourism Training Victoria has undertaken a detailed study of several key events in preparation for the Melbourne Commonwealth Games in 2006. In this they have identified this cultural clash,

> From the outset there were misgivings in some quarters about the selection of TAFE NSW. These seem largely related to the image of TAFE as a conservative, public, traditional provider of vocational training ….On the overwhelmingly positive side, the scope of TAFE operations, its broad community commitment and the availability of both human and physical resources meant that the organization was able to effectively respond to the massive scale of the training challenge posed by 3500 different job descriptions. (Tourism Training Victoria 2002 p.45).

The Volunteer Advisory Committee had a role to play as did the Human Resources staff in SOCOG who were developing policy and undertaking recruitment. The TAFE NSW team was answerable to the Department of Education and Training (DET); various special committees; and to their curriculum development units.

Many other stakeholders were interested in the program, including sponsors such as IBM and Telstra who modified the program for their own use. The majority of participants had little or no experience in an event environment.

How was the training needs analysis conducted?

The training needs analysis for this course included:

- document analysis of training courses for other major events
- discussions with volunteering associations
- focus groups with experienced event leaders
- focus groups with stakeholders
- discussions with Pioneer Volunteers (working with SOCOG for 3 years prior to 2000)
- analysis of related short courses in leadership
- environment scanning to identify features of the event environment
- text based research on the topics of leadership and the event environment.

The focus group session with the experienced event leaders was the most productive. After brainstorming the potential components of this course, these were then clustered and individuals assigned weightings to each cluster to establish priorities. Contributions were meticulously recorded.

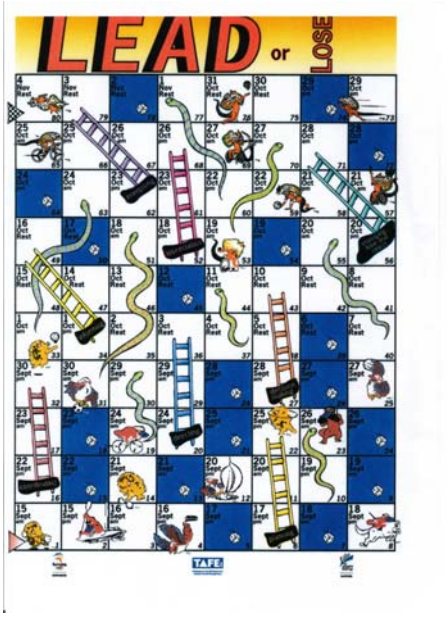
How did the course emerge and obtain approval?

The long process of development then commenced and the course went through many revisions. The course outline and draft material was circulated within SOCOG and TAFE and a great deal of feedback received and incorporated. Detailed feedback was obtained from at least 20 readers. Like any committee process, it was difficult to maintain

coherence when this level of consultation occurred. As with all other training materials, once approved by the SOCOG Workforce Training Team and the various TAFE players (for example, checked for inclusive language relating to disability and cultural awareness), the final product had to be approved by SOCOG's editorial staff. This was a process of checking the language, use of official terms, use of acronyms etc that needed to be consistent with their style guide. Most problematic was the fact that the SOCOG style guide was not complete by the time the first course was piloted. In particular, a video on the topic of *Event Leadership* was produced on a very small budget. Just when it was thought complete, SOCOG objected to the colours in the model developed, the segments of which had been animated. By then SOCOG had selected colour schemes for the style guide and the video had to be reworked at a significant cost. The *Event Leadership* course went through multiple pilots and revisions before being achieving the final go-ahead.

What were the most successful components of the course?

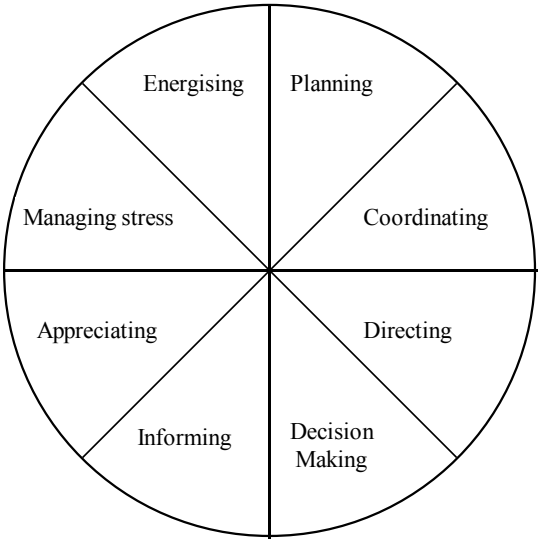
One component of the course was a snakes and ladders game which was designed to introduce some of the scenarios an event leader might face. The squares on the board were given dates corresponding to the Olympic and Paralympic Games, starting with Opening Ceremony and finishing with Closing Ceremony, thus developing awareness of the temporal context of the event. Scenarios, both positive and negative, were needed to make the game work, and these were provided by the earlier training needs analysis. All participating staff with operational experience contributed examples of scenarios that might face an event leader, such as a volunteer abandoning an important post. Other negative scenarios included staff shortages and redeployment. However, at the time, SOCOG faced criticism by the media in several areas including the ticketing process, this being dubbed as the 'ticketing debacle'. An edict was therefore issued that the negative scenarios be removed for fear that a reporter pick up the potential problem and sensationalize it. The level of realism achieved in the final game was thus toned down considerably. Despite this the game was a popular feature that led to many team discussions.



The component of the course valued most by trainers and participants was the *Event Leadership* model, illustrated in Figure 1. Fortunately this model survived the rigorous review process by multiple stakeholders and contributed to a better appreciation of the roles of leaders in informing; appreciating, managing stress and energizing the workforce. The people management dimension of this model was well received by all participants who were anxious to find out how best to approach leadership in the midst of 'hot action' (Beckett and Hager 2002) while working with a mostly unfamiliar, temporary team. The roles on the right side of the model were mainly task related while

those on the left were people focused. Focus group participants providing input during the training needs analysis developed this model.

Figure 1 Event Leadership Model
(Source: Event Leadership Participant Manual, TAFE NSW 2000)



To illustrate the model's application, during the game playing exercise and video, leaders realized that appreciation strategies needed to be planned in advance. For example, several teams working on volunteer recognition decided that memorabilia would be an important motivator for the volunteers. Photographs of the 'I was there' variety were highly sought after, particularly as volunteers were not allowed to carry cameras or take photos. As a result, many supervisors took photos of staff working and posted them on notice boards each day. While many recognition strategies can be implemented spontaneously, some require planning, in this case it was a budget for the photography and a person assigned to processing (this was prior to the era of digital cameras).

As Sandy Hollway (2000) pointed out, 'the achievement was all the more [commendable] because we started from no legacy of management information passed to us from previous Games' (Hollway 2000).

Training outcomes

TAFE NSW distributed feedback sheets at the end of each course, and the response to these was overwhelmingly positive, 53% agreed and 41% strongly agreed that the course was effective (TAFE 2000). Comments included:

- the best feature was the situational model based on the event management experience
- the game at the end was well designed and presented
- the scenarios were helpful
- the expertise of those on the video and the presenter contributed to the success of the course
- the volunteer insights and real stories were the best part

However the use of 'happy sheets' following training has little relevance to outcomes on the job. This is particularly true when training is conducted out of context, days and weeks prior to the event. Optimal learning conditions for applied knowledge and skill are not available. This is one of the many challenges for event training. Furthermore, as Tzelepi and Quick point out (2002), the course had limited relevance to those who were managers in their previous jobs and those with postgraduate degrees and who suggested that the course lacked substance.

Future training in Event Leadership

Earlier this paper discussed leadership theories and their links to the general context or environment in which leadership is played out, such as in business, project management and the military. Looking closer, at the many situational variables that impact on a choice of leadership approach, the course design team attempted to elaborate more specifically the types of scenarios that a supervisor might face. Many participants expressed this need in terms of 'tell us what it is going to be like', 'what can we expect?' and 'how is it going to be different?'

Leadership theorists, particularly those in the contingency school of leadership, stress the importance of decision making based on a number of situational variables. Many contingency theories of leadership (Stogdill and Coons 1951; Fiedler 1967; Zaccaro and Horn 2003) divide leadership functions into two main types: task leadership directly concerned with the tasks involved in the achievement of the group goals; and maintenance leadership concerned with positive relationships in the group.
Contingency theorists argue that a successful leader is able to change their style of leadership depending on the circumstances and needs of the group. Thus an effective leader must be able to analyse the group situation to determine the most appropriate style and then have the skills to lead the group accordingly. Nixon (1979) suggests seven situational factors that should be considered when determining an appropriate style, being:

- expectations of the leader by group members;
- the way the leader is appointed;
- whether there is competition for leadership;
- needs, tasks and goals of the group;
- task and socio-emotional skills of group members;
- the nature of authority within the group; and
- environmental demands.

Toseland and Rivas (1998) further refined this model focusing on six interdependent factors that should be considered when leading a group. These factors are listed below:

- the purpose of the group
- type of task
- the environment, including the physical setting
- the group as a whole (size, time limits, dynamics, stage of development)
- group members' characteristics and the extent of participation in the group
- the group leader.

Of these, the stage of group development may be particularly relevant to the event leader. Unlike most other business environments, the event leader may work with a group for a few hours or at best a few days. There is little opportunity for working through the stages of development forming, storming, norming, performing and adjourning suggested by Tuckman and Jensen (1977) in one of the most widely accepted and still popular models of group development. This linear model of group development is however contested. White, McMillen and Baker (2001) point out that traditional models of group development have focused on particular perspectives and excluded others, namely those of feminist theorists and women in groups. These authors argue for a more inclusive model which looks more broadly and deeply at the context for the group. It would therefore appear that the wider ranging contextual factors suggested by Toseland and Rivas (1998) would be more appropriate as a theoretical basis for analyzing group development in the event environment.

Recommendations

A number of recommendations emerge in relation to developing future programs including more systematic research.

1. Leadership research

Zaccaro and Horn (2003) suggest that effective leadership theory and practice symbiosis can emerge from research that includes multiple methodologies. In particular, they suggest that grounded theory is a useful tool to identify social processes and dynamics that drive activity within context, 'this highly contextualized method of generating theory capitalizes on the tacit knowledge and phenomenological experiences offered by the [event] practitioner, but organizes data and derives concepts according to the rules of validity and scientific verifiability required by the researcher' (Zaccaro and Horn 2003 p.788).

2. Developing scenario based training

Problem based training approaches suggest that one of the best ways to implement training is to develop realistic scenarios (ideally videotaped from actual events) which can illustrate the *spatial* development of the event (bump in and bump out processes); the *temporal* context of limited time; the *diverse* nature of the workforce; and the varied and unanticipated demands faced by event leaders. These are just a few situational variables (Shone and Parry 2004) that need to be elaborated in a realistic way.

3. Providing experience with temporary groups

Application of knowledge and skills in an environment of temporary teams can be simulated. Goal attainment should be part of this simulation with the occasional crisis thrown in. For example, this could include simulation of banquet food preparation or production bread baking. Experts in experiential learning would find it relatively simple to provide this high pressure team environment. In more realistic contexts, such as test events, leaders can be mentored as their skills are tested in increasingly more challenging situations (Zaccaro and Horn 2003).

4. **Using control groups to compare training outcomes**

In Sydney there was a 'bail out' of a number of staff in the month before the Games in anticipation of a flooded labour market post Games. Thus training undertaken in the lead up to the Games was undertaken by some key personnel who left before the event. There were no figures relating to the number of leaders who had not undertaken leadership training or control group to make comparisons. A control group of teams led by untrained supervisors could be considered for future studies to evaluate training effectiveness. Progressive course evaluation during its delivery to this large audience could also contribute to program effectiveness.

In depth analysis in the form of qualitative research would also contribute to a better understanding of practitioner perspectives and outcomes.

5. **Applying transformational leadership**

The level of public and media support for a mega or hallmark event inevitably contributes to the organization's ability to convey the 'project vision' to the workforce. The importance of simple and clear communication of the event vision at all levels of the event organization cannot be understated, for all events regardless of their size. This singular message can contribute to the convergence of stakeholder interests and a high level of commitment which is needed to pull off a major event which has an immovable deadline (Christenson and Walker 2004). These concepts need to be developed during training which could be better delivered by stratifying participants and modifying the program for different and more senior organizational levels.

Summary

In their study, Tzelepi and Quick (2003) used the strategic constituencies approach, with a focus on the course participants and their perceptions of course effectiveness. As these authors point out, the effectiveness of training is extremely difficult to measure in terms of organizational outcomes. In this paper, the interests of the various stakeholders have been described, including the inevitable emerging conflicts over course design. This is common with many other aspects of event planning, requiring negotiation and approval at every stage of the process. Often the process is concluded only when the deadline for implementation occurs. The risk for training design, as for many other aspects of event planning, is that the involvement of numerous stakeholders delays development and muddies the waters. Without clear aims and objectives this can lead to the development of inferior, committee designed processes and products. Dynamic, visionary leadership is required to develop quality training outcomes which, while negotiated, also maintain their integrity. Further, considerable research is needed,

> The effective integration of leadership theory and practice needs to be grounded in an ongoing dialogue between researchers and practitioners that respects the values, perspectives and agendas of each constituency....If such interaction and dialogue can begin to be effective, then we suspect that the leadership community (as a whole) will begin to experience more

> problems that are informed by concepts, and more theories molded by contextual realities. The gap between leadership theory and practice should, in turn, begin to narrow to a close. (Zaccaro and Horn 2003 p.799).

This is something we can hope for in the dynamic and challenging context of Event Leadership.

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Large Scale Sporting Events and Education for Sustainable Development *

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Abstract

The concept of sustainable development, "development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (World Commission and Environment and Development, 1987), emerged in the 1970's and 1980's. It's origins lay in concerns within industrialised nations that patterns of production and consumption were not sustainable in terms of the earth's capacity to support them (UNESCO, 2005). Today, the challenge posed by the concept of sustainable development represents, as Kofi Annan, Secretary General of the United Nations, has noted, "our biggest challenge in this new century…" (UNESCO, 2005).

Education has a central role to play in humanity's response to the challenge of sustainable development, so much so that UN General Assembly declared the decade from 2005 to 2015 the UN Decade of Education for Sustainable Development (UNESCO, 2005). In making this declaration the UN also proposed seven major strategies by which this initiative could be progressed by stakeholders from the International to sub-national level, including government, business, non-government organisations and the media. These strategies relate to: advocacy and vision building; consultation and ownership; partnerships and networks; capacity building and training; research and innovation; use of information and communication technologies; and monitoring and evaluation (UNESCO, 2005: 28-29). The general intent of this study is to explore the potential of large scale sporting events to act as a mechanism by which their host communities, and selected stakeholder groups within those communities, can engage with these strategies.

The approach proposed for this research involves the use of two case studies, the Sydney Olympic Games of 2000 and the Melbourne Commonwealth Games of 2006. Both of these events have embraced a sustainable development framework for the purposes of their planning and delivery, and as an aspect of this, have defined objectives as regards education. Additionally both are recent in nature and as such should reflect current practice in this area. The Sydney Games, it should be noted, remains the benchmark for "green" Olympic Games after the poor showing of Athens in 2004 (World Wide Fund for Nature, 2004). Given that both events will have taken place within a single country separated by some six years, the opportunity will be present to compare the extent to which progress within a single national community has occurred in terms of the leveraging of large scale public events for environmental education purposes.

This paper begins by providing a context for the proposed study, and in so doing explores the link between large scale public events and sustainable development in general, and education for sustainable development in particular. As part of this exploration, both the Olympic Games and Commonwealth Games will be overviewed from the perspective of their specific actions in this area. The primary research problem,

and its associated objectives, will then be stated, before providing an overview of the study's methodology. Preliminary findings relating to the study's objectives will then be discussed.