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AUSTRALIAN CENTRE FOR EVENT MANAGEMENT
EVENTS & PLACE MAKING

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Australian Centre for Event Management

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EVENTS AND PLACE MAKING

PROCEEDINGS OF INTERNATIONAL EVENT RESEARCH CONFERENCE HELD IN SYDNEY JULY 2002

EDITED BY

LEO JAGO, MARG DEERY, ROBERT HARRIS, ANNE-MARIE HEDE AND

JOHNNY ALLEN

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PREFACE

JOHNNY ALLEN

CONFERENCE CONVENOR

AUSTRALIAN CENTRE FOR EVENT MANAGEMENT

The first event research conference was held in July 2000 and was titled Events Beyond 2000: Setting the Agenda. The focus of this conference was on identifying and analysing the existing research on events, and creating an event research agenda for the future. The conference attracted an excellent mix of event practitioners, government representatives and academics from Australia and overseas. At the end of the conference, there was a strongly supported motion to stage the conference every two years.

Much of the first conference focused on the economic impacts of events, which have now been well documented. Whilst the economic benefits of events are very important to many host destinations, there are other dimensions to events that need to be explored, especially those related to the social and cultural impacts of events.

The second conference is themed on *Events and Place Making*. It examines the use of events to build communities and to brand destinations, as well as related themes of event management strategies, marketing, operations, human resources, volunteering and event research issues. The conference includes keynote addresses by Peter Kenyon and John Aitken, and a presentation of the inaugural International Prize for paper introduced by Dr Joe Jeff Goldblatt. In addition, there are thirty four papers by academics and industry practitioners which support the overall themes of the conference.

CONFERENCE PAPERS

The Conference Editorial Committee comprised Leo Jago, Marg Deery, Rob Harris, Anne-Marie Hede and Johnny Allen. There are two categories of papers that were considered for this conference, namely, full papers and working papers. The full papers, which were only accepted after meeting the requirements of a ‘double-blind review process’, are published in full in the proceedings. For each of the working papers, an abstract is included in the proceedings.

As can be seen in the proceedings, there are papers covering many of the non-economic dimensions of special events, especially as they relate to developing communities and giving them a sense of place.

The Conference Editorial Committee is much indebted to the support provided by the following referees who reviewed the many manuscripts submitted for this conference:

Johnny Allen	Leo Jago
Melinda Anderson	John Jenkins
Charles Arcodia	Louise Johnson
Sue Beeton	Pandora Kay
Graham Brown	Adele Ladkin

Barry Burgan
Jack Carlsen
Frances Cassidy
Laurence Chalip
Diana Chessell
Jenny Craik
Jenny Davies
Marg Deery
Ros Derrett
Larry Dwyer
Deborah Edwards
David Foster
Liz Fredline
Warwick Frost
Donald Getz
Sue Gillet
Chris Green
Rob Harris
Anne-Marie Hede
Julie Jackson
Meredith Lawrence
Leonie Lockstone
Vivienne McCabe
Stephanie Miller
Trevor Mules
Danny O’Brien
Rob Pascoe
Ian Patterson
Michael Pearlman
Shane Pegg
Bruce Prideaux
Greg Richards
Brent Ritchie
Lee Slaughter
Robyn Stokes
Carmen Tideswell
Gerry Treuren
Michelle Whitford
Jeff Wilks

Special thanks go also to Cathy Gutierrez who had the enormous task of compiling the papers, and to Kate Williams who proof-read all of the papers.

Given the productive mix of academic, government and industry representatives established by the first conference, there is huge potential for productive discussion within the framework of the conference. In order to encourage and allow for this, each of the concurrent sessions has been allocated a convenor and a generous provision of time for questions and discussions. It is hoped that strongly supporting interaction and discussion will assist the conference to make a meaningful contribution to the growing body of knowledge of the event industry.

Finally, the Australian Centre for Event Management at the University of Technology, Sydney would like to acknowledge and thank our partners and sponsors, the CRC in Sustainable Tourism, Victoria University, the Alan Shawn Feinstein Graduate School of the Johnson & Wales University, the NSW Department of State and Regional Development, the New South Wales Major Events Board, Resource NSW and Visy Closed Loop for their generous assistance and support of the conference.

Johnny Allen, July 2002

KEYNOTE

PRESENTATIONS

Role of Special Events in Rural Revitalisation

PETER KENYON

BANK OF I D.E.A.S.

Abstract

Recent census figures highlight the continuous haemorrhaging of small inlands towns in terms of loss of population, young people, services and business. However, there is a growing number of communities that have reversed this trend. In fact they are not just surviving, but beginning to thrive again, both economically and socially.

They have discovered the key elements of building and sustaining a healthy and enterprising community. They have engaged in positive community economic development – processes and strategies that create and sustain three interrelated activities, namely economic development, resource stewardship and community capacity building.

Peter Kenyon’s presentation will seek to demystify and illustrate these strategies and processes through the experiences of four small traditional rural inland towns that have successfully embraced change, namely Harrow, Hyden, Balingup and Wagin. In particular, each story will highlight the growing importance of rural tourism, and in

particular the activity of staging special events to attract visitors and stimulate local economic initiative.

Each community, following a process of identifying their unique strengths, points of difference, capacity and heritage have implemented and managed successful special events. Which have contributed in significant ways to build civic pride, community capacity, social capacity, local leadership and a sense of place. In all cases, the events have had a major positive impact on the local economy, business development and spirit of entrepreneurialism.

Peter’s presentation will briefly illustrate a number of tools which communities have utilised.

Finally, the final part of Peter’s presentation will summarise the common and key factors which have contributed to the success of these events, and the growing challenges they face to sustain such initiatives.

The Role of Events in the Promotion of Cities

An eclectic collection of thoughts and deliberations on events and celebration, the human spirit, tourism and economics, a sense of place and commune!

JOHN AITKEN

JOHN AITKEN PRODUCTIONS

Abstract

Wherever the human spirit is free, people gather together and celebrate, spurred on by a wonderful sense of commune!

From time to time, a common humanity in us all inspires us to set aside the work and worry of every day life and blossom into festivity!

"Words alone are inadequate to express the feelings of this old battered veteran ……… my life will never quite be the same again. I laughed, I cried, I clapped, I cheered, but all through my stay I felt loved." Max Williams WWII Veteran referring to VP50 Festival Townsville 1995.

"It was the best week of my life." William B. Morse WWII Veteran Portland, Oregon, USA. referring to VP50 Festival Townsville 1995.

As an individual and within the structure of my Event Company I have spent the last 22 years of my life attempting to 'Master the Art of Celebration'! Today I hope to give you not so much an academically inspired paper of researched wisdom and perceived truth, but rather an eclectic collection of thoughts and stories based upon my personal experiences of celebration, the human spirit, tourism and economics, a sense of place and commune.

As exampled by the opening quotations, events and celebration are an expression of the human spirit, a vital part of very being. As Neil Cameron in his book, Maleny Folk Festival points out

'*Maleny Folk Festival is a descendant of festivals which happened in ancient times, and shares characteristics with festivals still held in places as far afield as Africa and Asia. It is a present day version of traditional festivals held throughout the world, festivals which have striven to express the deepest feelings in our human condition.'**

The role of events and celebrations such as those referred to by Neil Cameron have changed and evolved through time in keeping with the development of civilization as we know it today. The life of the tribe or village community has developed into a far more complex urban sprawl and our once strong rituals and spiritual beliefs intrinsically linked to the seasonal cycles of our natural surrounds have been replaced by a more homogenous urban global sprawl wired up, digitalized, packaged, marketed and sold to us on the latest electronic medium.

This has not necessarily made redundant the principles and thoughts expressed so eloquently by Ronald Grimes

*‘A public celebration is a rope bridge of knotted symbols strung across an abyss. We make our crossing hoping that the chasm will echo our festival sounds for a moment, as a bridge begins to sway from the rhythm of our dance.’**

And this from Joseph Campbell

*‘The Festival is an extension into the present of the world…………… the whole purpose of entering a sanctuary or participating in a festival is that one should be overtaken by that state known in India as ‘The Other Mind’……where fun, joy and rapture rule and the laws of life in time and space dissolve.’**

** Extracts from Maleny Folk Festival by Neil Cameron*

Over the last few decades, ‘Eventing’ and the terminology that has been applied to Events and Celebrations has become a little less poetic and spiritual in nature, and a whole lot more economic and strategic. Since the 1980’s the trend has been for governments encouraged to embraced events for their potential to drive big business, vehicles upon which both desired realities and perceptions of the government of the day can be driven. Economic resurgence, an economic driver via tourism; community and cultural development; the building, strengthening and maintaining of a destination’s unique brand; the incentive to undertake enormous urban renewal and or event infrastructure developments. In fact Events and all that they bring have become highly political in nature and offer governments and communities qualitative testament to their perceived quality of lifestyle, societal sophistication, and level of government services.

Prof Donald Getz visit to Australia in the early 90's and in his book Event Management and Event Tourism provided a more contemporary outlook including his own Event terminology such as Hallmark Events, Franchised Events, etc. Prof Getz proved to be a pioneer in the development of modern event classification, strategy definition and education. Today's conference convener Johnny Allen, in conjunction with his academic peers, has provided the Event Industry in Australia with an excellent and concise 'A to Z' of Event Management in their book Festival and Special Event Management also providing definitions of events based upon what they offer the host community in economic, social and cultural terms.

'The term 'special events' has been coined to describe specific rituals, presentations, performances or celebrations that are consciously planned and created to mark special occasions or to achieve particular social, cultural or corporate goals and objectives.'*

Mega, Hallmark and Major Events are classifications that Johnny and his associates use to qualify the size of impact that these projects provide for their host communities and he also talks about the birth of an Event Industry over the last twenty years that has bought us to where we are today.

So what has been the impact of this economic rationalization and categorization of events, is this just a change of perception, a harnessing of the potential of events by a bunch of academics and bureaucrats or have we all totally lost the plot in our quest for securing government and industry confidence and support; have we sold out all that is wholesome and good about events in order to meet the agendas of the day? Or did this formalization of procedures and exercise of navel gazing happen out of necessity as the event organisers sought to review and improve their skills base and abilities in order to secure their artform's future in what is a highly competitive, fast, materialistic and fluid world. May I contest that the truth lies somewhere in the middle of all of this for as we have become smarter and more professional in our approach, underpinning the development of an events industry with strong economic principles and sound management, but at the same time we have begun to loose touch with the human spirit, our community's desires and the vitally important roles that celebration can provide a community. So how do we correct this skewing of priorities and focus? Who is doing it better than others? Does this mean that I need to get more in touch with my inner self and being?

The long term success of any event is underpinned by the Event Organiser's ability to create and constantly maintain a sustainable delicate balance between the politics of the day and the relevant ancient deep rooted traditions of all that makes us wonderfully human!

INTERNATIONAL PRIZE FOR PEACE THROUGH EVENTS PAPER

Peace Through Events: A SWOT Analysis

The Winning Paper for the Peace Through Events International Prize awarded by the Alan Shawn Feinstein Graduate School, Johnson and Wales University

IAN KELLY

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AUSTRALIA

Abstract

This paper extends the debate on the potential for tourism to contribute to the Peace objective by examining the role of events. A SWOT (strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats) analysis suggests that many events contribute nothing or are counterproductive in this context, but that certain events create conditions conducive to interaction and sharing of experiences. It is submitted that such events should receive encouragement and support, and recommendations for purposeful achievement of these are provided.

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> ‘Citizens who cultivate their humanity need … an ability to see themselves as not simply citizens of some local region or group, but also, and above all, as human beings bound to all others by ties of recognition and concern’ (Nussbaum, 1997, p38).

The objective implicit in the above quotation was confirmed by a number of speakers at the Third Global Conference of the International Institute for Peace Through Tourism (IIPT) (held in Glasgow in October,1999) which was directed to initiating ‘A 21st Century Agenda for Peace through Tourism’. It was suggested at the Conference (Kelly, 1999) that the creation of such an Agenda must be preceded by a SWOT analysis, a procedure generally carried out before the development of a business plan. It involves a detailed examination of the strengths and weaknesses of the business organization, and the opportunities and threats in the environment within which it operates. The ‘business’ to be examined in the analysis was the ability of tourism to contribute to ‘a harmonious relationship’ (Var et al, 1994, p30) among the peoples of the world.

It is recognized by a number of commentators (eg, Tomljenovic and Faulkner, 2000) that, despite serious shortcomings, tourism has the potential to facilitate contacts of the desired nature. It is also recognized that there are other forces such as aid organizations, institutions for conflict resolution and Rotary International more clearly directed to working for peaceful relationships at various levels.

In discussions of the role tourism might play, the potential of events to contribute to the peace objective has not received much attention. Of the 135 papers and reports presented at the above Conference, only one was concerned with events. Janson (1999) outlined problems which developed as the Central Pennsylvania Festival of the Arts grew over the years from its commencement in 1967. These problems stemmed primarily from local community resentment over increasing out-of-state involvement, rising prices for exhibitors' products and an orientation favoring higher-spending visitors. However, since 1993, the People's Choice Festival, featuring locally crafted, reasonably priced products, has been run in parallel with the Central Festival, and this appears to have met the concerns of the community, increased the number of visitors and enhanced the economic benefits generated.

The mission statements associated with some events imply peace-related goals, but these usually have a specific focus, for example on women's rights or revolutionary literature. In Australia, events such as the Sydney Harbour Bridge Walk in 2001 have been directed to encouraging the reconciliation process, but these have little or no tourism significance. There are numerous references to social and cultural impacts in journal articles and textbooks on events (eg, Walsh-Heron and Stevens, 1990; Getz, 1991; McDonnell et al, 1999; Van Der Wagen, 2001) but they tend to focus primarily on economic advantage, management and marketing. A conference held in Sydney, Australia in July 2000 ('Events Beyond 2000: Setting the Agenda') included papers on similar issues, with a few touching on cultural and environmental impacts, education and training, and measuring customer satisfaction. None of the listed texts or conference papers makes specific mention of peace as an event objective.

However, the above authors note that festivals and events have been elements of community tradition for a long time, are growing in number and variety, and are increasingly linked with tourism. It is, therefore, appropriate to examine the extent to which events might contribute to the peace objective, defined for the purposes of this paper, as a state of harmonious relationship among the people of the world. Although events attracting international visitors are deemed of major importance, there is recognition of the role played by local events in contributing to harmonious relationships among people of differing backgrounds within a country.

It should be noted that, in the following analysis, the term ‘event’ is used for visitor attractions that are staged infrequently and are of short duration. According to Getz (1991) events are distinguished by openness to the public, a central theme, infrequent occurrence, and predetermined opening and closing dates. They may make use of permanent structures, comprise a number of activities, and be associated with a particular district or region. Events are commonly based on sporting activities (racing, tournaments and carnivals), festivals (commemorative, entertainment, cultural and special theme), business and community interests (conventions, exhibitions and agricultural shows) and political affairs (state and government special occasions).

The SWOT Analysis

1. Strengths

The strengths are those attributes of events which bring people together in circumstances conducive to goodwill and improved understanding among them.

Mega-events such as the Olympic Games attract many thousands of visitors and command the attention of billions through media broadcasts and reports. Contact between host community and visitors is not confined to those attending an event, but usually extends throughout the destination area as visitors make use of accommodation and other facilities, and indulge in sightseeing and shopping.

Unlike mainstream tourist attractions, some events have the advantage of being ‘footloose’, in the sense that they need not be tied to a particular location. Dance and musical and theatre groups are taken on tour, and provide audiences around the world with a taste of a culture different from their own. For example, in 1997 Australians gained an insight into Japanese culture through a Sumo Wrestling championship held in Melbourne and Sydney. There are also those, such as the Edinburgh Festival (Scotland), which demonstrate how a cohesive program can be developed in one location by involving participants from a range of countries.

Events can also be freed from temporal restraints, and are widely used to reduce fluctuations in visitation levels or encourage visitation by market segments such as retirees who are not bound by work commitments. The goodwill of the general public in affluent societies is sometimes called upon in the form of events mounted to raise funds for specific causes such as disaster relief and refugee support.

In recent times, the attractive power of events has been greatly enhanced by the growth of an ‘events industry’ (McDonnell et al, 1999) comprising individuals and organisations devoted to the development of facilities (often with government funding) and the promotion of destinations as sites for events. Professionalism in the industry is encouraged by the provision of courses in educational institutions and representation and supervision by industry associations.

However, the contributory ability of events cannot be measured merely by the numbers of visitors or the expertise with which they are organized. Are there event attributes which help people from different social and cultural backgrounds to understand and empathize with each other?

It is widely submitted that community pride and internal relationships may be strengthened through involvement in mounting an event, and visitors may acquire greater understanding and appreciation of the community traditions and way of life. Small-scale events such as village festivals draw visitors from surrounding districts and may help give visitors from urban areas a more accurate perception of rural life. This aspect of events may best be seen in local wine and food festivals, usually heavily dependent on voluntary inputs, and providing a means by which communities can confirm and communicate pride in their local products.

An illustrative example at the local level is South Australia’s Barossa Vintage Festival. This is Australia’s oldest wine festival, an event which has been mounted every second year since 1947. It is presented as a commemoration of the region’s heritage, expressed in fine wine, food, music and art and is organized by a committee, with the support of over one thousand volunteers from the local community. Visitors are attracted from overseas, interstate and the nearby urban area of Adelaide. The success of the Festival is attributed to the partnership of winegrowers, tourism interests and the general community, and to the quality of the experience offered to visitors (Salter, 1998).

Another strength of some events is the perception of authenticity attached to them. There are many events – such as those involving local foods, wines and craftwork - at which a visitor can see or even participate in a genuine manifestation of the local community way of life. Although they are obviously staged, historical re-enactments, if faithfully rendered, can contribute to a visitor's understanding of a community's formative influences.

In short, the strengths of events in the current context lie in their ability to bring large numbers of people together in circumstances where they can share experiences with and learn to look at the world through the eyes of others. However, it must be emphasized that these attributes can be deemed strengths only insofar as they contribute to the goal of a more harmonious world. Unfortunately, the strengths may be insufficient or may not always work in the desired direction.

2. Weaknesses

Weaknesses relate to those attributes of events which hinder the achievement of the desired outcomes and may even contribute to hostility and division among people.

In late 2001, those responsible for the planning and promotion of the 2002 Adelaide Festival of the Arts invited the general public to consider the arts as a civilizing influence with the power to create a better world. Promotion was developed around the question: What difference would it have made if Adolf Hitler had not been rejected by the art college in which he had attempted to enroll as a student? To their surprise, the organizers were accused of glorifying Hitler, government figures expressed concern, and the major sponsor threatened to withdraw support. The festival director resigned, a new one was appointed and a less challenging advertising theme was adopted.

This was not Adelaide’s first experience of event-generated community division. Before the event was lost to Melbourne, Adelaide hosted the Formula One Grand Prix, presented by the State Government as a major revenue raiser, and supported by a large proportion of the city population. However, there was opposition from those who condemned the event as noisy, wasteful, polluting and responsible for the ‘hoon’ effect among young drivers, and from residents who were disadvantaged by noise and the interruption to normal traffic movement during the race period. In Melbourne, too, the race organisers have been faced with strident protests from residents seeking to protect the park area in which the event is held.

These examples demonstrate that some events divide rather than unite a community, and may be tolerated only because of their economic input. Indeed, it may be that events dedicated to attracting large numbers of visitors and generating substantial revenues – that is, those most valued by governments and the events industry - are least likely to contribute to harmony within and among communities. It is apparent that some mega-events such as the Olympic Games, encourage individual ethnocentrism and competition among nations rather than a world view and a spirit of cooperation. Furthermore, it is likely that some potential visitors interested in acquiring a better understanding of the host community will be discouraged by the crowding and increased costs associated with such events (de Souto, 1993).

However, even events of a more positive nature are limited in their impact for a number of reasons. Although attendance at an event may provide visitors with intercultural contacts, the experience is fleeting and still relatively superficial. In addition, certain events, particularly festivals, are valued because they emphasize the differences, rather than the commonality, between hosts and visitors, a generally divisive process referred to as ‘othering’ (Hollinshead, 1998). Events may also share with mainstream tourism a condition of inequality between host and visitor – a condition not conducive to the kind of relationship desired.

It appears, then, that while events may be a major factor in the success of a destination’s tourism industry, there are many which contribute only economic advantage, and which may even create division and reinforce pre-existing prejudices.

3. Opportunities

Opportunities are elements of the wider environment which may serve to enhance the strengths of events as contributors to harmony.

The Snowy Mountains, a regional tourism area in New South Wales, is a well-known destination for winter sports. However, the local tourism authority has been seeking to promote the area to spring, summer and autumn visitors on the basis of its varied and scenic natural environment. An association spokesperson (Last, 2001) reported on plans to mount a hallmark event – the Snowy Mountains Muster - based on the theme of the Banjo Paterson poem, ‘The Man From Snowy River’ and taking advantage of the popular television series of the same name. The goal was to create a feeling of regional cohesion and ownership among the tourism operators and the wider community, and establish the region as an Australian ‘icon’.

The report demonstrated how event developers may draw inspiration and support from apparently unconnected occurrences in other fields. Such opportunities are likely to increase with globalization. Although it is claimed by some that globalization is bringing about ‘a shrinking world’, the reality is that for many the world is opening up as information and transport technology increase the reach of regional promoters and reduce the friction of distance.

In addition, events can provide a means by which the distinctiveness of a region can be protected and displayed in a world moving towards standardization and homogenization.

It is claimed that as travel becomes a more popular leisure activity, travellers become more confident and sophisticated (Pearce, 1988; Ross, 1994), and are likely to seek more meaningful travel experiences, involving the deeper and more extended interaction with host communities which events offer. In conjunction with this is the widespread promotion of sustainability as an objective in all areas of human activity, and a corresponding increase in adoption of the ecotourism ethic, with its emphases on conservation, education and host community wellbeing. Another development which may offer opportunities is the expansion of tourism education in colleges and universities, providing a channel for the encouragement of enlightened attitudes and appropriate skills in travellers and event managers.

It is submitted, therefore, that there are trends in the wider environment which favour the expansion and diversification of tourism event offerings, and the inclusion of more events dedicated to the development in individuals of positive attitudes towards people from other societies and cultures.

4. Threats

Threats, too, lie in the external environment, present and future. They include elements which are likely to increase hostility among different social groups or contribute to a decline in event offerings or attendance.

In early 2002, admission prices to major golf and tennis events in Australia and New Zealand were increased to cover the costs of additional security necessitated by fears of terrorist activity against the venues or key participants. Similar precautions were being taken in a number of other countries.

Although she is not referring specifically to event tourism, Brown's (1998) arguments suggest a firm negative to the question: Is event tourism able to bring about or facilitate peace? She cites apparently insoluble problems in the Middle East, the use of tourists as targets or hostages for terrorist groups, the disintegration of countries such as Yugoslavia, the imposition of politics in mega-events such as the Olympic Games, and the continuing use of war as a solution to problems despite improved living standards. She does, however, recognise the potential for tourism to change the attitudes of individuals.

There is even a danger that tourism – and event tourism in particular - may be widely regarded as a beneficiary of war and violence. Seaton (1999), in referring to thanatourism (travel to a location for actual or symbolic encounters with death), reminds us of the crowds who flocked to gladiatorial contests in ancient Rome, who visit the sites of massacres and crimes, and enjoy re-enactments of battles. Smith (1998) also notes the value to tourism of sites commemorating violent historical events.

Even where peaceful conditions prevail, it is apparent that a major threat to event tourism as an instrument of peace is the volume and nature of the demand it generates (Muller, 1997), and this is not confined to numbers of visitors. Event visitors, like other tourists, may demand a hedonistic, self-indulgent lifestyle which contrasts sharply with the community conditions in which these expectations are met. Can event tourists be persuaded to accept the less luxurious conditions and operators the reduced returns likely to result from more modest demands?

Furthermore, reliance on education and the sustainability ethic to assist in the development of more appropriate events may be misplaced. Stabler (1997) claims that sustainability management tends to focus on viability and resource protection rather than community welfare, and suggests that it may be an industrialized nation concept foisted on developing countries. Wheeler (1997) reminds us that the more educated people are, the more they travel; that the numbers involved are too large for any sensitization program to have effect; and that host communities desperate for economic benefits have little bargaining power and will not impose environmental and growth controls.

Questions thus raised include:

- Will the objective of peaceful conditions be devalued by a widespread reliance on events commemorating war?
- Will greater numbers of events provide a larger and more widespread target for terrorists seeking international exposure for their causes?
- Will events be regarded as just another form of tourism, with all its problems of inequality and exploitation?
- Will the ability of events to make a positive contribution be lost or restricted by the growth in environmentalism?
- Will proponents of peace through events be dismissed as idealists for whom there is no place in the real world?

Discussion

It may be inappropriate to anticipate the findings of a more complete SWOT analysis, and those involved in tourism, peace studies and other relevant fields are invited to identify shortcomings to be corrected, propose additional items for inclusion, and suggest solutions to the problems raised. However, it is submitted that the following conclusions will be widely accepted:

- That there are few, if any, alternatives to match tourism as a generator of intercultural contact, and that events are an important and growing element of that attribute;
- That many events contribute nothing to or even hinder the pursuit of a peace objective;

- That peace-related event objectives will only be achieved by purposeful management directed to enhancing intercultural contacts;
- That responsibilities for purposeful event management lie at all levels, from individual traveller to national government.

Although this SWOT analysis is incomplete, it indicates that, at the very least, there are major difficulties to be overcome if events are to contribute to the Peace objective. The view that there is a need to bring people together is supported by reports in other areas of investigation. For example, a summary of findings relating to racial integration in the United States (Encyclopaedia Britannica, 1978) noted that, in initial interactions between groups of differing race, existing attitudes (positive AND negative) are intensified. However, over time and with increasing familiarity, attitudes tend to become generally more favorable, especially if the groups share similar, non-conflicting goals and beliefs on many issues. There is also some relevance in factors identified as facilitating political integration (Kelly, 1987). Despite abundant evidence that it does not preclude hostilities, spatial proximity (bringing people together) is seen as a contributor to mutual understanding. The likelihood of this is enhanced if there is also social homogeneity (common culture elements), high levels of interaction, mutual knowledge and shared functional interests.

These findings may be seen to confirm the view that the superficial contacts offered in most host-visitor interactions can be counterproductive, but that events involving more substantial exchanges (referred to by Goldblatt, 2001, as ‘high touch’ experiences) are likely to be more effective in the effort to promote harmonious relationships. Efforts, therefore, should be directed to providing host-visitor exchanges which emphasize the universality of the problems faced by all societies, encourage understanding of the different ways in which these problems are addressed, and facilitate appreciation of the alternative solutions thereby offered.

While it appears that many tourists are not interested in learning about the culture of their hosts, there are also many who wish to be regarded as travellers rather than tourists and who take pleasure in demonstrating their knowledge of how to behave in alien environments. Reisinger (1997) outlines the difficulties commonly encountered in intercultural contacts and suggests that such problems may be alleviated by educational programs for those involved in international tourism, an emphasis on the service attributes of potential hosts, and greater use of intermediaries.

It is submitted here that large-scale events are least likely to provide the required type of contact, and that there is a need to recognize the value of small, everyday events in informing visitors about the essential character of a community (Kelly, 1991). Opportunities to mingle with parents and children at Little Athletics, to discuss gardening with fellow enthusiasts at a local garden festival, to see a school concert, to judge a children’s art competition, or to attend a church service could constitute particularly memorable experiences, valued all the more because of their non-touristic nature.

It is further submitted that positive impacts are more likely to occur if those involved, both hosts and guests, are open-minded, free from prejudice and inclined towards goodwill (Kelly, 1998). This is recognized by schoolteachers in Cyprus who have sought to counter the suspicion and hostility prevalent among the adult populations by arranging events involving the exchange of school concert parties across the line which has divided the island since 1974. Similar approaches have been tried in the difficult environments of Northern Ireland and Israel/Palestine.

It is recognized that small-scale events of the type proposed are unlikely to receive support from the ‘events industry’ because of their non-commercial orientation. However, this does not necessarily preclude sponsorship support from organisations pursuing or likely to benefit from association with the peace objective. In addition, the Internet now provides a means whereby people can identify others with whom they share a common interest, exchange information, and lay the groundwork for subsequent face-to-face contact (Getz, 2000), thereby reducing the need for expensive promotion campaigns.

Recommendations

Recommendations stemming from this discussion are:

1. that events be encouraged as major contributors to the ability of tourism to bring people together;
2. that tourism educators work in conjunction with peace and conflict resolution educators to identify the types of events likely to encourage appropriate attitude change, conduct research on how the contribution of events to the peace objective might be optimized and to devise measures for evaluation of their effectiveness;
3. that educational and training courses in event management be designed to recognize peace objectives along with commercial, management, political and environmental objectives;

4. that support be provided for events, no matter how small, which encourage participants to share knowledge and skills, work together or cooperate in problem-solving; and
5. that efforts be directed to ensuring that event hosts and guests are provided with information about each other, and/or that contacts are carefully mediated to avoid conflict.

As Getz (2000, p13) has noted:

> ‘Many governmental agencies and non-profit organizations produce events or assist the events sector in order to help generate community pride and cohesion, foster the arts, contribute to healthy people, or conserve the natural environment. … Many other events are held to raise money for charities and causes of all kinds.’

There appears to be no reason why peace could not be one of the causes to which at least some events are dedicated.

In this author’s opinion, the greatest threat identified in this and previous SWOT analyses is the view that the Peace goal is unachievable and therefore not worth pursuing. It is submitted here that progress towards peace will be partial, painfully incremental and marked by frequent setbacks and failures, but that any progress, no matter how slight, is preferable to a fatalistic acceptance of the *status quo*.

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SYDNEY OLYMPIC GAMES

CRC Olympic Project

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RAY SPURR

Abstract

The Cooperative Research Centre for Sustainable Tourism (CRC) has undertaken research to determine the tourism impacts of the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games. Reports on the findings of this research are now being produced and outcomes from the research will provide a better understanding of the means to leverage hallmark events to obtain the optimal outcome for host cities, regions, and countries. This project involves a suite of three separate but related studies, namely:

- A descriptive look at the leveraging strategies that were put in place to optimise the tourism outcomes from the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games.
- An analysis of consumer response to the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games.
- A study of Olympic sponsors’ impact on tourism outcomes.

The study has identified a number of requisites to make leveraging and sponsorship programs work more effectively and provides recommendations as to how other

destinations can benefit from this experience. Unfortunately, completion of the consumer response study is on hold due to delays in the processing of International Visitor Survey cards.

COMMUNITY BUILDING AND BRANDING DESTINATIONS

Events - Help your Community get "Streets Ahead"

JAN STROM

CITY OF COFFS HARBOUR

Abstract

Coffs Harbour Streets Ahead Inc is a community economic development Mainstreet programme, working across all towns and villages in the Coffs Harbour Local Government Area (LGA).

Established in July 1999, Streets Ahead was the first city-wide Mainstreet project to be undertaken in NSW. Prior to this time Mainstreet projects had been confined to main streets, small areas of towns or individual villages and Coffs Harbour's Jetty Area Mainstreet programme was established in 1994 on this basis.

Streets Ahead bases its operations on the Mainstreet philosophy focusing upon four key areas, being community planning, physical design, business development as well as marketing and events.

Over the last two and a half years Streets Ahead has developed a city-wide Event Programme, which builds upon the specific characteristics of each area to "grow" an event from each community.

The Coffs Harbour Jetty area hosts a number of nautical events and activities such as the Endeavour Welcome, and a Chilli Festival was established in 1999 in the popular restaurant area of Sawtell Village. In 2000 a very successful Buskers Festival was held in the City Centre and this will be expanded for 2002 to include Comedy & Busking. The inaugural Festival of the Golden Wheel was held in 2001 in the northern beaches town of Woolgoolga and a Bush Mountain Festival is planned for 2002 in the hinterland villages of Ulong and Lowanna, some forty-five minutes drive from the Coffs Coast.

By facilitating events and working closely with various place management committees and organisations within the different communities in the Coffs Harbour LGA, Streets Ahead recognises the valuable role events play in building a community's sense of "self and pride". Streets Ahead also works closely with, and acts as a conduit for, the various communities to government and non-government organisations including Coffs Harbour City Council, Coffs Coast Tourism, the Department of State and Regional Development, Festivals Australia and so on.

The development of events can not be viewed in isolation. Their success depends very much upon integrated community planning and the improvement of the physical design and development of the different community facilities being used for the events. Streets Ahead also undertakes various business development activities, such as customer service, marketing and merchandising workshops, to assist those traders and businesses that are either directly or indirectly involved in the event, to gain maximum benefit from the event. This also "value adds" the experience for those attending the event.

Streets Ahead events grow out of their local communities and generally reflect the feel and specific culture of that community. For example, Woolgoolga's Festival of the Golden Wheel involved more than 500 school children and adults from the indigenous, non-indigenous and Sikh communities. This event included Music by the Lake with the band Sirocco, a Saturday market with craft and food stalls, a diverse array of craft and cultural workshops and a fire spectacular produced by Neil Cameron Productions, of the Woodford Festival fame.

Streets Ahead undertook all of the funding submissions and funding for the event was secured from Festivals Australia, the Department of State & Regional Development and Tourism NSW, as well as significant sponsorship and in-kind support from the local business community and the Coffs Harbour City Council.

Promotion for the Festival of the Golden Wheel was undertaken, locally and regionally, via the print and electronic media, who provided excellent support for the event. Many touring bus companies were targeted and the internet site attracted visitors from NSW, Victoria and southern Queensland.

Making Sense of How Festivals Demonstrate a Community’s Sense of Place

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Abstract

The cultural aspects of a *way of life of a place* and a ‘*sense of community*’ help us to better understand the processes of change being experienced in regional Australia. The paper explores how community based festivals grow over time to reflect the values, interests and aspirations of residents. It presents a systematic analysis of four community cultural festivals in destinations in the northern rivers region of NSW. The investigation explores how a sense of community and place are linked to such events. It critically analyses the challenges facing communities using festivals to deliver complex social, political and cultural outcomes. It seeks to establish how festivals develop and manage the tensions generated by different community voices.

The paper demonstrates the character of community festivals. Its fine-grained analysis observes how different strategies have different consequences. Through surveys, interviews, media analysis and critical observation it establishes that self esteem, a sense of identity for internal and external purposes, economic drivers especially in the area of tourism, a festival’s origins, event content, the dynamics between key

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stakeholders and community champions are all major contributors to distinctive events.

The four case study communities examined clearly demonstrate that social, economic and environmental issues currently presented in the literature require greater deconstruction. When comparing and contrasting the competing elements identified in the case study festivals, local distinctiveness was consistent with universal concerns for a civil society.

Introduction

This paper is based on a systematic analysis of four community cultural festivals in destinations in the northern rivers region of NSW. It demonstrates how a sense of community and place are major contributors to such events. The study of how community festivals reflect the community's sense of itself and its place also validates the substantial shared interest by residents and visitors in such events.

The central investigation explores the character of community festivals. The fine-grained investigation identifies how different strategies have different consequences. Through surveys, interviews, media analysis and critical observation it establishes that self esteem, a sense of identity for internal and external purposes, economic drivers especially in the area of tourism, a festival's origins, event content, the dynamics between key stakeholders and community champions are instrumental in the conduct of distinctive events.

A signifier of a community's sense of self and an expression of its sense of place is the collaboration that occurs when festivals such as the Beef Week Festival in Casino, the Jacaranda Festival held annually in Grafton, the Mardi Grass Cannabis Law Reform Rally in Nimbin and Byron Bay's New Years Eve celebrations, Last Night First Light, are hosted. Community cultural festivals are a phenomenon in a real life context that can be examined in a descriptive manner. Evidence deals holistically with the *who, why, how, what, when* and *where* of case studies exploring similarities and differences in the nature of the festival.

It is important to define what a sense of community and place are. It is useful to assess all key factors that contribute to making effective festivals and how a community's sense of itself and its place emerge as major elements. It is evident that an historical perspective allows for a strong narrative to emerge, which in turn demonstrates the values, interests and aspirations of a host community.

A sense of community is an almost invisible yet critical part of a healthy community. Though hard to define, it includes a community's image, spirit, character, pride, relationships and networking (Bush, 2002). A sense of community comes from a shared vision, where a clear sense of purpose values individual's ideas and contribution and involves working together on community issues, celebrations and problem solving. Developing a sense of community is challenging long-term work, building levels of connectedness, belonging and support (Duga & Schweitzer, 1997). Festivals and cultural events are observed as providing a forum for the shared purpose to be manifest (Dunstan 1994).

The factors that comprise a sense of community and place are explored in this study through a historical perspective revealing the forces that influence the image and identity of a community. Stories from individuals and groups provide testimony. The complexity of the elements that comprise a sense of community and place makes it worth stepping through a narrative process simply and travelling from the personal to the global. Sense of place, can be described as, the common ground where interpretation and community development meets in a concern to create or enhance a perception of place, to establish what is significant and valued in the environment or heritage of a particular community, and to provide action for its wider appreciation and conservation (Binks, 1989 : 191 cited Trotter, 1998).

The atmosphere and environment in which people pursue daily behaviours consist of traditional ways and values. These define future action and have produced past action (Trotter, 1999). This core of culture includes a shared environment that is maintained by the members of the community, a way of life and a set of beliefs, which have intergenerational implications and have a major influence on everyone living within that culture.

Values and beliefs held by individuals in a community are inextricably linked and shape people's attitudes and the way they act in specific situations. Under scrutiny in this study is how the values, interests and aspirations of individuals are influenced by their biophysical environment (space and place) ➔which leads to a sense of community ➔that influences how the community celebrates ➔ that affects the community's well being ➔ that in turn informs the environment in which individuals and groups define their values and beliefs. Residents share all of this with visitors.

When investigating how cultural festivals develop and reflect a sense of community and place the following key questions provide strong guidance. These identify the characteristics that determine a community's sense of place, what constitutes distinctiveness; what the role of key stakeholders in community festival development and management is; how different voices in a community are accommodated in festivals; and how communities share festivals with visitors.

Festivals and events demonstrate the popular definitions of a sense of community through offering connections, belonging, support, empowerment, participation and safety. The sort of informal participation afforded by festivals and events provides residents with a sound overall view of their community. They can often be more willing to contribute to the solution of community problems. This social capital, or social glue or social fabric, is now a feature of the regional development agenda. It focuses on minimising the gaps between people particularly in a socio-cultural and economic way. It is observed that communities are creating festivals and events to emphasise the value they recognise in the feelings of ownership and belonging generated for resident participants. The extra dimension of involving visitors has engaged the interest of the tourism sector. Festivals can be the gatekeepers of community values, encouraging some people in, keeping others out.

The emotional attachment to the natural landscape and the built environments, climatic changes, shared memories of communal heritage allow individuals to come together for formal or spontaneous interactions like festivals and community cultural events. This suggests that a sense of place brings into play not only the commonly understood five senses of touch, taste, hearing, smell and sight but the two dimensions mentioned in the Bible (Ecclus Xv11.5; Pilarczyk, 1993:752) *animation* and f*eeling*. This suggests that the sixth sense as ‘the gift of mind’ and the seventh as the ‘interpreter of one’s faculties’ could be readily accommodated in both the domains of individual’s perception of place and community.

That human society is bound to place and landscape (Cotter, Boyd, Gardiner, 2001:335) is evident in the four case study events. Few communities demonstrate placelessness, however some communities pay little attention to celebrating their location and its influence on their lives. Place (and landscape) can provide a medium for community values and beliefs that are celebrated in community cultural events. These celebrations provide participants with a physical manifestation and better understanding of the relationships between residents, their environment, their neighbours and visitors.

The complex relationships which festivals provide for individual members of a community as each exchanges information and energy, offers the stability and protection that community can provide that isolation can not. Festivals can provide the heart to a community (Wheatley and Kellner-Rogers, 1998:14) as they provide conditions of freedom and connectedness rather than a fixation on the forms and structures of the community. The organisations and civic institutions which offer a spatial boundary in terms of place harness the community's vision of itself and provide participative opportunities to nurture and sustain what is important to their constituency.

Festivals and events provide an opportunity for community cultural development, which, like a sense of place, is nearly an invisible phenomenon. People know when it is not there. Trotter (1999:39) suggests the identity, cultural experience and sense of place are the new objects of tourism, and visitors will know when they are not present. People turn to their culture as a means of self-definition and mobilise to assert their local cultural values (Adams & Goldbard, 2001). Festivals can reflect the dynamic value systems of individuals united by the same customs, images, collective memory, habits and experiences. Festivals can be replicated and each generation can pass on something of its experience to the next.

Communities offer individual members a structure for attending to general aspects of life. Challenges arise as individuals and groups within communities initiate, plan, prepare, promote and manage community celebrations. These operational aspects of events provide the framework to explore how regional and local distinctiveness influences the contact, conduct and reception of festivals.

> ‘Community, the custodians of the content of Australian tourism, must be enabled to participate in tourism by forming its content. Only if Australians are involved in tourism will it survive’, (Wood, 1993).

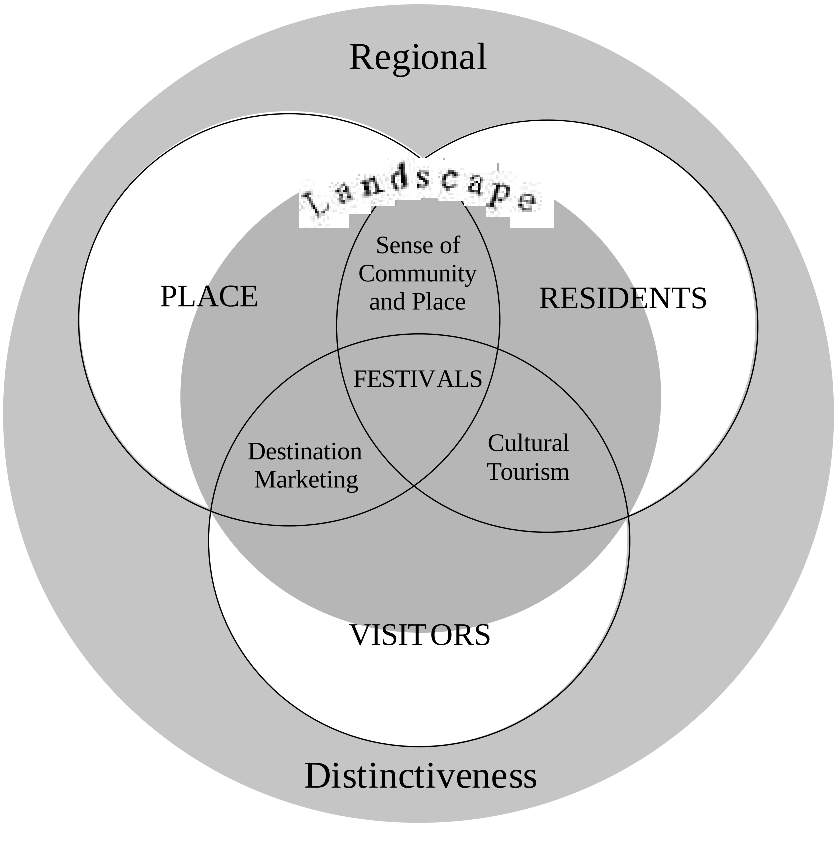
While there is little research on how a community is empowered to form the content of tourism, Wood suggests that tourism influences identity by generating images such as that of the quintessential Australian. This anthropological approach to cultural tourism is highlighted by Lips (cited in Wood, 1992:4) who suggests that:

> ‘cultural tourism is the art of participating in another culture, of relating to people and places that have a strong sense of their own identity. It is an approach to tourism that gives tourists credit for intelligence, and promises them some depth of experience and real-life layering that can be explored on many levels’.

The four community cultural festivals that share their ‘culture’ that becomes the ‘content’ of the tourism experience for visitors demonstrate how regional and local distinctiveness influence festivals. To better explain the phenomenon it is useful to map the major elements, processes and relationships. These are represented in *figure*

1. Festivals emerge from the congruence of three major elements; the destination (place) in which they are held, the people who reside in that location (and within the region) and the visitors who are attracted to the festival. All of these are underpinned by the physical landscape in which they collaborate. In the northern rivers of NSW the coastal fringe, the hinterland, World Heritage Area rainforests and the volcanic caldera significantly impinge on the psyche of residents and visitors. The specific features of northern rivers (NSW) landscape and the lifestyle choices of residents are under scrutiny because they provide the region's '*identity*'.

Figure 1


Regional
Landscape
PLACE
Sense of Community and Place
RESIDENTS
FESTIVALS
Destination Marketing
Cultural Tourism
VISITORS
Distinctiveness

These primary forces generate and reproduce the identities and values of each community, as they don't remain constant. The landscape changes; settlement patterns evolve and visitor segments vary. The internal and external environments in which communities operate are regularly impacted by political, cultural, social, technological and economic forces. Individuals within communities are members of families and sub-cultural groups with characteristics, shaped by demographic and psychographic factors. Destination marketing, cultural tourism and a sense of community and a sense of place are gradually attracting attention in the literature.

The market place hosts destination marketing messages, especially when the tourism subset of the business sector appropriates the same image and identity. Thus a' brand' representing core values becomes a brand which can be used by both the community and tourism sectors. This study demonstrates that destinations use festivals as brands. The publicity festivals and events can generate for a community can not only have a cumulative impact on the destination but also feed into the image and identity of the community and assist with creating an authentic experience for visitors.

Regional festival organisers acknowledge the importance of using values, honesty, responsibility, humility, love, faith, co-operation and a respect for mystery when making choices for the conduct of their event. They demonstrate *both/and* that is inclusive, rather than *either/or* which is an exclusive way of dealing with the diverse voices represented in their constituency. The case study communities are dealing with how each community values diversity and tolerance. There is recognition that people want to work on what matters to them. Each of the four communities is dealing with the issues differently.

Dunstan (1994) suggests festivals can be used to build communities. 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. Annual festivals create a community of witness that marks the passage of time. Celebration is the way humans integrate change (Dunstan, 1994).

Community cultural festivals help create communities of values (Ulrich, 1998:157) by forging strong and distinct identities. One mechanism that assists in establishing whether festivals effectively represent their constituency's sense of community is to engage with a 'wellbeing model'. *Community wellbeing* (Wills, 2001) demonstrates how clear rules of inclusion, sharing information across boundaries, creating social reciprocity, using symbols, myths and stories to create and sustain values and managing enough similarity so that the community feels familiar with clear building blocks. Community wellbeing can be described as having such outcomes (Hancock, Labonte and Edwards, 1999; Landry, 1994 cited Wills, 2001) for residents as livability, sustainability, viability and vitality. Key concepts of active citizenship, social justice and social capital (Cox, 1995) allow residents to create attachments to the place and the people with whom they share that location.

Community wellbeing identified by the Local Government Community Services Association of Australia (Wills, 2001) incorporates six qualities for developing healthy and sustainable communities (Hancock, Labonte, and Edwards, 1999 cited Wills 2001:23) plus the activity, participation and interaction between people suggested by Landry (1994 cited Wills, 2001:23) as *vitality*. These seven elements provide an opportunity to sensitively assess how communities see themselves and measure themselves against a set of criteria which can meaningfully underpin how a sense of community and place contribute to cultural festivals. These are represented thus:

Community Wellbeing Dimensions	**Community Wellbeing Outcomes**
Social and cultural	Conviviality, equity, vitality
Economic	Adequate prosperity
Environmental and built	Livability, sustainability and viability

Source: Wills, 2001:22

These results are linked to Wellbeing Building Blocks (Wills, 2001 34) which include democratic governance, active citizenship, social justice and social capital. These assist in clarifying how a sense of community and place contribute to regional cultural festivals.

Wellbeing Building Blocks	**Components/Features**
Democratic governance	Visions, goals, leadership, policies
Active citizenship	Equal political, civil and civic rights
Social justice	Human rights, social supports, empowerment
Social capital	Interpersonal and organisational trust, reciprocity and collective action

Source: Wills, 2001:34)

Communities seek to enhance the livability quotient for their constituencies. They do this by encouraging local enterprise, serving the needs of residents and promoting sustainable employment. There is increasing recognition of the economic value of natural and human capital. Festivals and events offer an integrated approach to creating the vibrant communities to which people aspire (Getz, 1997; Hall, 1992;

Dunstan, 1994). Festivals serve the needs of residents. They can protect the natural environment, increase social equity and provide a vision for participants. By providing a local focus they can satisfy specific industry niches. 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.

Sense and Sensitivity: Four Case Study Communities

The northern rivers region has a distinctive heritage that reflects 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 regional culture. Their stories reflect the give and take of each generation of people who came as timber-getters, farmers, professionals, merchants, surfers, hippies, alternates and retirees. Each layer contributes to the tapestry of celebrations which have been generated by individuals and communities ever since and that are attractive to residents.

Each community's festival provides occasions where a specific mood, tone or spirit, responding to a sense of place, time of year or season is demonstrated. As people seek to fill their increased leisure time in the region (Dimmock, Tiyce, Derrett, 1999) with new experiences, they demand value for money expended to access the event, heightened enjoyment from exposure to these new and novel activities, security and recognition as individuals. With the *self* at the centre of modern consumer society community based festivals appear to tie together issues of choice, identity, status, alienation and culture. Visitors to community cultural festivals wish to avoid unsafe situations, discomfort, doubts and being made to feel a nuisance. Event organisers feel a responsibility to deliver not only a programme of activity demonstrating who the locals are and what they want but a celebration that provides the aesthetics of wonder - capture a regional spirit for the visitors as well!

The four local community events involve the local population in a shared experience to their mutual benefit. Those annual moments provide both the social function and symbolic meaning of the festival. These functions reflect the community's social identity, its historical continuity and its physical survival that is ultimately what festivals celebrate. While each of the four communities offer separate and distinctive programmes reflecting these functions, there's evidence of a significant overarching regional flavour to them. Each festival has also, over time, identified key ways in which to distinguish themselves from other regional events.

Individuals in the region, and by extension their communities, have been personalising the global and globalising the personal elements of celebration. Like consumers of any contemporary experience, individuals participating as audience or organisers at a festival or special event wish to receive benefits. These can vary from becoming an authority from exposure to new skills, meeting celebrities, taking initiatives, being influential and creative and offering hospitality - the host-guest relationship that is a significant marker for visitation to regional Australia.

In each of the four festivals under discussion the power exerted by individuals and sub-groups begin to work independently of the dominant culture. The trust, reciprocity, proactivity, commons, participation in networks and social norms suggested by Cox (1995) as fundamental to the notion of social capital are represented in each event.

The Jacaranda Festival, Grafton

The Jacaranda Festival was the first floral festival organised in Australia and was based upon the traditional English spontaneous revelry, music, dance and a celebration for the natural beauty with which the city of Grafton and district is endowed. The first festival was staged on October 29, 1935. The Jacaranda Committee has guarded closely against the deterioration of a people’s festival into a commercialised carnival. It remains a celebration focussed on the lilac flowers and the traditional lifestyle of the Clarence Valley. The local press identified (1994:3) that the Jacaranda Festival is not a spectacle for the crowd for a talented few, but an opportunity for everyone – young and old, rich and poor, visitors or homefolk – to join together in the spirit of fun. It maintains a full programme of parades, exhibitions, street celebrations, retail involvement and special interest events.

Mardi Grass, Nimbin

The Nimbin Mardi Grass bills 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 event is conceived as a drug law reform protest. The celebration incorporates resident culture and more than expressing contemporary cannabis culture in Australia, it is central to creating and sustaining it (Dunstan, 1994).

Powerful emotional views are held within the host community and shared through a unique forum mechanism. The volunteer management of the event annually deals with the tensions generated by the three-day event, while visitors are oblivious to the community development ramifications. The Police, local government, the 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.

New Years Eve, Byron Bay

The Last Night First Light celebrations annually held in Byron Bay are a result of the establishment of a community safety committee. A community based Council committee sought to redress the image generated by ‘chaos’ and ‘mayhem’ resulting during New Year’s Eve street activity in 1993/4. The negative national media coverage spurred volunteers to seek solutions of a local nature through strategic partnerships, re-branding the town and generating street entertainment. Extensive work has been undertaken to re-orientate the target market, encourage families to return, provide participation opportunities for locals and holiday makers through workshops to prepare floats for a parade and harminisation strategies in relation to consumption of alcohol and drugs and innovative waste management to deal with up to 30,000 people.

Extensive community consultation sought to develop an event that reflected the lifestyle of residents, but capitalised on the iconic status of Byron Bay as a tourism destination. The business sector was vital to ongoing negotiations for effective management and monitoring of subsequent events. The 2000 New Year event was deemed a success in terms of local empowerment, delivery of accessible entertainment and satisfying expressed concerns about potential tourism influxes.

Beef Week, Casino

Casino Beef Week celebrates its 21st year in 2002. It is actually a 12 day week (!!) of activity geared to its established market of beef producers across the eastern states of Australia. It comprises such elements as the annual dinner dance and crowning of the Beef Week Queen with each of the up to 10 candidates representing a specific breed; broadly based community entertainment with a cattle theme; and the highlight is seen as a parade of cattle, horse drawn vehicles and commercial floats. A roundabout in the main street is converted into a judging ring for 120+ live steers to compete. In recent years programming has embraced aspects of the timber industry, local arts and crafts and shop displays.

This profile raising exercise involves numerous individuals, volunteer and community representative groups in its management with a dedicated Festival co-ordinator funded from donations and fundraising for the event. Tour packages are developed by accommodation and bus companies. The amalgamation of two local government areas brings to Casino a Council employed Tourism Officer whose brief includes the integration of Beef Week into local and regional promotion. Visitors are drawn mostly from the regional and domestic market, though increasing media exposure has relayed details of the event overseas.

Summary

The physical location of the festivities in each destination plays an influential role in programme choices, reflects the heritage of settlement and provides boundaries between residential areas, commercial outlets and public space. Grafton stages activities on both sides of the Clarence River. The four destinations utilise their CBD for day and night activities. The beach and adjacent parkland is important to Byron Bay's New Years Eve revellers, while Nimbin Mardi Grass uses the main thoroughfare for a parade and parkland for a rally. Grafton and Casino hold events indoors and outdoors. Parades are a distinctive programme feature of all events, allowing people to move through the natural and built environments.

Grafton's Jacaranda Festival has been entertaining locals and visitors since the mid 1930s, Casino Beef Week commenced in 1981. Nimbin Mardi Grass celebrated its tenth anniversary in 2002 and Byron Bay's New Years Eve celebration have been managed in a formal way since 1994. The flowering of the Jacaranda trees in late October, early November influences the timing of the festival. The harvest seasonal cycle also influences the timing of HEMP's Mardi Grass in Nimbin. New Years Eve is locked into the traditional social calendar and Casino hosts Beef Week at the end of each May.

The content of each festival's programme is influenced by the specific migrations and interests of the committee members and their host community. The natural phenomena, the river heritage and the traditional engagement with the business community are significant elements of the Jacaranda Festival, which serves as an umbrella for numerous, diverse exhibitions, sporting and cultural events. Likewise, Casino showcases local arts, crafts and importantly the beef industry through events like a rodeo, hoedown, auctions and field days. Nimbin Mardi Grass’s political underpinning encourages speech making, demonstrations and exhibitions as well as the popular and whimsical HEMP Olympix. Byron Bay hosts local musicians and street artists as entertainment for up to 40,000 visitors and residents who take to the streets for the 12 hours of the main event.

All events are managed by community based not-for-profit organisations established principally to conduct each event. The HEMP organisation undertakes other retail, information service and café business in the Nimbin village; while Byron Bay Community Safety Committee is an S355 Committee of Byron Shire Council which works with services clubs to conduct the event. Local government has varying levels of involvement in the management of each event. All assist in providing logistical support, some marketing assistance and sometimes direct funding. Individuals in leadership roles within each organisation, and more broadly as community champions, are distinctive features and influencers on the direction and longevity of each event. Distinctive personalities have been identified.

Different voices in each host community are represented in management, in dissention voiced about management choices made, in content of the event, through engagement with volunteers, pricing and access. At each turn what becomes available for the visitor clearly identifies distinctive features of each community and may be said to represent a clear sense of self and place. There is considerable evidence of a strong VFR market for these events as families use the events to reunite and past residents return to something familiar. Large numbers attend the major elements of each event.

Grafton and Casino deal comfortably with the pressure from numbers of attendees; Byron Bay and Nimbin deal less well with substantial strain on infrastructure.

Busloads of visitors are particularly drawn to Casino and Grafton, while individual, self-drive visitors are attracted to Nimbin and Byron Bay. The latter two destinations draw considerable numbers of young people from southeast Queensland. Tourism infrastructure is not sufficiently developed in Nimbin to cope with the influx. Byron Bay is the best equipped to accommodate visitation in the significant numbers of hotels, motels, B & Bs, cafes and restaurants available, but the event draws substantial criticism from the residents of the town because of its location, scale, noise, traffic problems, pollution and strain on infrastructure. Residents of Grafton and Casino appear comfortable about hosting their respective events; attend elements of the festivals in large numbers and enthusiastically welcome visitors.

When assessing how each destination engages with the events they stage and how each reflects their residents' sense of community and place the following observations may be registered in terms of their wellbeing.

Community Wellbeing Framework

Community Wellbeing Outcomes	**Grafton**	**Casino**	**Nimbin**	**Byron Bay**
conviviality,	✓	✓	Especially with participants	✓
adequate prosperity	✓ Income from visitors	✓ Income from visitors	Black economy, some shops closed	✓ Integrated into holiday season
Livability	✓	✓	Congestion, tension	✓

Community Wellbeing Framework

Community Wellbeing Outcomes	**Grafton**	**Casino**	**Nimbin**	**Byron Bay**
Equity	✓	✓	✓ Not totally embraced by all community	Distinction between visitors/ residents re transport access
Vitality	✓ Animates CBD, colour & movement	✓ Brings distinctive visitors	✓ Spectacle,	✓ Night celebrations distinctive, Hare Krishnas
Sustainability	✓ Investment sound, volunteer management required	✓ Investment sound, volunteer management required	Camping, parking, amenities, social impacts	✓ Volunteer involvement
Viability	✓ Financially sound, public interest and support	✓ Working hard to maintain community interest and diversifying content	Less stable financial commitment & ongoing social tension	✓ Annual revival of committee
Democratic governance: Visions, goals, leadership, policies	✓	✓	✓	✓
Active citizenship: Equal political, civil and civic rights	Long serving membership, co-operation with other community stakeholders not always easy	Inclusive community based group with Council, beef industry support	Grounded in equity and access, special interest group seeks collaboration	Community based group encourages involvement/participation
Social capital: Interpersonal and organisational trust, reciprocity and collective action	✓ Opportunities for personal and collective involvement	✓ Community collaboration	✓ Encouragement of social activism	✓ Opportunity to showcase local talent

These matrices allow a significant insight into how regional cultural events reflect a distinctive sense of community and place. The discussion included in this paper underscores the disparate manner in which concepts and theories are limited in their ability to provide comprehensive coverage of complex and multifaceted processes that operate in communities. The key factors in each area are interlocking and affect differing levels of influences spatially and temporally in each community.

The social implications of power, politics and personal interaction, offers researchers an opportunity to evaluate the importance of a sense of community and sense of place in the choices made in developing community festivals. A number of significant influences on the choices made by these four case studies include not only the personal or the intra-personal described by Richins and Pearce (2000:211), where the process is affected by the beliefs, attitudes and values brought to a situation by participants; but the circumstantial influences where broader conditions are applied. These can include factors that are often external to the host community, but will have long-term impacts.

Differing forms of tourism, including festivals and special events, vary in nature from place to place. As a form of tourism, festivals can be examined in relation to their social and cultural contexts. There is a growing interest in developing a better understanding of the cultural identities of host communities in tourist destinations. Culture, identity and meaning are complex terms and are open to competing and complementary interpretations and definitions. In fact, festivals play a significant role in the myth and symbol building of communities.

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When Disaster Strikes: The Effect of Relying on Events for Rural Economies

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Abstract

This paper discusses the importance of tourism and event tourism in Cheltenham, England and the problems associated with the recent foot and mouth disaster in the UK for the festival organisers and local community. The cancellation of the 2001 Cheltenham Festival illustrates the importance of the Festival for the local economy and has raised a number of key issues which will need to be addressed in the coming years. In particular, the issue of balancing the social and community needs of the event with marketing and commercial development may need to be addressed in the future. Furthermore, the foot and mouth outbreak has outlined the relationship of the festival organisers with key stakeholder groups. Firstly, it has outlined the short-term gain of some hotel and tourism operators and how this may impact upon the future viability and atmosphere of the event. The foot and mouth outbreak has also led to a

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re-evaluation of policies surrounding the management of the event. For the event organisers FMD has meant a valuable revision of its relationship with its customers and stakeholders. The disaster has forced recognition that there had been some complacency with regard to the value of customers and a determination not to take them for granted in the future.

Keywords: Festival, Disaster, Crisis, Rural, Economy, Cheltenham

Introduction

At a global level many countries have been experiencing changes in their underlying economic and social structures and are subsequently facing a series of challenges. The issue of political, economic and social restructuring is a widely debated issue because it has been apparent at both global and local levels throughout the industrialised world since the late 1970s (Clark 1992). Restructuring has occurred at many instances throughout the world as far back as the Industrial Revolution (Jenkins et al. 1998). One of the largest changes is declining agricultural production and a downturn in agricultural activities, which has not only impacted upon the local economy of countries but society in general. Furthermore, rural or regional areas (places that are peripheral or outlying) are the regions most vulnerable to this type of agricultural decline and restructuring. As a response to a downturn in agricultural activities in rural regions the government has been promoting new economic activities, including tourism.

Tourism initiatives, including development and innovation in the festivals and events sector, have been a popular avenue of economic revitalisation (Bramwell & Lane, 1994). Although tourists primarily visit urban centres in the UK, an increasing proportion is visiting the countryside. This is best illustrated by a 26% growth in tourism revenue over the past year now contributing 7% of the workforce, compared with a 21% decline in agricultural revenue contributing only 1.5% of the workforce (English Tourism Council 2001a). Tourism is now one of the key drivers of the British economy and supports around 1.7 million jobs, with 1 in 5 of all new jobs created in the tourist industry (Star UK Statistics 2001), while 20% of “leisure-related” expenditure in England occur in the countryside (HM Treasury 2001).

However, an over reliance on tourism, and indeed event tourism as an economic development tool for rural areas may be misguided. As the World Travel and Tourism Council (1998) note “…to replace the mono-economy of primary production with a mono-economy of tourism is unlikely to be sustainable.” This problem is exacerbated by the nature of tourism being subject to fluctuations in demand and changes in the external operating environment. This has been illustrated recently in the UK with the recent foot and mouth outbreak and September 11, 2001, which has had a major impact upon tourism and event tourism generally in the UK. In particular, a number of sport tourism events have been impacted by the foot and mouth disease. High profile events such as the Isle of Man motorcycle race and the Ireland versus Wales Six Nations Championships were either cancelled or postponed impacting upon the local and regional tourism industry. Many horseracing events were also cancelled impacting upon the rural tourism economy in regional areas within the UK.

This paper outlines by way of a case study the impact of the foot and mouth outbreak on one such horseracing event, the Cheltenham Festival. The paper demonstrates the impact of the outbreak on the surrounding economy and the issues that the outbreak has created for event managers. Key questions have been raised from research interviews undertaken with the managing director of the festival and the local tourism officer. The questions concerning the ownership of the event, the relationship of the festival with the local tourism industry and a re-evaluation of policies surrounding the management of the event. The paper suggests that an over reliance on the Cheltenham Festival for the local economy, and indeed for the income of the management team, has led to the reassessment of the role of the event in the local economy and the relationship between event organisers, clients and suppliers. The paper begins with a discussion of the Cheltenham Horseracing Association and the Cheltenham Festival.

The Cheltenham Horseracing Association

The main activity of the Cheltenham Horseracing Association is the hosting of an annual horseracing festival called the Cheltenham Festival. The Festival is second only in the UK to the Grand National in the national hunt racing calendar, and lists itself as one of the top ten sporting events in the UK. The racecourse, in a rural part of the west of England, contains the biggest corporate entertainment area for any British sporting event. The Festival has been organised in its current format since 1948 and today is held over three days in March and comprises twenty races with prize money of over £1m. The largest race is the Gold Cup, which takes place on the final day of the Festival and attracts prize money of £290,000. Each day of the Festival draws capacity crowds of 50,000 (plus an additional 10,000 acting as staff, media, security etc) – with the day of the Gold Cup being sold out several months in advance. Over 250,000 visitors attend the racecourse for racing events during the course of the winter season. In 2000, Cheltenham was named the racecourse of the year for the seventh time in eight years by the Racegoers Club.

Cheltenham employs 50 staff on a permanent basis, but this number will increase to over 1000 on a normal race day and in excess of 5000 per day for the Festival. Figures show Cheltenham racecourse has a turnover of £12m, which includes £11.5m from racing and £0.5m from non-racing events (Cheltenham Racecourse 2001). Of the £11.5m from racing, £9m (75% of total turnover) is derived from the three day festival in March. From all racing throughout the year, approximately £6m (over 50% of total turnover) comes from the cost of admission to the races. Such ratios signal high reliance on racing for income, high reliance on the Festival for racing income, high reliance on admissions during the Festival and ultimately high reliance on corporate customers (where hospitality is included in the admission prices) during the Festival. The vast majority of these tickets are advance sales. Around 5000 customers from Ireland attend the Festival each year, as well as a large number who live in England, giving the Festival its famed Irish feel. Media revenues contribute around £1m to turnover (1.3m viewers are recorded as watching the Gold Cup live on TV) and the 6500 members are worth about £1.2m through their membership fees. Corporate hospitality and the hire of boxes also add a further £1.2m to the racing turnover. The policy of the racecourse to play no role in the managing of non-racing events, means that revenue is restricted to the fee for letting facilities and thus contributes only £0.5million to total turnover, although more people attend the racecourse for non-racing than racing events.

Cheltenham Horseracing Association And The Surrounding Economy

Cheltenham is the principle town within the county of Gloucestershire, which is a rural county with a population of less than 500,000 but within easy access of the major cities of Birmingham and Cardiff, and all the permanent attractions consistent with the second city of England and the capital of Wales. Cheltenham has therefore sought to develop a plethora of festivals to promote tourism. These festivals include the International Festival of Music, the Festival of Literature, Jazz Festival, Cricket Festival and an arts festival. In 1999, over six million visitors were attracted to Cheltenham, contributing £220 million to the town's economy and helping to support over 6,000 jobs (Cheltenham Borough Council 2002). For the county of Gloucestershire as a whole, 27 million visitors were recorded, contributing £500 million and supporting a direct workforce of 18,612, the fourth largest employer in the county and responsible for one in ten jobs in Gloucestershire (Gloucestershire Tourism 2002). Visitors to Cheltenham therefore generate nearly half the tourism revenue for the county and the Cheltenham Festival is the largest single contributor to tourism in Cheltenham, demonstrating the prominent role that the three-day Festival has in the local economy.

During the winter season, 10,000 of the 250,000 attendees of the races stay overnight in Gloucestershire, while for the Festival, 10,000 of the 60,000 daily customers and staff remain overnight, making available accommodation extremely difficult to find during the Festival. The local tourism office pride themselves that they do not go home until everyone has been found a room for the night, although the area over which customers stay is spread far beyond the borders of the county. A fully booked accommodation stock for the three day Festival would contribute around £1.5million to the Cheltenham economy, gate receipts are equal to approximately £4.5million and a conservative estimate of spending at £75 per person per visit would give a total direct contribution to the local economy of over £17million . No formal attempt has been made to measure the benefits enjoyed by the town or the county as a result of the Festival, although it is felt that the expansion of the November meetings and the addition of Sunday racing to the schedule has encouraged racegoers to stay overnight and further explore the county.

The Managing Director of the Cheltenham Horseracing Association notes that "great emphasis is placed on ensuring the Racecourse is effectively portrayed as a Gloucestershire based location to help boost the local economy. The majority of people who come to the Racecourse do so for that specific reason but also use the opportunity to take in the beautiful surroundings of the Cotswolds at the same time" (Gillespie, 2001).

Yet, although it is intuitive to believe with the large numbers who visit the racecourse throughout the year that some will return later to visit the Cotswolds or the wider region around Cheltenham, the tourism officer for Cheltenham feels that it is a misnomer to suggest that many do (Jennings 2001). Indeed, the market who go to watch the racing are seen as a separate group from those who attend the arts festival, or the literature festival and attempts should be made to further separate, rather than look to combine, the various festivals of Cheltenham town. Thus, the racecourse at Cheltenham can be seen as an independent event, which generates income for the region during the time of the races, but does not operate significantly as a shop window for the local tourism industry generating income at other times of the year outside race days.

Foot and Mouth Disease

In February 2001, the first case of Foot and Mouth Disease (FMD) was confirmed in the UK since an outbreak of the disease in 1967. A total of 2030 cases of the disease were identified and a total of over 4 million animals were culled during the crisis with media broadcasts showing burning carcasses of slaughtered animals. The English Tourism Council (ETC) have predicted that losses to English tourism in 2001 would be £5bn, while in 2002 and 2003 reductions would total £2.5bn and £1bn respectively (ETC 2001b). On January 15th 2002, government officials announced that the disease had finally been defeated after 11 months of battling the outbreak.

As a response to FMD the British Horseracing Board (BHB) and the Jockey Club in conjunction with the Ministry of Agriculture, Farms and Fisheries (MAFF) set down strict instructions and guidelines in order that racing might continue despite FMD. In the absence of any confirmed cases near the racecourse these instructions enabled preparations for the Festival to continue as planned despite vocal opposition from the local farming community who wanted the event to be cancelled. Advice received was that the Festival would pose no greater threat than a premiership football match, none of which had been cancelled. This advice was strongly contested by the farming community, who instead wanted to limit as far as possible the number of people visiting the area and increasing the risk of spreading the disease.

A distinguishing feature of the FMD was the evolving nature of the disaster and the way in which policies were amended as the disease refused to abate. Instructions passed down from BHB and MAFF were subsequently changed, necessitating the postponement of the Festival from its traditional date in March and its rescheduling to take the place of a smaller meeting planned for April. The nature of the Hunt racing season meant that dates not conflicting with other courses were scarce and that the ground would not be suitable for hunt racing once into May. In operational terms, May also carries a heavier number of other sporting fixtures and so reduces the availability of the required plant, equipment and staff.

A further issue was the importance of the Irish racers and horses. The Festival is famed for its links with Irish supporters, which it feels gives it a distinctive atmosphere and the source of much of its attraction for non-Irish customers. As a key element in attracting supporters, media and sponsors from a distinct market is to attract horses from that market, races in Ireland form an important element of the preparation for the Festival. Thus, in a bid to prevent the spread of the disease to the island, the Irish government cancelled all races in Ireland and stated that 30 days must elapse after the final outbreak of the disease in the UK before racing could resume in Ireland. This decision served to further disjoint the racing season. On April 1st, the BHB ruled that confirmation of FMD at a farm about 5 miles from the racecourse meant the abandonment of racing in April and the possibility of simply postponing the Festival to a later date. The Festival was thus cancelled for 2001.

In total there were 258 confirmed cases of FMD in the South West, including 76 cases in Gloucestershire. This led to a reduction in general business turnover in the South

West of £760 million and the loss of 2,500 jobs in just two months from the outbreak of the disease to April 2001. Tourism and agriculture related businesses were shown to have suffered more than any other type of business, while rural businesses were also shown to have fared worse than urban businesses. Ninety percent of visitor attractions reported a decline in turnover during March 2001 as compared to the previous year, while 72% of all tourism businesses reported a fall in turnover over the same period. It is estimated that there was a decline in tourism expenditure in the South West tourism region of £127 million for the whole year, roughly equivalent to 4% of the total tourism expenditure. This figure represents a contribution to the regional GDP of £60 million and this would support 1900 full time equivalent jobs (Gripaios et al. 2001). However, the initial calculations are based on an early end to the disease, whereas FMD was not finally eradicated for almost one year from its discovery, had other external events not intervened, the figures would represent a low estimation of the total impact.

Discussion

Whose Event Is It?

The course at Cheltenham was first set out in 1898 and in 1904 was selected by the National Hunt Committee to host the National Hunt Steeplechase, the race that developed into the three day Cheltenham Festival of today. By 1911, due to the success of Cheltenham in hosting the race and promises for future development, Cheltenham was awarded the race permanently and the Festival has been organised in its current format since 1948. As such, the racecourse has been a part of rural life in the region for over 100 years, having developed from the leisure and business pursuits of the rural community. The role of the farming community as an important constituent in the racecourse had gone unchallenged until the outbreak of FMD when the willingness of the management of Cheltenham racecourse to continue with the races if at all possible was seen as duplicitous by local farmers. The managing director of Cheltenham racecourse explained, "…we look out from this modern grandstand and its countryside and you cannot deny that we are part of the countryside, but we are in a modern stadium and we are part of a modern stadium culture….you have to deal with the responsibilities and the national media interest in that, but … you have got to remember that the farming community see this as a manifestation of their own lives" (Gillespie 2001).

Such a position can lead us to consider who the event "belongs to", not strictly in terms of ownership, but in the sense that the local community feel the event is one that they will support and can relate to. The tourism literature is full of warnings of the need to mitigate social impacts in order that the local populace support the tourism industry and so create a positive atmosphere for the tourists (Cohen, 1972; Butler, 1974; Doxey, 1975). Similarly, the event tourism literature notes that festivals and events can be designed not only to attract visitors to rural regions, but also to develop community solidarity and civic pride amongst local residents (Getz, 1991). Mayfield and Crompton (1995) noted that increasing socialisation, promoting and preserving culture, improving the well-being of a community, and gaining recognition and support from various communities were motivations of rural event organisers. While Aronoff (1993) noted that community celebration in rural areas can help regions overcome past rivalries and can generate valuable resources for local economic recovery. There is, however, also evidence to suggest that the role of tourism in rural development can lead to a negative change in residents' relationships with one another and with their community (Huang & Stewart, 1996). Conflicts of interest may result over whether or not to develop tourism (Lankford, 1994), or whether to change and modify an event or festival for commercial purposes. Therefore "when festivals and other special events are consciously developed and promoted as tourist attractions, there is the risk that commercialisation will detract from celebration; that entertainment or spectacle will replace the inherent meanings of the celebrations" (Getz, 1994:313).

Indeed, the managing director of Cheltenham racecourse stressed the value of the event retaining its distinctive local flavour in the face of the needs for an increasing number of staff being brought in by event companies just for the Festival who might be working at Wimbledon next week and Silverstone the week after. The march of corporatism is in direct response to the decision to expand the Festival, which in turn is a response to the continuing popularity of the Festival, based largely on its links with the local community. Gillespie (2001) describes, "…the pubs, the hotels, in the main they love it, they rise to the occasion…the locals get involved with it because they go to the pub and they have racing stories, as do the local stores, it invades peoples lives…there is a relationship between the town, the racecourse and the countryside". However, the willingness of the local residents to decorate their houses, shops, pubs and restaurants for a Festival they no longer feel ownership of could threaten the atmosphere of a rural event and advance the move to a more corporate event that simply occurs in a rural economy. Such a position depends on the local residents supporting the position of the farmers and being critical of the racecourse for its decision to reject protestations from farmers to cancel the Festival. Having demonstrated that the Festival has outgrown its origins, and now sees its place as being among the sporting community, whether the Festival can retain the local involvement that has made it such a success presents a key challenge to the management team. The challenge to the town of Cheltenham is to recognise their role within an event that provides benefit to their economy.

The Relationship With The Local Tourism Industry

No formal links exist between Cheltenham and the surrounding elements of the tourism industry, although frequent contact is maintained between the managing director of Cheltenham and the Cheltenham Tourism Officer. Trips to meet with key market organisers are made with the Cheltenham Tourism Officer and officials from the Heart of England Tourist Board. Cheltenham has always been part of the Heart of England Tourist Board, although the region identifies itself more with the South West of England. Thus, special dispensation has been made to allow Cheltenham town to belong to both tourist boards and enjoy the benefits of these associations. A similar arrangement has been made for the town with the Regional Development Agencies of Gloucestershire and the Heart of England. This pragmatic approach enables the town of Cheltenham to ally itself with promotions suited to the tourism product rather than being constrained by artificial catchment areas.

No formal mechanism exists between the region’s largest tourism attraction and the local hoteliers, with instead the local tourism board being used as a conduit through which contact can be made by the racecourse with the hoteliers as necessary.

While the relationship between the racecourse and the hoteliers is held to be good, problems have arisen as a result of the FMD with key customer groups.

> "…the Irish were generally pretty upset with us in February and March when we originally said we were going to go ahead and the Irish were not able to come, they got very upset. It was like going ahead with a party but our chief guest couldn't come, they got very upset with us. And then when we postponed, a lot of the hotels didn't look after the Irish, because someone has got to pick up the risk somewhere and a lot of the smaller hotels in particular have made it very difficult… the Irish people have spent a lot of money and they never had a festival, and it seems because there is an assumption that the Irish will turn up, there is an increasing number of obstacles put in their path" (Gillespie 2001).

Many hoteliers chose to retain deposits once it was clear that the Festival would be abandoned and have subsequently demanded higher deposits from visitors from Ireland for the Festival. The racecourse itself refunded all ticket sales and all suppliers contracted for the event, but this spirit was not evident throughout all organisations who play a role in the Festival. Beyond the immediate region of the Festival, the main airline serving customers from Ireland for the Festival has announced payment must be made in full 10 weeks before travel as well as requiring customers to use internet booking.

Such actions by hoteliers and airlines have left the Irish feeling slighted, as well as financially hurt. The result has been a charm offensive waged by the racecourse and representatives of the various tourism boards to encourage the Irish racing public to return to the event. However, the actions by the hoteliers are indicative of the short-termist approach that can be taken by organisations to the possible detriment of the long term success of their and other businesses. The danger for the Festival is that this short-termism costs them customers, who will then get out of the habit of coming to the racecourse. This is a particularly acute danger when so much of the annual revenue is derived from a three day event. An additional threat is a recent rise in the power of Irish hunt racing, to the point where Cheltenham's role in the racing calendar can be seen as vulnerable to challenge. Such a challenge would threaten the prosperity of the town of Cheltenham and the wider regions who currently benefit from the Festival and its other events.

Re-Evaluation Of Policies

"…while I wouldn't have wished it (FMD) on anyone else, it has put into focus our relationship with others" Gillespie (2001). FMD has led to a re-evaluation of the relationship between the Festival, its suppliers and stakeholders, particularly with regard to issues such as dependency and partnership. The disaster has forced a recognition that there had been complacency with regard to the value of customers from Ireland as well as the 6500 "members" of Cheltenham who were not entitled to a refund on their membership because of the cancellation of one particular racing meet during the year, even though the Festival represents the main attraction of membership. This caused great upset amongst some members and the Managing Director concedes the problems arose in describing a policy that was not well stated originally and "…if you haven't had a reverse in 55 years, you get out of the habit of how to handle it". However, as a result of the disaster "…we will better state it (the policy) so that people know at the point of engagement what the deal is…it is a very good example of how we have taken them for granted and therefore we haven't managed it well and so we now have a whole new re-design of how we are going to engage with our members" (Gillespie 2001).

Similarly, the cancellation of the Festival meant local hoteliers, restaurateurs and others dependent on the three day meet were forced to re-evaluate their relationship with the racecourse. There is evidence that suppliers have profited from FMD by being refunded after the decision to cancel, and then not passing this refund on to those who would supply the suppliers. Such practices have led to a revision of relationships and a tightening of the procedures for engagement with suppliers. Further attention has been drawn to the inappropriately low levels of insurance cover that many organisations had, weighing the likelihood that FMD would not happen against the increasing cost of insurance. Cheltenham racecourse was insured for such an event, marking it as unusual in the tourism industry.

Yet, as a result of FMD, the tourism industry has benefited from a heightened profile and a wider recognition of its contribution to the economy as a whole and specifically to the rural economy (Cotton 2001). Throughout the FMD the media has highlighted that 1 in 5 new jobs in the UK are created in the tourism industry and that the tourism industry is worth far more than the agricultural sector. To try to capitalise on this elevation, nationally the tourism industry has formed a Tourism Alliance "to enable the tourism industry to speak with a united, cohesive voice" (Travelmole 2001a), headed by the Director-General of the Confederation of British Industry (CBI). Such a chair can do much to ensure tourism does not become excluded, or sidelined from the planning and management of the future for rural economies.

However, from the ashes of the old Ministry for Agriculture, Fisheries and Food has come the creation of a new government ministry, the Department for the Environment, Food and Rural Affairs (DEFRA). It is indicative of the relative power of the farming industry and the tourism industry that the department for tourism does not sit within this newly formed ministry, but instead remains within the Department for Culture, Media and Sport (DCMS). The much heralded claim of the Labour government has been to produce "joined-up government", yet the exclusion of the representatives of the tourism industry from the ministry for rural affairs can only reduce tourism's influence. At a time when the rural economy in the UK is being reviewed, and the importance of the tourism industry to that economy has been amply illustrated, it is essential that tourism positions itself to be able to claim the resources commensurate with its newly recognised status. However, with further decline expected in the agricultural sector post FMD, the importance and benefits of tourism should not be over stated and over reliance should not occur.

The Effects Of September 11th 2001[1]

A survey of domestic tourism in the UK showed that as a result of FMD spending for the first 6 months of 2001 had declined by 6%, when compared with the first 6 months of 2000. This had produced losses of £1.4billion from January to June 2001 (Travelmole 2002), yet during this period larger towns and cities saw an increased level of businesses from domestic tourism as they were perceived to be safer places to visit. Domestic tourism in the UK contributes £4 out of every £5 earned through tourism, equalling £2billion more revenue earned through five times as many trips as made by overseas visitors. However, international visitors were also keen to remain in urban areas, denying the countryside its share of the £12.5billion international visitors spend in the UK (BTA 2001**).**

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[1] **At the time of writing there was little published research to illustrate the extent of this switch back to rural destinations, although it is expected that by the time of the conference in July there will be greater evidence available**

The events of September 11th in New York and Washington had a severe impact on tourism in the UK. Figures for air traffic from the North Atlantic show a 31.3% decline for October and 26% decline for November (Travelmole 2001a), the same large cities and towns that had benefited from FMD when perceived as safer places to visit, now faced a significant decline in visitors as they were seen as potential targets of terrorism. The increased risk of overseas travel resulted in evidence of people switching to holidays in the UK rather than travel overseas. Research conducted by the ETC in October 2001 revealed 15% of respondents had cancelled their trip, either domestic or international, 25% had postponed, 48% decided not to make any plans until the situation was more clear, yet 19% of those contacted had switched to holidaying in the UK rather than abroad (Travelmole 2001b). The main beneficiaries of this decision were rural destinations, which were once again perceived to be safe areas to holiday.

Conclusion

This paper has highlighted the growing importance of tourism and event tourism in regional UK and the problems associated with the over reliance of tourism for some regional economies. The case of the Cheltenham Festival in the UK has illustrated the importance of the Festival for the local economy and the organisers, the Cheltenham Horseracing Association. However, an analysis of the impact of the foot and mouth outbreak and its impact upon the event has raised a number of key issues, which will need to be addressed in the coming years. In particular, the issue of balancing the social and community needs of the event with marketing and commercial development may need to be addressed in the future. The difficulty in balancing these goals may be difficult, and Getz (1994) notes whether the social/cultural and marketing goals of events can ever be balanced.

Furthermore, the foot and mouth outbreak has outlined the relationship of the festival with key stakeholder groups. First, it has outlined the short-term gain of some hotel and tourism operators and how this may impact upon the future viability and atmosphere of the event. The foot and mouth outbreak has also led to a re-evaluation of policies surrounding the management of the event, particularly in light of the behaviour of the tourism industry, but also the reaction of members to the Festival being cancelled for 2001. For Cheltenham, FMD has meant a valuable revision of its relation with its customers and stakeholders. The disaster has forced recognition that there had been some complacency with regard to the value of customers from Ireland and a determination not to take them for granted in the future.

Within the course of 8 months the rural tourism industry suffered huge losses from FMD and then benefited from growth as domestic tourism increased and diverted to the countryside due to the impacts of September 11. Such a course of events illustrates the vulnerability of the tourism industry to disasters, but demonstrates the potential for positive change to emerge. However, the extent of negative or positive impact is largely beyond the control of the tourism industry. Both FMD and the terrorism on September 11th could not have been influenced by the tourism industry, only responded to, while both events were entirely unpredictable. The case of FMD and September 11th illustrates the vulnerability of destinations reliant on events and festivals to support their economies.

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A Study of the Community and Tourism Benefits of the ‘Best on Earth in Perth’ Events Campaign in Western Australia

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Abstract

The events division of the Western Australian Tourism Commission (WATC), EventsCorp has, since 1997, been conducting an annual promotional campaign the ‘Best on Earth in Perth’ (herein ‘the campaign’) in which international sporting (including four Olympic sports) and cultural events have featured. The purpose of this paper is to review the social benefits of such publicly funded events agencies and assess the extent to which the campaign was successful in Western Australia.

The paper will begin with a review of the literature on the social benefits of events and a discussion of the rationale for the campaign. The issues of low levels of

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awareness of Perth in major markets in the Eastern states and overseas provide the background and justification for the campaign. A major focus of the campaign was to create more awareness in the local population of the success that WA has had in bidding for and hosting events in an increasingly competitive environment. The success of EventsCorp in attracting international events is indicated by a comparison with other states in 2001. The extent to which visitors to events (including the local population) were aware of the success of the campaign and EventsCorp was tested in visitor surveys at the 2000 World Triathlon Championships.

The survey findings indicate satisfactory levels of awareness of the campaign given the limited budget available for promotion. The findings also highlight the high levels of community pride amongst local residents when Perth hosts a large number of international events such as the World Triathlon Championships.

Introduction

EventsCorp is the Western Australian Government's major events agency and a division of the Western Australian Tourism Commission. It was established in 1986, and EventsCorp is recognised today as a world leader in its field. EventsCorp’s main objective is to develop, attract, support and, as appropriate, manage events which can cost-effectively market Western Australia nationally and internationally. The events attracted by EventsCorp promote WA internationally as a desirable and vibrant tourist destination and generate media exposure and income for the state. EventsCorp markets the major international events secured for WA in a campaign known as the Best on Earth in Perth, (herein ‘the campaign’). Events have included the Hyundai

Hopman Cup, the Heineken Classic, Telstra Rally Australia, the FINA World Swimming Championships, the ITU Triathlon World Championships, the UCI World Track Cycling Championships, the ISAF World Windsurfing Championships, the FIG Sport Aerobics World Championships, and international rugby union.

The purpose of this paper is to review the social benefits of such publicly funded events agencies and assess the extent to which the campaign was successful in Western Australia. It begins with a literature review and discussion of the rationale for the campaign. A major focus of the campaign was to create more awareness of the success that WA has had in hosting events in an increasingly competitive tourism environment. In terms of implementation of the campaign, EventsCorp did not receive any additional funding for promotion, advertising or production of marketing collateral, and with very limited resources. Despite this constraint, the success of EventsCorp in attracting international events is indicated by a comparison with other states in 2001. The extent to which visitors to events (including the local population) were aware of the success of the campaign and EventsCorp was tested in visitor surveys at the 2000 World Triathlon Championships.

The research conducted in 2000 was the first attempt to measure in a quantitative sense these social dimensions of the campaign. It was proposed that the research be used as an indicator of the extent to which the Western Australian and wider community support the staging of international events. In an era of tighter government budgets and fiscal restraint, organizations such as EventsCorp were under increasing public scrutiny with regards to their funding and operation. In this regard, the research also aimed at addressing the internal research and performance monitoring needs of EventsCorp and clarifying their role in Western Australia.

Literature Review

The linkages between tourism events and destination image are increasingly important to tourism organisations in the public sector. The value of events as a means of creating and projecting positive destination images is well recognised (Kotler et al, 1993, Getz 1997, Mules and Faulkner, 1996). Mihalik and Simonetta (1998:9) found that hallmark events 'are powerful opportunities for image enhancement with national and international visitors and at the same time create pride for the local citizenry'. Major events attract the attention of the international media, and an opportunity exists for host cities to project positive images through a variety of media productions such as "postcard" style media pieces, panoramic footage of the destination, host profiles and human interest stories. This "free" promotion of the destination is a major bonus for host cities if managed correctly and can generate increased community pride and tourism awareness before, during and after the event. The immediate short-term social benefits from hosting events include excitement, increased community pride, access to new facilities and increased social interactions and have been quantified as 'psychic income' by Burns, Hatch and Mules (1986) in the case of the Adelaide Grand Prix.

This enhancement in community pride and destination image following a major or hallmark event has been variously referred to as the 'halo effect' (Hall 1992), the 'showcase effect' (Fredline and Faulkner 1998:187) and the 'feelgood effect' (Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell and Harris 1999: 27). It has the result of perpetuating the long term economic and social benefits of events and can also lead to greater support for future events and an increase in volunteerism (Getz 1999:22).

Events can provide an opportunity for image enhancement or correction and it has been argued that image can mean the difference between success and failure of a tourism destination (Chon, 1991). However, despite the importance of image enhancement and community involvement in events, there has been limited monitoring of these aspects of events. A number of case studies have alluded to the importance of social benefits and costs from a resident's perspective (Ritchie and Aitken, 1984; Soutar and McLeod, 1989; Fredline and Faulkner, 1998; Jeong, 1999:169; Mihalik and Simonetta, 1998). Other studies have examined the improvement in the investment potential of event destinations (Bentick, 1986; Hiller 1989) and enhancement of destination image (Carlsen and Williams 1999). This research will provide another perspective on tourism events, that of the tourist and community awareness of a specific campaign designed to achieve the tourism and social benefits described in the literature and case studied at previous major and hallmark events. Furthermore, it addresses some of the research foci identified at previous event research in exploring the social impacts of events and the political dimensions of funding decisions associated with events (Harris and Huyskens, 2001)

Background

Research in major tourism markets (WATC 1996a) found that Western Australia as a tourism destination did not have a meaningful identity as an international city, and that the image of Perth as a small parochial town was prevalent. There was also a consistent perception that "the city and the State are quiet, that they lack activity, that there is a long distance between places of interest and that generally Perth and WA do not offer a lot of holiday alternatives" (WATC 1996a). A summary of tourism market research in the key tourist origin markets of Singapore, Indonesia, Malaysia and the Eastern States of Australia revealed low levels of awareness [between 3% and 10% of potential visitors "knew a lot" about Western Australia as a holiday destination (WATC 1996b)]. This market research was used to develop a campaign that would raise awareness levels and enhance the image of Western Australia.

The campaign was designed to modify the image of WA and position the state as a "vibrant tourism destination" (EventsCorp 1997 media release). In launching the campaign the Minister for Tourism, Norman Moore identified three important benefits of events tourism; economic benefits, media exposure for Western Australia and enhanced image of Western Australia as a tourist destination. Recognition at the political level of enhanced tourism destination image is evidence of the links between tourism policy and events. The government has committed to a five year campaign to position Western Australia as a "Fresh, Free, Spirited and Natural" holiday destination. In line with this positioning strategy, international super model Elle McPherson was chosen to reflect the desired image that the WATC sought to convey to major tourist markets overseas and interstate. The Best on Earth campaign is an integral component of the overall branding strategy, Brand WA, which is the major strategy for promoting Western Australian Tourism between 1996 and 2002 (Carlsen and Williams, 1999).

In 1996, EventsCorp made a strategic decision to bid for a number of established international events as well as continue developing new events. During 1995-96 an unprecedented eight major events were secured, which included four regular events - the Hopman Cup (tennis), the Vines Classic (golf), Rally Australia (motor car rallying) and the Margaret River Masters (surfing) events. A total of twelve international events were secured, encouraging EventsCorp to declare 1997/98 the “Year of the Event” in Western Australia. The media coverage associated with these events included tourism “postcards” - 15 second introductions to WAs’ major tourism assets is used as justification for government funding for the events. For some events, the commercial value of this promotion on international television exceeds the budget for promotion of tourism through the regular channels. For example one event, the Vines Classic, is broadcast to an estimated 200 million people in Asia and Europe (EventsCorp 1997). The opportunity to promote Western Australia through the media coverage associated with four World Championships (Track Cycling, Triathlon, Windsurfing and Swimming), in addition to the regular events and new events such as the Aerobics World Championships, Darts World Cup and the Whitbread Round the World Yacht Race (sailing) was unprecedented. The scale and significance of this twelve event calendar in WA is highlighted by the fact that in 1986, only fifteen international events were hosted in the whole of Australia (Faulkner 1993).

EventsCorp has since secured 20 international events for Perth through either bids or contract renewals since 1997. Comparison with other states of Australia indicates the level of success that EventsCorp has achieved in attracting and retaining international events for Western Australia. It can be seen from Table 1 that no less than eleven of the fourteen events hosted in WA in 2001 provided international exposure by virtue of the event attracting predominantly (i.e. at least 50%) overseas competitors or performers, or by the fact that the event is a world championship. This compares with

Queensland that hosted four international events in 2001 and Victoria which hosted five international events. This comparison shows that WA is hosting twice as many international events as other comparative states of Australia.

Table 1 Comparison with other states 2001

2001 MAJOR EVENTS IN WA, QLD & VIC					
THE CAMPAIGN CALENDAR 2001		QUEENSLAND EVENTS CALENDAR 2001		VICTORIA EVENTS CALENDAR 2001	
30 Dec – 6 Jan	Hyundai Hopman Cup	31 Dec – 6 Jan	Thalgo Australian Women's Hardcourts	14 – 27 Jan	Australian Open Tennis Championships
26 Jan – 18 Feb	Perth International Arts Festival	1- 4 March	ANZ Ladies Masters Golf Tournament	March - April	Qantas Australian Grand Prix
1 – 4 Feb	Heineken Classic Perth	23 – 25 March	2001 Telstra Australian Track & Field Championships	March - April	Melbourne International Comedy Festival
9 – 11 Feb	Davis Cup by NEC Australia V Ecuador	21 April – 5 May	Inter Dominian Championships Pacers	April	Rip Curl Pro and SunSmart Classic
10 & 11 March	Leeuwin Estate Concert	24 April	Inter Dominian Championships Day Two	14 – 16 April	Australia Post Stawell Gift
21 – 25 March	Sun Microsystems Australia Cup	27 – 29 April	The Moolooaba Triathlon Festival	28 – 29 July	Philips Mobile Phones World Aerials
29 March – 4 April	Champion's Cup	6 June – 7 July	Down Under Events All Star Grid Iron	7 – 29 September	Australian Football League Finals Series
31 March – 8 April	Wet Dreams Masters	24 June	Gold Coast Marathon	7 – 28 October	Melbourne 2001 International Squash Festival
7 July – 16 Sept	Monet and Japan Exhibition	30 June	British Lions Test	10 Oct – 22 Nov	Spring Racing Carnival
18 Aug	Rugby Union Test Match Australia V South Africa	4 July – 14 July	14th WAVA World Veterans' Athletics Championships	10 Oct - 22 Nov	Melbourne Festival (Arts)
October	Speed Gliding World Series	24 – 26 August	Queensland 500 V8 Supercars	12 – 14 October	Qantas Australian Motorcycle Grand Prix
1 – 4 Nov	Telstra Rally Australia	29 August – 9 Sept	2001 Goodwill Games Brisbane	17 – 25 November	Equitana Asia Pacific (Horses)
November	Test Cricket Australia V New Zealand	25 – 28 October 29 Nov – 2 Dec	Honda Indy 300 Australian PGA Championship (Golf)		
30 Nov – 2 Dec	Karate Goju Kai World Championships				

Method

A social survey method was used to test the levels of knowledge and awareness of the EventsCorp and the campaign, levels of community pride when hosting international events, information sources used for events and other opinions about events in WA. A convenience sample of 365 state, national and international visitors were interviewed during the World Triathlon Championships in April 2000 in Perth. The survey questions were designed in consultation with senior staff at EventsCorp and a pilot survey was tested before conducting the fieldwork. A group of eight trained students from the Special Events Management unit at Edith Cowan University collected the data, conducted the analysis (using Excel) and presented the report as a group project for assessment.

Findings

The analysis was conducted in two stages. Firstly, frequencies of the responses of the questionnaires were described. Secondly crosstabulations were used to complete the research. The findings are presented using graphs and tables and where applicable crosstabulations have been used to interpret the data.

Figure 1 – Australian Resident Sample Profile

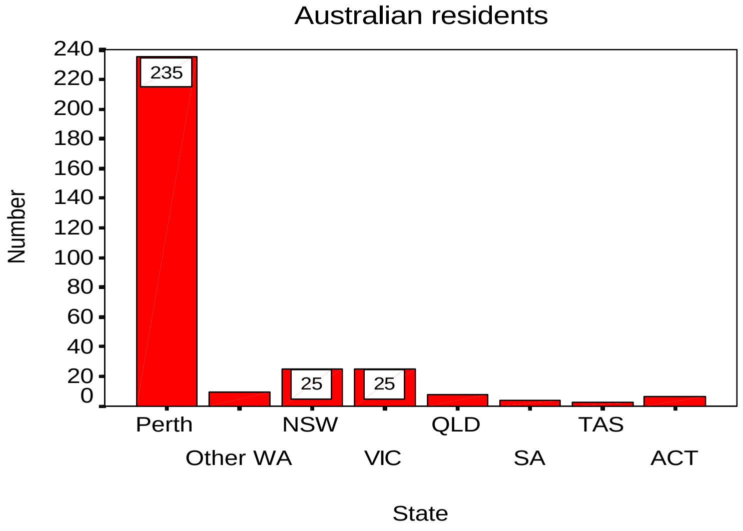
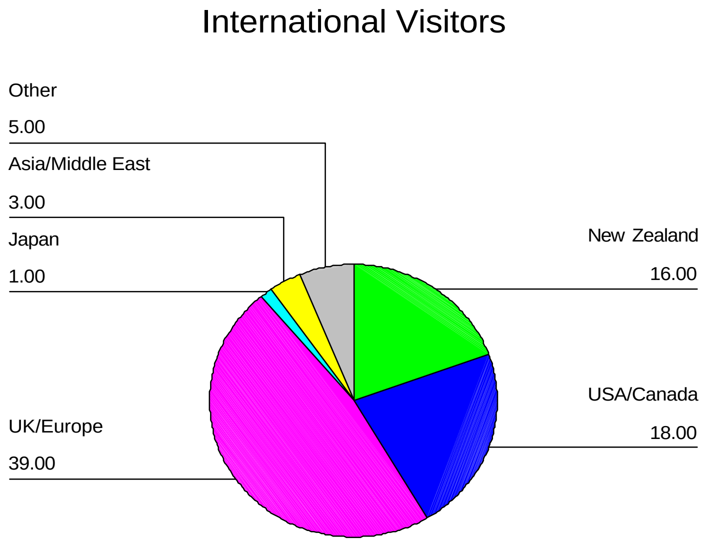
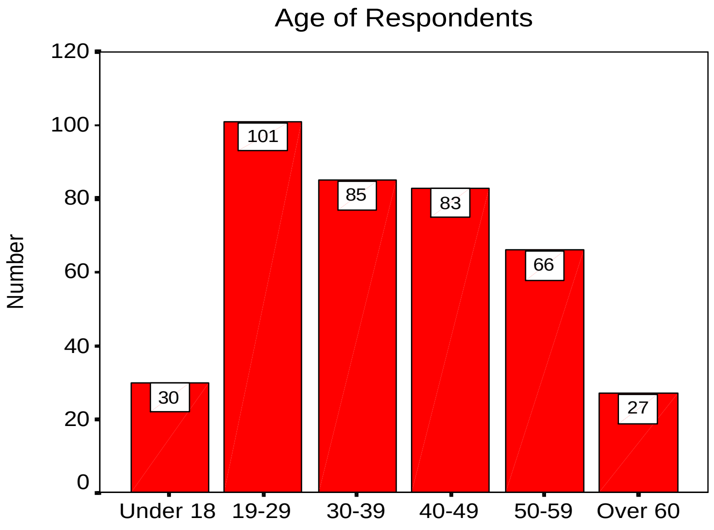


Figure 2 – International Visitor Sample Profile



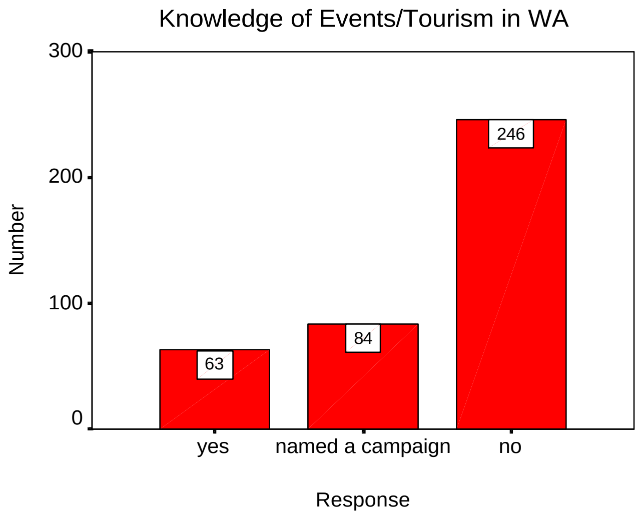
As seen from Figures 1 and 2 the majority of people surveyed were residents of Western Australia with 235 respondents. Figure 1 further indicates that the next most frequently recorded Australian respondents came from New South Wales and Victoria with each having 25 respondents. Figure 2 illustrated that there are 39 respondents from UK/Europe, 18 respondents were from Canada/USA and 16 were from New Zealand. Apart from Perth residents, the next most frequently surveyed group was from UK/Europe.

Figure 3 – Age of Respondents



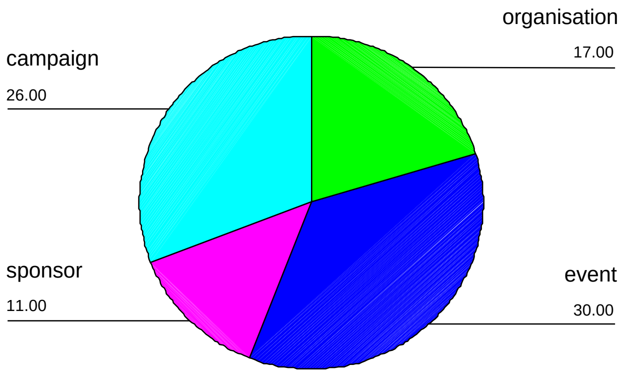
The majority of the respondents were between the ages of 19 and 49 (Figure 3). The least represented age groups surveyed at the World Triathalon Championships were 18 years and under and 60 years and over.

Figure 4 – Respondent Knowledge of Events Tourism in WA



Results depicted in figures 4 and 5 relates to responses from question 3 in the questionnaire, on self-assessed event tourism knowledge. These results show that 246 (67%) respondents were unable to name any campaigns that promote events and tourism in WA (Figure 4) and 84 (33%) respondents were able to name an events tourism organization or campaign. Of these, 63 respondents were able to specifically name the campaign (17%).

Figure 5 – Knowledge of Events and/or Organisations



Of the 84 respondents that indicated that they could recall a promotion of events or tourism in Western Australia, 30 of those respondents could recall events such as Rally Australia, World Triathlon Championships, World Swimming and Hopman Cup (Figure 5). A further 26 respondents could recall a specific promotion such as Elle MacPherson. Those respondents who could recall an organisation that promoted events tourism referred specifically to EventsCorp and WATC numbered 17. The remaining 11 respondents who could specifically recall a campaign that promoted events or tourism in Western Australia named a sponsor such as Qantas.

Figure 6 – Knowledge of The Campaign

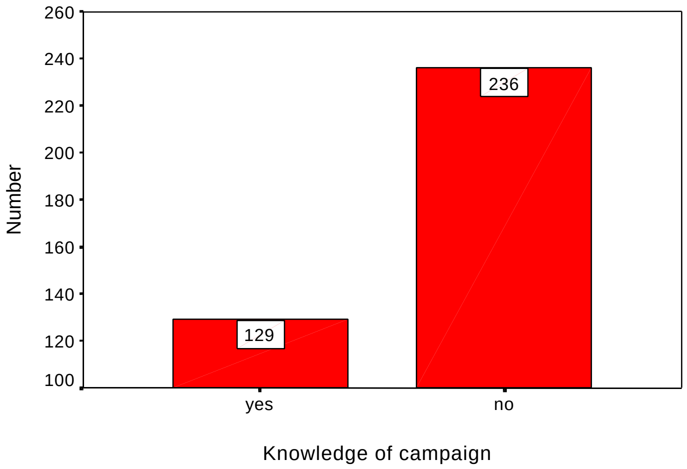
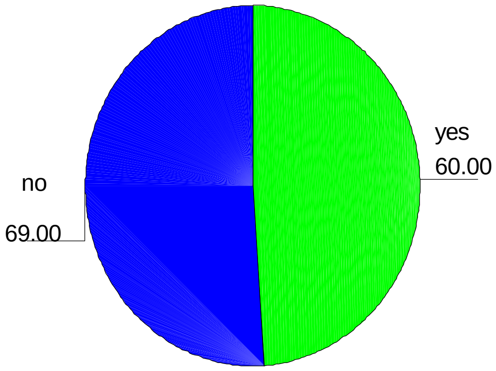


Figure 6 indicates that of the 365 respondents, 129 respondents, when prompted, had heard of the campaign and 236 had not, providing a prompted awareness rate of 34.8%.

Figure 7 – Knowledge of EventsCorp



60 out of the 129 respondents with (prompted) knowledge of the campaign indicated that they knew which organisation was responsible. It can be concluded from figure 7 that approximately 46.5% of the respondents who had heard of the campaign where aware of who was responsible for it.

Table 2 - Knowledge of Events/Tourism in Western Australia Amongst Australian Residents

	YES	Named a campaign	NO	TOTAL
WA	47	69	128	244
NSW	3	5	17	25
VIC	2	6	17	25
QLD	1	2	5	8
SA	0	1	3	4
TAS	0	0	2	2
ACT	1	0	5	6
TOTAL	54	83	177	314

It can be seen from table 2 that the majority of WA residents have no knowledge of events and tourism that promote Western Australia with 128 respondents indicating this, while 116 respondents (47.5%) from Western Australia indicated that they had knowledge of events and tourism in WA. Respondents from all other States indicated virtually no knowledge of the *campaign* and were unable to name a specific campaign. Likewise, a very small proportion of international visitors had heard of the campaign.

Figure 8 – Community Pride in Hosting Events

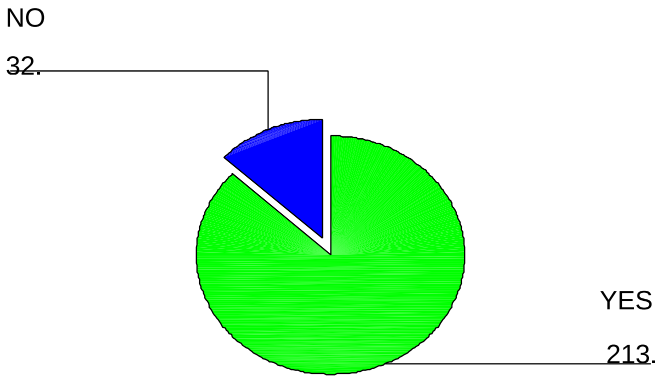
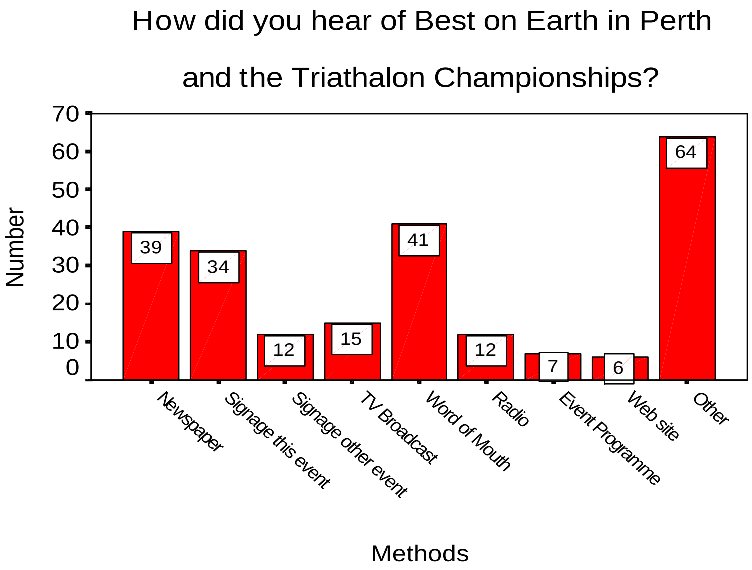


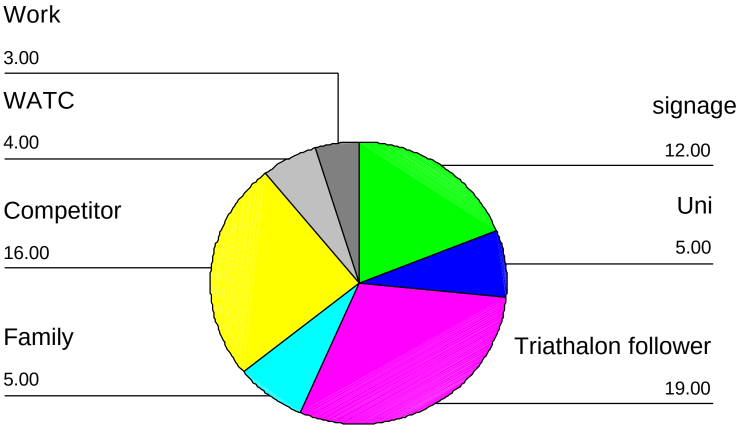
Figure 8 indicates that a majority of respondents feel a sense of community pride when Perth hosts a large number of international events, with some 213 respondents (87%) responding in the affirmative. This is also supported by the high proportion of positive comments by respondents, indicating that events are a good way of promoting visitation to WA.

Figure 9 – Information Sources



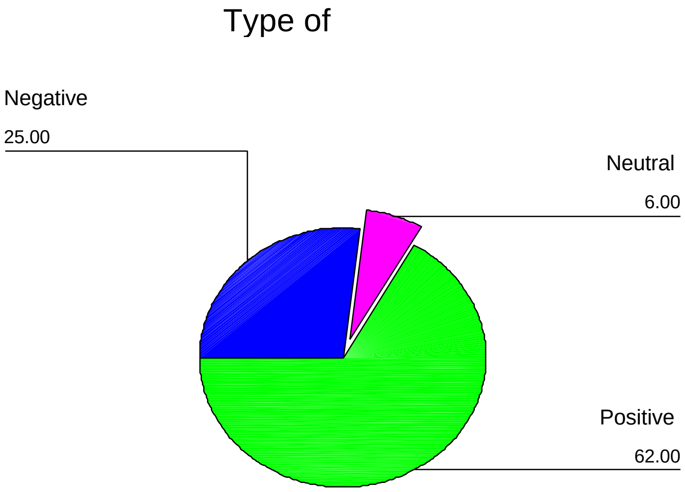
More respondents had heard of the campaign and the Triathlon Championships via other methods (Figure 9). The other responses are further illustrated in Figure 10. Of those selections that were available on the questionnaire the most popular method was via word of mouth. This was either in the form of friends, family, work or sporting colleagues. Newspaper and signage at the World Triathlon Championships were the next most popular ways that respondents had heard of either the campaign or the Triathlon itself.

Figure 10 – Other Information Sources



The 64 respondents that indicated that they had heard of the campaign and the Triathlon Championships via other specific methods are illustrated in figure 10. Most of the respondents heard from either a competitor, a follower or were involved in the sport of triathalon.

Figure 11 – Coding of Other Comments



Respondents were asked if they had any comments to make regarding the campaign series as well as any other comments relating to tourism and events in Western Australia. These responses were coded during the data analysis stage as either positive, neutral or negative and the majority (67%) were found to be positive (Figure 11). Positive comments included:

Should continue in order to sell WA

Good to have in Perth

Great promo for WA

Attracts people to Perth

Keep them coming

Negative comments related mainly to the lack of promotion and access to events, such as:

not enough publicity

not enough advertising

not many spectators

need more events

should increase promotion

expensive

do more of a mix of events

not enough facilities

Neutral comments indicated some ambivalence and confusion over the events calendar and content for WA as well as some parochial views on the transfer of a small number of events interstate:

what other events do they promote?

what is it all about?

take events back from VIC and NSW

shame we have lost all the big events

Discussion

The success of the campaign in attracting international events is evident from the preceding discussion and comparison with like states of Australia. That this success has been achieved with no dedicated promotional budget and very limited resources is a credit to the staff of EventsCorp. EventsCorp has supported well over 100 major events since 1997 and all but one has been successfully staged. In the highly competitive and risky environment of events tourism, this is an even more remarkable achievement. The economic and tourism benefits of these events have been well documented, but the social benefits in terms of increased awareness, knowledge and community pride associated with hosting international events in Western Australia was less well understood.

Indeed the awareness levels indicated in this initial survey were useful for internal reporting purposes for EventsCorp even though the general awareness level of about 35% appears low. This result needs to be put into context though, given that no funds have been specifically allocated to promoting the campaign within WA. This considered, it could be argued that if 35% awareness can be achieved without a dedicated promotional budget, higher awareness levels are undoubtedly possible if a well-targeted and funded promotion involving all forms of media were implemented. This may be possible, but is unlikely due to the priorities of EventsCorp to:

“Develop, attract, support and, as appropriate, manage events which are capable of generating substantial visitor expenditure and which can cost-effectively market Western Australia nationally and internationally” (EventsCorp Fact Sheet).

Note that it is NOT the objective of EventsCorp to promote EventsCorp, but rather to promote Western Australia as a tourism events destination. Ironically, the campaign achieved international acclaim in winning a tourism promotion award in 2001 and

EventsCorp managed events have been the best in the world by participants, for example, the Rally Australia event was voted 'Rally of the Year' in 2000, 1999 and 1993. Whereas immediate recognition may not be widely achieved, those organization involved with events tourism clearly acknowledge EventsCorp's success in promoting and staging events in Western Australia.

Conclusion

This paper set out to describe the campaign in terms of rationale and implementation and to make some assessment of the success to date. It has found evidence that the campaign has been successful in attracting and hosting international events, compared with other states of Australia. A survey was conducted to test the levels of community awareness of the success of the campaign and recognition of EventsCorp as the organization responsible for it. At the request of EventsCorp, levels of community pride in hosting international events were also tested, and a high percentage of positive responses were found. This finding supports the apparent but largely unquantified social benefits of events found in previous studies (Mihalik and Simonetta, 1998; Hall 1992; Fredline and Faulkner, 1998)

A significant finding in the survey data was the levels of campaign awareness that have been achieved despite the lack of a dedicated budget for promoting the campaign. This result was encouraging for EventsCorp, given that self-promotion has never been an objective of the organization. This ‘incidental’ awareness in the general public contrasts with the much higher recognition achieved within the events tourism sector, as evidenced by the international awards and acclaim that the campaign and specific events in Western Australia have received.

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Utilising Major Events as a Cost-Effective Tool for Tourism Branding – Key Learnings from the Field

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Abstract

With the costs of traditional advertising becoming more and more expensive for tourism bodies around the globe, major events are now a valuable tourism marketing tool for highlighting the virtues of a particular destination. This joint paper will focus on the key learnings experienced over years of maximising the brand delivery for Perth and Western Australia through its portfolio of major events. By viewing themselves as a major sponsor and being treated as such, EventsCorp Western Australia have a reputation for innovation and utilising cutting edge techniques for maximising, tracking, evaluating and policing the media impact of its major events. Specific points of discussion will include: the due diligence process before bidding for events, the contractual process and ensuring that the most effective benefits are secured, brand maximisation issues for all conceivable sources of exposure, effective tracking, policing and evaluation techniques, as well as various methods to increase branding effectiveness, even as the event is taking place.

Practical major event case studies to be examined include:

- 2002 Johnnie Walker Classic
- 1999-2001 Heineken Classics

The Role of Events in Helping to Brand a Destination

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Abstract

Events have become an increasingly significant component of destination branding. Although events are thought to be important contributors to their host destination’s brand, the most effective means by which to leverage them in order build that brand are poorly understood. Consequently, three questions present themselves: How are

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events currently being incorporated (or not incorporated) into the branding of destinations (whether local, regional, state, or national)? What particular strategies or tactics seem to help or hinder the use of events in destination branding? How can events be most effectively leveraged to build a destination’s brand? These questions are addressed through a series of workshops with leading event and destination marketers. The workshops were designed to clarify what destination and event marketers do when using events in destination branding. The workshops then identified what the industry would like to know to make better use of events in this regard. Workshop participants identified community support and a good strategic and cultural fit with the destination as necessary bases for building events into destination branding. Other themes that emerged were: the need for an event to be differentiated from others, the longevity/tradition of the event at the destination, cooperative planning between key players, and media support of the event. Participants also recognised the need to consider the effects of events with reference to the overall portfolio of events at a destination. It was noted that event marketers and destination marketers have not yet learned how to synergise their efforts, and that there is a consequent need for further research into the best means to use events to build a destination’s brand. Implications for future research are derived.

Introduction

Event tourism

The term ‘event tourism’ was coined in the 1980s, and formalised the link between events and tourism (Getz 1997). Event tourism, which is not a recent phenomenon, is defined as “the systematic planning, development and marketing of festivals and special events as tourist attractions, catalysts and image builders” (Getz and Wicks 1993, p. 2). The first Olympic Games were held in 776 BC and religious events and festivals have been held throughout the ages. What is new is the scale of event tourism, with many cities seeking to specialise in the creation and hosting of special events due to the economic benefits they bring (Lynch and Veal 1996).

According to Janiskee (1994), “this is the age of special events” (p. 100). Described as a one-time or infrequently occurring event of limited duration that provides consumers with a leisure and social opportunity beyond everyday experience (Jago and Shaw, 1998), observation and anecdotal evidence suggest that the number of special events has increased substantially over time (Getz 1991; Getz and Wicks 1993; Janiskee 1994). Influencing both day trip and overnight visitation, special event tourism is an important motivator of travel, and special event tourism is one of the fastest growing segments of the tourism industry (Backman, Backman, Uysal and Mohr Sunshine 1995). This is due to the ability of events to contribute to a city’s range of tourist attractions, facilitate media coverage for the destination, and promote awareness of the destination for future visitation.

A significant element of the relationship between special events and tourism is the way in which images associated with the event are transferred to the destination, and in this way strengthen, enhance or change the destination’s brand. The transfer of event images to a destination is now so important that those images “are starting to dominate the natural or physical features in the identification of cities” (Burns, Hatch and Mules 1986, p.5). The academic literature supports this significant relationship between destinations and events, suggesting that one of the key reasons for staging an event at a destination is to improve awareness of the destination or the image of the destination (Backman et al. 1995; Burns, Hatch and Mules 1986; Hall 1990, 1992, 1996; Kaspar 1987; Ritchie 1984; Ritchie and Smith 1991; Roche 1994; Travis and Croize 1987; Witt 1988).

Despite the significance of events in influencing travel behaviour to destinations, little is known about how they can help to brand a destination, and as a result influence long-term visitation to the destination. This study seeks to address this issue in a preliminary fashion, by identifying the current practices in the use of events to brand destinations. As a result, base information was collected via a series of Australia-wide focus group workshops which brought together many of the country’s leading practitioners in the fields of event management and destination marketing.

The purpose of this study

To date, most of the research in the field of special events has focused on events’ economic impact. This is due to the fact that many events require assistance from government in order to be staged, and justification for assistance is often required in economic terms (Mules 1998). This approach represents a short-term focus on the impact of staging events, rather than a longer term focus on their capacity to raise awareness of a region for future tourism (Mules and Faulkner 1996). As a result, this study investigates the practices whereby events are used to influence the branding of a destination. It does this by providing a synthesis of the various methods used by managers of Australian destinations, events, and tourism organisations to incorporate events into destination branding. The study identifies their views regarding critical success factors when using events to help brand a destination, and it outlines the issues and questions that most concern them when seeking to use events in destination branding.

The importance of branding

A brand image may be the single most important factor in a consumer's purchase decision (Keller 1998). Therefore, it is essential that destination marketers and event managers have a good understanding of brand theory and how it can be used to achieve maximum visitation to destinations.

A brand is a name or symbol that represents a product. Its brand image is the overall impression that brand creates in the minds of consumers. It includes its physical characteristics, perceived benefits, name, symbols, and reputation (Keller 1998).

Branding benefits both businesses and consumers. It is valuable for organisations, as strong brands attract loyal customers. Once a brand has built a loyal customer base, it has staying power. Brands with strong consumer loyalties are more likely to win strong distribution support, and are more readily leveraged. A recognisable brand name is perceived by customers to render significant information about a product because it identifies what they are buying. Consequently, brands allow consumers to buy with little perceived need for comparisons.

A brand’s value can be measured in terms of brand awareness, equity, loyalty, share and value. Brand awareness occurs when a consumer can spontaneously name or recognise a brand, and can recall an aspect of it, such as a particular event for a destination. Rusch (2001) suggests that awareness is important but that it needs to be converted into relevant and positive attitudes in the minds of the target market to begin to add value. It is these attitudes of the target market toward the brand which determine the equity of the brand. Brand equity distinguishes brands that have high awareness, but no relevance to the target market, from those with relevance. The importance of brand equity is that it leads to active purchasing, which in turn creates brand share. If a purchaser continues to support the same brand, this results in brand loyalty.

Branding plays a significant role in a consumer’s decision making process. Selecting a holiday destination best fits Schiffman and Kanuk’s (1997) description of a high involvement purchase, which they describe as a decision requiring complex decision making and a great deal of thought and deliberation. For complex decisions, consumers typically search for information and carefully compare a number of alternative brands to determine which can best fulfil their needs.

Destination marketing

D’Hauteserre (2001) suggests that in today’s highly competitive, global, tourism marketplace, tourist destinations suffer more from ignorance of their existence by potential customers than from inefficiencies in management. Destination marketing aims to raise awareness of a destination and increase visitation by creating a unique brand which positions and differentiates the destination from others. The attributes on which destinations compete are commonly shared by several destinations or are easily matched by competing destinations (Henderson 2000). Consequently, it is critical that destination marketers manage their destination's brand strategically.

Kotler, Haider and Rein (1993) define a destination as a place which incorporates an interconnected and complementary set of attractions, events, services and products which together create a total experience and value proposition to visitors. They suggest that successful destination marketing occurs when each element of the destination's product mix contributes something to the total brand image via complementary demographics, styles or experiential values. They add that to be successful, destinations need to present these factors in a coordinated and consistent offering through careful management of the brand. Cooperative marketing activities, such as linking a destination's brand to one or more events, aim to strategically link brands in order to increase brand awareness and/or enhance or change brand image. Cooperative branding enjoyed a growth of 40% in the latter years of the 20th century (Spethmann and Benezra 1994), suggesting that marketers have found it to be a useful tactic for building brand equity.

Research questions

This study seeks to address the relationship between events and destination branding, by identifying current practices in the use of events to help brand destinations. On the basis of the preceding review, the following research questions were formulated:

1. What are the elements that, according to expert practitioners, make events effective or ineffective at building a destination's brand?

2. What particular strategies or tactics seem to enhance the effective use of events in building a destination's brand?

3. Given the current state of practice, what are the areas of uncertainty about the uses of events in destination branding that call for further research?

Method

In order to collect experts' views on the matters raised by our research questions, a series of half day focus group workshops was held in Brisbane, Sydney, Melbourne, Adelaide, Perth, and northern New South Wales in late 2000 and early 2001. Workshops were held in different states in order to explore regional differences in the use of events in destination branding.

Each of the workshops brought together groups of approximately 15 of the country's leading event practitioners and destination marketers to examine the key issues relating to events and destination branding. The aim of inviting participants from the two separate domains of event management and destination marketing was to gain a greater appreciation of their different perspectives. Participants were invited based on their substantial expertise in the area of interest, as seen by the state tourism organisations and key event agencies that prepared the invitation lists in each region.

At each of the workshops, the number of participants working as destination marketers exceeded slightly the number of event practitioners. Destination markets were generally public sector employees working for state or local government. The event practitioners at the workshops covered the spectrum of events from small to very large and included both private operators as well as those employed by state funded event agencies.

Workshop structure

Each of the half-day focus group workshops included the following phases: icebreaker, introduction, priming, idea sharing, idea synthesis, specialist group discussion, synthesis, and conclusion. This format was chosen to encourage individuals to express their views on the subject based on their own particular experience. The workshop format then provided opportunities for issues to be discussed in greater depth, so that by the end of the day's proceedings, the key issues had been identified.

To encourage workshop participants to reflect upon their experiences, the priming phase required them to work individually. Each was asked to think of three or four events that, in their opinion, have contributed to the "branding, image, or marketing" of the destinations at which the events were held. Attendees were then asked to think of three or four events which have not contributed to the "branding, imaging or marketing" of a destination. They were also asked to list the reasons that, in their view, events had, or had not, contributed to the branding of the destination.

Small groups were formed for an idea sharing phase, the aim of which was to further encourage discussion of the ideas generated in the priming phase. Group discussions focused on the reasons that events had an impact on the branding of the destinations, and considered reasons some events had not had an impact. After the idea sharing phase, all workshop participants came together to synthesise the findings of the breakout groups.

It was anticipated that based on the demands of their particular employment domain, the two groups – event managers/marketers and destination managers/marketers – would have quite different views about some of the issues raised. As a result, a specialist phase was held, in which the groups were divided, and participants from the two domains were encouraged separately to offer honest assessments of topics based on their occupational experience. During this phase, each group discussed a series of questions pertinent to its employment domain.

Questions asked of destination managers covered the factors they consider to be important when selecting an event for their destination, how they build events into their marketing mix, what they consider would help make events more effective tools for branding/promoting their destination, and what needs to be done so that the necessary tasks can be successfully undertaken. Questions asked of event managers covered those aspects of a destination's image that were important to them when choosing a destination for an event, the working relationships they have with destination managers, the roles destinations can play in making events successful, and whether events should be used to change or enhance a destination's brand. In the synthesis phase, the two groups joined together to discuss the issues raised by each in the specialist phase. The workshops concluded with a review of the key issues raised, and a discussion of the issues requiring further research.

Data gathering

Each of the workshops was facilitated using the standard protocols for group decision making and problem solving as described by Chalip (2001a). A facilitator was appointed to each specialist group, and this discussion was recorded by a notetaker. Those records provide the basis for this report.

The Findings

By the end of the workshop, participants had generally reached some consensus about the key facilitators and barriers to using events in destination branding. Although they were not generally able to articulate specific questions for future research, they were able to describe realms of uncertainty that require research.

In general, the differences amongst the regions regarding how events can help destination branding were negligible. The most highly regarded and frequently mentioned issues were the same in all destinations. They had to do with the importance of local community support for events, and the need for a good strategic and cultural fit between events and destinations.

The different regions did, however, raise specific issues in their discussions which they considered to be important. Workshop participants in Brisbane considered the need for partnerships between private enterprise and government as crucial, noting that whilst events may cost government a lot of money to support, this is effectively a substitute for paying for destination publicity. Participants also wondered whether too many events can have a negative effect on a destination’s brand. Adelaide participants noted that events need to provide an experience that is based on one defining quality. They also not that events need to add quality component to a destination’s product mix, and that the media play a vital role by adding to the impact of events on a destination’s brand. Perth participants also highlighted the importance of media. Whilst this matter was mentioned in other workshops, it was not as salient.

Each workshop also explored reasons that events have not been successfully used to help brand destinations. In general the reasons for lack of success were phrased in terms of the absence of critical success factors. However, some other reasons were noted. Those on which workshop participants generally agreed were: being held indoors, being a Masters event, and receiving bad publicity.

In general, workshop attendees felt that events can play an important role in helping brand destinations. They provided a number of examples of events where this has been successfully achieved. These included: Spring Fashion Week, Wimbledon, the AFL Series, the Tour de France, the Port Fairy Folk Festival, the Ring Cycle, and the Americas Cup in Fremantle.

There were five factors that were seen by participants to be double-edged. Each could contribute positively to an event’s effect on the destination brand, but if not obtained or appropriately implemented, it could become detrimental to the destination’s brand. These five factors are outlined in Table 1.

Table 1 Factors affecting the success of events in branding destinations

Factors seen to positively contribute to the success of an event’s branding of a destination	**Factors seen to negatively impact on to the success of an event’s branding of a destination**
• sustained by community	• little local support for event
• good match between event and city	• no cultural fit – e.g., confused image

flavour – e.g., consistent with regional attributes, history	between the event and the destination, inappropriate target market
• positive media coverage – e.g., destination welcoming the media, international interest	• negative publicity
• elements of event increase interest – e.g., prize money, event capacity, iconic venue	• inappropriate scale
• exclusive positioning – i.e., has one defining identity	• no common theme; inconsistent with the existing brand

Events which were seen to be particularly good in building destination branding were considered successful because they: drew attention to the destination, created ongoing tourism, created a reputation for the destination, were consistent with a destination's image, enjoyed community support, were widely reviewed in the media, and created additional event opportunities. The Adelaide Ring Cycle was noted as a good example of this.

Participants noted that events could have a neutral or even a negative impact on a destination's brand. The Atlanta Olympics, the World Gliding Championships, Cannonball Run, and the Southern Eighty Ski race were given as examples of events which have not contributed positively to the branding, image or marketing of a destination. Bad publicity, often due to accidents, was given as the main reason for these events having negative impacts on the destinations.

Attendees noted that it is possible for an event to contribute to both a positive and a negative image of a destination simultaneously. Melbourne's Moomba Festival and the Adelaide Grand Prix were given as examples of events which have had both a positive and negative impacts on the host city's image. Although reasons were not given by groups, this phenomenon is thought to be explained by the different tastes and expectations of various groups within communities.

Key themes raised

Workshop participants described a number of issues which play a role in the successful use of events in destination branding. For the purpose of this study, and for future research, these issues have been grouped into themes. The two most important and frequently mentioned themes were: (1) the need for local community support, and (2) the need for a good strategic and cultural fit with the destination. These two themes generated a sub-theme having to do with the ways that smaller events can build the social capital and human infrastructure of a destination in a manner that helps to build the destination’s brand. Other themes that emerged were: the need for an event to be differentiated from others, the longevity/tradition of the event at the destination, cooperative planning between key players, and media support of the event. Each theme is described below.

Community support

Workshop participants considered local community support to be the most important factor in determining the success of an event in branding a destination. Community involvement at every stage of planning was seen as vital to creating a sense of ownership and pride in the event amongst the community. To be truly successful, it was felt that there needs to be a sense of excitement and occasion in the local community. Strong financial outcomes for the local business community from the event were also considered important, as they could lead to partnerships and further support from within the local business community.

The success of many events is heavily dependent upon local communities in that event partronage is usually dominated by local residents (Getz 1997; Crompton and McKay 1997). Participants noted that members of the local community need to be advocates for the event and the branding of the destination. It was suggested that there is an element of "image and brand" involved with successful events and local communities. If local people see themselves as an integral part of the event and are interested in the event, their support will have a positive effect on the way that visitors view the event and the destination. Volunteers during the Sydney Olympics were given as an example of community support for an event that was sufficiently salient to contribute a "friendly" dimension to the event, and consequently to the destination's brand.

Lack of community support was also seen as a major reason for failure of events in helping to brand destinations. The Australian Festival of Chamber Music in Queensland was given as an example of an event that, due to its lack of community support, was not successful in achieving positive destination branding. The event, which was specifically marketed to visitors from outside the region, has been remembered as a failure. The community was not proud of the festival and did not support it. As a result, images of the event and destination have been somewhat tarnished.

Participants noted that applying branding to tourist destinations can be difficult, because tourists and community groups each have their own sets of motivations, expectations and experiences. This notion is supported by Henderson (2000) who adds that places are also societies which are constantly evolving, and which possess histories with multiple layers of meaning.

Cultural and strategic fit with destination

A point that was often raised by workshop participants was the need for an event to have a good cultural and strategic fit with a destination and its community to successfully contribute to branding the destination. This fit was seen to be especially important between the event and the community, existing or proposed infrastructure and communications, and the existing values and branding of the destination.

The Brisbane Festival was given as an example of an event which failed to positively brand the destination because it did not reflect the local spirit. Pitched to the "arts elite", the marketing of the event was seen to discourage local attendance. As a result local people were reticent to support it. This event was compared with the Adelaide Festival, which was seen to successfully reflect some of Australia's cultural values, and successfully contributed to Adelaide's branding.

Participants raised the issue that some events are successful in positively reshaping a destination's brand mainly because they convey very different images and values to those existing at the destination. The Woodford Folk Festival in Queensland was given as an example of this phenomenon, changing Woodford's image from that of a prison town to one that runs a successful cultural event.

It was suggested that recurring events generally rely heavily on the community, and thus may need to have a better fit with the community and destination than larger one off events. However, this suggestion was countered with the comment that destinations win bids for major events based on the fit between the event and the attributes that the destination already has. To the degree that this is so, it suggests that no matter the size of the event, the fit between the destination and event are important.

Another point raised by workshop participants had to do with the number of events that can benefit a destination's brand (no matter how well each fits with the destination). It was noted that some Australian cities, such as Melbourne and Brisbane, have been positioned as event capitals. However, the two cities were seen to have differing experiences and successes in this regard. Melbourne's calendar of major events is in itself a major contributor to the branding of the destination, and this approach works well for it. Conversely, there is a rationalisation in Brisbane of the promotion of numerous events, instead encouraging smaller festivals to group together and make use of cooperative marketing opportunities.

Events, social capital, and the destination brand

Participants noted that it is rare for a single event to have a noticeable effect on a destination's brand. Rather, they observed that the entire portfolio of events at a destination needs to be considered in order to build the destination's brand. Thus, community support and a strategic fit with the community should be assessed with reference to the full scope and quality of events at the destination.

In particular, participants felt that smaller events which might not otherwise contribute to a destination's brand can contribute to the destination's capacity to host other events, and enhance the quality of larger events. It was noted that successful local events can create a positive community attitude toward events, and may also help to develop event management expertise and an experienced pool of event volunteers. Each of these can contribute to the quality of larger events, thereby improving the quality of impact that those events have on the destination's brand. In effect, this is adding to the social and human capital of a destination.

Similarly, small local events that occur as augmentations to larger events can build local identification with the larger event, and can thereby enhance the quality of that event's impact on the destination brand. The many local events that make up the Gold Coast's Indy Carnival during the lead-up to the Honda Indy 300 race day are an example of event augmentations that create a local atmosphere which contributes to the destination's brand. Small local events can similarly contribute to events that are merely regional in scope. One participant from northern Queensland described a rodeo event that plays an important role in her town's development of its regional brand. Local interest in the event was enhanced by creating opportunities for locals to participate at the same time in complementary arts events, such as a photo contest, which are themed with the rodeo. The resulting augmentations strengthen local support for the rodeo, and enhance the destination's look-and-feel during the event. These, in turn, enhance the impact that the event has on the destination's regional brand.

A point of differentiation

A common theme raised by workshop participants was the need for events to provide destinations with a perceived point of differentiation in order to successfully contribute to branding. In this way the destination's overall product offering, and perceived benefits, are differentiated from those of other destinations. This could occur through the specific and unique benefits afforded to event visitors, or through the added name recognition and consequent caché that an event affords to a destination.

The importance that visitors place on the differentiating features of events was raised as a key issue by workshop participants. They noted that some features of events may be perceived by visitors to render particular benefits. Benefits might be financial, cultural, experiential, entertainment, or social. The ways in which the benefits that visitors associate with events may become a basis for differentiating destinations are not well understood and require further research.

Longevity/tradition of event

The need for an event to be “ongoing” in order to deliver branding benefits to a destination was frequently identified as important by workshop participants. The Melbourne Cup was noted by a number of groups as a good example. It was seen not only as Australia’s oldest hallmark event, but also as one which involves the community, has developed integrity over time, and reflects “the Aussie fun loving character”.

Whilst often mentioned, the issue of longevity was not rated highly in group discussions. This may be due largely to the successful destination branding by a number of one-off events, such as the Sydney and Melbourne Olympics, the Brisbane Expo, the Brisbane Commonwealth Games, and the America’s Cup in Fremantle. However, it could be suggested that these events are not strictly one-off events, as they are run on a regular basis, although at different destinations, throughout the world. These events are also among the world's largest events.

The groups did consider the need for longevity to be important in order for an event to become synonymous with a destination. They suggested that for an event to have a good chance of successfully branding a destination, it needed to be tied to the same destination for 5 – 10 years. The Sydney-Hobart Yacht Race was noted as a particularly good example, having been held for more than 50 years and linking one event with two destinations. In addition, the event commences on the Boxing Day holiday every year, which further increases the anticipation and impact of the event.

Workshop participants pointed out that events must be financially sustainable in order to survive long enough to contribute successfully to a destination's brand. Consequently, each event must first be sufficiently appealing to the aficionados who are the event's primary market. Only then can an event establish itself in a manner that contributes to the destination's brand.

Cooperative planning

Workshop participants felt that the successful use of events in destination branding requires cooperative planning and coordination among key players, including event managers, destination marketers and the destination's government event organisation. Cooperative planning was also seen to be necessary to ensure that facilities and access to destinations were adequate, and that cooperative marketing was obtained.

When asked how the working relationship between event managers and destination marketers could be made more effective, it was suggested that members of the two employment domains need to put aside their independent agendas and work more cooperatively in the planning and implementation of events. The size of a destination was seen to be a factor that may influence how well organisations work together when staging an event, with organisational cooperation seen to be more probable in small rural towns, perhaps as the result of a greater degree of cooperative spirit.

Media coverage

The media's positive support for events and destinations was mentioned as a factor that determines the degree to which an event contributes to a destination's brand. However, relatively little time was dedicated by the workshop participants to this topic. This may have been because workshop participants considered media exposure beyond the scope of most events – perhaps as a factor which applies predominantly to mega-events.

Events as tools to change or enhance a destination's brand

When asked whether events should be used to change or enhance a destination's brand, the general consensus of workshop participants was that it is appropriate, so long as it is an initiative led by the community and not something imposed on them. Respondents added that, if planned well, and with the full backing of the community, an event may lead to new opportunities for the community and may help the community develop a greater appreciation of itself.

Events were also seen to be beneficial if a destination seeks to develop infrastructure, enhance its saleability and “can do” image, or inject life back into itself. Queensland’s Woodford Folk Festival was noted as an example of an event that has successfully enhanced a destination’s brand, and that has done so in an appropriate way. Prior to the event’s initiation, the destination was synonymous with the Woodford Prison. However, the festival is now so popular with the community and visitors that it has caused the destination’s image to change from a negative to a positive one.

Another event that workshop participants saw as having a positive impact on a destination was the Weipa Crocodile Festival. A youth festival which brings together the aboriginal and white youth of Weipa, the event has contributed to reconciliation, and has become a model for other regions. As a result of its success, similar youth festivals are now held in Alice Springs and other outback areas. This event was considered by participants to be yet another example of one that has made a positive difference to a destination’s community and brand.

What might help to make events more effective tools for branding a destination?

When asked what factors might assist in making events more effective tools for branding destinations, the workshop participants mentioned a number of factors. The most important were: building an event “beyond time” in order to capitalise on tourism to the destination over the long-term, building events around community values, ensuring a better fit with the local image, and ensuring that signage and imagery are consistent with the destination's other efforts to market itself to the same target markets.

Participants noted that destination managers are often not clear about what they want to achieve from events with respect to their destination. If events are to be effectively and appropriately incorporated into a destination's branding strategy, then there needs to be a clear vision for the ways that the event fits into an integrated marketing communications campaign for the destination.

The need to build an event "beyond time" became a matter for focused attention at the workshops. Building an event "beyond time" to the legacy that an event provides. From the standpoint of branding, the key issue is the ways that the event becomes part of advertising and promotions designed to encourage long-term visitor demand for the destination. Examples raised by workshop participants included the Brisbane Expo, the Brisbane Commonwealth Games, and the Sydney Olympics, which demonstrated to the world that Australia is a safe destination which can host large events. Brisbane workshop participants stated that major events like the Commonwealth Games and Expo helped Brisbane to "grow-up" from a country town to a city which enjoys (and is proud of) its modern and sophisticated facilities and tourist attractions. They added that those two events had a huge impact on the local culture, generating new nightlife and providing opportunities for local people to experience other cultures.

Another event considered by participants to provide effective long-term branding benefits for a destination was Tasting Adelaide. Held in Adelaide every two years, the event showcases the local area's produce, and incorporates satellite events in local regional areas. As a result, the event makes a significant positive contribution to the branding of the destination and the surrounding region.

Workshop participants also noted the need to attach the destination's name to the event title to make events effective tools for branding a destination. This is comparable to naming rights sponsorship of events, whereby the sponsor's name is intended to identify the event and thus differentiate it from others. This practice is used widely and successfully. Examples deemed successful by workshop participants include the Melbourne Cup, the Sydney-Hobart Yacht Race, and the Port Fairy Folk Festival.

Issues raised for further research

A number of issues were raised by workshop participants as worthy of further research. They felt that the matter most vitally in need of future research is identification of those elements which make an event attractive, and which thereby bring visitors to the destination. This research would identify the elements that make one event more desirable than another (e.g., sources of social value, financial reward, entertainment value), and would identify how those attributes can be measured. The research would provide destination marketers with information to assist them in selecting, managing and setting goals for events as part of their brand strategy.

The linkages among community, event, and destination brand also require further investigation. For example, means to enhance an event's legacy by building it "beyond time" need to be identified and explored. This includes maximising the promotional benefits of an event over the long-term – not merely for event visitors, but in terms of the ways that the event affects the local community's perception of itself, and the ways community self-perceptions are transferred to the destination's image.

There was substantial discussion among participants about the benefits of recurring events versus larger one-off events. It was suggested that the matter of community fit was more important for recurring events than for one-off events, but the degree to which that might be true needs to be established through research. The particular challenges of using one-off events versus recurring events in destination branding also need to be examined. In this context, it was noted that mega-events should be considered separately from other one-off events. It was observed that the media interest, imagery and branding of the world's mega-events – such as the Olympic Games, America's Cup, Expo, etc. – put them into a separate category, particularly in terms of their probable effect on the host destination's brand.

Finally, it was noted that there is more to using events in building a destination's brand than merely hosting a good event. More work needs to be done to identify the best means to link the event's brand to that of the destination. The best ways to use and to target event visuals and event mentions – both during the event and at other times – need to be identified.

Discussion

The findings here suggest that the quality of an event's impact on destination brand depends, at least in part, on the quality of the event. This finding has some intuitive appeal insomuch as the act of hosting causes the event's brand to be associated with that of the host destination. However, it might also be argued that event quality is at best a necessary but an insufficient basis for building the destination’s brand. The impact will depend not merely on event quality, but on how the event is built into the destination’s overall marketing communications strategy (Chalip, 2001b).

Participants’ focused concentration on event quality reflects the generally weak integration of event marketing with destination marketing. Participants resorted to reflections about event quality when they found it difficult to articulate specific uses of events in destination branding. In fact, it was not uncommon for destination marketers and event marketers to comment on the separation of their respective tasks and daily activities. As a consequence, event marketing and destination marketing have been treated in practice as separate (albeit not independent) realms. This separation and its consequences highlight two vital research needs. The first is institutional; we need to identify means to better link the roles, strategies, and activities of destination marketing with the roles, strategies, and activities of event marketing. The second has to do with marketing tactics; we need to identify the most effective integration of event marketing with destination marketing – not merely during the event itself, but also before and after the event is held.

The key themes raised by participants are themselves worthy of further investigation. Certainly more needs to be done to examine the effects that events have on the community, as well as the effects that events can have on a destination’s brand. Participants made a strong point of the vital links between a community and its events. While community support was seen to be vital, it was also clear that events can impact upon residents’ perceptions of their host community. Events can also affect the human capital that communities can deliver to future event production. Thus, the effect of events on destination brands is both direct and indirect. There is the direct effect rendered through media and word of mouth publicity, and there is the indirect effect which is a consequence of the event's impact on the community itself. In a sense, events are not merely stories that host destinations tell to the world; they are also stories that host destinations tell to themselves. That, in turn, may affect the ways that destinations present themselves to the world, even beyond the time of the event. How that impact ramifies and how to optimise its outcomes both require further study.

The ways in which any particular event affects local perceptions of the host community, visitors' perceptions of the destination, or mediated positioning of the destination brand will depend on other events that the destination hosts. The brand is created not merely through a single piece of the product mix, but via the sum total of messages that are built from the entire product portfolio (Keller, 1998). Consequently, future work on the role that events play in any particular destination brand should consider each event in the context of others that the destination hosts. Since events with a merely local audience may have an effect on local perceptions, and thereby on the image that the community projects, the synergies among events – whether their markets are local, regional, national, or international – need to be considered.

Synergies also need to be understood in terms of the ways that contemporaneous events at the same destination do and do not augment one another. The market segments that are reached and the images of the destination that they obtain will be affected by the mix, and not merely by the individual elements (Chalip, 1992). Like the Gold Coast's Indy Carnival, events which co-occur can coalesce to become a single entity. To date, we know very little about how these complementarities function, and even less about how to use them (Garcia, 2001). More work is needed to explore event augmentations, their role in differentiating events (Green, 2001), and their consequent effect on destination brand.

From a branding perspective one of the key values that events have is the media that they can generate for the destination. Yet we know very little about the kinds of mentions and images that events generate in source markets, and we know even less about the most effective ways to build event mentions and images into the destination's marketing communications. Work is needed to map the nature of coverage that host destinations obtain in event media, and to identify the effects (if any) that event media have on audience perceptions of the destination. Similarly, work is needed to identify the best ways to reference or highlight events in destination advertising and promotions.

Studies like those recommended here will have a clearly practical utility. As we learn more about the roles and uses of events in destination branding, we will become more adept at destination marketing. However, the study of events and destination branding also has fundamental scholarly value. The linkage between events and their host destinations is a form of co-branding (cf. Rao & Ruekert, 1994; Simonin & Ruth, 1998; Washburn, Till, & Priluck, 2000). By learning how the event's brand and the destination's brand affect one another, we will learn a great deal more about the ways that people come to encode (and thus to make sense of) their world.

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HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT AND VOLUNTEERING

Career Motivations And Commitment in the Conventions and Exhibitions Industry: Exploratory Evidence from the UK and Australia

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Abstract

This paper provides exploratory evidence and an insight into the career motivations and commitment in the conventions and exhibitions industry in two key markets, the United Kingdom and Australia. The paper presents empirical research findings in three main areas. These are the factors that motivate individuals to select a career in the industry, reasons why people stay in the industry, and evidence of career commitment,using information on career mobility and job attitudes. Results indicate broad agreement that the industry offers individuals both 'people orientated' and 'creative' opportunities. Those employed within the industry recognise both the needs to be geographically

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mobile, nationally and internationally, in order to gain experience and the value and importance of tertiary education, training and development. There is a strong commitment and a motivation by individuals to what is seen to be a challenging, dynamic and people orientated job. However there is evidence that in certain circumstances individuals would consider jobs in other industry sectors. Differences between the UK and Australia relate to specific motivations and job attitudes, and in terms of an individual's future career plans. The research findings presented form a 'springboard' and basis for further research.

Introduction

The purpose of this paper is to explore career motivations and the career commitment of a sample of professionals employed in the conventions and exhibitions industry from the UK and Australia. The rationale for undertaking the research is twofold. First, the Conventions and Exhibitions industry has undergone substantial economic growth worldwide, and is seen as an excellent provider of new employment opportunities (McCabe et al 2000:106). Trends within the global market, together with increasing competition within the sector, have led many countries to seek ways to ensure that their conventions, meetings and exhibition industry continues to remain competitive, professional and provide a high quality of service.

Within Australia the sector has been identified as worth over $7 billion dollars a year in direct and indirect expenditure from both domestic and international markets (Johnson et al, 1999). In the UK, the overall value of the conference market is said to be around £6.6

billion (British Conference Market Trends Survey 2000). However, careers within the sector are relatively new, and currently there is a lack of research on career opportunities and their development within the industry. Given that the conventions and exhibition industry is often perceived as an exciting and challenging career option, combined with the growth of the sector, there is a need to develop an understanding of the labour markets and career opportunities within the sector.

The second reason for this research is to conduct a comparison between the UK and Australia. This is important because of the global nature of the industry – people move between countries either for career advancement or within their jobs. This raises a number of questions - for example, is the situation in the UK as far as career development and opportunities similar to that found in Australia? Do people have similar motivations? Are they subject to the same pressures? Are they committed to the industry or is there a high labour turnover? The research aims to offer an initial insight into some of these questions.

Furthermore, the comparison between the UK and Australia is also important because of the maturity of each of the markets. The fledgling Australian convention and exhibition market of the early 1990's can be identified as an emerging market, compared with the more mature market found in the UK. Despite the relative youth of the industry in Australia compared to the UK, this country has been recognised as a world leader and a major player in the international convention and exhibitions industry. As the industry has grown, new professions and job opportunities have emerged to support this rapidly developing sector. Are there therefore any lessons that can be learnt in respect of the career motivation and commitment of staff between the two countries? Are their benchmarks to be set against which future comparisons can be made?

Why Study Careers?

A career is, at its simplest, a series of jobs arranged in a sequence over time (Riley and Ladkin, 1994). However, this simple definition hides the complexities that are contained with the concept of a career. For example, careers contain mobility, pace, direction, barriers, goals, motives, successes and failures, and human capital accumulation. A career consists of all the activities that a person faces throughout his or her working life, including the structure and sequence of the jobs and the motivations and feelings that lie behind the occupational opportunities and constraints. The complexity is added to by the fact that careers are part of the fabric of industrial activity involving both individuals and organisations. Consequently, it is understandable that a wide range of research into careers that provides a practical as well as theoretical literature exists (Riley and Ladkin, 1994).

The understanding that a career combines both personal and individual elements within the mechanisms of organisations has been well documented over time, and is cited as a main justification for the study of careers. One of the most influential authors is Van Maanen, who proposes two major arguments as to why research into careers is important. The first is in the importance of careers to individuals, as careers are central to individual identity and represent time and stages across a person’s life. Second, career research can aid an understanding into the nature and workings of complex organisations (Van

Maanen, 1977). Essentially, things are accomplished by organisations in part because people are concerned about their careers, therefore the career is a significant feature behind the workings of many organisations. The way for organisations to accomplish their activities and to motivate staff is through career opportunities.

Given the above understanding of careers, it is not surprising that there exists a wealth of research into the topic of careers. An extensive review of the literature is beyond the scope of this paper, however, there are three things that warrant further explanation; career theory, career motivations and career commitment.

Career Theory, Motivation, and Commitment

Career theory is a broad term that refers to a set of exploratory and investigative approaches used to measure and analyse the phenomenon (Riley and Ladkin, 1994). This involves a range of different disciplines, the most commonly used being motivation theory with incentives and psychological-need determinism, economics with job search processes and mobility patterns, organisational behaviour with structure determinism, and personality psychology which links personal traits to career outcomes. A review of the developments of career theory is provided by Arthur, Hall, and Lawrence (1989) and Hall (1996). Career theory specifically in relation to tourism and hospitality has been reviewed by Riley and Ladkin (1994) and Ladkin, (1999).

Research into the practical aspects of careers can be split into three categories. The first is *career development* that is concerned with outcomes for individuals and organisations and includes such aspects as mobility, job changes, career stages, and career withdrawal. Second, *career planning* which is concerned at the individual level with the relationship between individual planning and career outcomes, and at the organisational level with organis*ational needs and human resource planning techniques.* The third area is *career choice*. This dominates the literature and is concerned with individual's choice of job and organisation. This includes the decision making process, career paths, career anchors, and entrepreneurial tendencies (Riley and Ladkin, 1994). Contained within the career choice research, and often subjects of investigation are career motivations, or what determines people to choose a particular career and career commitment.

Career motivations essentially refer to what makes an individual choose and continue with a particular career. There is a wide range of research in this area. For example, research that explores motivations in terms of how to motivate employees in the workplace is a dominant theme. (See for example, Gibson, Ivancevich, and Donnelly, 2000). Career motivations research is also often concerned with how individual motivation and values affect career decisions and career success (Noe et al, 1990). The motivations for choosing a particular career are related to personality differences (Holland, 1985), and basic psychological needs (Schein, 1975). Essentially career motivation is affected by a range of variables, including the importance of work and career to an individual's career stage, distance from career goal, and the match between individual and organisational career goals (Noe et al, 1990). What motivates people to choose and stay in careers is essential for organisational planning.

Career commitment is concerned with the exploration into why and how people develop commitment or loyalty to a particular occupation. Career commitment has similarities with organisational commitment. Organisational commitment is said to involve three attitudes. First, a sense of identification with the organisation's goals, second, a feeling of involvement in organisational duties, and third, a feeling of loyalty for the organisation (Buchanan, 1975; cited in Gibson, Ivancevich, and Donnelly, 2000). Career commitment essentially is concerned with loyalty to a particular occupation, rather than an organisation. The feelings of commitment to a career are therefore stronger than to a particular organisation. In terms of career commitment research, common research themes include the antecedents and outcomes of career commitment (Aryee and Tan, 1992), and predictors of career commitment (Arnold, 1990; Cherniss, 1991; Colarelli and Bishop, 1990). Within tourism research, hotel managers have been identified as having strong commitment to their careers, rather than to a particular organisation (Ladkin, 2002; Ladkin and Juwaheer, 2000; and Ladkin and Riley, 1996).

Set against this background of career research with both its theoretical and practical applications, there is a justification for gaining an understanding of the career motivations and commitment of individuals working within the conventions and exhibition industry. Increasing global competition in the quality of facilities and the level and quality of service that are being provided means that the conventions and exhibitions industry needs to develop strategies that will assist it to retain its staff and ensure a future supply of suitably trained people for the industry.

There is a need to:

- identify why people wish to enter the conventions, meetings and exhibitions industry and then, once they are employed within the industry, to ask what motivates them to continue working within the industry.

In such a global industry with job opportunities readily available worldwide it is important:

- To establish whether individuals are prepared to relocate, to change jobs within a city, area or to another country in order to gain career progression.
- To identify how committed individuals are to continuing their career and their employment within the industry and how they see their career progression.

This research attempts to address some of these issues.

Methods

The data presented in this paper was generated by two surveys, one undertaken in Australia and one in the UK. For both of the surveys, a questionnaire was used to collect the data. The questionnaires were the same, with minor variations according to differences in the educational qualifications and job titles between the two countries. The questionnaire was originally modified from research undertaken into the career paths of hotel managers in both the UK and Australia (Ladkin and Riley 1996, and Ladkin 2002), and had been previously piloted to suit the conventions and exhibitions industry in Australia (McCabe, 2001). Therefore, the reliability of the method had previously been tested.

The Samples

The UK survey was undertaken during May 2001. In the UK, a postal questionnaire was sent to a target population of 362 people defined by the guides as being 'conference organisers'. The sample was constructed using a variety of published and electronic sources. The main source used was the British Conference Destinations Directory for 2001, produced by the British Association of Conference Destinations (BACD). This directory also included a directory of all members of the Association of British Professional Conference Organisers (ABPCO). The *venue* directory and the *Blue and Green* Conference directories were also used. Allowing for the fact that publications are partially funded on an advertising or membership basis, the directories were cross checked to ensure they were as comprehensive as possible. A number of websites were also used for members contact details, including the Meetings Industry Association (MIA), the Exhibition Venues Association (EVA), the Association of Conference Executives (ACE) and the International Association of Convention Bureaux(IACVB).

From the 362 postal questionnaires sent out, a total of 91 were returned. This gave a response rate of 25.1%, which is an acceptable rate of return for postal surveys (Neuman, 1991). Of the 91 returned questionnaires, 85 were usable. The final size of the UK survey therefore comprised of 85 respondents working in the conference and exhibitions industry.

The Australian sample was undertaken at two points in 2001 (April and September). In April 450 questionnaires were distributed to all delegates attending the conventions, meetings and exhibition industry national conference (Meetings Industry Association of Australia (MIAA) National Conference, Canberra 2001). The MIAA has a membership of over 1500 corporate and individual members from the conventions, meetings and exhibition industry in Australia. This conference, specifically organised by the Association for its membership was considered an ideal medium to ensure circulation of the survey instrument to a representative sample of managers and supervisors from the industry. Seventy-eight responses were received. This represented a 17.3% response rate. However following a review of these responses it became apparent that a key group of industry supervisors and managers, venue conventions service managers and banquet operations managers was not represented in the sample.

A postal survey was therefore undertaken of 132 four -five star convention hotels within Australia. The sample frame was selected from the Meeting Planners or Facilities Guides produced by the Convention Bureaux located in all Australian main capital cities. All 4-5 star hotels listed were sampled. The questionnaire was specifically addressed to the Convention Services Department and was accompanied by a stamped addressed reply envelope. Forty- nine responses were returned resulting in a 37.1 % response rate. Of a total of 582 questionnaires distributed, 127 were returned of which 126 were usable. An overall response rate of 21.9% was achieved. The sample of responses from the UK and Australia cover a broad spectrum of occupations within the industry as shown in Table 1.

Table 1 Job Titles/ Areas of Australian and UK Sample

Job Title/Area	Number of Respondents		% of Respondents	
	Australia	UK	Australia	UK
Managing Director, Principal, General Manager	10	7	7.9	8.2
Director		12		14.1
▪ Sales & Marketing	9		7.1	
▪ Convention Services	11		8.7	
Manager				
▪ Sales & Marketing	16	18	12.7	21.2
▪ Convention Services	22	18	17.5	21.2
▪ Banqueting, Conference Operations	10	5	7.9	5.9
▪ Food & Beverage	3		2.4	
▪ Manager - Other	2		1.6	
- Tourism		9		10.6
- Convention Bureau		4		4.7
▪ Manager Events	5	8	4.0	9.4
Assistant Manager				
▪ Conferences	1		0.8	
▪ Conventions, Banquet Sales Executive	12		9.5	
Co-ordinator				
▪ Conference, Banquet	11	4	8.7	4.7
▪ Events	3		2.4	
Other	6		4.8	
No response	5		4.0	
Total	**126**	**85**	**100**	**100**

Sample Characteristics

Demographics

There are many similarities between the two sample groups both in terms of gender, age and education. The majority of the respondents in both the UK and the Australian samples are female (UK 69.4% and Australia 67.7%), demonstrating a female dominance of the labour force and substantiating previous findings (McCabe 2001:496). The overwhelming majority are in full-time employment (UK 96.7% Australia 97.6%) with the remaining working part time. However, despite the high levels of females employed in the industry, there is no evidence of job sharing. Within the UK the majority of the respondents are in the 26-30 age bracket (21.2%) followed jointly by the 36-40 and 41-45 age range (17.6%). In Australia the 31-35 age bracket is dominant (22.2%) followed by the 26-30 (19.0%) 36-40(16.6%) and 21-25 age bracket (14.3%). It would appear from these results that the age distribution of the two groups is evenly distributed across the various age groups and that there are only slight variations between the two countries.

Geographic Distribution

The geographic distribution of over 60% of respondents from the UK demonstrates a spatial distribution to the south of the country with approximately one third of the sample located in London and the South East of England (32.9%) and 27.1% in South West England. Outside England, 10.6% of the sample group work in Scotland. In Australia the majority of respondents are located in the Eastern States in the convention and exhibition cities of Sydney (22.3%), Melbourne (12.3%), Brisbane and the Gold Coast (19.2%). However 11.5% of respondents are from outside the capital cities in the regional areas of Australia.

Education

It is evident from Australian respondents that a large proportion (75.4%) have completed either a TAFE vocational qualification or an undergraduate degree program, that may have been Tourism and Hospitality specific or from another area such as business or social sciences. In comparison the UK results demonstrate that approximately one third of respondents (32.9%) have completed vocational education in tourism and hospitality. A total of 19.0%(Australia) and 20.2%(UK) respondents have undertaken and or completed post-graduate studies. However, unlike the UK (1.2 %), 28.6% of the Australian sample has attained industry accreditation and 31.7% undertaken professional development and in-house company education and training programs (UK 2.4%). The Australian figures are significantly different to that found in the UK and perhaps demonstrate a greater commitment by the industry to developing its professionalism.

Salary

In terms of salary the majority of respondents in Australia earn between $A31000 - $50000 per annum (54.8%) whilst 13.5% of the sample earn over $A71,000 per annum. Figures from the UK demonstrate that the respondents earn between £15,000 – £30,000 (55.3%). However, as found in Australia there is a small number of high earners with a salary of more than £60,000 per annum.

Findings

In order to illustrate industry motivations and career commitment, two main findings are presented. The first one of these relates to the motivations for selecting a career in the conference and exhibition industry, and the motivations for continuing to work in the industry. The second one explores as a measure of career commitment whether or not the respondents have ever considered relocation within the industry, and assesses attitudes towards employment in the conference and exhibitions industry. Finally, the paper identifies where respondents see their next career move. Each one of these is considered in turn.

Career Motivations

In order to understand the motivations for selecting a career in the conference and exhibition industry, the respondents were presented with a range of opportunities, and asked to indicate if any of these opportunities had been a motivation for selecting a career in the industry. The results are presented in Table 2

Table 2 Motivations for selecting a career in the industry

Motivation to join the industry	**UK (% of Respondents)**	**Australia (% of Respondents)**
People to people opportunities	58.8	57.1
Creative opportunities	34.1	43.7
Project management opportunities	30.6	38.1
Financial compensation	10.6	9.5
Other	16.5	22.2

Table 2 demonstrates that for both the UK and Australian samples the dominant motivation for selecting a career in the conventions and exhibitions industry is the ‘people’ opportunities that the industry provides (58.8%UK, 57.1% Australia), followed by ‘creative’ opportunities (34.1%UK 43.7% Australia). Financial compensation is not seen as a key motivator to enter the industry. The ‘other’ motivations included in the

UK were job satisfaction; the opportunity for an interesting and challenging career; that it seems like a ‘fun’ industry; there is good job security and working hours. However, some respondents indicate that they ‘fell into it’ whilst others have entered the sector in a desire to get out of shift work, but to stay in the hotel industry. In Australia the ‘other’ motivations for selecting a career in the industry are that it is seen as providing an opportunity for new challenges to develop new skills; to enter and be part of a growing and vibrant industry; to travel and see the world; that the industry provides diversity (it was not just a ‘desk job’); there is the potential to “run your own business” or to undertake a change in lifestyle. However, as found in the UK some respondents commented that they had not consciously selected a career in this industry but that it had evolved.

In addition to the reasons why people are motivated to *select* a career in the industry, the study also sought to discover peoples’ motivations to *remain* in the industry. Again, the respondents were presented with a range of opportunities, and asked to indicate if any of these had been a motivation for remaining in the industry. The results are presented in Table 3

Table 3 Motivations for remaining in a career in the industry

Motivation to remain in the industry	**UK (% of Respondents)**	**Australia (% of Respondents)**
People to people opportunities	62.4	69.0
Creative opportunities	36.5	46.8
Project management opportunities	34.1	44.4
Financial compensation	21.2	15.1
Potential for promotion	12.9	21.4
Potential for global travel	16.5	32.5
Other	11.8	14.3

Again in the UK and Australia the dominant motivation to remain in the industry is the ‘people’ opportunities (62.4% UK: 69% Australia) followed by ‘creative’ opportunities (36.5%UK: 46.8% Australia). However the Australian respondents, unlike their counterparts in the UK, consider the ‘potential for global travel’ (32.5%) as an important motivator to remain in the industry. Interestingly, financial compensation and promotion prospects are the lowest motivators that individuals indicated as reasons for remaining in a career in the industry. The ‘other’ motivations to remain in the industry include in the UK, job satisfaction; daily variety and an interesting job; an enjoyable profession; to provide a high quality experience to clients; and the satisfaction of running their own business. In Australia, ‘other’ motivations included a passion for the industry; the challenge of the industry and working with ‘like’ people; varied, interesting and challenging work and the ability to make a difference. Respondents also commented on their enjoyment of ‘the buzz’ of the industry; the satisfaction of growing a business ,be it their own business or for another; the constantly changing role; utilisation of skills and the opportunity to make a contribution to the industry.

The above findings demonstrate that it is the ‘people’ opportunities combined to a lesser extent with ‘creative’ opportunities that motivate people to enter and remain in the conventions and exhibitions industry. The idea that it is a people orientated, fun, and dynamic industry that provides plenty of variety in the work makes it an attractive career opportunity. Jobs are seen as varied, interesting and challenging. These intrinsic motivations appear to be a key factor in providing job satisfaction to employees within the industry.

Career Commitment

The first measure of career commitment explores whether or not the respondents have ever considered moving to another industry, or also relocation within the industry. The results are shown in Table 4.

Table 4 Evidence of Career Commitment

	UK **(% of respondents)**	**Australia** **(% of respondents)**
Taken steps to work in another industry	16.5	24.6
Relocated to another city/region	50.6	44.4
Worked abroad in your career	23.5	34.1

There is evidence of high levels of career commitment to the conventions and exhibition industry by both respondents in the UK and Australia (Table 4). Only 16.5% of UK respondents and 24.6% of the Australian sample indicated that they have considered leaving the sector to work in another industry. However, further analysis of the Australian sample demonstrates a lower level of career commitment by those respondents employed in the convention and exhibitions areas of hotels. Nearly one third of respondents from this sector indicated that they have sought employment outside the sector, compared to 20.5% of those employed in other areas of the Australian convention and exhibition industry. Industry sectors where Australian respondents had sought employment include recruitment and personnel, other areas of tourism or service industries, information technology, education, marketing, advertising and sales, retail, real estate and property development.

In both the UK and Australia there is clear evidence of geographical mobility within an individual's career in the convention and exhibition industry. For the UK sample, half of the respondents (50.6%) have relocated to another city or region, and 23.5% have worked abroad at some time in their career. A similar pattern is found in Australia with almost 45 % of respondents having at some time relocated to a city or region, whilst over a third had worked abroad. The willingness to relocate in order to remain in the industry is further evidence of career commitment by individuals. It would also appear that those employed in the industry in Australia recognise the need to be mobile globally and gain international experience.

Attitude To Employment

The second measure of career commitment assesses attitudes towards employment in the conference and exhibitions industry. To test levels of career commitment, respondents were asked to indicate through the use of a Likert scale, the degree to which they agreed or disagreed with a number of statements. On a scale of 1 – 5 where 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither agree nor disagree, 4=agree, and 5=strongly agree, the total score of respondents who either agreed or strongly agreed with each of the statements is presented in Table 5.

Table 5 Attitudes towards employment in the conference and exhibitions industry

Statement	**UK % agree**	**UK Rank**	**Australia % agree**	**Australia Rank**
I talk up the conference and exhibition industry to my friends because it is great to be part of this industry	60	4	61.4	6
I would not consider an offer to work in any other industry	38.8	10	11.1	15
The nature of conference and exhibition management inspires me to contribute my very best in job performance	77.7	2	78.5	2
I am very loyal to the conference and exhibition management industry	48.2	7	58.8	7
If another area of work offered similar advancement and compensation opportunities, I would be interested in pursuing my career in that area	52.9	5	65.1	4

Statement	**UK % agree**	**UK Rank**	**Australia % agree**	**Australia Rank**
People leave this industry because the opportunities for career progression are limited	36.5	11	42.1	10
I am extremely happy that I chose a career in conference and exhibition management over others that I considered	61.2	3	65.1	4
For me the career I have chosen in this industry is the best possible career choice I could have made	44.8	6	48.4	8
I see my future as being tied to the future of conference and exhibition management	36.5	11	41.2	11
Work related stress and potential burnout is why people leave a job in this industry	48.2	7	69.8	3
I will leave the conference and exhibition industry in the next five years because of work related stress	7.1	15	20.6	14
My current compensation package is what I would expect from a job of this level in the conference and exhibition industry	31.7	13	38.9	12
I see myself as advancing rapidly in salary and position in this field.	16.4	14	21.5	13
The intrinsic rewards gained from my job in the conference and exhibition industry are excellent	42.3	9	46.8	9
Work in this field is challenging and interesting	89.4	1	93.6	1

An initial review of the results (Table 5) indicates a highly positive attitude to employment in the conventions and exhibitions industry in both the UK and Australia. The strongest agreement, found in both samples, is that “work in the conventions and exhibitions industry is challenging and exciting” (UK 89.4% Australia 93.6%) and that “the nature of the industry inspires me to contribute my best in terms of job performance” (UK 77.7% Australia 78.5%). This is followed in the UK by respondents “being extremely happy with their choice of a career in conference and exhibition management” (61.2%) and that they “ talk up the conference and exhibition industry to friends because it is great to be part of this industry” (UK 60%). However, in Australia despite the initial positive response there is a clear indication that respondents see “ work related stress and potential burnout as why people leave a job in the industry”(69.8%). This finding is the antithesis of the UK findings and is a definite cause for concern for the Australian convention and exhibition industry.

In the UK, the statement ‘I will leave the conference and exhibition industry in the next five years because of work related stress’ (7.1%) produced the lowest agreement , providing a clear indication that work related stress is not seen as a problem. However, despite recognising that work related stress is a potential source of labour turnover, Australian respondents produced a low agreement (20.6%) to the statement that they ‘would leave the convention and exhibition industry in the next five years.’ The level of work stress and burnout identified by the Australian sample does not appear to have impacted on their level of job satisfaction.

Rapid advancement in terms of salary and position within the industry was contrary to current thinking and belief. Only 16.4% of UK and 21.5% of Australian respondents thought they would advance rapidly in terms of salary and position within the industry.

Agreement that their “ current compensation package is what they would expect from a job of this level in the convention and exhibition industry” was Australia 38.9% and UK 31.7%. These findings provide an opposing view to that prevailing in the literature regarding the potential for accelerated career progression – a potential feature of a career in the convention and exhibition industry (McCabe 2000:106). However, despite the potential dissatisfaction, there seems to be little impact upon overall current career satisfaction although it may be focused towards potential future career opportunities and employment. It could be seen as indicative in the following response ‘I would not consider an offer to work in any other industry.’ In Australia this statement provided the lowest agreement (Australia 11.1%: UK 38.8%). The statement “ I see my future as being tied to the future of the convention and exhibition management” provides a level of agreement in Australia of 41.2% and in the UK 36.5% whilst a further third of Australian responses indicate that they ‘neither agreed or disagreed’ with the statement. It would appear therefore that despite the satisfaction that was felt in the work and in the industry, respondents are not totally committed to a career in the conventions and exhibitions industry. This is particularly so if work in another field offers advancement and compensation opportunities and job characteristics that are appealing (Australia 65.1% and UK 52.9%). This finding has been identified in the preliminary study in Australia (McCabe 2001:498) and has been further substantiated by these results.

Potential Next Job

The final issue to consider in relation to career commitment concerns an assessment of what the respondents envisage as their next job. The respondents were asked to state what they thought their next job would be.

The findings indicate a wide range of possible next jobs. In both the UK and Australian samples the most cited response was that the respondent has made no decision as to his or her next move (UK 11.8%: Australia 13.5%) whilst in Australia 19.8% did not respond to this question – again perhaps demonstrating their uncertainty. A further 11.8% in the UK (Australia 6.3%) indicated that they are either planning to retire or leave to raise a family whilst in Australia a further 10% indicated that they are planning to seek a move to another industry. From the UK sample, 9.4% indicated they would seek a similar position, and a further 8.2% wanted to become a Director in the same industry. The 'other' jobs that individuals identified outside the industry include sales and marketing manager, events manager, training and human resources manager, tourism management, consultancy, and other jobs in hotels.

It was evident from the remaining responses from Australia that the majority of people see their next position within the convention and exhibition sector, potentially at a more senior level or in another area of the industry. Examples such as project manager or event manager, corporate events or as a senior conference or incentives manager being cited. The wish to either start up or be a partner in a convention and exhibition business, for example as a Professional Conference Organiser was reported by 9.5%. Interest in being a Director in the industry primarily in the area of Sales and Marketing was expressed by 8%. Of those respondents currently employed in the convention and exhibition areas of a hotel, 26.5% indicate that their next position would be within a hotel though it may be in another area, for example Food and Beverage Manager or Director or Executive Assistant Manager. However a number (14.2%) indicated a desire to move into another sector of the industry, for example as a Professional Conference Organiser or as a conference or event manager in a purpose built convention and exhibition centre.

It would appear that, unlike their UK counterparts, the majority of Australian respondents have identified their next career move and have, in principle, indicated their commitment to the industry and to their career in the industry. However this fact should be considered in light of the findings outlined earlier in the attitudes of individuals towards employment in the industry.

Conclusions

The above findings illustrate that there are both striking similarities and subtle differences in terms of career motivations and commitment in the Australian and UK conventions and exhibitions industry. There is broad agreement in terms of motivations and attitudes. The desire to enter and remain in the industry is a result of the 'people' and 'creative' opportunities, and there is a belief that it is an exciting and dynamic sector. There is a strong commitment and a passion to the industry, and a willingness to be geographically mobile. Clearly, the convention and exhibitions industry is capable of attracting and retaining individuals who are committed to the industry, and are motivated by an exciting, challenging and people orientated job. Opportunities for creativity, and challenging and varied work roles are considered to be more important than financial reward.

There is, however, also evidence of some contradictory feelings - a broad satisfaction with the job is evident, although people would consider other opportunities if they offered more reward. However,the opportunity for rapid career progression identified as a potential feature of the conventions and exhibition industry (McCabe 2000:106) does not appear to be validated in this research.

There are three main differences between the UK and Australia that are worthy of further investigation. First, there is evidence that Australia is leading the way in terms of developing professionalism in the industry, and it would be useful to ascertain the usefulness of such continuing professional development programmes. For example, is it more appropriate for the industry to train people in the industry through company or industry related training schemes, rather than in traditional education prior to starting a job? An understanding of the specific knowledge, skills and competencies that are valued by the industry, and the best way to acquire these would also be valuable research avenues.

Second, whilst both the UK and Australian samples demonstrate high career mobility and a willingness to relocate for career development, the opportunities for travel are not a career motivator in the UK, however, they are in Australia. Furthermore, a higher percentage of the Australian sample has at some point in their careers worked abroad. This points towards a difference in the structure of the two industries. It may be that the opportunities are restricted in Australia due to the size of the industry, therefore opportunities are sought elsewhere. Another possibility is that the value of overseas experience is recognised by the Australian industry, and perhaps this gives the industry a competitive edge. Clearly employees are gaining overseas experience, and bringing the knowledge and skills learnt in another country back to Australia. The value of international experience warrants further investigation.

Third, there is evidence that stress and burnout is higher in Australia than in the UK. This may partly explain why, despite strong career commitment, the Australian sample expressed a willingness to seek other occupations both within and outside the tourism and hospitality industries. There may be lessons to be learned from the UK in terms of working practices. The area relating to employee conditions and work roles is therefore currently under investigation.

This research has offered an initial insight into the career motivations and commitments of people employed in the conventions and exhibitions industry. Given that the quality of the human resources has a direct impact upon the quality of service in the industry, there is clearly a need to explore ways in which human capital can be developed. Further research into training, labour market behaviour and mobility, and factors that promote career success are some of the directions that future research could take. An understanding of human capital development is essential in order to provide labour for the expanding industry, and to ensure that the industry remains competitive through a high quality of service.

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A Review of Web-Based Job Advertisements for Australian Event Management Positions

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Abstract

Strong growths in the Australian event management industry, ongoing technological changes and the internationalisation of the market place has 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. In order for Australia to position itself as a world leader in event management, it is important to provide consistent high professional standards and event managers that not only meet, but exceed the demands of the industry. While there is some literature that focuses on the tourism and leisure job market (Crossley, 1992; Keung & Pine, 2000), and a small but developing literature base that focuses on event management training (Harris & Jago, 1999; Hawkins & Goldbatt, 1995) relatively little consideration has been given to a national agenda for event management skilling.

To provide an indication of current employer requirements, a nationwide study of job advertisements in event management has commenced. The aims of the study are to

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further the understanding of the educational needs and training requirements of the industry; to ascertain the learned skills and personal attributes sought from event managers; to determine the compatibility of industry demands with current educational and vocational provisions; and to suggest post-secondary institutional 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. More importantly however, it can be used as the basis for curriculum evaluation and training needs, and create a better understanding and compatibility between event management education and industry practice.

This paper reports the preliminary results from a content analysis of approximately 100 web-based job advertisements. Email alert accounts were established with several search engines to gather a sample of event management related job advertisements from around Australia. An analytical framework was devised for the analysis of the advertisements themselves. The results reveal several interesting trends including the geographical concentration of the event management job market, the range of industries that require event management specialists or event management skills, and a series of required skills and key attributes of event managers. The results of this study establish a platform from which to develop a classification of event management skills required by the industry.

Background

Employees And Organisational Vitality

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 the job requirements can be detrimental to organisations. 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 the qualities that discern effective from ineffective employees are identified for particular organisations and industries, including the event management industry. This is imperative, as event management has emerged to become a significant player in the Australian tourism sector (Getz, 2000a). As the field of event management grows and matures, it is important that high-quality individuals are trained, qualified and employed. This will help to ensure professionalism in the field, equip managers with the necessary skills to deal with new challenges (such as ongoing technological change and the internationalisation of the market place) and will ultimately help to sustain the delivery of high quality events (Harris & Jago, 1999).

However, discerning the skills and attributes of event managers 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 (Getz, 2000b) and to produce graduates that are equipped with the skills to handle the challenges of the industry (Neale, 2000).

A small but increasing number of Australian studies have responded to the above calls and have included the perspectives of practioners to ascertain the skills and personal attribute requirements of event managers. Harris & Jago (1999) provide 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 are: 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 practioners 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, 1999).

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. 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. This paper specifically reports the main trends that have emerged from the preliminary findings of 105 web-based job advertisements.

Methodology

National studies of event management skills and attributes are difficult to conduct because it is rather a disparate field. Getz (2000b: 11) states that this is common amongst “emerging fields or quasi-professions”. Debates about whether or not the scope of events should include the general leisure field or be strictly confined to the tourism industry continues (Tassiopoulos, 2000) and several authors have noted a lack of standard terminology to describe and define events (Arcodia & Robb, 2000; Jago & Shaw, 1998). 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.

Job Advertisements - An Untapped Resource

As a popular yet 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, whilst 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 10 year period.

A possible reason why a nation-wide study of job advertisement has not been attempted until recently has been the share time and amount of labour resources needed to process newspaper advertisements. The advent of on-line recruitment advertising or 'cybercruiting' allows for considerably easier and faster access to job advertisements over a much broader area (Jarnis, 1996). While still fairly new, there is growing usage of the Internet as a recruitment medium. A survey conducted by the Australian Graduate School of Management (University of New South Wales) and CCH Australia Limited in 1999 indicated that more than half (57%) of the 344 Australian companies surveyed utilise the Internet or their Intranet for recruitment and selection purposes (Wallace et al., 2000).

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). To provide a more in-depth analysis of event management job advertisements several steps had been taken. Email alert accounts were set up in September 2001 with several popular job search engines, including: CareerOne, TourismJobsnet and Employment.com as well as meta-search engines such as Monsterboard, Seek and Alljobs. However as TourismJobNet returned previous years and thus irrelevant results, it was excluded.

All email alert accounts were given the same keywords for which to search. These included: events, event management, conference, festivals, banquets and later the keywords of communications and public relations were added. A nation-wide search and jobs of any duration (full-time, part-time, temporary, casual) were other search criteria that were given. These broad sets of criteria were chosen, as the aim of the study was to provide a sample of event management related job advertisement at a particular point in time. Browsing of newspapers advertisements indicated that event management positions were also listed under the communications and public relations sections, hence the inclusion of these keywords at a later stage.

Advertisements were downloaded on a fortnightly basis when possible, only those containing the above keywords in the job title or in the opening paragraph of the advertisement were chosen. For those job advertisements that may not be directly applicable to event management (such as communication and public relations) those that included these keywords as well as those directly applicable to event management (such as conference and festivals) were included. Upon review, duplicate advertisements, overseas advertisements and advertisements that provided too little information were excluded.

To date, 105 of these advertisements have been analysed using content analysis, a commonly used method in advertisements studies (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's that emerged from the data. Pre-defined criteria were avoided, in order to allow employer requirements of event managers 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.

Findings & Discussion

Geographical Distribution

As shown in Figure 1, more than two thirds of event management positions were advertised in New South Wales, one fifth in Victoria and only 7% in Queensland. Job advertisements in other states and territories remain negligible at this stage. The preliminary findings thus seem to indicate that most event management web based job advertisements are concentrated in high population density areas, a reflection of the general job market in Australia.

Figure 1 Job Advertisements by State and Territories

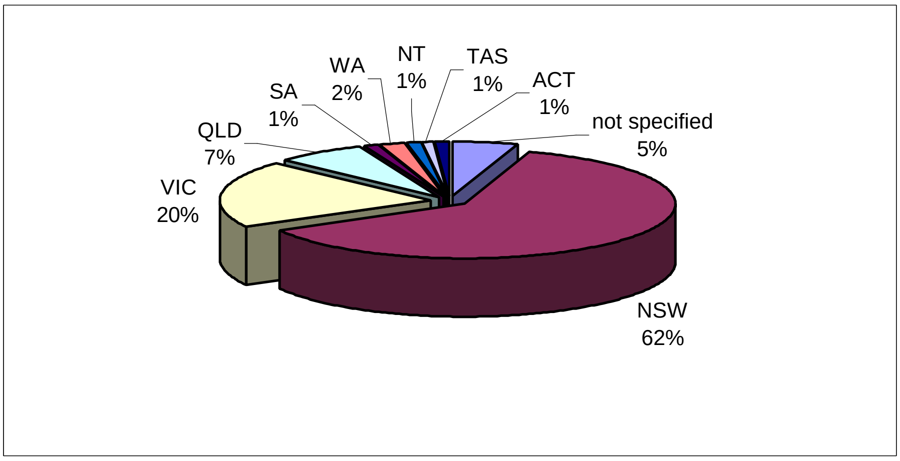
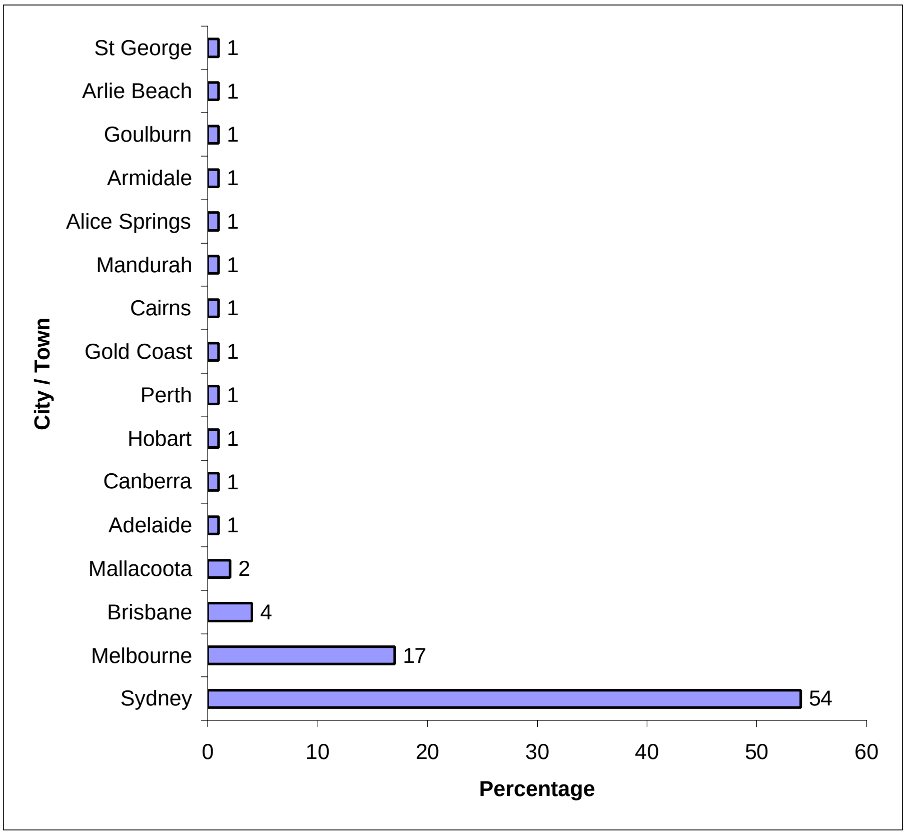


Figure 2 seems to support this idea, indicating that most advertisements are located in major cities along Australia’s east coast. More than half are located in Sydney, nearly a fifth in Melbourne and eleven per cent of advertisements did not actually specify their exact location. Few regional towns and localities featured. This again may suggest the dominance of major centres or could raise the issue of web-based job advertisement representativeness for regional Australia. To what extend the latter is a contributing factor needs to be further studied.

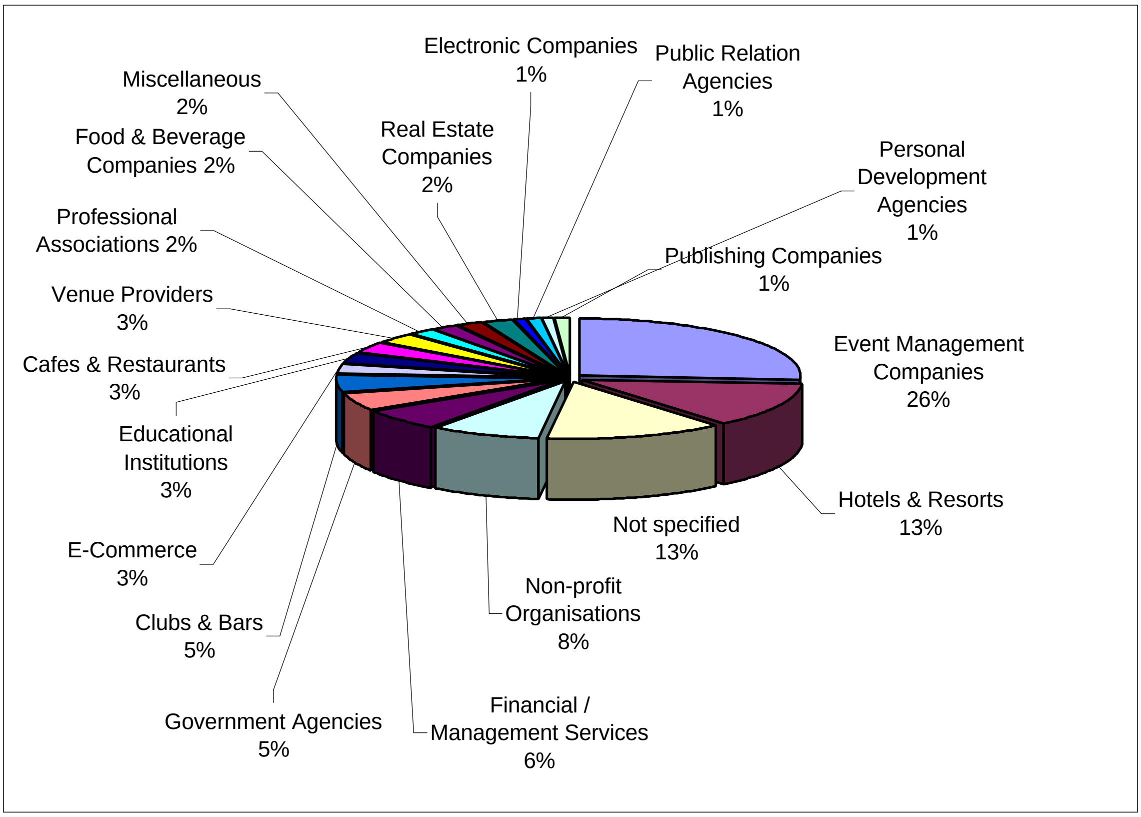
Figure 2 Job Advertisement by City and Towns



Industry representativeness

More than a quarter of advertisements were advertised in the event sector, the main employment stronghold of the event management industry (Figure 3). Event management companies that advertised included conference and banqueting production companies, event coordinators, sporting event companies and corporate entertainment and functions companies. Thirteen percent of advertisements were contained in the hotel and resort industry and a similar percentage of advertisements did not specific the industry or name of an organisation. Non-profit organisations contained 8% of the job advertisements, representing charity organisations in general or specific non-profit organisations such as hospital foundations, youth networks, religious and environmental organisations. Financial and management companies such as insurance and fund management companies contained 6% of the advertisements and government agencies including regional and city councils and territory tourism promotion agencies 5%.

Figure 3 Job Advertisement according to industry



Skills and Attributes

Two main elements of human capital can be deciphered 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 to 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 component (Spencer & Spencer, 1993).

Skills

By far the most frequently cited skills required of event managers were organisational and planning skills (Table 1). Eighty-eight per cent of employers were looking for people who were highly organised, able to plan and coordinate events, manage multiple tasks and time or a combination of the above. Advertisements either stated the need for these skills explicitly or implicitly. For example, one advertisement stated that ‘your ability to multi-task is extremely important as there will be various events to manage at one time’ (Events and Sponsorship Manager, October 9, 2001). Whereas another advertisement stated that this is a role ‘which will keep you on your toes!’ (Public Relations Co-Ord. Event Co-Ordination, August 18, 2001).

Table 1 General Skill Specification in Event Management Job Advertisements

Event Management Skills	Percentage of Advertisements
Organisational and Planning	88
Communication	85
Leadership and Decision-making	38
Budget and Financial Management	31
Marketing	30
Team	29
Customer Service	26
Building Relationships	23
Problem Solving and Analytical	18
Funding and Sponsorship	17

The above results are a reflection of the importance of planning and organisation to event management. As Wanklin (2000: 98-99) states: ‘planning is essential to manage time, prevent waste and to achieve efficient economics in the development process. Without planning, there would be chaos and a breakdown in elementary systems and infrastructure’.

Communication skills ranked a close second, with over four-fifths of job advertisements citing this as a requirement. Advertisements either specified the need for general communication skills, written communication skills, such as the ‘preparation of invitations and flyers for functions’ (Functions Coordinator, September 27, 2001); oral communication skills, such as being ‘articulate and persuasive’ (Junior PR Consultant, October 15, 2001) presentation skills or negotiation skills.

Thirty-eight per cent of job advertisements specified the need for leadership and decision making skills for event managers. Employers were looking for individuals that were able to ‘assume overall leadership of this dynamic and important corporation’ (CEO, Canberra Tourism & Events Corp., November 11, 2001), to ‘supervise the banquet floor operations’ (Banquet Floor Operations, September 7, 2001) or whose ‘leadership style ensures that the team achieves optimum outcomes’ (Public Relations Manager, December 5, 2001).

Financial and budget management skills were cited in nearly a third of advertisements. The advertisements either specified that individuals were required to operate within their set budgets, for example: ‘you will be responsible for meeting revenue targets’ (Catering Sales Executive, September 7, 2001) and ‘your primary focus will be on … cost effective delivery of a wide range of tourism promotion, marketing and event initiatives’ (CEO, Canberra Tourism & Events Corp., November 11, 2001) or individuals were charged with the responsibility for financial management, for example: ‘account management is encouraged as ongoing sponsorship will make your job easier’ (Corporate Sponsorship Sales, November 8, 2001) or ‘you need good budgeting skills for ordering supplies and arranging events’ (Functions Coordinator, September 27, 2001).

Marketing skills is the fifth most frequently cited skill requirement. Depending on the type of position and organisation, advertisements either needed event managers who were solely responsible for their marketing campaign, for example: ‘market the venue and make it number one in Brisbane’ (Marketing / Events Manager, November 1, 2001) or individuals that formed part of a marketing team: ‘form a critical part of the organisation’s marketing program’ (Events and Sponsorship Manager, October 9, 2001). Not surprisingly, team skills featured in event management job advertisements. Successful events are often dependent on the successful cooperation between individuals in and outside of an organisation. Advertisements either stated that individuals needed to have an understanding of the importance of a team, had prior experience working as an effective team member, or were able to lead and manage a team (Banquet Manager, November 1, 2001; Senior Accounts Manager, October 31, 2001).

Customer service skills were mentioned in over a quarter of advertisements. Advertisements mentioned such requirements as the need for ‘exceptional people skills, including an appreciation of the customer service ethic’ (Functions Coordinator, September 27, 2001) and the ‘provision of quality service to both internal and external clients in terms of arranging catering and catering-related supplies, meeting and functions’ (Functions Coordinator, September 27, 2001). The need to build effective relationships with clients and stakeholders was mentioned in 23% of the advertisements. The need to establish, nurture and build strong relationships is viewed as a key skill in these advertisements. For example, ‘building strong relationships with the media, the community and key stakeholders’ (Communication Manager, October 5, 2001) or the need to have a ‘flair for networking’ and to ‘develop business networks’ (Conference Producer, November 1, 2001).

Problem solving and analytical skills were mentioned in 18% of advertisements. For example, ‘your creative approach to problem solving is a must’ (Sales Manager – Event Management, October 5, 2001) or the successful applicant will require ‘well developed problem solving skills’ and ‘provide effective conflict resolution’

(Conventions & Banquets Supervisor, September 25, 2001). Analytical skills were implied by the need for research skills in several advertised positions. For example, the need to ‘research and produce legal conferences that will benefit the industry’ (Conference Producer, November 1, 2001) or to ‘conduct a thorough examination of the corporate / conference market and industry trends’ (Meetings, Conference & Events Sales Manager, September 18, 2001).

Funding and sponsorship skills were mentioned in 17% of advertisements. The role and responsibilities part of the job advertisement either stated this as a requirement of the position, for example: ‘you will be responsible for securing corporate sponsorship for conferences’ (Corporate Sponsorship Sales, November 8, 2001) or potential candidates need to demonstrate prior experience in securing funding and sponsorship. For example ‘demonstrated capacity to attract corporate sponsorship for communication programs’ (Team Leader Cultural Development, September 27, 2001).

The most frequently cited practical skill requirement was computer knowledge and skills (Table. 2). These requirements ranged from working knowledge and experience with Microsoft office programs to ‘web skills’ (Event Manager, December 3, 2001) ‘web strategies’ (Communications Manager, October 5, 2001) and ‘strong knowledge of computer hardware and software’ skills (Events – On Site Project Manager, September 12, 2001). Bar and food serving, policy development and media relation skills also featured, but preliminary data provided small percentages for these categories.

Table 2 Practical Skill Specification in Event Management Job Advertisements

Practical skills	Percentage of Advertisements
Computer knowledge and skills	36
Bar and Food serving skills	8
Policy Development skills	7
Media Relation skills	5

Attributes

Twelve personal attribute categories also emerged from the data (Table. 3). The most frequently mentioned attribute was motivation, with 29% of all advertisements citing this as a requirement. Employers were seeking individuals who were ‘self-motivated’ (Public Relations Manager, October 31, 2001) who have a ‘drive or desire to succeed’ (Conference and Events Services Manager, September 5, 2001) and for senior management or supervisory positions, individuals that were ‘able to motivate a team’ (Banquet Manager, November 1, 2001). The need for a pro-active attitude may be indicative of the seniority and independency of event management positions.

The second highest ranked attribute was positiveness (16%). These job advertisements specified the need for ‘high levels of enthusiasm’ (Functions Assistant, September 27, 2001) the adoption of a ‘positive approach to issues’ (Conventions & Banquets Supervisor, September 25, 2001) and the need for a ‘can do attitude’ (Personal Assistant, August 18, 2001). Creative, commitment and initiative attributes closely followed (12% each). ‘Highly creative individual’ (Personal Assistant, August 18, 2001) and ‘creating original, engaging and successful functions and events’ (Functions Coordinator, September 27, 2001) are indicative of the creative needs of event organisers. Whereas ‘commitment to excellence’ (Events Logistics - Events Coordinator, September 8, 2001) and ‘a strong work ethic’ (Functions & Banquets

Manager, September 14, 2001) refer to the standards and level of work requirements. Possession of a ‘forward thinking attitude’ (Banquet Manager, November 1, 2001) and the ‘ability to use your initiative’ (Conventions & Banquets Supervisor, September 25, 2001) were also mentioned. Eleven per cent of job advertisements mentioned flexibility as a required personality attribute. This is likely a reflection of many events occurring after normal working hours. As stated in an advertisement (Events Coordinator / Personal Assistant, September 25, 2001): ‘naturally many functions occur in the evening and on weekends so you should be prepared to tailor this with your lifestyle’. The appearance of the ‘flexibility’ attribute corresponds with Perry et al., (1996) survey of event management respondents who also nominated adaptability as an essential attribute for event managers.

Table 3 Personal Attributes Specification in Event Management Job Advertisements

Personality Attribute	**Percentage of Advertisements**
Motivation	29
Positiveness	16
Dynamism and Energy	13
Commitment	12
Creative	12
Initiative	12
Flexibility	11
Accuracy	9
Respect / Maturity	8
Friendly	8
Trustworthiness / Responsibility	5
Sensitiveness	3

Conclusion

As mentioned at the outset, the purpose of this study was to undertake an investigative study of event management skills and attributes sought by Australian employers. The preliminary results indicate a concentration of Internet derived event management advertisements within major cities along Australia's east coast. A range of industries has also been represented, with the event sector itself representing the major source of employment. Several reoccurring skills and attributes requirements 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 manager's requirements, such as the importance of planning and organisational, marketing and financial skills (Harris & Griffin, 1997; Royal & Jago, 1998) and the emergence of computer skills as the highest ranked practical skill requirements 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.

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Does the Observable Special Event Volunteer Career in Four South Australian Special Event Organisations Demonstrate the Existence of a Recruitment Niche?

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Introduction

Reporting on the findings of a survey of volunteers in four South Australian special event organisations, we suggest that the typical special event volunteer goes through several stages in their career. First, the volunteer is recruited. This recruitment largely comes from within the interest, social or cultural community surrounding the special event. For some volunteers, their current volunteering is the continuation of earlier involvement in the event, as a participant within the activities of the event, but in new form. For other volunteers, the current involvement is the result of a direct request by people already involved in the event, while for other volunteers, the current volunteering assignment is merely the result of the movement from one related organisation, to another organisation. General methods of recruitment seem insignificant.

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Once recruited, it appears that the overwhelming majority of volunteers will continue to volunteer. 85% of volunteers had previously volunteered within the current organisation. Only 25% of volunteers list unrelated organisations as the organisations in which they had first volunteered. 93% of respondents indicated an intention to volunteer next time.

As volunteering continues, the tasks undertaken by volunteers are typically similar to those of their previous assignment. Long term repeat volunteers, either from the same or a related organisation, usually carry out the same tasks. However, over time, some volunteers may take on additional responsibilities. New arrivals, however, are generally involved with carrying out tasks similar but additional to those of their previous assignment, or in about 16% of cases, something completely different.

Finally, the volunteer decides to discontinue volunteering. Although we have insignificant data on this stage of the volunteer career, our limited data points to the significance of involuntary discontinuation of volunteering as the major cause of discontinuation.

We argue that this pattern of volunteering demonstrates the existence of a recruitment niche. If correct, management strategies recognising the implications of this informal feature of the special event organisation volunteer pool will lead to increased returns on investment in volunteer training and event organisation.

This paper presents evidence on the volunteering career of special event volunteers, drawing on the findings of a survey of the volunteers of four South Australian special event organisations (SEOs). By understanding the processes and factors underlying the recruitment, ongoing activity and discontinuation of SEO volunteers, managers of these organisations will be better equipped to develop appropriate recruitment and selection methods, in addition to minimising volunteer turnover.

We found that volunteers typically go through several distinct stages. First, the volunteer is recruited from a small number of sources, usually related organisations, following the invitation of other volunteers or arising out of prior involvement within the organisation. Once recruited, the overwhelming majority of volunteers remain involved within the organisation. Usually, the volunteer continues to carry out tasks undertaken in the previous volunteering activity, either in that organisation or in another organisation. In some cases, additional tasks are taken on. Finally, the volunteer eventually decides to discontinue volunteering. We find that, although the sample is inadequate to be persuasive, that only a small percentage of volunteers discontinue due to dissatisfaction.

Such a conclusion can be understood in terms of the existence and operation of an SEO-specific ‘recruitment niche’, where potential volunteers are typically recruited from the social and interest group networks surrounding the SEO. As a large proportion of volunteers are recruited – or more accurately, self-selected – out of the adjoining interest communities, it is more likely that the new volunteer is likely to have some degree of commitment, interest and compatibility with the aims and personnel of the SEO.

This conclusion has significant potential implications for SEO management. If an SEO volunteer cohort is substantially drawn from a particular community surrounding the organisation, then more efficient strategies for the identification and recruitment of suitable volunteers can be developed. Secondly, if this recruitment niche assists to minimise volunteer turnover and to increase volunteer commitment, then SEO managements will have a clearer rationale for making investments in volunteer training and development.

This argument will be presented in several stages. First, we overview the literature seeking to explain the recruitment and maintenance of SEO volunteers. Secondly, we describe our research method, and provide some preliminary evidence on our sample. The next three sections report on our findings, summarised in the sixth section. The seventh section locates the previous findings in terms of the recruitment niche theory of volunteer organisation.

1. Why Do SEO Volunteers Participate? A Very Brief Overview Of The Literature.

Our attempt to understand the literature explaining the recruitment, selection, maintenance and turnover of SEO volunteers has been hampered by the limitations of the existing literature. First, the special event literature looking at the human resource management of volunteers is currently minimal. Secondly, this minimal literature has been dominated, in subject matter, by research into sporting events, who represent only one component of the burgeoning and diverse special event sector. Thirdly, the SEO HRM literature has been strongly influenced by the broader volunteering literature, which has strongly emphasised the determinants – demographic and attitudinal – of recruitment rather than a broader emphasis on the lifecycle of volunteers. We have used this literature, however, to develop a framework for identifying the key factors in the special event volunteer career.

The volunteering literature has typically investigated the origins of volunteers in one of two ways. In the first of these approaches, the research is concerned with identifying the socio-demographic characteristics of volunteers. The typical volunteer, the literature has generally agreed, tends to be middle-aged, middle class, more highly educated and with a higher income than the typical non-volunteer. The organisations and activities taken up by volunteers appears to be distinctly gender segmented. A brief review of this literature can be found in Treuren & Monga (2002a).

The second literature focuses on the attitudinal characteristics of volunteers. Using measures of organisational commitment as a proxy of the motivation to volunteer, the literature has typically found that volunteer motivations fall within three categories. Although the altruistic motivation is widely understood to be the central feature of the motivation to volunteer, the literature has highlighted a wide diversity of motivations between different organisations (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991, Table 1, for an extensive summary of the literature). Gillespie & King (1985), Henderson (1981), Wilson &

Musick (1999), Winniford, Carpenter & Grider (1995), for example, demonstrate the significance of altruistic motivations for volunteers in some organisations.

Table 1 The Three Dominant Explanatory Variables Used Within The MTV Literature

Labels used in literature	*Description*	*Our labels*
Material (Prestby 1990) Utilitarian (Knoke and Prensky 1984)	Rewards that can be translated into monetary value. Such as wages, salaries, property value, information.	Instrumental
Solidary (Prestby 1990) Affective (Knoke and Prensky 1984)	Derived from social interaction, interpersonal relationships, friendships, group status and group identification	Solidary
Purposive (Prestby 1990) Normative (Knoke and Prensky 1984)	Based on global concerns of a suprapersonal nature. Appeal to values such as community action and support, civic responsibility and environmental concern.	Altruistic

Source: Adapted from Caldwell and Andereck (1994, p. 35)

Other researchers, however, point to a more complicated set of factors underlying the volunteering decision. More than one motivation may be operative, including a combination of altruistic, instrumental and solidary factors. Cnaan and Goldberg-Glenn (1991) have argued that instead of dichotomous behaviour, volunteers more typically act to simultaneously satisfy a combination of motivations. For Henderson (1981, p. 210):

> 'reasons people volunteer are never completely altruistic or selfish…A volunteer will be motivated when primary interest, obligations and needs can be met comfortably while giving service to others.'

These motivations may change over time within and between volunteering engagements (Cuskelly & Harrington, 1997), with volunteering experience, or may be related to the stage of life of the volunteer (Caldwell & Andereck, 1994; Geber, 1991; Ilsley, 1990; Schondel & Boehm, 2000; Warburton, Terry, Rosenman, & Shapiro, 2001). In one study, for example, the initial volunteering decision was more likely to be based on a relatively altruistic motivation, while continued and repeat volunteering is more likely to be based on relatively egotistic motivations (Winniford et al., 1995).

Both literatures remain unsettled. The demographic literature can demonstrate *who* volunteers, but cannot provide much insight as to *why* these people volunteer. The motivation to volunteer literature remains unsettled because of the wide diversity of motivations within and between organisations.

The literature on special event volunteers provides further evidence of the limitations of the existing literature. For example, in Williams, Dossa and Tompkins's study of the management of special event volunteers, for both resident and non-resident volunteers, the most important reason to volunteer was to 'socialize, in an outdoor setting with people who share common interests, support the national team and enthusiasm for the event (1995, p. 87). Instrumental rewards for volunteering were least important motivators for both resident and non-resident volunteers. In a similar study, Farrell, Johnston, & Twynam, (1998) found that the highest ranking reason for volunteering in the elite sporting event was 'I wanted to make the event a success'. Elstad (1996) cited in Deery, Jago, & Shaw (1997) highlighted that the satisfying factors for the majority of volunteers at the XI Olympic Winter Games were ‘personal networking, celebratory atmosphere and having fun.’

Andrew's (1996) pilot study of motivations and expectations of volunteers involved in a large scale sports event, has highlighted the composite mix of volunteer motivations. In this study, volunteers were divided into three groups. The first group were volunteers who had been previously involved with the sport; while the other two groups were involved with the functional activities of proving first aid, or to act as hosts and other general duties. The first aid group rated the opportunity to gain more skills and experience as important, as they were to receive senior first aid training in addition to exercising their basic skills. The hosting and general volunteers indicated a relatively stronger motivation towards material incentives.

In our review of the special event literature, the most highly recognised attitudinal factor in the volunteering literature – ‘altruism’ – does not rank highly. Farrell, Johnston and Twynam also concluded from their study that motivation for special event volunteers is different from that for other volunteers (1998, p. 295). They attributed this to the attachment of volunteers to the *activity* and to the *nature* of special events.

In recent years the notion of a recruitment niche has been used to explain the patterns of recruitment, longevity and development of volunteering organisation memberships offering an interesting method to sidestep the problems of the existing literature (Nichols & King, 1999). The recruitment niche approach starts from the finding that volunteer organisations are characterised by a relative distinctiveness of organisational membership, when compared with other organisations, and that over time, the continued involvement of these recruits, as well as current recruitment tends to reinforce this distinctiveness.

Although some debate exists between the nature of this commonality between volunteers – between the relative importance of social demographic factors or attitudinal factors – it is argued that those volunteers who have substantially different characteristics to those already within the organisations are unlikely to sign up in the first instance and are less likely to continue, if recruited (McPherson & Rotolo, 1996; Popielarz & McPherson, 1995; Stebbins, 1992). This homogeneity occurs because of the tendency of people within the organisation to recruit and select volunteers from people who are similar to themselves in some essential characteristic. Once recruited, the volunteer with similar characteristics to the surrounding volunteers is more likely to continue.

This homogeneity occurs because of the existence of an external labour market of potential volunteers surrounding the organisation, populated by people involved in similar activities, with similar interests or with similar characteristics. Thus, in the recruitment niche approach, organisations tend to recruit by existing volunteers attracting friends, colleagues and associates drawn from their extended social networks. Those volunteers with less ‘connection’ to existing volunteers or to the activities of the organisation, either in social networks or interest networks are less likely to have an attachment to the organisation. Consequently their volunteering career is likely to be briefer than those drawn from the recruitment pool surrounding the organisation. Such an approach provides an alternative method for understanding the source of volunteering recruits, and provides a useful way of drawing the findings of the demographic and attitudinal literatures to explain two interesting features of special event organisations.

2. Research Methodology And Survey

The findings reported in this paper are part of a broader study of the key factors in the effective human resource management of special event volunteers, financed by the CRC Sustainable Tourism. This survey was preceded by a literature review investigating the relationship between human resource management practices, special event organisation and special event volunteers; as well as a series of interviews with chief executive officers of ten South Australian special event organisations on actual management practices. Early findings of our research have been reported in Monga & Treuren, (2001a, b) and Treuren & Monga, (2002a, b). Arising from the review, we developed a survey instrument to obtain evidence on previous volunteering, demographic characteristics and current volunteering experiences of current and recent special event volunteers.

We chose each of the five organisations as representing a different segment of the diverse special event sectors. Each of these organisations is well known within South Australia. In one case, the particular event has been a feature of Adelaide community life for over a century with a single sponsor until 1999. Unfortunately our survey of the fifth organisation was held up for several months due to the staging of that organisation's major event. As a result we have been unable to include the volunteer data of that organisation in this paper. After a piloting of the survey to respondents form SEO1 and SEO2, we distributed this survey by mail in September 2001 to all volunteers on the databases of the four South Australian special event organisations, accompanied by a letter endorsing the survey written by the organisation's chief officer. The data was collated, coded and analysed between December and February 2002. Table 2 summarises the key features of the organisations relevant to this study.

Table 2 Key Features Of Respondent Organisations

	SEO 1.	SEO 2.	SEO 3.	SEO 4.
Activity	Conducting a range of automotive contests	Holding community cultural festival	Public parade	Conducting a solar car race
Frequency of (main) activity	Several times yearly	Twice annually	Annually	Every 2 – 3 years
Total number of volunteers in last event	479	400	171	39
Responses	218	72	56	24
Response rate (%)	45.5	18	32.7	61.5
Internal Structure	Core-periphery model/ cyclical	Core-periphery model/ cyclical	Community outsourced	Core-periphery model/ cyclical
External Structure	Federation of small clubs	Federation of small clubs	Sponsored	Sponsored
% First time volunteering	4.6%	14.1%	5.4%	4.2%
% Previous involvement with SEO	88.9%	80.6%	78.6%	81.8%

Three of these organisations operate according to the cyclical/ core-periphery model described elsewhere (Monga & Treuren, 2001b). In such organisations, the internal structure of the organisation is shaped by two main processes. First, the organisation relies most of the time between events on a small permanent staff, who are responsible for preliminary event planning and organisation. As the event draws closer, the organisation expands in size – perhaps taking on additional paid staff – as well as organising for volunteer labour. After the event, the organisation returns to its normal size. The second process concerns the establishment and maintenance of a core-periphery organisational structure with clear lines of authority, training and responsibility. Typically, the core workforce – the permanent staff involved in planning and preliminary organisation and very senior volunteers – establish clear guidelines for the operation of the special event, as well as a clear division of labour for the event, between paid and unpaid workers, as well as between expert and non-expert activity.

SEO3 has a different internal structure – that of community-based outsourcing. Although organised by a small core group, the actual volunteer labour is carried out by two distinct groups. Having set the guidelines and responsibilities, the core organisation delegated the driving of the floats during the pageant to members of a community based group. This group acts as a 'contractor' to the event. The second group were directly recruited to provide a range of services such as costuming and catering. Despite this, the volunteers see themselves as volunteers of the event rather than the service club.

These groups are also distinguished by their external structure. Both SEO1 and SEO2 are federations, effectively the peak groups of two South Australia-wide networks of community based organisations. SEO2, for example, has over one hundred institutional members representing a wide range of geographically-based, ethnic and cultural groups involved with folk culture, in addition to individual memberships. The constituent clubs of SEO1 are more likely to maintain their independent identity than the members of

SEO2, who despite being drawn initially from their constituent group, see their group as being a subsection within the federation, rather than a separate group.

The other two groups are ‘sponsored’ organisations, operating under the general direction of Australian Major Events (AME), an organisation operating within the South Australian Tourism Commission. In this approach to organisational management, AME is responsible for the long-term and strategic planning of events into South Australia, finding suitable sponsors and setting up the basic infrastructure for the event management. Executive responsibility is held by a small organising group, answerable to AME.

While organisations 1, 3 and 4 have had a reliable response rate, over 30%; we acknowledge that the low response rate of SEO2 volunteers has provided data that may be less reliable. Unfortunately we have been unable to carry out a second round of survey distribution within SEO2 (largely due to the difficulties in volunteer-managed volunteer databases.) We have included this data because existing data is presumably indicative of organisational trends.

As can be seen in Table 3 and Treuren & Monga (2002a) the volunteer cohorts for each of these organisations had significantly different characteristics, segmented by sex, age, employment status and income.

Table 3 Selected demographic factors, by SEO (% and total)

		SEO 1.	SEO 2.	SEO 3.	SEO 4.	Total
Age* **						
	<=19	0.0%	11.3%	3.7%	0.0%	2.7%
	20-29	6.0%	21.1%	7.4%	8.3%	9.3%
	30-39	19.8%	11.3%	18.5%	4.2%	16.9%
	40-49	30.0%	23.9%	27.8%	8.3%	27.0%
	50-59	29.5%	19.7%	25.9%	41.7%	27.9%
	60-69	12.0%	12.7%	14.8%	20.8%	13.1%
	>=70	2.8%	0.0%	1.9%	16.7%	3.0%
	Total	217	71	54	24	366
Sex* **						
	Female	14.3%	52.8%	46.4%	17.4%	26.9%
	Male	85.7%	47.2%	53.6%	82.6%	73.1%
	Total	217	72	56	23	368
Income* **						
	<= $10,000	11.3%	39.4%	12.7%	12.5%	17.1%
	$10 - 20,000	12.3%	18.3%	23.6%	12.5%	15.2%
	$20,001- 30,000	13.2%	19.7%	12.7%	20.8%	14.9%
	$30,001 - 40,000	22.2%	7.0%	16.4%	12.5%	17.7%
	$40,001 - 50,000	16.0%	11.3%	12.7%	20.8%	14.9%
	$50,001 - 65,000	14.6%	4.2%	20.0%	8.3%	13.0%
	$65,001- 80,000	4.2%	0.0%	1.8%	4.2%	3.0%
	$80,001- 100,000	3.3%	0.0%	0.0%	8.3%	2.5%
	$100,001 +	2.8%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.7%
	Total	212	71	55	24	362
Employment status* **						
	self-employed	22.8%	11.4%	1.9%	22.7%	17.5%
	full-time	47.9%	25.7%	59.3%	18.2%	43.5%
	part-time	5.1%	15.7%	7.4%	4.5%	7.5%
	casual	7.0%	12.9%	9.3%	4.5%	8.3%
	home duties	1.9%	1.4%	5.6%	4.5%	2.5%
	Unemployed	1.9%	15.7%	1.9%	0.0%	4.4%
	retired	12.1%	15.7%	14.8%	45.5%	15.2%
	other	1.4%	1.4%	0.0%	0.0%	1.1%
	Total	215	70	54	22	361

Notes: 1. Column percentages may not add to 100% due to rounding up error.
2. $^{***}\chi^2$ significant at 0.0005 level.

3. The Findings Of The Survey (1) – Recruiting Volunteers

We found that the overwhelming majority of current SEO volunteers had previously volunteered. Many of these repeat volunteers had volunteered before within the current organisation. As can be seen in Table 2, more than 95% of our sample had volunteered before this most recent volunteering assignment, with the exception of SEO2. In this organisation, the percentage of current volunteers who had not volunteered before was almost three times the level of the other organisations. Over 80% of surveyed volunteers had previously volunteered before with their current organisation, demonstrating a high degree of commitment towards the SEO.

The majority of these volunteers were repeat volunteers from prior events conducted by the SEO, or had previously volunteered from organisations involved in similar activities. Table 4 demonstrates that less than 30% of current volunteers had previously volunteered in organisations substantially different in activity to the current SEO. The apparent anomaly of SEO2 being a federated organisation but with no apparent volunteers drawn from membership organisations can be explained by the ‘soft’ federation structure of SEO2 noted earlier. While SEO2 is formally a federation composed of largely autonomous groups involved with folk culture, in practice the boundaries of these organisations and the federation are unclear, if only in the minds of the membership. This is partly due to the role of the federation in providing resources and venues for many of these groups.

Table 4 Organisation In Which Previous Volunteering Occurred, By SEO

	SEO 1.	SEO 2.	SEO 3.	SEO 4.	Total
Same organisation	68	49	34	16	167
	33.7%	79.0%	68.0%	69.6%	49.6%
Member/affiliated organisation	83		1	1	85
	41.1%		2.0%	4.3%	25.2%
Different and unrelated organisation	51	13	15	6	85
	25.2%	21.0%	30.0%	26.1%	25.2%
Total	202	62	50	23	337
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Note: Column percentages may not add to 100% due to rounding up error.

These volunteers were largely recruited through direct means – by mailouts to the membership of the various organisations, by personal approach, or by people continuing their involvement in an activity but in a different role (Table 5).

Less than 20% of volunteers in the various events were recruited by indirect methods. Table 5 demonstrates the significance of personal connections in recruiting SEO volunteers, with direct personal approaches bringing over 40% of volunteers from previous SEO activities, and other organisations respectively. 45% of volunteers from affiliated organisations were recruited as a result of mailouts and formal requests from the SEO to affiliated organisations.

Table 5 Method of recruitment by current and previous SEO involvement

	SEO1	SEO2	SEO3	SEO4	Same[3]	Affiliated[4]	Unrelated[5]
Direct (internal) recruitment							
From the organisation[1]	45	10	8	2	32	16	13
	21.1%	14.3%	14.3%	9.1%	19.6%	19.0%	15.9%
Invitation[2]	67	41	36	15	82	16	44
	31.5%	58.6%	64.3%	68.2%	50.3%	19.1%	53.6%
Participated before/was a competitor	18	4	0	0	8	8	5
	8.5%	5.7%	0.0%	0.0%	4.9%	9.5%	6.1%
Direct (external) recruitment							
Invitation sent to affiliated group	68	1	5	1	18	38	14
	31.9%	1.4%	8.9%	4.5%	11.0%	45.2%	17.1%
Indirect recruitment							
Radio/newspaper	6	8	4	3	11	4	3
	2.8%	11.4%	7.1%	13.6%	6.7%	4.8%	3.7%
Public notice board	5	2	3	0	6	1	1
	2.3%	2.9%	5.4%	0.0%	3.7%	1.2%	1.2%
other	4	4	0	1	6	1	2
	1.9%	5.7%	0.0%	4.5%	3.7%	1.2%	2.4%
Total	213	70	56	22	163	84	82
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Direct (internal) recruitment	61.0%	78.6%	78.6%	77.3%	74.8%	47.6%	75.6%
Direct (external) recruitment	31.9%	1.4%	8.9%	4.5%	11.0%	45.2%	17.1%
Indirect recruitment	7.0%	20.0%	12.5%	18.2%	14.1%	7.1%	7.3%

Notes: Column percentages may not add to 100% due to rounding up error.
Data based on coded responses of respondents.
[1] Includes organisational mailouts to members, website, email etc.
[2] Includes invitations from previous volunteers, friends, word of mouth and direct requests
[3] Respondent previouslywas involved with same organisation
[4] Respondent was previously involved with a related organisation
[5] Respondent was previously involved with an unrelated organisation.

As can be expected, satisfaction is a significant factor in the ongoing and repeat volunteering decision (Table 6). Although our data set gives no way of determining the proportion of volunteers undertaking two simultaneous volunteering assignments at the time of the survey, few volunteers in our sample expressed dissatisfaction with the *previous* volunteering assignment. The high proportion of current volunteers drawn from affiliated as well as different organisations does not suggest that dissatisfaction is necessarily a primary motive for moving from one volunteering organisation to another. This requires further investigation, as it is possible that a volunteer may have been volunteering for more than one SEO at the time.

Table 6 Satisfaction In Last SEO Volunteering Assignment

	Same	Affiliated	Unrelated	Total
Not at all satisfied	1	0	0	1
	0.6%	0.0%	0.0%	0.3%
Not satisfied	4	0	0	4
	2.5%	0.0%	0.0%	1.2%
Undecided	8	5	11	24
	4.9%	5.9%	13.3%	7.3%
Quite satisfied	69	40	32	141
	42.3%	47.1%	38.6%	42.6%
Extremely satisfied	81	40	40	161
	49.7%	47.1%	48.2%	48.6%
Total	163	85	83	331
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

4. The Findings Of The Survey (2) – Maintenance Of Volunteers

The majority of volunteers were repeat volunteers, in this or other organisations (Table 7) with over 60% of all surveyed volunteers having volunteered over 5 years. This pattern of involvement, however, varied significantly between SEOs. SEO2's volunteers were almost half as likely to have been involved in volunteering for more than five years than volunteers in SEO1 or SEO3.

Table 7 Length Of Volunteering Career By SEO

	SEO 1.	SEO 2.	SEO 3.	SEO 4.	Total
Less than one year	4	9			13
	2.0%	15.3%			4.0%
One to three years	29	17	4	3	53
	14.8%	28.8%	8.0%	13.0%	16.2%
Three to five years	19	16	19	1	55
	9.7%	27.1%	38.0%	4.3%	16.8%
Five to ten years	20	7	8	9	44
	10.2%	11.9%	16.0%	39.1%	13.4%
Over ten years	124	10	19	10	163
	63.3%	16.9%	38.0%	43.5%	49.7%
Total	196	59	50	23	328
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Once involved, the majority of volunteers carry out a similar task to the tasks carried out in prior assignments (Table 8). There are two cases, however, in which the volunteer undertakes additional or different tasks. In the first case, volunteer undertakes new tasks upon commencement of volunteering within the SEO. In the second case, as the volunteer rises in seniority, the volunteer assumes additional tasks.

Table 8 Change In Tasks Between Current And Previous Volunteering Assignment By (i) SEO And (ii) Length Of Total Volunteering Service

	SEO1	SEO2	SEO3	SEO4	<1 year	1-3 years	3-5 years	5-10 years	10 + years
Same or similar role	89	31	34	9	6	31	30	24	66
	43.8%	50.0%	68.0%	40.9%	46.2%	58.5%	55.6%	55.8%	40.5%
Same AND different	86	16	8	9	2	17	19	13	64
	42.4%	25.8%	16.0%	40.9%	15.4%	32.1%	35.2%	30.2%	39.3%
Different role	28	15	8	4	5	5	5	6	33
	13.8%	24.2%	16.0%	18.2%	38.5%	9.4%	9.3%	14.0%	20.2%
	203	62	50	22	13	53	54	43	163
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

5. The Findings Of The Survey (3) – Discontinuation Of Volunteering Activity

Less than 8% of SEO volunteers in our sample intend to discontinue volunteering. Although this is a small sample, reporting the reasons for discontinuation may assist subsequent research in identifying factors in the discontinuation decision.

Dissatisfaction with the current volunteering experience, although a factor, was not the major factor leading to volunteer discontinuation (Table 9). Almost 30% of our discontinuing sample intend to discontinue for age-related reasons, either because of growing infirmity, or due to time pressures due to position in the life-cycle. The event moving away (or the volunteer moving away from the event) was another explanation for discontinuation.

Table 9 Intention To Continue/Discontinue Volunteering, With Reasons For Discontinuation

	SEO 1	SEO 2.	SEO 3.	SEO 4.	Total
Yes	203	61	51	22	337
	95.30%	87.10%	92.70%	95.70%	93.40%
No	10	9	4	1	24
	5.20%	12.90%	5.50%	4.30%	6.60%
	213	70	55	23	361
	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%
Reasons for discontinuing					
Event management	20.0%	44.4%	25.0%	0.0%	29.2%
Personal reasons	10.0%	22.2%	75.0%	100.0%	29.2%
Event moving away	50.0%	11.1%	0.0%	0.0%	25.0%
No explanation	20.0%	22.2%	0.0%	0.0%	16.7%
	10	9	4	1	24
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Concerns about event management – poor organisation, the difficulty of work and the risk involved in the actual events – was as significant as personal decisions as a reason for discontinuation. Although beyond the scope of this immediate paper, concerns about the management of the event, including situational factors, were also significantly voiced by continuing volunteers. This important issue will be explored in subsequent work. Table 10 confirms this, demonstrating that the continued volunteering decision is not strictly influenced by volunteer satisfaction.

Table 10 Current Satisfaction And Intention To Continue/Discontinue Volunteering

	Continue	Discontinue	Total
Not at all satisfied		1	1
		4.50%	0.30%
Not satisfied	2	4	6
	0.60%	18.20%	1.70%
Undecided	25	4	29
	7.60%	18.20%	8.30%
Satisfied	122	6	128
	37.10%	27.30%	36.50%
Extremely satisfied	180	7	187
	54.70%	31.80%	53.30%
Total	329	22	351
	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%

6. The Volunteering Career

Based on this sample, we suggest that the typical volunteer career passes through several stages. In the first stage – recruitment – the volunteer is recruited into the organisation. There are three significant sources of recruits. First, volunteers from within the organisation who have been involved previously with that event. In the second case, volunteers are recruited from associated organisations. Finally, volunteers can be drawn from outside the organisation and groups associated with it.

In the second stage – the actual volunteering duration – we can see that the typical volunteer is likely to be a repeat volunteer within the organisation, and that this volunteering assignment will be part of a long-term participation in volunteering. Through the volunteering assignment, the typical volunteer retains their initial set of responsibilities, but may add additional responsibilities over time, or at the point of first commencement of volunteering with the organisation.

Although we have a limited sample, we suggest that the third and final stage of discontinuing, occurs for one of three reasons, roughly equal in significance. First volunteers may discontinue due to concerns about event management. The second major reason relates to discontinuation due to age or lifestyle, while the third reason relates to the event being discontinued or the volunteer moving out of the geographical area. Table 11 summarises the likelihood of these factors.

Table 11 Summary Of Volunteering Career Cycle

		SEO 1	SEO 2	SEO 3	SEO 4
Recruitment					
	Have not volunteered before	4.6%	14.1%	5.4%	4.2%
	Previously with related association	41.1%	0.0%	2.0%	4.3%
	Previously with unrelated association	25.2%	21.0%	30.0%	26.1%
	Direct (internal) recruitment	61.0%	78.6%	78.6%	77.3%
	Direct (external) recruitment	31.9%	1.4%	8.9%	4.5%
	Indirect recruitment	7.0%	20.0%	12.5%	18.2%
Continued Volunteering					
	Previous volunteering with SEO	88.9%	80.6%	78.6%	81.8%
	% having volunteering over 5 years	73.5%	28.8%	54.0%	82.6%
	% carrying out different tasks	13.8%	24.2%	16.0%	18.2%
Discontinuation					
	Intending to discontinue	5.2%	12.9%	5.5%	4.3%
	Discontinuation due to management	20.0%	44.4%	25.0%	0.0%

7. The Apparent Recruitment Niche For These Organisations

The brief demographic data given in Table 3 (as well as unpublished data) points to some distinct characteristics between the volunteers within the four special event organisations.

SEO1 is characterised by a high proportion of volunteers who classify their occupation as ‘tradesperson’, two and a half times greater than the next highest, and with SEO4, a very high level of self-employment. SEO2 has a much younger age group involved, earning less money, a much higher proportion of women, and considerably more unemployed people involved. SEO3’s characteristics are less obvious, probably due to the existence of two distinct groups of volunteers within the organisation – volunteers drawn from a service club acting as a contractor to the event and responsible for driving the trucks during the various events; and the volunteers involved with costuming and float decorating. A feature of SEO4’s volunteers is the older age demographic, with 80% of volunteers over 50 years, and 45% reporting themselves as retirees. A more thorough account of the distinctiveness of the demographic characteristics of these SEOs can be seen in Treuren and Monga (2002a, b).

Table 5 highlights the role of inter-personal contact, or community of interest in recruiting new volunteers – out of related organisations or out of completely different organisations. Volunteers recruited out of completely unrelated organisations are over three times more likely to respond to personal invitations to participate, either through requests of previous volunteers, friends or by word of mouth (46.3%), directly asked to participate (7.3%). The role of social networking in recruiting volunteers even from non-related previous volunteering activities is additionally demonstrated in the apparent connection of the volunteer with the organisation, with 15.9% having been directly recruited through internal means such as a newsletter or website, and 6.1% having previously been involved with the event before.

Volunteers whose previous involvement was with an affiliated organisation, also demonstrate the importance of commonality and community, with 45.2% recruited through direct requests made to their affiliated group. Less significant is the use of the organisation specific newsletters and websites (19%), by personal approaches of varying sorts (19.1%), as well as prior involvement (9.5%) as a participant.

This data suggest two non-mutually exclusive processes through which the recruitment niche operates. First, the volunteer already has an interest in the activity, perhaps as a participant, and is easily recruited through such means as newsletters and written requests to participant. In the second case, the volunteer is recruited through existing social networks and drawn into the organisation through personal request. Presuming that social networks are based on commonality of interest, it can be then assumed that friends already involved in an event invite their friends to join the event. As a result, the organisations develop their membership base incrementally, by recruitment through social networks.

8. Implication and Issues For Future Investigation.

If the contention of this paper is correct – that the patterns of special event volunteer recruitment can be understood by the recruitment niche model of volunteering organisations – then a combination of targeted recruitment and planned training may substantially increase SEO effectiveness and efficiency. If the majority of long-term repeat special event volunteers are recruited from related organisations, prior participants or through social networks, the task of recruiting appropriate volunteers is considerably simplified.

The relative internal homogeneity of these organisations, and the low turnover of these volunteers, demonstrates the potential for high yielding returns on volunteer investment in training and development within SEOs over the medium and long-term. The benefits of such training are likely to be higher in SEOS involved in high cost, high risk activities.

This paper identifies several areas for future research. First, is the apparent existence of a recruitment niche in each of these organisations merely a feature of the data, and unable to be verified by interviews and focus group studies of the volunteers of these SEOs? Secondly, are these SEOs typical of SEOs more generally? Will the findings of this study apply more broadly within the SEO sector?

The interrogation of a recent ABS study of 12,900 volunteers – special event volunteers as well as more typical volunteers – could provide clear evidence on the patterns of SEO volunteer behaviour as well as the existence and nature of SEO recruitment niches.

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Motivations of Long Term Volunteers at Events

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Abstract

The key role that volunteers play in making an event a success is a topic that has received increased attention in recent years. It is now well recognised that volunteers are a valuable resource for events and that prudent measures must be taken to ensure that once recruited, volunteers remain satisfied with their experience such that their services are retained in the longer term. A crucial component of volunteer retention is understanding individuals motives for volunteering. Once these are identified, volunteers can be matched with tasks that will more appropriately fulfil their motivations for volunteering, thereby encouraging greater levels of satisfaction and ultimately continued involvement.

An understanding of all volunteer motives motives is important in enhancing satisfaction with the volunteering experience, however it has yet to be established if these motivations change over time. Although the results of this paper are preliminary, they indicate there are four underlying motivations for long-term volunteers at events. While direct comparison cannot be made with other studies due to methodological differences, the results of this study suggest that there are differences in the motivations of ad hoc and long-term volunteers at events and that

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this should be flagged for further investigation by researchers and volunteer managers alike.

Keywords: long term volunteers, volunteer motivation, volunteer retention

Introduction

Throughout the world volunteering is a popular leisure time activity. A study of 22 nations in 1998 found that on average 28 percent of the population participated in voluntary work (Salamon & Anheier, 1998). Similarly 32 percent of the Australian population aged 18 years and over volunteered during 2000 (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2001). International Year of the Volunteer in 2001 highlighted the role of volunteers throughout society. More specific to events, world renowned personalities such as Juan Antonio Samaranch highlighted the value of volunteers at mega-events with his commendation of the contribution made by volunteers at the Olympic Games in Sydney in 2000. Be they small local events or large mega-events, volunteers play a vital role in making an event a success. The challenge becomes one of recruiting the 'right' volunteers.

Recruiting and training volunteers can be an expensive exercise, for example the average cost per volunteer at the Olympic Games in Sydney in 2000 was AUS$700 per head (Hollway, 2002:59). Although this figure varies depending on the extent of resources needed, the cost of recruiting and training volunteers encourages organisations to recruit people who will volunteer for a long period of time (eg. Kovacs & Black, 1999). It is generally accepted that a multifaceted approach is needed to retain volunteers. Cuskelly (1995) argues that this involves volunteers having a clear understanding of the organisation's goals, input in decision making, and adequate opportunities to use their skills and experience. To achieve this, organisations need to understand volunteers' motives. Clary, Snyder and Ridge (1992) argue that identifying individuals motivation to volunteer allows organisations to match volunteers with appropriate tasks. Providing 'motivationally relevant feedback' on their performance as volunteers increases their satisfaction, which in turn increases their commitment to the organisation and hence, their desire to remain a volunteer.

To date the literature on motivation to volunteer has focused on the area of human services (eg. Schondel & Boehm, 2000; Kovacs & Black, 1999; Zweigenhaft, Armstrong, Quintis & Riddick, 1996; Thompson III & Bono, 1993; Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991) with few studies targeting motivation to volunteer at events (eg. Farrell, Johnston & Twynam, 1998; Williams, Dossa & Tompkins, 1995). In most instances the research has focused on motivation to volunteer per se and has not discriminated between the motivations of ad hoc volunteers and long-term volunteers. One exception is Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen's (1991) research on the motivations of 'habitual volunteers', that is volunteers who "…in the 6-month period prior to the interview, had provided at least 1 hour of direct service (assisting individuals or groups in need) at least once every other week in a human service agency…". This differs significantly to the definition of a long-term volunteer used in this paper. In this instance a long-term volunteer is defined as a person who has volunteered at the same event for at least five consecutive years. Although this definition discounts mega-events such as the Olympic Games, it does encompass smaller events held on an annual basis, such as cultural festivals and rural shows.

Motivation to Volunteer

The one consistent finding in the literature on motivation to volunteer is that individuals volunteer for altruistic reasons (Clary & Snyder, 1991) yet the literature suggests this is a very simplistic response to the question 'what motivates people to volunteer?' (eg. Okun, Barr & Herzog, 1998). One of the earlier studies on motivation to volunteer proposed three types of volunteers (Henderson, 1980). The first type of volunteer is motivated by achievement. These volunteers seek feedback and respond to challenges as they are driven by a desire to excel. The second type of volunteer is motivated by affiliation. This group of volunteers is primarily concerned about relationships with others, therefore they tend to seek companionship and social interaction through their volunteering experience. The final type of volunteer is motivated by power. These volunteers want to stimulate achievement in others. More recent studies propose single factor models for volunteering (eg. Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991) while others propose six factor models (eg. Cleary, Snyder & Ridge, 1992). The diversity of findings suggests that there is not a generic response to the question posed earlier. It has been suggested that "…the truth of the matter is that there is little understanding of why people volunteer" (Fischer, Mueller and Cooper, 1991, p.186).

Many arguments have been put forward to explain the variation in findings. Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991) argue that such diversity is inherent with the lack of "… methodologically sound studies of motivation to volunteer". They reviewed studies on motivation to volunteer and found weaknesses such as lack of empirical investigation, small sample sizes (less than 100 respondents), and weak external validity. Other criticisms include a lack of consideration of demand characteristics when determining people's motives to volunteer (Okun et al., 1998). Latting's (1990) study showed ethnicity can be a contributing factor while Farrell et al. (1998) suggested that motives may vary according to the nature of the volunteer activity. It is the latter of these arguments that is explored in this paper.

The basis of Farrell et al.’s (1998) argument was a comparison of two studies using similar scales, one in the area of human services and one in the area of events. The first study was conducted by Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991) who reviewed 27 studies on motivation to volunteer in the area of human services. They found 28 recurring motives that they combined into a scale that was tested on 258 volunteers in human services and 104 non-volunteers. Analysis of the data using factor analysis, with a varimax rotation resulted in four factors or underlying motivations for volunteering. Three of the factors had low eigenvalues and percentage of variance and were therefore deleted from the scale. The outcome was a reliable (alpha = .86) 22 item unidimensional scale, which they named the Motivation to Volunteer Scale (MVS) (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991:275).

The research by Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991) indicated that volunteers in the area of human services seek a ‘rewarding experience’ rather than volunteering because of one single motive or category of motives. The items on the MVS represent both altruistic and egoistic motives, suggesting that volunteers want to both give to the organisation and “get back some type of reward or satisfaction” but they make no clear distinction between the two (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991:675). The results were surprising as Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991) had anticipated that the results would support either a two category model (eg. Latting, 1990) or three category model (eg. Morrow-Howell & Mui, 1989) of motivation to volunteer. However they maintain that their study overcomes many of the methodological issues mentioned earlier, although they did note that the external validity of the scale needed to be tested further by applying it to different populations and settings.

This challenge was taken up by Farrell et al. (1998) who adapted the MVS for an event setting. They adapted Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen's (1991) original 28 item scale by deleting items that related only to human services and adding items specific to the special event of curling. The items that were dropped included 'volunteering is an opportunity to change social injustices', while event specific items were added such as 'because it was a chance in a lifetime'. The result was a 28 item scale they called the Special Event Volunteer Motivation Scale (SEVMS). Using a similar analysis technique to Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991) the data from the SEVMS was analysed using principal components analysis with varimax rotation. The outcome was four factors. These factors were *purposive* (a desire to do something useful and contribute to the community and the event); *solidary* (incentives related to social interaction, group identification, and networking); *external traditions* (motivations related to family traditions and the use of free time that can be seen as external influences on an individual's volunteer career); *commitments* (incentives that link external expectations and personal skills with commitment to volunteering). Combined the factors explained 49.7% of the variance and had alpha scores ranging from .86 to .65 (Farrell et al., 1998:293), therefore all four factors were retained. Farrell et al. (1998:298) suggest the differences in the ratings of individual items and the number of factors resulting from the MVS and SEVMS indicate that there are differences between the motivations of volunteers in the areas of human services and events and that event "…managers need to be prepared to address the variety of motivations when seeking volunteers for special events."

Two other studies on motivation to volunteer at events (Caldwell & Andereck, 1994 and Williams et al., 1995) provide support for the multidimensional model that resulted from the SEVMS, however a comparison of studies is hampered by the variation in research instruments. Nevertheless two of the factors from Caldwell and Andereck's (1994) three factor model mirror those of the SEVMS's *purposive* and *solidary* motives. In both instances the purposive motive contained higher rated items than solidary, suggesting that consistent with volunteer motivation literature per se, altruism is a key motivator.

Williams et al. (1995) used a more event specific set of items to determine motivation to volunteer, however the items were not analysed beyond the rating each item was given. Although there were a mix of *purposive* and *solidary* items within the five highest ranking items, the clearer relationship to the SEVMS and Caldwell and Andereck's (1994) findings is the least important motives. In all three instances items that can be considered material incentives are of lessor importance. While incentives such as free passes to an event may play a minor role in recruiting volunteers, it would seem that appealing to individuals sense of community, both giving to the community (purposive) and belonging to the community (solidary), would be a more effective recruitment strategy.

It appears that motivation to volunteer at events has similarities to motivation to volunteer in human services. That is, individuals tend to volunteer for altruistic reasons. While identifying and understanding the motivations of volunteers is important, it has been suggested that it should not be a one-off occurrence. Green and Chalip (1998), Clary et al., (1992) and Henderson (1980) suggest that the monitoring of volunteers motivations should be ongoing so that changes in motives can be detected and tasks changed accordingly. This will help ensure that volunteers remain satisfied with their volunteering experience and therefore encourage retention. This exploratory study therefore sought to explore the motivations of long-term volunteers and thereby provide some insights into whether the motivations of long-term volunteers at events differ to those of event volunteers in general.

Method

The sample for this study consisted of 92 volunteers from four organisations, with each respondent having volunteered at the same event for at least five consecutive years. Although this sample size does not overcome Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen's (1991) criticism that studies on motivation to volunteer have small sample sizes, it is of sufficient scope for preliminary results to be presented.

The four organisations represented in this paper are drawn from an Australia-wide sample and includes pony clubs (41 respondents), show societies (25 respondents), Queensland Folk Federation (16 respondents) and the national budgerigar society (10 respondents). In each instance the organisation hosts an annual event that attracts both volunteers and spectators from throughout Australia. Many of these volunteers (91%) are involved with the organisation more than once a year, but it is their ongoing participation at the annual event that made them suitable candidates for this research.

Finding organisations that were initially willing to participate in this study posed particular problems as their recognition of the value of long-term volunteers made them a difficult population to access. For instance, many of the organisations approached to participate in this research declined on the basis that they did not want their long-term volunteers ‘bothered’ because they were perceived to be such valued ‘employees’. Despite these difficulties, the efforts of the researcher to source respondents from a range of events helped to overcome one of the criticisms of previous studies. That being said, they used a sample from a single program, or in this instance, a single event (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991).

As the organisations that participated in this study were not able to provide the contact details of long-term volunteers for reasons of confidentiality, the only way to access potential respondents was to send mail back questionnaires via the organisations. Although postal questionnaires are not ideal due to their low response rate (Neuman, 1997), they were the most appropriate data collection method for this research.

The questionnaire consisted of two sections. The first section asked a series of socio-demographic questions. The second section asked respondents to rate the 24 items of the Long Term Event Volunteer Motivation Scale (LTEVMS) on a 5 point Likert scale. The LTEVMS is based on Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen’s (1991) Motivation to Volunteer Scale (MVS). As mentioned previously this scale was originally designed to determine motivation to volunteer in the area of human services but it was subsequently adapted by Farrell et al. (1998) for use at a special event, resulting in the SEVMS.

As this paper investigates the motivation of volunteers at events in general, the SEVMS was refined accordingly. For example, the item ‘it was a chance of a lifetime’ was not appropriate for a scale targeting long-term volunteers hence such items were deleted. Other items, such as ‘a relative or friend is involved in curling’ was altered to ‘a relative or friend is involved in this organisation’. The outcome was a 24 item scale which was named the Long Term Event Volunteer Motivation Scale (LTEVMS). The items on the LTEVMS were preceded by the statement “please circle the number [from the Likert scale] that best represents why you are a long-term volunteer”.

Data Analysis And Results

The data were analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), version 10.0. The results are presented in three stages. Firstly, frequency distributions were used to provide a socio-demographic profile of the sample population. Secondly, the mean scores for each item rated on Likert scales differentiates between the most and least important items for the sample population overall. Finally, the items were factorial analysed to identify underlying structures in the data.

The sample population consisted of marginally more males (54%) than females. All respondents were over 20 years of age, with 64% over 50 years of age. The highest proportion of respondents (38%) was employed full time, followed by 27% of respondents who were retired. The number of years that respondents had volunteered at an event ranged from 5 years to 57 years. The duration of involvement was dependent not only on volunteers’ willingness to give of their time but also the length of time the event had been staged. For example the Woodford Folk Festival, which is staged by the Queensland Folk Federation, has only been in existence for some 15 years.

Although the results reported in this paper are preliminary, they do provide insights into the importance long-term volunteers place on different motives. Table 1 shows that some motives have more influence over individuals decision to continue to volunteer than others. The statements that most respondents agreed with suggest that volunteers are motivated primarily by the belief that they are contributing to society by ‘doing something worthwhile’ and ‘creating a better society’. At the other end of the spectrum, few long-term volunteers are motivated because they feel it is an expectation or for material incentives such as uniforms.

Table 1 Highest and lowest motivations for volunteering

Highest ranking reasons	M	Lowest ranking reasons	M
I feel I am doing something worthwhile	1.27	I am expected to volunteer	3.27
I believe volunteering creates a better society	1.54	I want to continue a family tradition of volunteering	3.38
I want to interact with others	1.78	I have more free time than I used to have	3.62
I have benefited from this organisation and I want to give something back to the community	1.80	Being a volunteer with this organisation is considered prestigious	3.62
My skills are needed	1.85	Most people in my community volunteer	3.70
Volunteering broadens my horizons	1.98	I like the ‘extras’ given to volunteers (eg. uniforms)	4.31
I want to work with different people	2.15	I want the opportunity to meet paid employees	4.35
Volunteering makes me feel better about myself	2.22	I did not have anything else to do with my time	4.46

Further analysis of the LTEVMS indicated the scale is both valid and reliable. Validity was addressed by using factor analysis to investigate the construct validity of the scale. In doing so four subscales resulted, each of which was tested for reliability by calculating the Cronbach's alpha score. The author is aware that a sample of 200 would be ideal for factor analysis (Pallant, 2001) and that the smaller sample size of 92 reduces the generalisations that can be made from this data. However, both the KMO statistic (.767) and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Sig = 0.000) suggested that the data were suited to factor analysis.

Factor analysis was undertaken using Principal Component Analysis with a varimax rotation. Initially the eigenvalue was set at 1 and six components resulted. However some of the components loaded with only one item and each component explained less than 5% of the variance. The preferred outcome consisted of four components that collectively explained 57.2% of the variance, as shown in Table 2.

Table 2 Rotated component matrix

Item	Components			
	1[a]	2[b]	3[c]	4[d]
I believe volunteering creates a better society	.753			
I feel I am doing something worthwhile	.750			
Volunteering makes me feel better about myself	.718			
Volunteering broadens my horizons	.706			
I want to interact with others	.604		.500	
I want to develop relationships with others	.602		.412	
I am gaining/ developing new skills	.589			.517

I want to work with different people	.580		.476	
I am gaining some practical experience	.518			.471
I have benefited from this organisation and I want to give something back to the community	.454			
I like the ‘extras’ given to volunteers (eg. Uniforms)		.822		
I want the opportunity to meet paid employees		.816		
Being a volunteer with this organisation is considered prestigious		.684		
I did not have anything else to do with my time		.629		
Most people in my community volunteer		.495		
I want to continue a family tradition of volunteering		.486		
Volunteering allows me to vary my regular activities			.778	
I want the opportunity to experience ‘behind the scene’ operations			.709	.445
I want to be involved in the subculture of the organisation			.627	
I have more free time than I used to have			.446	-.426
My skills are needed				.578
A relative or friend is involved in this organisation				.561
I have past experience providing similar services (other than as a volunteer for this organisation)				.556
I am expected to volunteer				.484

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation
Rotation converged at 15 iterations

[a] Variance = 27.975%, eigenvalue = 6.714, alpha = .8877
[b] Variance = 13.533%, eigenvalue = 3.248, alpha = .7335
[c] Variance = 8.565%, eigenvalue = 2.056, alpha = .6343
[d] Variance = 6.234%, eigenvalue = 1.496, alpha = .5029

Two broad categories of motives are evident in Component 1. Some of the items reflect a desire to contribute to society. This group incorporates the highest ranked items from Table 1, such as 'doing something worthwhile' and 'creating a better society'. Other items in Component 1 suggest a desire to socialise, such as 'develop relationships with others' and 'interact with others'. There is also a group of items within Component 1 that are self-serving, such as 'broaden my horizons' and 'gaining some practical experience'.

The common theme in Component 2 is that the respondent is seeking recognition. This could be from the outside community by wearing 'extras' such as uniforms or from the prestige of being part of the organisation. Alternatively this recognition could be sought from family and friends because the volunteer is continuing a family tradition of volunteering or because volunteering is a popular leisure time activity in an individual's community.

The items that comprise Component 3 suggest that volunteers are motivated by a desire to belong ('I want to be involved in the subculture of the organisation) and to find an alternative use of their time ('volunteering allows me to vary my regular activities'). The final component (Component 4) suggests that volunteering is an expectation, either by others ('I am expected to volunteer'), or because of one's expertise ('my skills are needed').

Discussion

People have more pressure on their time now than they did in the past, therefore volunteers may be more interested in "…finite project-based, team-based activity rather than a year’s or decade’s long commitment” (Hollway, 2002:58). The infrequent nature of events is such that volunteers are only asked to commit to a set period of time, often once a year, rather than giving an ongoing commitment of their time throughout the year, as is often the case in the area of human services. Given that events are increasingly dependent on volunteers and that people have increasing pressure on their time, it is important that event mangers acknowledge volunteers as a vital part of the workforce and that they manage them accordingly.

Hollway (2002) claims important considerations in managing volunteers include treating them the same as paid employees, being realistic about what the job will involve rather than glamorising it, providing clear tasking and good training, and recognising volunteers contribution. Combining management techniques such as these with an understanding of volunteer motivations helps ensure the right volunteer is allocated the right task. This in turn encourages satisfaction with the volunteering experience and increases the likelihood of individuals volunteering for subsequent events. However, as stressed throughout this paper, central to successful volunteer retention is an understanding of volunteer motives.

The primary research from this paper builds on our current knowledge of motivation to volunteer at events, however three considerations must be made when discussing these findings. Firstly, the SEVMS study did not distinguish between ‘once off’ volunteers and long-term volunteers, therefore some long term volunteers may be incorporated in the SEVMS study. Secondly, the findings of the LTEVMS are preliminary, therefore their ability to be generalised to the wider population is limited. Thirdly, although the SEVMS and LTEVMS used similar scales they are not identical, therefore the comparison is based mainly on the ratings of individual items rather than the factors and is exploratory rather than conclusive.

Initially some generalisations can be made about the motivations of volunteers irrespective of their length of ‘service’ or the nature of the organisation they volunteer for. In all three studies ‘creating a better society’ and ‘doing something worthwhile’ rate in the top three motives. Likewise, ‘having nothing else to do with my time’ is the least important motive. This suggests that rather than volunteering to fill in time, volunteers in general are motivated by their desire to make a worthwhile contribution to society. However, this appears to be the extent of their commonality.

It would seem that ad hoc volunteers at events discriminate between a ‘desire to do something useful and contribute to the community’ and opportunities for ‘social interaction, group identification and networking’ while long-term volunteers do not make this distinction. It is possible that ad hoc volunteers make this distinction due to their lack of volunteering experience. While long-term volunteers may have felt this way initially, they may have found from experience that they now associate social interaction and networking with contributing to the community by volunteering at an event.

Components 2, 3 and 4 from the LTEVMS did not equate directly to the SEVMS’s components labelled *external traditions* and *commitments.* However, in both instances the items that comprise these components are of least importance to volunteers, indicating there is limited value in catering to these motives when trying to retain volunteers.

To this end, at least in the area of events, Green and Chalip (1998), Clary et al. (1992) and Henderson's (1980) suggestion should be acted upon – volunteers motivations should be monitored over time. While the results are preliminary, it is suggested that motivation to volunteer at events changes over time. If this is the case then event managers need to ensure that the tasks assigned to volunteers and the feedback given to volunteers are altered accordingly so that volunteers remain satisfied with their volunteering experience. While such advice is applicable to all events that run on a regular basis, it is particularly pertinent to events where volunteers are sourced from a relatively small population. This is often true of rural communities where the population is diminishing and/or aging and volunteer recruitment and retention is a pressing issue.

While the suggestion has been put forward in this paper that motivation to volunteer at events changes over time, further research needs to be undertaken to validate these results. Ideally such research would track motivation to volunteer from the first time an individual volunteers for an event. Only by monitoring individuals motivation to volunteer over time will we be able to determine when changes in motivations occur and if changes in socio-demographic and/or organisational factors explain any of that change. Research of this nature will help redress the current imbalance in the literature, that is a focus on the practical aspects of planning and managing volunteers, with little emphasis on retaining volunteers (Cuskelly, 1995). As our understanding of motivation to volunteer increases, so too will our ability to help ensure the longevity of events through the retention of volunteers.

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Satisfaction of Volunteers Involved in Community Events: Implications for the Event Manager

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Abstract

Volunteers are an integral element of the operations of many groups that stage festivals and events in the community. This is particularly true for many community and sporting groups in Australia where increased accountability for scarce public funds and increased demand for a more professional approach to operations, has forced many to re-evaluate their policies and procedures. Such a change in environment has, in turn, required a consequential reconsideration of the suitability of the roles and responsibilities allocated to volunteers. While there is a growing body of research related to initial acquisition and induction training for volunteer event staff in Australia, there have been relatively few studies that have identified key elements that, when present, ensure volunteers are satisfied with their involvement in chosen work activities.

Job satisfaction of volunteers is of vital importance to event managers as it can have a direct bearing on the willingness of volunteers to remain involved with that organisation. This is in part because volunteers generally tend to seek out activities

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that add value to the experience of participating in some group or other and disengage from those that do not (Green & Chalip, 1998). Just as importantly, the level of satisfaction with involvement of volunteers has a direct bearing on their desire to also commit to other planned events activities, ventures or roles in the future. As noted by Silverberg, Marshall and Ellis (2001), recognising satisfaction concerns and possible volunteer setting-function mismatches is crucial in today's climate as it can help event managers minimise morale problems of volunteers. At the same time, it also provides the event manager with a suitable means by which they might avoid the need for costly recruitment and training processes brought on by the loss of valuable volunteer personnel. This study therefore, sought to build upon the earlier work of Silverberg (1999), who initially tested the suitability of a modified employee job satisfaction instrument for use with volunteers in North America. Results of the study suggest that the Volunteer Job Satisfaction Scale, with minor modification to wording in several items, is suitable for use with an Australian sample. Such an assessment is based on the high level of internal reliability (.89) reported for the scale in this study, as well as evidence of the scale having an acceptable level of construct validity. Results also indicate that those event volunteers who participate for between three and four hours per occurrence are most likely to be dissatisfied with their involvement. Implications for event managers of the findings of this study will be discussed.

Key Words: Volunteer satisfaction, retention, volunteer management.

Introduction

Much of the focus on event volunteers in Australia to date has concentrated on practical aspects of planning and managing a volunteer program yet, whilst recognising the importance of retaining volunteers, there has been little attention given to how and why they should be retained (Cuskelly, 1995; 1996).

In 1995, the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) undertook the first comprehensive assessment of the extent of volunteering in the Australian community. In undertaking the survey, the ABS identified for the first time, the demographic characteristics of volunteers across Australia. A volunteer being identified by the ABS for the purposes of the survey as "…someone who willingly gives unpaid help, in the form of time, service or skills, through an organisation or group. An organisation or group is any body with a formal structure. It may be as large as a national charity or as small as a local book club. It is worth noting that for the purpose of the survey, purely ad hoc, informal and temporary gatherings of people do not constitute an organisation (ABS, 1995, p.7)".

Importantly, the ABS survey reported that some 2,639,500 persons, or approximately 19% of the population over 15 years of age, had volunteered their time in the previous year and that volunteers, through their involvement, provided a total of 433.9 million hours of work per year (ABS, 1995). In economic terms, Hollway (2001) has suggested that the value of this level of volunteering in Australia is somewhere in the order or $25-30 billion per year.

More recently, statistics released by Volunteering Queensland (VQ), provide further evidence to suggest that there is, in Australia at least, a growing trend towards higher levels of volunteerism in community events. For example, VQ reported that the number of people volunteering in 1999 had increased by almost 25% on the figures collected for the same period in the previous year. Of interest too was the fact that VQ reported the gap in gender breakdown was being maintained with Queensland figures for 1999 showing 58% of volunteers were female and 42% male (Bate, 2000). This is in comparison to the 1995 ABS figures, which identified 57% of volunteers to be female and 43% male. Significantly, a large proportion of the volunteers identified were involved in activities related to the staging of sporting and community events such as festivals.

The importance of volunteers to the effective staging of events in Australia has been highlighted recently by Van Der Wagen (2001) who noted that in a survey undertaken by the ABS (1997) on cultural trends, of the approximately 200,000 people Australia-wide identified as being involved in organising cultural festivals, only 14.2 percent received any payment from their work – the rest were volunteers. Thus, understanding the motivations and needs of volunteers is relevant to the event industry, and event managers more particularly, as many events are primarily staffed by volunteers (Van Der Wagen, 2001).

Volunteer Motives and Satisfaction

Henderson (1980) noted that there were essentially three types of volunteers. The first type was achievement motivated volunteers who were driven to excel in terms of some set of standards. These standards might be either formal or informal in nature.

The second type was concerned with meaningful relationships with others and therefore tended to seek out companionship and social interaction through their volunteer experience. The third type of volunteer identified by Henderson (1980) tended to be power motivated people who had a desire to stimulate achievement in others. While traditionally altruistic reasons have been most often cited as primary motives for volunteer involvement, more recent research by Rosenburg-Russell (1995), the Institute for Volunteer Research (1999) and McDonnell, Allen and O'Toole (1999) have suggested that in fact, it is combination of motives that leads a person into voluntary work. These motives included personal/family involvement, need for personal growth and development, to do something worthwhile, social interaction, and a pathway to paid employment (Rosenburg-Russell, 1995, p. 5). While personal satisfaction was identified as a primary motivator for many volunteers, other benefits include the development of transferable skills (Nairn, 1994), maintaining activity levels (Van Der Wagen, 2001), as well as the volunteer experience itself being an aid in terms of dealing with role changes, transitions and crises (Peck, 1994). Therefore, to retain the volunteer, the event manager needs to be cognisant of the fact that when volunteers offer their services they may have an expectation of perhaps more than one outcome from their experience.

Retaining Volunteers

As early as 1990, the House of Representatives Standing Committee on Finance and Public Administration (1990) noted that sporting bodies throughout Australia reported severe problems in attracting, training and retaining volunteers. The Committee noted that environmental factors can impede the level of commitment of a volunteer and lead to a decline in volunteer numbers in an organisation. Organisations should endeavour to utilise volunteers by the best means possible so as to make the best use of their time, otherwise volunteers will become disenfranchised and leave the organisation. Cuskelly (1996) and Goldblatt (2000) have suggested that focussing on the individual volunteer and the processes that occur within organisations may go some way to addressing the problem of retaining volunteers. With this in mind, the primary goal of organisations that utilise volunteers should be therefore, to provide a quality experience for their volunteers by providing the best environment and leadership possible (Hollway, 2001; Tedrick & Henderson, 1989). However, all too few organisations seem to have successfully achieved this goal. For example, DeMarco (1988) in a study on volunteerism reported that 24% of volunteers surveyed believed that volunteers were not well treated in the workplace. It is however, imperative for organisations to do so for “in order to build the relationship with volunteers that is required to retain them, the organisation needs to continually market the benefits of volunteering, update and repackage those benefits and monitor to discern changes in volunteers’ motives or satisfaction” (Green & Chalip, 1998, p. 20). While several researchers (Getz, 2000; Harris, Jago, Allen and Huyskens, 2000) have identified the lack of published research in respect to event management practices and more particularly, the interests of key stakeholders such as volunteers, only a limited amount of material has been recently published in this regard.

Method

The sample for this study included 153 volunteers involved in community events in the South-East Queensland region. Groups chosen were identified by way of a check on media releases advising of upcoming events in the region. Contact was then made with the volunteer manager for each of the events and permission sought to distribute questionnaires to volunteer staff at the conclusion of their involvement in the event. For those agencies where permission to conduct the research was granted, volunteers were approached individually on the day of the staged event. A convenience sampling technique was used to conduct the research with volunteers involved in a variety of regional community events including a parade, a junior sporting event and a community recreation event. Those who consented to participate in the study were given a questionnaire which was made up of seven socio-demographic questions in addition to the 23 items that make up the Volunteer Job Satisfaction (VJS) Scale. Each individual was encouraged to complete the questionnaire at their convenience and return it to the researchers by way of reply post paid. No attempt was made by the researchers to undertake any form of follow-up action with the volunteers to improve the initial response rate. Of those sampled, a large group of respondents were individuals aged between 15 to 20 years of age (47.4%) with a further 16.7% of the sample aged 51 years and older. The majority of participants were female (53.8%) with 23.7% of respondents reporting that they volunteered their time at least once per week. Common volunteer roles identified in the study included being a marshall (22.4%) and a general hand/helper (26.9%).

The 23 item VJS Scale used in this study was a modified version of the one developed by Silverberg (1999) which sought to measure the level of job satisfaction for volunteers. The wording in several of the questions was amended to make the overall scale more appropriate for the organisational setting in Australia. This was deemed necessary by the researchers as the initial scale was developed for use, and administered in, North America. Such amendments included, for example, replacing some of the wording in the statement “Communication seems good within the

Department" such that it read "Communication seems good within my section of the organisation". The scale was developed from the earlier work of Spector (1997) who sought to assess levels of satisfaction with paid employment. Silverberg, Marshall and Ellis (2001) used the scale in a study of community volunteers (n = 583) involved in event activities staged by a local parks and recreation agency in the State of Arizona in the south-west of the United States of America. The researchers reported an alpha reliability estimate of .88 for the VJS Scale with Item-total correlations ranging from .39 to .56 (Silverberg, Marshall & Ellis, 2001). The subscales were also analysed for reliability with reported subscale reliabilities ranging from .71 (Contingent Rewards) to .27 (Operating Procedures). Other reliabilities reported included .67 (Communication), .63 (Nature of Work), .59 (Co-workers), and .69 (Supervision). Importantly, only the subscale measuring the factor 'operating procedures' was considered by Silverberg (1999) to provide a particularly low reliability estimate noting that it should not be considered in its current form to be a reliable subscale. Such an argument being supported by the analysis which reported Item-total correlations for this factor ranging between .08 and .25, indicating that the items did not fit well with one another (Silverberg, 1999).

Data Analysis

The data was analysed to determine the reliability of the Volunteer Job Satisfaction Scale in an Australian setting. A factorial analysis of the data set was also undertaken to investigate the construct validity of the Scale. To test reliability, Cronbach's Alpha was calculated for the entire volunteer satisfaction scale, as well as for its individual dimensions. Item-total correlations were calculated to determine the quality of individual items. A Principal Component Analysis was the extraction method used in the Factor Analysis to identify key factors. A Oneway ANOVA with Post Hoc tests was also conducted on the data to investigate differences in satisfaction by independent variables.

Results

Reliability

The alpha reliability co-efficient estimate of the 23 item volunteer job satisfaction scale was .89. Item-total correlations ranged from .31 to .62. Two items with an item-total correlation of less than .2 were identified and need to be considered as suitable for possible revision or replacement (see Table 1).

Table 1 Volunteer Satisfaction Scale Reliability Analysis (N=153)

Item	Item-Total Correlation
I feel I receive a fair amount of recognition for the volunteer work I do.	.46
My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.	.54
When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.	.61
Many of the rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult.	.31*
I like the people I work with.	.56
I sometimes feel my volunteer experience is meaningless.	.6*
Communications seem good within my section of the organisation	.53
My supervisor is unfair to me.	.46*
I do not feel that the work that I do is appreciated.	.52*
My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.	.17
I like doing the things I do during my volunteer experience.	.46
The goals of the organisation are not clear to me.	.4*
My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of volunteers.	.62*
There are few rewards for volunteers.	.55*
I have too many responsibilities as a volunteer.	.48*
I enjoy the other volunteers I work with.	.47
I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organisation as a whole.	.57*
I feel a sense of pride as a volunteer with the organisation.	.05
I like my supervisor.	.59
I don’t feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be.	.6*
There is too much bickering and fighting at the location where I volunteer.	.54*
My volunteer experience is enjoyable.	.58
Volunteer assignments are not fully explained.	.48*

α =.89 *items are reverse-scored

Note: Permission for the use and minor modification of Silverberg’s Volunteer Job Satisfaction Scale was obtained before the research was undertaken.

The subscales were also analysed for internal consistency and compared with the reliability estimates reported by Silverberg, Marshall and Ellis (2001) in their North American based study, which helped validate the reliability and validity of the Volunteer Job Satisfaction Scale. Subscale reliabilities for this study ranged from .81 (contingent rewards) to .22 (operating procedures). Given the particularly low reliability estimate, it can be considered that the factor “operating procedures” is relatively unstable, and should not be considered a reliable subscale.

Validity

A factor analysis of the data was also undertaken. In undertaking the analysis, the eigenvalue was set at 1 so that only those factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 were extracted. In completing the analysis, over 63% of the variance was explained by the six factors which were extracted.

An orthogonal rotation (Varimax) was then used to minimise the number of variables that had high loadings on each factor. This rotation simplified the interpretation of the factors. The results of the Varimax rotation (See Table 2) offer support for the factor structure proposed by Silverberg, Marshall and Ellis (2001).

The first factor comprised items that measured a “Co-worker” subscale. The second factor could be interpreted to represent a “Supervision” factor, whilst a third factor “Communication” was observed. “Contingent Reward” emerged as a fourth factor. “Operating Conditions” (factor 5) was represented by a single item, with one of its intended items failing to load highly on any factor. Factor 6 also had a single item loading on it, an item designed to measure “Nature of Work”. Two items from this subscale loaded on factor 1, indicating that they could be adapted to enhance their validity further.

Table 2

Rotated Component Matrix

Item	Component 1	 2	 3	 4	 5	 6
22. experience	0.860					
11. doing	0.847					
16. enjoy	0.706					
5. like	0.654	0.523				
15. responsibility						
2. competent		0.719				
3. good		0.699				
7. communication		0.631				
1. recognition		0.576		0.530		
19. my supervisor		0.522				
8. supervisor		0.505				
6. meaningless						
23. explained			0.744			
21. fighting			0.678			
12. goals			0.661			
4. rules			0.653			
17. perception			0.624			
20. efforts2				0.833		
14. rewards				0.766		
9. appreciation				0.680		
13. interest						
10. efforts					0.796	

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
Rotation converged in 9 iterations.

It should be noted that two items with split loadings were observed. Item 1 was intended as a “Contingent Reward” factor, but also loaded on the “Supervision” factor. This item could be altered to improve its validity. Item 5, an item designed to measure the “Coworker” factor also loaded on a second factor, factor 2. These results suggest that some further modification of individual items of the Volunteer Job

Satisfaction Scale is possible. Overall however, it can be observed that six factors emerged from the data, and that these factors appear to be consistent with the factors proposed by Silverberg (1999).

Oneway ANOVA

Oneway ANOVA was conducted on the data to investigate differences in satisfaction by independent variables. A single variable was found to have significance, “Time Spent Each Time”, which measured how many hours an individual spent volunteering (see Table 3).

The results indicate that overall satisfaction as related to hours of involvement volunteering has statistical significance. Additionally, the following factors have statistical significance among the satisfaction subscale means: Supervision, Operating Conditions, Coworkers, Nature of Work and Communication.

Table 3 Anova Summary Table

Factor		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Satisfaction Total Score	Between Groups	3510.69	2	1755.35	5.69	0.004 *
	Within Groups	44753.06	145	308.64		
	Total	48263.75	147			
Reward	Between Groups	99.16	2	49.58	1.51	0.224
	Within Groups	4758.41	145	32.82		
	Total	4857.57	147			
Supervision	Between Groups	206.56	2	103.28	6.48	0.002 *
	Within Groups	2311.52	145	15.94		
	Total	2518.07	147			
Operating Conditions	Between Groups	70.86	2	35.43	3.81	0.024 *
	Within Groups	1348.99	145	9.30		
	Total	1419.86	147			
Coworkers	Between Groups	101.37	2	50.69	4.57	0.012 *
	Within Groups	1609.71	145	11.10		
	Total	1711.08	147			
Nature of Work	Between Groups	166.36	2	83.18	3.88	0.023 *
	Within Groups	3107.66	145	21.43		
	Total	3274.02	147			
Communication	Between Groups	131.02	2	65.51	3.26	0.041 *
	Within Groups	2917.30	145	20.12		
	Total	3048.32	147			

* p significant at 0.05.

Following completion of the Oneway ANOVA, a Tukey HSD post-hoc test was conducted. For the overall satisfaction score, the difference in means was significant for volunteers who spent less than three hours or greater than four hours (p=0.007). Tukey HSD indicated that the means for the following factors differed significantly for volunteers who spent three to four hours as compared to those who volunteered for greater than four hours: Operating Conditions (p=0.04), Coworkers (p=0.029) and Communication (p=0.032). It is evident from the study results that the level of satisfaction reported for volunteers who contribute three to four hours per day is significantly less than for those volunteers who contribute up to three hours per day or alternatively, four hours or more hours per day. Such a notion is further reinforced by other results which indicated that volunteers who spent less than three hours or greater than four hours per day volunteering, reported a significantly different level of volunteer satisfaction for the subscales of Nature of Work (p=0.018) and Supervision (p=0.001), as compared to those who volunteered between three and four hours per day.

Discussion

Society has changed markedly in our recent past and so has the role of the volunteer. Major sports and entertainment events are now a significant part of the Australian tourism and event industries. So much so that Gratton and Taylor (2000) reported that major events now made up some five per cent of Australia's tourism income each year. Volunteers are a vital ingredient of many events and the success of future voluntary action will depend upon organisations enhancing volunteer participation. This can be achieved by attracting and recruiting new volunteers, supporting and training them and importantly, by channelling the many different values, motivations and contributions of volunteers such that they are personally satisfied with their participation (Advisory Board of the Volunteer Sector, 1997; Green & Chalip, 1998).

As noted by Carpenter, Glancy and Howe (1998), a critical challenge for event organisations reliant on volunteer support will be how effectively they respond to the current turbulent social and economic environments in which we now live. For example, it is imperative that organisations take action to meet the need for changing skill levels in volunteers, that volunteers are matched to appropriate work, and that volunteers are encouraged to take on leadership roles wherever possible (Hollway, 2001; Shone & Parry, 2001). A key issue therefore, will be the ability of organisations to recognise volunteers in a tangible, ongoing way that is meaningful to each individual volunteer and which may in turn, reinforce their commitment to the organisation (Advisory Board of the Volunteer Sector, 1997).

The results of this study suggest the Volunteer Job Satisfaction (VJS) Scale provides a potentially useful resource in that process. For example, event managers might periodically administer the scale to volunteers in particular job settings that are known or thought to facilitate particular psychological functions. In this manner, volunteers for whom mismatches are present might be identified and job assignments of volunteers for whom good matches exist might be reaffirmed. Based on these results, volunteer managers might then explore opportunities for reassignment of some volunteers or they might identify ways of increasing volunteer involvement in job settings that prove to be rewarding for particular volunteers (Silverberg, Marshall & Ellis, 2001; Van Der Wagen, 2001). The scale also has particular worth to managers of volunteers who might seek out specific volunteer preferences by way of its six dimensions: contingent rewards, nature of supervision, operating conditions, co-workers, nature of the work itself, and communication. Each may reveal personal preferences held by the volunteer that would aid the volunteer manager to seek out a position of “best fit” for that individual. Alternatively, such inquiry might raise with the volunteer manager the need to address policy or procedural matters that are highlighted through such analysis. This is considered an important step as it has been argued that poor management practices result in more lost volunteers than those lost because of changing personal or family needs (United Parcel Service, 1998).

From a managerial perspective, this study has found that the VJS Scale to be a reliable and valid instrument for use with event staff in the Australian setting. Obtaining measures of volunteer satisfaction by way of administration of the VJS Scale can give a manager of volunteers a sense of whether or not the needs of the volunteers are being met. This study also identified those individuals that volunteer between three and four hours of their time per activity reported the most dissatisfaction with their current volunteer experience and therefore, were the most likely of all volunteers studied to disengage from future volunteer activities. This is in part because volunteers generally tend to seek out activities that add value to the experience of participating in some group or other and disengage from those that do not (Green & Chalip, 1998). As noted by Silverberg, Marshall and Ellis (2001), recognising satisfaction concerns and possible volunteer setting-function mismatches is crucial in today's climate as it can help managers minimise morale problems of volunteers. At the same time, it also provides managers with a suitable means by which they might avoid the need for costly recruitment and training processes brought on by loss of valuable volunteer personnel. Such retention requiring the building of a relationship with the volunteer, continual monitoring of the benefits the volunteers seek and then effectively marketing those benefits back to the volunteers (Hobson, Rominger, Malec, Hobson & Evans, 1996).

Ultimately then, due consideration of volunteer satisfaction needs to be considered integral to effective volunteer management processes today as the individual's perceptions about their volunteer experiences have been shown empirically to directly influence their level of organisational commitment (Cuskelly, 1996; Green & Chalip, 1998). Deery, Jago and Shaw (1997) argued that a productive focus on volunteer management will likely result in new models which recognise the alignment of types of volunteers with types of organisations and hence, the desirability of management to have systems which can identify those volunteers which are more suited to particular environments. This will in turn, allow proactive event managers to structure compatible and reinforcing work environments for their volunteers.

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Are Special Event Volunteers Different from non-SEO Volunteers? Demographic Characteristics of Volunteers in Four South Australian Special Event Organisations

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Introduction

Who is a special event volunteer? The volunteering literature, based largely on investigations into not-for-profit organisations providing social and community services, has typically found that volunteers have distinct demographic characteristics. Although varying significantly between organisations, it has been repeatedly found that increased participation in volunteering is positively correlated with increased levels of education, income and other 'socio-economic' status indicators (Anheier & Salamon, 1999, Lammers, 1991; Pearce, 1993; Cnaan & Amrofell, 1994; Gillespie & King, 1985; Smith, 1994). These studies also found a gender, labour market participation and age effect (ABS, 2001; DASETT, 1993; Deery, Jago, & Shaw, 1997a; Jago & Deery, 1999).

This paper reports on preliminary findings of a survey of volunteers of four South Australian special event organisations (SEOs). This study was enabled by the CRC for Sustainable Tourism and the South Australian Tourism Commission. We found that

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the demographic distribution varies significantly between these organisations, as well as between this sample of special organisations and the typical non-SEO volunteering organisation. While there is a clear association between gender and the ‘type’ of event, there is a less clear association between age, income, education, and labour market status. Instead, we point to other factors as guides to the recruitment of special event volunteers, particularly previous involvement in related activities.

The significance of this paper is both practical and analytical. First, the paper provides clear evidence on the existence and possibilities of potential pools of volunteering labour, assisting SEO managements in adopting effective and efficient methods of obtaining suitable volunteers. Secondly, the paper assists in providing evidence on the differences and similarities between volunteers in SEO and non-SEO organisations.

Understanding the demographics of volunteers will become increasingly important for special event organisation (SEO) managers and policy-makers as special events become larger in size and greater in complexity. Substantially dependent on unpaid labour with event specific expertise, an important function of SEO management is the efficient and effective recruitment and selection of appropriate volunteers.

Although there is extensive literature looking at the characteristics of volunteers, particularly in the health, aged care and community service sector, there is a relatively small amount of literature investigating the characteristics of SEO volunteers, and dominated by studies of sporting events. Although varying significantly between organisations, it has been repeatedly found that increased participation in volunteering is positively correlated with increased levels of education, income and other ‘socio-economic’ status indicators (Anheier & Salamon, 1999; Cnaan & Amrofell, 1994; Gillespie & King, 1985; Lammers, 1991; Pearce, 1993; Smith, 1994). These studies also found a gender, labour market participation and age effect (ABS, 2001; DASETT, 1993; Deery, Jago, & Shaw, 1997a; Jago & Deery, 1999).

Special event organisations, however, are not similar in activity and social role as the typical non-profit organisation based in the welfare, community and health sectors. The limited studies into special event volunteering literature suggests that there may be a significant difference in the attitudinal and demographic characteristics between SEO and non-SEO volunteers. This paper seeks evidence on the extent of the demographic difference between ‘volunteers’ as a broad category, and ‘special event’ volunteers.

After developing a general model of the ‘typical’ volunteer, we report on the findings of a survey of four South Australian special event organisation volunteers. Our paper has three main findings. First, this sample of SEO volunteers has similar characteristics to non-SEO volunteers, in some respects, such as gender segmentation and the relationship between educational levels and volunteer participation. Secondly, this similarity, however, is limited. Some of the demographic characteristics of special event volunteers may vary significantly from those of more typical volunteers. In the case of this study, our sample had significantly different labour market participation and income characteristics to the typical volunteer. Thirdly, there is substantial and significant variation in the demographic characteristics between the volunteer cohorts of the four special event organisations.

These findings are of both practical and research significance. By seeking to clarify the characteristics of SEO volunteers – as a group and between special event organisations – this paper contributes to an understanding of the differences between the characteristics of SEO and non-SEO volunteers. Understanding the nature of SEO demographics will assist SEO managers and policy makers in adopting more appropriate recruitment techniques that minimise the financial and time cost in recruiting suitable volunteers. Secondly, this paper will assist in developing an understanding within the literature of the nature of the distinction between different groups of volunteers, particular SEO and non-SEO volunteers.

This argument will be presented in several stages. First, we will briefly overview the relevant literature on the demographics of volunteers, and report on the relevant findings of the recent Australian Bureau of Statistics survey into Australian volunteering. This brief overview will point to an ideal-typical model of the typical volunteer, which will be tested later in the paper. The second section points to the differences between special event and non-SEO volunteers. We will outline the survey and the sample we obtained of four South Australian special event organisations in the third section. Sections four and five will contrast our findings with the ideal-typical model of volunteering demographics presented in the first section. Where suitable data exists, we also compare our findings against the South Australian population.

1. Who Volunteers? A Brief Review Of The Literature

The literature points to a general relationship between socio-demographic factors and propensity to volunteer (Cnaan & Amrofell, 1994; Gillespie & King, 1985; Smith, 1994). Wardell, Lishman, & Whalley (2000, p. 229), for example, have suggested that the literature has depicted the typical volunteer as 'middle-aged, highly educated women, with a secure income, who attend church regularly and are altruistically motivated' .

The relationship between demographic characteristics and volunteering can be seen through the literature. Barker (1993 cited in Anheier & Salamon, 1999, p. 55), for example, found a strong positive correlation between increased social class and increased volunteering in fourteen European countries (Table 1). Pearce (1993), drawing on North American volunteers, also found similarly that higher income, educational level and occupational status were positively correlated with increased likelihood to volunteer for organizations and associations. Lammers (1991, p. 139) found that higher levels of education tended to be positively associated with higher levels of volunteering participation as well as length of duration of volunteering.

Table 1 Socio-Economic Class And Volunteering

	Socio-economic Class			
	Upper/ Upper Middle	Middle	Lower Middle	Lower
Percent Volunteering	34	27	21	16
Not Volunteering	66	73	79	84
Total	100	100	100	100

Source: Barker (1993) cited in Anheier and Salamon (1999, p. 55)

(Pearce 1993) found that while women were more likely to join religious or social service groups, men were more likely to join professional associations that may be useful for their careers. Male instrumentality in volunteering participation can be seen in Williams, Dossa and Tompkins’ 1995 study of a major sporting event, and in Cnaan and Amrofell’s 1994 summary of the literature (Cnaan & Amrofell, 1994; Williams, Dossa, & Tompkins, 1995). A Department of Arts, Sport, the Environment, Tourism and Territories study on the voluntary sector in sports and recreation revealed twice as many male sport volunteers as female sport volunteers (DASETT, 1993). Winniford, Carpenter, & Grider's (1995, p. 29) study of college students involved in service organisations found that the majority of their volunteer respondents were female (68 %) although the campus population was about 54% male.

Patterns of volunteering behaviour are influenced by age and life stage (Warburton, Terry, Rosenman, & Shapiro, 2001, pp. 587-588). The literature depicts volunteering as traditionally an activity of the middle aged, with limited adolescent and retiree involvement. The study by DASETT (1993), also found that the 25-44 age group had the strongest representation in sport and recreation sector of volunteering. In the case of a Victorian heritage attraction, however, almost forty percent of all volunteers were over 65, and almost two-thirds over 55 years of age (Jago & Deery, 1999, p. 272). Williams et al's (1995) study of a male sporting event, the majority of volunteers were males between the ages of 15 and 44 years. This study also found that the younger volunteers were significantly more likely to emphasise the opportunity to develop their personal development skills in an outdoor environment as being important to their decision to be involved with race activities (1995:87). In their study of volunteers at a heritage park at Sovereign Hill, Deery, Jago and Shaw found their volunteers:

> ‘[were] generally well educated, older, and substantially female as would be expected for a cultural activity or an historically themed recreational attraction, however, they were not overwhelmingly female nor exclusively retirees (Deery et al., 1997a, p. 24).’

The findings of the international literature are generally, but not completely, supported by the recent findings of the Australian Bureau of Statistics. In 2000 the Australian Bureau of Statistics collected data on community rates of participation in volunteering in Australia, as part of their ongoing Population Survey Monitor. Using a random sampling technique to identify suitable dwellings, one adult in each dwelling was randomly selected to participate in an interview. Collecting data over each of the four quarters of 2000, the survey achieved a response rate of 88% with responses from 12,900 people (ABS, 2001, p. 33).

The definition of volunteer used in the ABS survey prevents direct comparison of some aspects of the survey findings to our study. While our study – designed and implemented before the release of the ABS report – sought information on participation in current and previous voluntary activities, the ABS survey sought evidence on people who ‘…in the last 12 months, willingly gave unpaid help, in the form of time, service or skills, through an organisation or group’ (ABS, 2001, p. 3). Nevertheless, large sections of the ABS report provide a useful comparison to our study.

The ABS survey suggests that Australian volunteer participation has a more complicated association with age. The study suggest that volunteering is particularly associated with the 35-44 age group – particularly for women, and the 45-54 age group, declining sharply after 65. Over 40% of people between 34 and 44 years were involved in volunteering, with only 17.8% of people over 64 years involved. However, the level of volunteering in the Australian community has significantly increased in the five years between ABS surveys. Between 1995 and 2000, the proportion of the community volunteering grew from 23.6% to 31.8% (p. 13). While all age groups became more heavily involved, two groups underwent growth of at least 10%: men and women between 18-24 years, and women between 35-44.

Volunteering rates were significantly varied between occupational classifications, with professionals, managers and high skill work almost twice as likely to volunteer as workers in other occupational classifications (p. 17).

Some industries had a higher incidence of volunteering. People employed in health, educational and community services were almost twice as likely to volunteer as other industry sectors. The types of volunteering work carried out by volunteers was clearly gender segregated. Women were more likely to participate in community, welfare, education and training, while men were more likely to be involved with sport and recreational organisations, as well as emergency services and professional associations. Women were found to be slightly more likely to volunteer than men. Interestingly, the women outside the labour force and men employed full-time were more likely to be actively involved in volunteering than other categories.

Based on these findings, we will investigate several hypotheses about the demographics of special event volunteers, based on the broader volunteer literature:

1. That participation in special event volunteering is likely to be strongly differentiated by sex between special event organisations according to the primary activity of the organisation.
2. That participation in special event volunteering is likely to be positively correlated with income, full-time employment status, occupational classification and educational attainment.
3. That participation in special event volunteering follows an inverse u-shaped distribution based on age, with a higher proportion of volunteers drawn from the 45-54 age group.

2. Distinguishing Between Special Event Volunteers And Non-Special Event Volunteers

We argue that special event volunteers as a category of volunteer may differ significantly from the more typical volunteer. This difference stems from the nature of the volunteering activity, and the implications of that activity for the volunteer motivation to participate. The extent of this difference, however, is unclear, and this paper seeks to obtain some evidence on this distinction.

If it can be assumed that the ‘typical’ volunteering organisation is established with a social and community orientation, to provide services or activities over a period of time, we can immediately see a distinction. ‘Special events’ organisations are typically formed and operate to provide distinct events either on a one-off basis or several times a year. As a result, these organisations ‘rise’ and ‘fall’ in volunteer activity between events, requiring a different type of commitment over a different time period, when compared with non-SEO volunteers.

How can we distinguish ‘special events’? For Getz (1997, p.4), ‘[special] events are transient, and every event is a unique blending of its duration, setting, management and people’. They can be defined as temporary occurrences, either planned or unplanned, though some may be periodic, but each one has a unique ambiance created by the combination of its length, setting, management and those in attendance. For McDonnell, Allen, & O'Toole (1990, p. 10), special events constitute specific rituals, presentations, performances or celebrations that are occasionally planned and created to mark a special occasion or to achieve particular social, cultural or corporate objectives. Getz further suggests that a special event is best defined by its context. From the perspective of organizers, ‘a special event is a one-time or infrequently occurring event outside normal programs or activities of the sponsoring or organizing body’, and from the consumer’s perspective, ‘an opportunity for a leisure, social and cultural experience outside the normal range of choices or beyond everyday experience’. He argues that there will never be consensus between the customer and the organiser over the ‘specialness’ of the event (1997:4). For Goldblatt (1997, p. 2) a special event is ‘a unique moment in time celebrated with ceremony and ritual to satisfy specific needs’.

Special events may also be described through their core attributes as argued by Deery, Jago and Shaw (1997b), who distinguished several core attributes of a special event

(Table 2a). More broadly, the literature holds that a special event possesses one or more of the characteristics in Table 2b.

Table 2a Core Attributes Of A Special Event.
Attracting tourists or tourism development
Being of limited duration
Being a one off or infrequent occurrence
Raising a region's awareness, image or profile
Offering a special experience
Being out of the ordinary

Table 2b Unifying Themes In The Definition Of Special Events
'Special events' are outside normal activities of the consumer or the organisation, beyond everyday experience, out of the ordinary
Such events are onetime or infrequently occurring, unique moment in time celebrated with ceremony
These events have elements of leisure, social, cultural, festive experiences

Clearly, the events that come under the banner of 'special events' are not necessarily the typical activities carried out by volunteering organisations usually based in the not-for-profit sector and likely to be involved with community welfare, education and social development activities. We hypothesise that this different orientation will attract volunteers of different demographic and attitudinal characteristics.

This difference can be seen in the different motivations apparent into the few studies of special event volunteer motivation to participate. Williams et al. (1995, p. 87) examined the nature of volunteer motivations, behaviour and perceptions in Whistler's Men's World Cup of Skiing. They studied the management of special event volunteers for both resident and non-resident volunteers and found that the most important reason to volunteer was to 'socialize, in an outdoor setting with people who share common interests, support the national team and enthusiasm for the event'. Instrumental rewards for volunteering were the least important motivators for both resident and non-resident volunteers. In a similar study, Farrell, Johnston, & Twynam (1998) found that the highest-ranking reason for volunteering in the elite sporting event was, ‘I wanted to help make the event a success’. Elstad (1996) cited in Deery et al., (1997a, p.20) highlighted that the satisfying factors for the majority of volunteers at the XI Olympic Winter Games were ‘personal networking, [the] celebratory atmosphere and having fun.’

Andrew's (1996) pilot study of motivations and expectations of volunteers involved in a large-scale sports event has highlighted the complexity of volunteer motivations. In this study, volunteers were divided into three groups. The first group were volunteers who had been previously involved with the sport; while the other two groups were involved with the functional activities of proving first aid, or to act as hosts and other general duties. The first aid group rated the opportunity to gain more skills and experience as important, as they were to receive senior first aid training in addition to exercising their basic skills. The hosting and new volunteers indicated a relatively stronger motivation towards material incentives.

In our understanding of the literature exploring the motivations or special event volunteers, the most highly recognised factor in the volunteering literature – ‘altruism’ – does not rank highly. Farrell, Johnston and Twynam also concluded from their study that motivation for special event volunteers is different from that for other volunteers (1998, p. 295) and highlighted the need for managers to be prepared to address a variety of motivations when seeking volunteers for special events. They attributed this to the attachment of volunteers to the activity and to the nature of special events.

Accordingly it cannot be assumed that special event volunteers follow the same patterns of motivation or demographics as those of the typical volunteer. The existing literature, however, provides a starting point for identifying the points of difference between special event volunteers and the mainstream volunteer.

3. The Survey Methodology

The findings reported in this paper are part of a broader study into the key factors in the effective human resource management of special event volunteers. This survey was preceded by a literature review investigating the relationship between human resource management practices, special event organisation and special event volunteers; as well as a series of interviews with chief executive offices of ten South Australian special event organisations on actual management practices. Early findings of our research have been reported in Monga & Treuren (2001a, b) and Treuren & Monga (2002 in press). Informed by a review of the literature into the human resource management of volunteers within volunteering organisations, as well as a study of the special event management literature, we developed a survey instrument to obtain evidence on previous volunteering, demographic characteristics and current volunteering experiences of recent and current special event volunteers.

We chose each of the five organisations as representing a different segment of the diverse special event sector. Each of these organisations is well known within South Australia. In one case, the particular event has been a feature of Adelaide community life for over a century with a single sponsor until 1999. Unfortunately our survey of the fifth organisation was held up for several months due to the staging of that organisation’s major event. As a result we have been unable to include the volunteer data of that organisation in this paper. After piloting the survey on a sample of volunteers drawn from SEO1 and SEO2, the survey was distributed by mail in September 2001 to all volunteers on the databases of four South Australian special event organisations, accompanied by a letter endorsing the survey written by the organisation’s chief officer. The data was collated, coded and analysed between December and February 2002, using SPSS cross tabulations. Table 3 summarises the key features of the organisations relevant to this study.

Table 3 Key Features Of Respondent Organisations

	SEO 1.	**SEO 2.**	**SEO 3.**	**SEO 4.**
Activity	Conducting a range of automotive contests	Holding community cultural festival	Public parade	Conducting a solar car race
Frequency of (main) activity	Several times yearly	Twice annually	Annually	Every 2 – 3 years
Total number of volunteers in last event	479	400	171	39
Responses	218	72	56	24
Response rate (%)	45.5	18	32.7	61.5
Internal Structure	Core-periphery model/ cyclical	Core-periphery model/ cyclical	Community outsourced	Core-periphery model/ cyclical
External Structure	Federation of small clubs	Federation of small clubs	Sponsored	Sponsored
% First time volunteering	4.6%	14.1%	5.4%	4.2%
% Previous involvement with SEO	88.9%	80.6%	78.6%	81.8%

While SEOs 1, 3 and 4 have had a reliable response rate, over 30%, we acknowledge that the reliability of the data from SEO2 is less certain. We have included the SEO2 data because existing data is presumably indicative of organisational trends. Because of the preponderance of the SEO1 sample as a proportion of the total sample – 60% – we will emphasise the individual organisation data rather than the aggregated results.

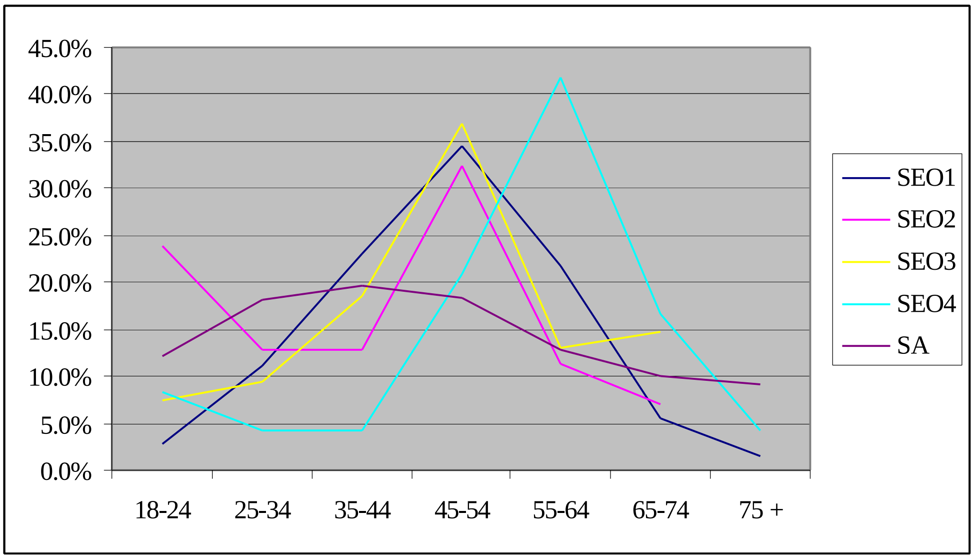
4. Who Are Special Event Volunteers?

Age distribution

Figure 1 gives the age distribution of our sample, by SEO and in comparison with the population distribution of South Australia. Apart from SEO4 and the high involvement of 18-24 year olds in SEO2, the four organisations sampled in our survey seem to have a remarkably similar age distribution of volunteers.

The highest proportion of any age group is between 45 and 54, steeply increasing from the 18-24 age group, and quickly decreasingly afterwards. In the case of the SEO4 volunteers, the distribution remains remarkably similar, but varying in two respects. The average volunteer in the SEO4 was ten years older than the typical volunteer in the other three organisations, and a greater proportion of total volunteers was within that age bracket.

Figure 1 Age Distribution Of Volunteers By SEO, Compared With SA Population



Source: SA population figures derived from ABS *Population by Age and Sex, Australian States and Territories*, Cat. 3201.0, as at Jun 2001

χ=60.128, df =18, p < 0.005

Our sample, when compared with South Australia-wide figures, demonstrates the high incidence of volunteering behaviour in these organisations. Our SEO volunteers between 45-54 years were almost twice as involved in volunteering than their proportion in the population, while volunteers in the 55-64 age group were almost 50% more likely to volunteer than their age-group proportion in the community.

Sex

Our sample affirms the hypothesis of gender segmented volunteering. As can be seen in Table 4, special event organisations are likely to vary widely in the proportion of men and women involved, ranging from 14% in the case of competitive automotive sport, and 17% for solar car racing, through to 46% for community-based children's pageant and 53% in community-based folk culture.

Table 4 Participation In SEO By Sex

	SEO1	SEO2	SEO3	SEO4	Total
Female	31	38	26	4	99
	14.3%	52.8%	46.4%	17.4%	26.90%
Male	186	34	30	19	269
	85.7%	47.2%	53.6%	82.6%	73.10%
Total	217	72	56	23	368
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

χ=53.995, df =3, $p < 0.005$

Labour market status

Our sample suggests that there is substantial variability in labour market participation between organisations (Table 5). SEO2, for example, has a substantially higher proportion of volunteers outside the mainstream of the labour market reliant on part-time and casual employment, as well as social security. SEO1 respondents were twice as likely to be fully employed as those of SEO2. Almost half of SEO4's volunteer force was made up of retirees. This sample does not support the expected finding of a high proportion of volunteers engaged in full-time employment.

Table 5 Labour Market Participation By SEO

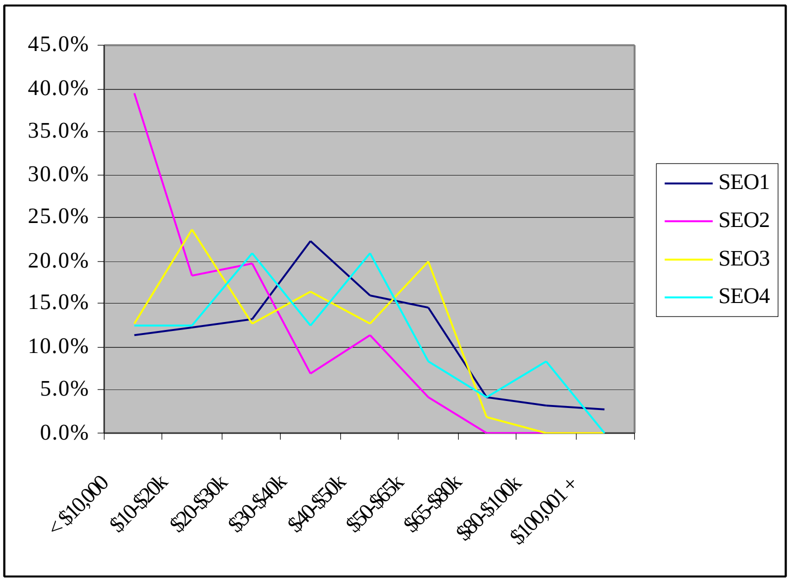
	SEO1	SEO2	SEO3	SEO4
Self-employed	49	8	1	5
	22.8%	11.4%	1.9%	22.7%
Full-time employment	103	18	32	4
	47.9%	25.7%	59.3%	18.2%
Part-time employment	11	11	4	1
	5.1%	15.7%	7.4%	4.5%
Casual employment	15	9	5	1
	7.0%	12.9%	9.3%	4.5%
Home duties	4	1	3	1
	1.9%	1.4%	5.6%	4.5%
Unemployed	4	11	1	
	1.9%	15.7%	1.9%	
Retired	26	11	8	10
	12.1%	15.7%	14.8%	45.5%
other	3	1		
	1.4%	1.4%		
Full-time participation	70.7%	37.1%	61.2%	40.9%
Not full-time	12.1%	28.6%	16.7%	9.0%
Outside the labour market	17.3%	34.2%	22.3%	50.0%
	215	70	54	22
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Notes: 'Full-time participation' includes self-employed respondents
'Not full-time' includes part-time and casually employed respondents
'Outside the labour market' represents those in home duties, retired and 'other' χ=79.895, df =21, $p < 0.005$

Income

Contrary to the general literature, our sample suggests that income is inversely related to volunteering participation in special events. This result may be due to the high participation of volunteers outside the full-time workforce. This can be seen most clearly in the SEO2 and SEO4 population.

Figure 2 Income (Gross Income Last Year) By SEO



χ=63.166, df =24, p < 0.005

Educational attainment

Our sample affirms the general finding of the literature: the typical volunteer is more likely to have higher education attainment than the typical non-volunteer. The remarkable difference between special event organisations can be seen again when looking at educational attainment. Table 6 highlights the very different distribution of post-secondary qualifications, with SEO1 volunteers having the highest level of skilled or basic vocational, SEO2 and SEO4 with significantly higher levels of higher education.

Table 6 Highest Educational Attainment By SEO (%), With SA

	SEO1	SEO2	SEO3	SEO4	SA total
Bachelor degree or higher	14.1%	38.9%	12.8%	43.4%	12.7%
Undergraduate or associate diploma	15.0%	8.3%	14.5%	13.0%	7.4%
Skilled or basic vocational Qualification	32.8%	25.0%	25.5%	13.0%	19.8%

Source: ABS, *Education: National Summary* (No. 4102.0), 2001

Occupation classification

The difference between SEOs is demonstrated again in the distribution of occupational classification (Table 7). SEO1, unsurprisingly given Table 6, has a substantially higher proportion of trades people, while the proportion of volunteers deeming themselves to be ‘professional’ varies by over 50% between SEOs.

Table 7 Occupational Classification By SEO

	SEO1	**SEO2**	**SEO3**	**SEO4**
Professional	23.0%	35.5%	46.7%	37.5%
Para-professional	17.0%	19.4%	15.6%	25.0%
Tradesperson	29.0%	9.7%	11.1%	12.5%
Clerk	8.0%	4.8%	11.1%	18.8%
Sales	7.0%	6.5%	8.9%	0.0%
Personal service worker	2.0%	8.1%	4.4%	0.0%
Plant, machine operator	4.5%	3.2%	2.2%	6.3%
Labourer	1.5%	6.5%	0.0%	0.0%
Other	8.0%	6.5%	0.0%	0.0%

χ=44.277, df =24, $p < 0.005$

5. Discussion

Earlier in this paper we identified three sets of hypotheses about the demographic characteristics of volunteers. The first hypothesis related to the gendered nature of special event organisations. Our data supports the broader finding of a gendered participation in special event organisations. This can be seen by the substantial and significantly different participation of women between the two community-based SEOs and the competitive, technology and automotive-based events.

The second set of hypotheses proposed a positive correlation between income, full-time employment status, occupational classification and educational attainment. This association was apparent for educational attainment and occupational classification. In both cases, SEOs demonstrated the same pattern as the typical non-SEO volunteers. The typical SEO volunteer was considerably more likely to have a higher level of education that the typical South Australian. Further, the typical volunteer is more likely to be drawn from ‘higher’ occupational classifications, such as professional, para-professional and the trades, with these groups representing over 65% of the total volunteer cohort.

However, our sample suggested significantly different income outcomes and labour market participation. The literature suggests that the typical non-SEO volunteer is more likely to be drawn from higher income groups. As can be seen in Figure 2, even after discounting SEO1’s relatively high unemployed cohort, SEO volunteers can be characterised as being more highly drawn from the lower income brackets. As income increases, the proportion of the volunteering cohort within this income bracket declines. Unfortunately this is not reliable, as we would need to supplement the intra-sample distribution of income, with a comparison of this income distribution with South Australia, as a whole.

We further found that our sample has a considerably wider variation in labour market participation than we expected. There is no obvious association between higher levels of labour market participation and higher levels of volunteering. This finding, however, is not reliable, as we are unable to directly compare the data with appropriate labour market participation rates for SA.

The third hypothesis was that participation in special event volunteering follows an inverse u-shaped distribution based on age, with a higher proportion of volunteers drawn from the 45-54 age group. As noted earlier, setting aside two unusual features of this dataset, we can see that there is a clear tendency towards an inverse u-shaped age distribution of volunteers, around the 45-54 age group for SEOs 1, 2 and 3 and around 55-64 for SEO4. The first of the two unusual features of this dataset are the unusually high proportion of 18-24 year olds in SEO2 – presumably reflecting the increased interested in community based activity identified by the ABS in its 2001 report – when compared with the other organisations. The second interested age-related feature of the dataset is the high incidence of the retirees in SEO4, leading to a higher peak in a higher age bracket. Unreported data suggests that the standard deviation of age is between 5 and 7 years in all four organisations.

What do these findings mean for our understanding of the differences between SEO and non-SEO volunteers? We point to three essential points. First, there are some similarity between the demographics of SEO and non-SEO volunteers. The typical SEO volunteer is likely to have a higher level of educational attainment than the broader community, and is more likely to be engaged within a professional or high skill classification. Volunteering in SEO organisations, like in volunteering more generally, is gender segregated. Women are significantly less involved in the two events involved with automotive racing and technology, but are more highly represented in the two events that involved community-based activity.

The second feature of special event volunteering – as revealed by this sample – is that special event volunteers can have significantly different demographic features to that suggested by the volunteering literature. We found an inverse relationship between special event volunteers and income – more volunteers could be found at lower levels of income, and a remarkably wide variation in labour market participation.

Thirdly, the demographics of special event volunteers vary substantially between organisations. Although some characteristics seem remarkably similar – the spread of age of volunteers, as measured by the standard deviation of ages – other features seem significantly different. The average age, for example, varied between 40 to 55 years. One organisation, SEO2 has an uncharacteristically high proportion of volunteers between 18-24, lower levels of labour market participation but substantially higher levels of educational attainment. The different organisations have different participation by members of different occupational classifications – compare the proportion of trades people involved with SEO1 and the professionals involved in the SEO3.

The distinctiveness of the demographics of these organisations suggests that there is some social process involved with the recruitment and selection of special event volunteers. This question will be explored in subsequent research looking at the existence and nature of ‘recruitment niches’ between special event organisations. In this small literature it has been suggested that the recruitment and selection processes within voluntary organisations tend to create over time a relative homogeneity among organisational volunteers. While some writers suggest that these requirement niches can be observed through commonalities in demographic characteristics, other writers point to the importance of a shared organisational ethos (McPherson & Rotolo, 1996; Nichols & King, 1999; Popielarz & McPherson, 1995; Stebbins, 1992). We expect that the existence of recruitment niches may explain the large variation between organisations.

Conclusion

The purpose of this paper was to consider the extent of the difference between the demographic characteristics of special event volunteers, and the ideal-typical non-SEO volunteer identified from the volunteering demographic literature. So far the literature has been dominated by studies of non-SEO volunteers, usually drawn from organisations providing ongoing services in community, welfare and health-care based areas within the broader community.

As discussed earlier, it cannot be assumed that special event organisations, and their volunteers, will follow the patterns of non-SEO organisations who also engage volunteers. The limited literature exploring the characteristics of SEO volunteers has already highlighted different motivations to those attributed to non-SEO volunteers. Understanding the extent of these differences is of long-term significance to SEO managers charged with creating and maintaining suitable volunteers for special event activities. As special events grow in size, complexity and significance, so does the reliance on sources of appropriate unpaid labour, especially those volunteers suitable for long-term involvement.

This paper has looked at the demographic rather than attitudinal differences between these groups of volunteers. On the basis of this survey, SEO volunteers are likely to be similar in most characteristics to non-SEO volunteers apart from two factors: income and labour market participation. In this case, income is the opposite to the findings of the general literature.

The other major finding was the significant differences between SEO organisations. While the essential similarity with non-SEO volunteers remains, we point to the substantial variation between the demographics of the volunteering cohort within SEO organisations. Consider, from example, the wide variation in educational attainment, detailed in Table 6. While all organisations had a higher than average level of attainment in the post-secondary education, SEO4's volunteers were three time more likely to hold a university-level qualification than the volunteers of SEO1. An SEO2 volunteer was three times less likely to be engaged in a trade than an SEO1 volunteer. Almost half of SEO3 considered themselves professional. Further investigation will seek to clarify if this wide discrepancy is a result of the process of recruitment, and the activity of the event itself, or whether it is a characteristic of volunteer-based organisations.

Further empirical work will hopefully clarify whether this difference between the demographic characteristics of SEO and non-SEO volunteers is consistent, or whether it was a result of this particular sample, drawn from South Australia, with its particular economic and demographic circumstances. One possibility could be that the

SEO and non-SEO volunteers possess similar demographic characteristics but differ widely in attitudinal features.

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EVENT MANAGEMENT RESEARCH ISSUES

Special Event Research 1990-2001: Key Trends and Issues

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Abstract

Special events are, increasingly, a source of research interest for academics and industry. Given the growth and critical mass of special event literature, it is timely to review the research and foci in order to identify the research gaps. This paper presents the results of a systematic review of a body of special event literature and proposes lines of inquiry for future special event research.

The results of the review, across thirteen key tourism, hospitality and leisure journals and conference proceedings, identified more than 150 publications focussed upon special events during the period 1990-2001. The review identified that both community/cultural and sporting special events more commonly have provided settings for this research. Conversely, very little academic research was published on commercial, political or religious events.

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Introduction

Special events appear to now play a number of functions in contemporary society – including those that are socially, culturally and economically based. The post-war period in Australia witnessed a boom in festivals and parades (Alomes, 1985) and, although these types of festivals and parades slowly declined in number, there has been a re-invigoration of the industry, particularly since the 1980's (Jago and Shaw, 1995; Fredline and Faulkner 2000a). Whether special events are considered as products, services or service experiences, they now exist in a highly competitive market. One indicator of the growth in the industry is the increasing amount of research being undertaken in this area of tourism. Two earlier attempts at reviewing sections of the special event literature were undertaken by Formica (1998) and Getz (2000a). Other event literature reviews, such as that taken by Harris, Jago, Allen and Huyskens (2000), proposed a research agenda for the study of special events in an Australian context. It is, however, imperative to extend this research and more systematically assess a broader body of special event literature in order to identify the areas of special events that require further inquiry.

The aim of this paper is to present the results of a systematic literature review of a body of special event literature and identify the key trends and issues within the literature. The identification of the key trends and issues in the literature will provide a platform upon which to develop a research agenda for the study of special events in the future. This current work systematically reviews the literature where earlier studies have tended to be more 'ad hoc' in their approach. It is hoped that the results of this research will inform future research into special events, and assist in the planning and policy development of special events.

Literature Review

Over the last decade, there has been considerable growth in both the number and types of special events being staged around the world (Jago and Shaw, 1998). As a result of this growth, levels of participation, sponsorship and spectatorship at special events have increased substantially. For example, the World Cup Soccer in 1994 not only attracted capacity audiences at the competitions, but it was also watched by an estimated 32 billion people worldwide (Shani and Sandler, 1996). In 1998, New Zealand hosted the *Warbirds over Wanaka* event, with a record attendance of 75,000 and the *Wildfoods Festival*, with a host population of 3,384, achieved an attendance number of approximately 14,000 (McManus, 1999). By 2000, attendances at festivals and events in Montreal increased by 1.6 million to 11.5 million (Alonzo, 2001), a trend reflected in many other countries. The trend is, therefore, for events to become larger in size and occur more frequently, which raises questions as to why this is occurring, how they are being managed and what are the social, economic and environment impacts of this burgeoning industry?

It is likely that a number of factors have given rise to the phenomenal growth of special events over the last decade. Goldblatt (2000) suggested that trends within society have influenced the growth and argued that, with the aging of the population in many western countries, there are now more singular occasions being celebrated. Many of these celebrations involve organised events. He has also suggested that the trend in staging larger-scaled special events has been fuelled by the growth of economies, and in particular, the American economy. Where once the public were content to celebrate occasions and special events privately, celebrations are now often elaborate affairs requiring the services of a professional event organiser. The ‘dawn’ of the new millennium most recently demonstrated the trend to celebrate special occasions on a grander scale than ever before. In the USA, the demand for fireworks and pyrotechnics exhibitions for the dawn of the year 2000 was unprecedented (Barbieri, 2000), and in Australia, Hede and O’Mahony (2001) noted that there was an extraordinary demand to celebrate the occasion with special events.

Special events, in their many forms, are perceived to fulfil a number of economic, social and cultural functions. Hall (1989) stated that mega-events improve the image of the host destination. He suggested that special events have the capacity to change the perceptions of a host destination to the extent that they provide the ‘new middle class tourist’ with the impetus to visit the destination in the future. Governments perceive that mega-events, in particular, provide an opportunity to develop legacies (Ritchie, 2000). Alomes (1985) highlighted the role of parades suggesting that they reflect the contemporary culture in which they are staged, and Faulkner, Fredline, Larson and Tomljenovic (1999, p. 158) stated that “festivals can be looked at as providing a mechanism for mobilising the cultural assets of a destination for tourism purposes”. Special events are commonly perceived to develop tourism in the host region, as they generally have the capacity to attract visitors from outside the host region (Nicholson and Pearce, 2000).

The level of research activity into the special event industry has increased during the last decade. Goldblatt (2000) asserted that the special event industry is now in a state of maturity, a view that is supported from an Australian perspective by Arcodia and Robb (2000). From the traditional product life cycle perspective, Goldblatt’s assertion is an important one. If the events industry is in a state of maturity, a risk [for the industry] is perhaps its impending future decline. In this scenario, the role and direction of special event research will become even more important for the industry and a strategic approach to research of special events is required.

Research Methodology

Scope Of The Literature Review

It was deemed that 1990 was an appropriate starting point for the review. This decision was made because, although, a preliminary review of the special event literature identified that seminal publications on special events first emerged in the 1980's, such as Ritchie (1984); Burns, Hatch and Mules (1986); and Hall (1989), it was not, however, until the 1990's that a consistent stream of special event research emerged in the literature.

It was then necessary to identify an appropriate set of publications upon which to base the literature review. A preliminary review of the literature indicated that articles on special events occurred in a range of journals in a number of different fields, including tourism, economics, leisure, hospitality and history. Although the context of this paper is specifically tourism, due to the overlap between tourism and leisure in the field of special events, it was decided to extend the considered set of journals to include some key leisure journals.

The key mainstream English language tourism and travel journals were selected for inclusion in the set of journals under review, primarily because they were well established and respected in their field. These included the *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.* Festival Management and Event Tourism, which was launched initially in 1993 and now entitled *Event Management: An International Journal*, is dedicated to the study of special events and was obviously included in the designated set of journals. The leisure journals included in the considered set were the *Journal of Leisure Research*, *Leisure Management, Managing Leisure and* the *Journal of Hospitality and Leisure Marketing.* The inclusion of these journals, it was thought, would provide a more comprehensive reflection of the key themes in special event research. Ideally, the researchers would have preferred to have used a more extensive data set, however, this was beyond the scope of this research project.

The proceedings of two conferences, namely, the *Annual Council for Australian Tourism and Hospitality Educators' (CAUTHE)* conferences from 1990 to 2001 (Pforr and Carlsen, 2002) and the inaugural *Event Evaluation, Research and Education* conference (Allen, Harris, Jago and Veal, 2000) held in Sydney in 2000, were also included in the data set. The *CAUTHE* research conference is the leading tourism and hospitality research conference in Australia each year and provides a good indication of the breadth of the research being conducted in Australia. *The Event Evaluation, Research and Education* conference was the first international special events conference held and attracted delegates with a broad cross-section of research interests and expertise.

Selection And Categorisation Procedure

In order to identify those publications that were specifically related to special events, it was decided to use the publication abstracts. The publications were categorised using a systematic approach based on themes. As a starting point, the system was based on the themes used for the *Event Evaluation, Research and Education* conference, *Events Beyond 2000: Setting the Agenda (ibid.),* which were:

- event evaluation;
- event management and operations;
- event marketing; and
- research issues.

A preliminary screening of the literature identified that most of the publications fell predominantly into one of the themes. Each publication was initially categorised using the aforementioned themes, but it was also considered necessary to develop sub-themes to focus the research further. The researchers independently developed the list of sub-themes and, then together, they refined the list of sub-themes so that a useful thematic analysis of the literature could be undertaken. The following table itemises the results of this process.

Table 1 Research themes and sub-themes

Theme	**Event evaluation**	**Event management and operations**	**Event marketing**	**Research Issues**
Sub-theme	Economic	Accreditation/ certification	Attendee motivations	Conceptualisation
	Cultural	Human resources	Attendee perceptions	Methodological issues
	Environmental	Planning	Distribution	Comparative analysis
	Social	Quality management	Market segmentation	

	Tourism demand	Risk management	Sponsorship	
	Tourism policy			

The publications were also categorised based on the following types of events, using the legend proposed by Ritchie (1984):

- r= religious events;
- p=political event;
- c=community/cultural;
- s=sporting; and
- b=commercial.

A ‘general’ event category was added to the above legend, because some of the publications did not fall into one of the pre-defined categories. This category was useful for those articles that focussed on events in general, or those that focused on topic conceptualisation or methodological approaches.

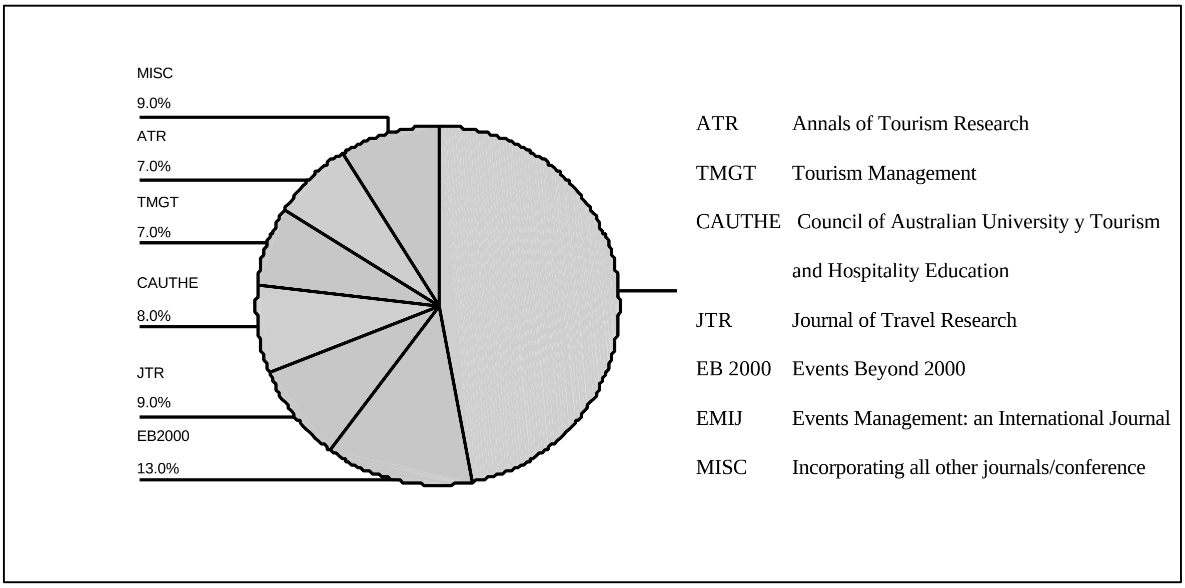
Research Results

In total, 159 publications in 11 journals and 2 conference proceedings were included in the review.

Spatial Distribution Of Publications In The Journals/Conference Proceedings

Figure 1 represents graphically the distribution of the publications across sample of journals/conference proceedings. As can be seen in Figure 1, the journal, *Festival Management and Event Tourism*, accounted for just under half of the articles identified in the study. There was a fairly even distribution of event related articles in the other journals included in the study.

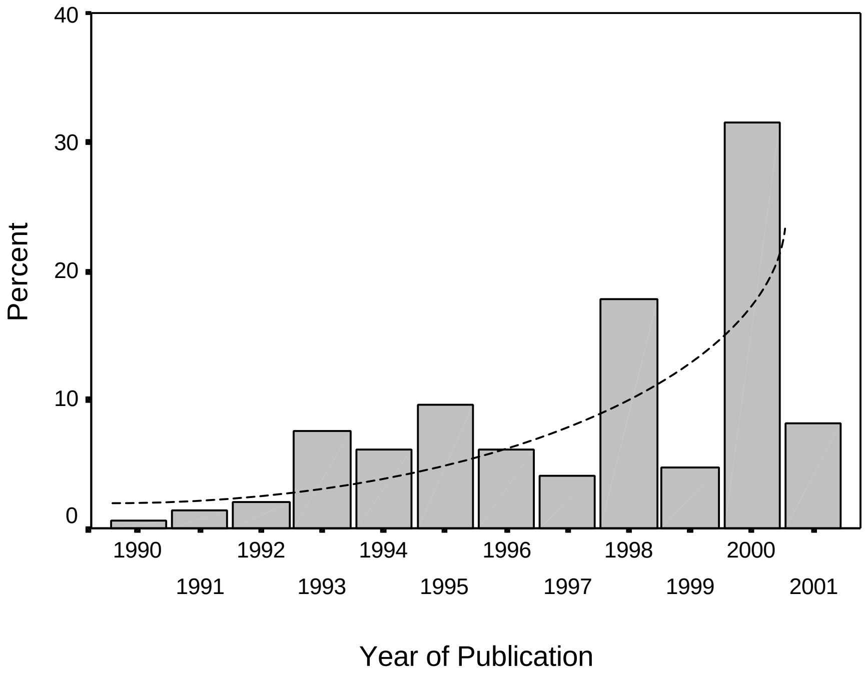
Figure 1 Spatial distribution of publications across the journals/conference proceedings



Temporal Distribution Of Publications Over The Review Period

A temporal analysis of the articles was undertaken and the results are presented in Figure 2. As can be seen from Figure 2, from 1990 to 2000 there was an overall increase in the number of articles that focussed on special events, with the growth, during this period, accentuated in the peak years of 1995, 1998 and 2000.

Figure 2 Temporal distribution of special event publications 1990-2001



As is also illustrated in Figure 2, however, there has not been a consistent increase in event related research publications, despite the increased focus on events in many journals and at conferences. For example, there was a marked fall in the number of articles published on special events in 1996, 1997, 1999 and in 2001. The absence of any editions of *Event Management: An International* in 1999 may have created an aberration in the results by reducing the total number of publications in that year and increasing the total number of publications in 2000. These trends suggest that the growth in special event research has been spasmodic, rather than consistent.

On the other hand, when one removes the 'excess above the norm' of the peak years and focuses on a trend line, one could argue that:

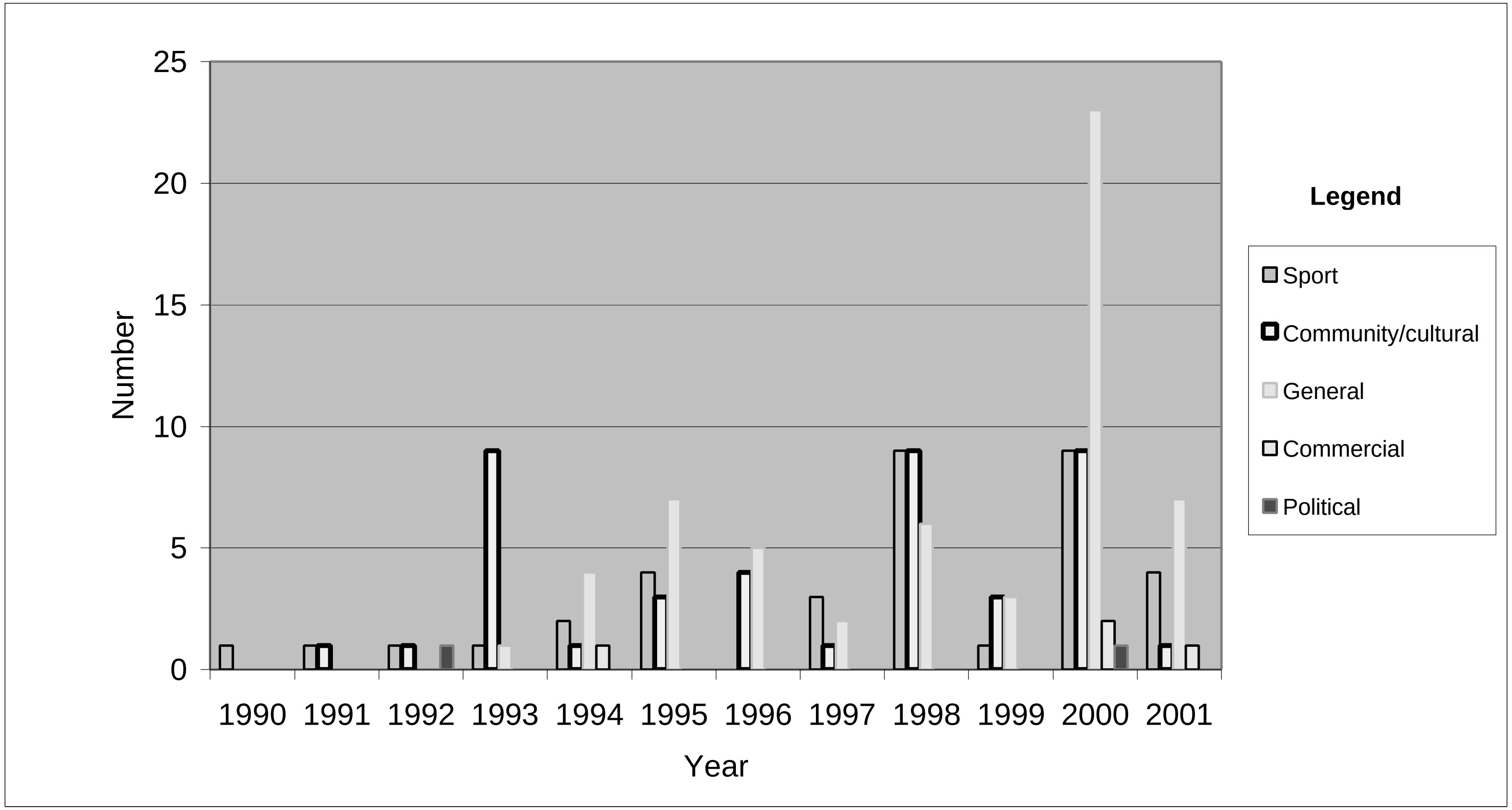
- there was a gradual and consistent level of research interest in the formative years of the research field (1990-1995);

- a trough appeared in the mid-years (1996-1997); and
- it is likely that that there will be an increase in the number of publications in the year 2002.

Categories Of Special Events Studied

Figure 3 provides a graphical representation of the publishing trends in each of Ritchie’s (1984) special event categories.

Figure 3 Categories of events researched 1990 - 2001



It emerged that both community/cultural and sporting events were the event categories that were most often researched, although, the study of special events from a generic perspective was, in fact, the largest in number. For the categories used in this study, it also emerged that there is a dearth of published literature on commercial, religious or political special events. This may be a reflection of the difficulties in accessing the associated data, for academic research, and the sensitivities associated with these types of events more than any other factors.

From 1990 – 1993, there was a fairly consistent level of interest in sporting events, then grew steadily during the remainder of the decade except for 1996 and 1999. The literature reflects an interest in smaller sporting special events. A marked increase in the number of publications on sporting special events occurred in 1998 which was most likely attributable to the staging of the Olympic Games in 1992 and 1996. In recent years, research on sporting events is more popular than of community/cultural events. This could be attributable to the prominence of the Olympic Games and other major sporting events in western societies.

Since 1993, there has been a consistent level of interest in special events from a general perspective. In 2000, the number of conceptual articles that were published, which were not based on a specific special event or a single type of special event, rather on special events in general was significant. Many of these publications, focussed on the formalisation of special events theory and the advancement of methodological issues associated with the research on special events [See for example, the work of Arcodia and Robb (2000); Burgan and Mules (2000); Carlsen, Getz and Soutar (2000); Getz (2000) and Goldbaltt (2000). This level of interest in conceptualising, formalising and refining special event research reflects a maturation of special event research. In the early 1990's, there was generally a lack of accepted theoretical frameworks. By 2000, however, special event research was based on a more substantial body of literature. Many of the papers presented at the *Events Beyond 2000: Setting the Agenda* conference (Allen et. al) contributed to this trend.

Having discussed the spatial and temporal trends of research into special events over the review period, an examination will now be conducted on the key themes to have emerged over this time.

Research Theme 1: Event Evaluation

Special events have been evaluated predominantly from an economic perspective. This trend has largely been driven by the needs of government and tourism agencies to justify the staging of special events based on their economic contribution to the host economy. There have, however, been calls for alternative approaches to the evaluation of special events [See, for example, Burgan and Mules (2000) and Dwyer, Mellor, Mistilis and Mules (2000)]. This is emerging in the literature as an area of new interest and some studies have evaluated special events from the social, cultural or environmental perspectives. These recent studies suggest that the level of interest from these perspectives is burgeoning. This is perhaps a reflection of the increasing use of the 'Triple Bottom Line' (Elkington, 1997) in the corporate world as an auditing and reporting framework (Rogers and Ryan, 2001) 'which requires the measurement of economic, environmental and social performance' (ibid. p.283).

Where economic evaluation of special events was undertaken, the research context was almost always a sporting special event. In contrast to the economic evaluation of special events, cultural or social evaluations of special events were almost always associated with community/cultural events. This is likely to be based on the perception that sporting events generally provide ‘new’ income to a region, whereas community/cultural special events are often perceived to “help generate community pride and cohesion, foster the arts, contribute to healthy people, or conserve the natural environment” (Getz, 2000, p. 13).

Research Theme 2: Event Management and Operations

This research theme is a small, but important part of the special event literature. Special event human resource management was first raised by Getz (1993) when he proposed that the success of special events is related to the organisational culture of special event organisations and therefore to the management of event staff. The key area for research in this theme has concentrated on the management of volunteers in a special events context [See Williams, Dossa and Thomkins (1995) and Farouk and Wood (1998)].

Risk management is beginning to emerge as a topic of interest in special event research, most likely prompted by increasing levels of litigation in society. There was early risk management work by Sonmez, Backman and Allen (1993) and more recent research by Abbot and Geddie (2000a; 2000b; 2000), which investigated the methods of crowd management and liability minimisation.

The services marketing literature advocates that quality management is an important concept for organisations. Childress (1997); Baker and Crompton (2000); Bowdin and Church (2000); Crompton and Love (1995); Getz, O'Neill and Carslen (2001) and Wicks and Fesenmaier (1993) have contributed to this line of inquiry, by exploring quality management issues in special events, which is clearly emerging as an important theme in special event research In a similar vein, Getz and Wicks (1994) and Royal and Jago (1998) explored the role of accreditation and certification in the special event industry.

Research Theme 3: Event Marketing

With the substantial growth in the number of special events staged in many parts of the world, some researchers have analysed the distribution of special events. Jago and McArdle (1999) and Ryan, Smee, Murphy, and Getz (1998) analysed the temporal and spatial distribution of special events in Victoria, Australia, and New Zealand respectively. Janiskee (1996), similarly analysed the temporal distribution of community special events in America.

A stream of research has sought insights as to why consumers attend special events. In most cases, the research was undertaken in relation to festivals [See, for example, Uysal, Gahan, and Martin (1993); Crompton and McKay (1997) and Formica and Murrman (1997)] rather than in relation to sporting events. Despite the interest in profiling attendees of special events via their motives to attend, most segmentation studies have used socio-demographics as the segmentation criteria. Jago and Shaw (1998) have added to this research on market segmentation through their use of psychographics and personal values. Their findings present a profile of special event market segments. Another area for research has been that of sponsorship which is now acknowledged as playing an integral role in the success of special events (Lee, Sandler, & Shani, 1997).

Research Theme 4: Research Issues

In an emerging field of research, it is generally found that few of the early pieces of research seek to develop a conceptual framework for the field. It is only later, when there is a critical mass of literature, that formal conceptualisation of theory can be made. This appears to have been the case for special event research. The special event literature now demonstrates evidence of theory being developed and refined, drawing upon its own theory and that of other disciplines such as sociology, psychology, management and marketing. [See, for example, Chalip and Green (1998); Crompton and McKay (1997); Faulkner, Fredline, Larson and Tomljenovic (1999) and Abbot and Geddie (2000), respectively].

There has been a continued stream of literature associated with refining the methodologies for determining the economic impacts of special events. Long and Perdue (1990) suggested that there was a need to acknowledge the variation in the spatial distribution of economic expenditure used in the economic evaluation of special events. After stating their concern for the more traditional ‘exit’ intercept interview method which has most often been employed in this type of research, Faulkner and Raybould (1995) experimented with the diary and recall methods for the collection of expenditure data at a sporting event. Seaton (1997) and Breen, Bull and Walo (2001) similarly suggested the use of unobtrusive observation as a qualitative research technique, in conjunction with a survey-based approach, for the collection of expenditure data at special events. Burgan and Mules (2000) provided a summary of the factors that require consideration in determining the sampling frame for survey-based economic impact studies.

Summary Of Research Trends 1990-2001

In summary, the following trends in special event research were identified:

- there has been a focus on the economic evaluation of sports-based special events;
- there is an emerging body of literature which is focusing on the social impacts of special events, and that which is now tending to use the 'Triple Bottom Line' as an evaluative measure;
- risk management is an increasingly topical area of special event research;
- less research has focused on special events operational management.

Implications for Future Special Event Research

Despite the considerable advancement of knowledge on the topic of special events, this review helps to identify some of the gaps in the special events research to date. Even within the key themes outlined above, there are still areas for further research on special events. For example, there has been relatively little evaluation of special events in relation to tourism demand and perceptions of the host region. This is an interesting phenomenon, given the repeated references in the literature to tourism's role in improving the awareness, or image, of the host city as a tourist destination [See for example, Baloglu and Brinberg (1997); Dadgostar and Isotalo, (1995); and Baloglu and McCleary (1999)]. Roche (1994) and Getz (1993) have focussed on tourism policy and special events, but very little other research has been published on this topic. This is surprising, given the importance many western governments place on special events when developing their tourism policies and strategies. Tourism Victoria (Anon.1997), in Australia, for example, has placed an emphasis on special events in its strategic business plan.

Whilst academic texts, such as Stedman, Goldblatt, and Delpy (1995) and Goldblatt (1999), have focussed on special event management very few research publications have addressed this area of special events research. Although there appears to have been a considerable amount of research undertaken to evaluate special events, there appears to be very little academic literature on special event planning and operational aspects of special events. The work of Bramwell (1997) on strategic planning before and after the event, and Verhoven et al (1998) on the use of desktop mapping for planning and evaluation of special events, for example, is yet to filter into subsequent published research undertaken on special events. Given the increasingly competitive special event industry it would appear that this type of research will become more important. Within the human resource management area and subsequent to Getz's research (1993), there has been very little research undertaken on the topic. Davidson and Carlsen (2002) suggested that volunteer management is an emerging topic of research in a special event context. There appears then to be a need to undertake research into both the paid and un-paid human resources of special event organisations.

Other areas for future research appear to be in the risk management domain. These concerns have always been particularly important factors for larger events, but since

September 11th 2001, consumers have already demanded higher levels of security in public places. In Australia, the collapse of the insurance giant HIA, has focussed attention on the cost of insurance and risk management. The escalating cost of public liability insurance has already forced some tourism operators out of business and it is expected that this will filter into the special event industry. For those operators that are left, minimising risk and liability will play an important part in the longevity of their businesses, particularly as they are operating in an increasingly litigious society.

Still other areas of research requiring further investigation are those of, for example, accreditation. This will likely become part of the emerging theme of quality management in future special event research.

Little research has been undertaken to explore the impact that attendance at special events has on attendees' future intentions in relation to repeat visitation or recommending behaviour. Very little research has investigated, for example, attendees' post-evaluative judgments of special events, such as their satisfaction, or the impacts of special event attendance on cultural and social attitudes.

In terms of methodological issues for special event research, it appears that there is a need for further research specifically in relation to methodological approaches to special event evaluations. Where once stakeholders, in particular governments, would be concerned only with the economic impacts of special events, they are now concerned with their environmental and social impacts. This will require a more holistic approach to special events evaluation in the future. The emergence of the 'Triple Bottom Line' in many other industries as an evaluative tool, will likely filter into special events research. To some extent this has occurred. Dwyer, Mellor, Mistills and Mules (2000), for example, have developed a framework to assess both the tangible and the intangible impacts of special events.

Another key theme emerging from the methodological considerations is that of whether the work is longitudinal or comparative. Apart from the seminal research undertaken by Ritchie (1991), most special event research published between 1990 and 1994 provided a snapshot of a singular special event, rather than a longitudinal or comparative study of a number of special events. A cluster of research published in 1996 [See Long and Sellars (1996); Ryan, Smee and Murphy (1996); and Schneider and Backman (1996)], indicates that there was a recognised need to address this research inadequacy, however, very little research of this type has been undertaken subsequently. It is only recently that Gratton et al (2000), for example, employed a comparative research approach, and Nicholson and Pearce (2000) noted that longitudinal and comparative studies were still lacking in special event research. Undertaking impact studies of singular events, using multiple methodologies and testing their convergent validity and reliability, would contribute also substantially to the refinement of this area of special event research.

Summary Of Key Findings

In limiting a literature review to a specific set of publications, clearly some research is not included, however, this research has identified that there has been a broad-cross section of research published on special events since 1990 in a number of journals. Despite this finding, there were aberrations in the total number of publications on special events each year. This indicates that special events research has been spasmodic, rather than consistent during this period.

The context for special events research has most often been sporting and community/cultural events, and in comparison, very little research has been undertaken on political, religious or commercial events. From a corporate perspective, event evaluation appears to have been the most common form of special events research undertaken. In most cases, an economic perspective has been employed, however, evaluating events from the social, cultural and environmental perspectives, it is thought, will become to be a burgeoning area of special events research in the near future. Just as the 'Triple Bottom Line' evaluative approach has filtered into other industries, it is expected that it will filter into special events research also. As a consequence, it is likely that there will be an increase in research that evaluates special events from attendees' perspectives. Table 3 suggests areas of special event research, which appear to be under-researched compared to other areas of special events research.

Table 3 Contemporary gaps in special event research

Perspective	**Event stage**		
	Pre-event	**During-event**	**Post-event**
Organisational stakeholders	Planning Human resource management	Risk management Quality management	Social evaluation Cultural evaluation Environmental evaluation
Attendee	Value profiling Choice modelling	Risk management Quality Perceptions	Evaluation Recommending behaviour Repeat visitation
Host community	Attitudes	Risk management	Social evaluation Cultural evaluation Environmental evaluation

Methodological	Comparative Longitudinal

In Table 3, the pre, during and post-event stages have been separated, as it is considered that each stage requires a different research focus to advance the understanding of special events. Table 3 highlights that there is, for example, a need to research special events from the organisational/stakeholder's perspective in the pre-event stage. In an increasingly competitive market, there is also the need to identify what special event attributes influence consumers to attend special events. This could be achieved, for example, with the use of a number of research methodologies including choice modelling or means-end analysis. Table 3 highlights that the during-event stage is under-researched in a number of areas, particularly in relation to risk management, and from all perspectives. From the attendee's perspective, it is important to investigate the outcomes of their attendance at special events, such as their satisfaction with the special event, although this will most likely be addressed if, as expected, a more holistic approach is taken when evaluating special events

In summary, special events research during 1990-2001 has paved the way for future research in this area of tourism research. There is now a body of literature upon which contemporary researchers are able to capitalise upon. It appears, however, that a more strategic approach should be taken to future special events research to ensure that the research being undertaken is industry driven and adds value to the industry and its stakeholders.

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The Motivations of Sport Spectators Who Attend Drag Racing

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Abstract

Sport is a major component of life in contemporary society. Despite the prominence of sport in people's lives, social scientists have paid little attention to studying sport fans and spectators (Melnick, 1989). Recently, sport researchers have come to the realisation that the relationship between spectators and their sport is a very complex one and cannot be slotted into a one-dimensional typology (Stewart & Nicholson, 2001). Wann et al (2001) investigated some of the common motives for spectators to attend sporting events. He grouped them into eight different categories. These included group affiliation, family, aesthetic, self-esteem, economic, eustress, escape and entertainment.

This paper will investigate the main motivations for sport spectators and fans that attended a drag racing event. Drag racing began with the "hot rod" culture of the 1950's and was immortalised by James Dean in the movie, 'Rebel without a Cause'. Drag Racing in Australia has mirrored its US origins. It can be an expensive 'hobby' as equipment is imported into Australia from the USA. One of the main national

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events that is held is called the Konica Winternationals and is held at the Willowbank Raceway, approximately 45 minutes drive west of Brisbane, in Queensland in June, 2001.

Methods: The study was conducted over the weekend of June 9 and 10, 2001. The sample consisted of 472 participants over the age of 14 years. Of these, 338 were male (72%) and 134 were female (28%). Respondents were asked to respond to 14 closed questions that were adapted from a questionnaire originally designed for the Centenary of Federation Events. A Likert Scale ranging from 5 (strongly agree), to 1 (strongly disagree) with 3 (uncertain) was used to elicit answers.

Results: Factor analysis was conducted to identify the major dimensions of motivation for attending motor racing events. Four factors emerged in the analysis of motivation that accounted for 56.96% of the variance. The motivation dimensions were named entertainment aspects (18.4% of instances cited after rotation), arousal (15.1%), social (12.5%) and distraction from stress (11.0%). One-way ANOVA was conducted on the data using these factors as dependent variables to investigate differences in motivation. Post hoc analysis (Tukey HSD) was also conducted to ascertain whether significant difference existed between the demographic variables related to the four factors.

Discussion of Results: Spectators who attended more than six times per year had the highest entertainment score. These types of spectators keep coming back because they enjoy this unique and enjoyable experience and want to keep partying with friends that they have made over the years and who are also interested in drag racing.

Arousal motives for those aged over 55 years was significantly lower when compared to other age groupings of spectators. Is this because the older spectator has done it all and doesn’t get excited anymore? For the social factor, those who attended more than six times per year were more highly motivated by the social factor. Again people who are regular attendees may have a regular group to go with, or to meet at the races with whom they want to interact, who also love drag racing. Those who were older and earned more income were more highly distracted from stress than other groups.

Introduction

Sport is a major component of life in Australia, and is ‘big business’ in the media. For many, sporting news in the back pages of the newspapers is often read before the front-page news headlines of the day. Pay television channels are specifically devoted to sport and run 24 hours a day. In daily conversations, a range of people from different backgrounds debate how their favourite team will ‘go’ on the weekend. Attending sporting events is also very popular in Australia. During the 12 months ending in April 1999, seven million persons, or 47.1% of the Australian population aged 15 years and over, attended sporting matches or competitions (and this figure excludes junior and school sport). In addition, one million more males than females attended sport at some time during the 12 months prior to April 1999 (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1999).

Despite the importance of sport in people’s lives, social scientists have paid scant attention to studying sporting fans and spectators (Melnick, 1989). It wasn’t until the 1990’s that several research studies specifically focusing on spectators began to appear in sporting journals. This was also the first time that academics began to debate the differences between a sporting fan and a spectator. Wann et al (2001) stated that these terms are often used interchangeably, however he acknowledged that there was a difference and both terms should not be confused. Sport fans are “…individuals who are interested in and follow a sport, team, and/or athlete” (p. 2). A sport spectator on the other hand, “…are those individuals who actively witness a sporting event in person or through some form of media (radio, television, etc.)” (p. 2). Thus, the major difference between the two terms is that a sport fan rarely witnesses sporting events in person, while some sport spectators have little interest in identifying with a favourite sporting team or player.

Sport spectators are now regarded as an important social phenomenon (Slepicka, 1995). Recently, studies have shown that sporting fans do not represent one large homogeneous group, and that people attend sporting events for a number of different motivations. They may attend for the emotional experience, or the excitement and suspense of the contest. Sport may also provide the spectator with the opportunity to get away from everyday life, and its troubles and difficulties. As a result, sport researchers have recently concluded that the relationship between spectators and their sport is a very complex one and should not be slotted into a one-dimensional typology (Stewart & Nicholson, 2001)

The Motivations of Sport Spectators

Sport spectators generally differ in regard to their interest, intensity and knowledge of a particular sport that they attend. Many are passionate about sport and the team that they follow, almost bordering on the addictive. Others are casual attendees, with their attendance and interest often dependent on such factors as the venue, the price and/or the weather. They have different motivations ranging from the excitement, stimulation and entertainment, to national pride, cultural celebration, a sense of community, or personal identity (Stewart & Nicholson, 2001).

Several academics have attempted to explain, from a global perspective, why spectators attend sporting events. Jones (2000) was interested in the concept of social identity to describe the motivations behind why some fans are passionate about a particular sport or team. Jones suggested that identification with a sport is important for the fan as it produces a sense of camaraderie and personal identity. He concluded that loyalty and a sense of identity were the essential characteristics of sport fandom. Hughson (1999) categorised two main types of sport fans. The ‘expressive fan’ is continually searching for adventure, excitement and thrills, and is mainly young men who use the sport experience to assert their collective masculinity. The second type is the ‘submissive fan’ who is also strongly committed, but they identify with the sport in a more orderly way. These fans identify more with the sport than the social grouping that they belong to.

Wann et al (2001) investigated the common motives for spectators to attend sporting events. He grouped them into eight different categories that included group affiliation, family, aesthetic, self-esteem, economic, eustress, escape and entertainment. Each of these motives will be discussed in turn indicating the key studies that support their findings about why sport spectators are attracted to attend different types of sporting events.

Group Affiliation: In most sporting events, spectating is a social activity (Danielson, 1997). They are motivated by the group affiliation motive and spending time with other people (Ganz & Wenner, 1995; Melnick, 1993). Sport spectators are motivated by the human need for social interaction that provides a sense of belongingness.

Family: This is similar to the group affiliation motive. Attending a sporting event provides an opportunity to spend time with family members (Evaggelinou & Grekinis, 1998). As might be expected, this motive is stronger for the sport fan who is married with children (Wann et al, 1998).

Aesthetic: This involves the enjoyment of the event because of the artistic beauty and grace of the particular sport (Rinehart, 1996; Hemphill, 1995). This is more common for the artistic and stylistic sports of figure skating, diving and gymnastics where spectators are able to enjoy the beauty and artistic expression of the performers.

Self-Esteem: This motive provides an opportunity for sport fans to feel better about themselves and to build up positive feelings about their self concept (Pan et al, 1997: Weiller & Higgs, 1997). It is quite common for fans to bask in the team's achievements and successes and at the same time boost their own self-esteem.

Economic: For some people it is the potential economic gain through gambling that attracts them to a sporting event (Eastman & Land, 1997; Frey, 1992). However, research has shown that many spectators who are motivated by economic motives do not have particularly high levels of team identification, and participate primarily for the monetary rewards that accrue from 'having a bet'.

Eustress/Arousal*:* This motive is to gain stimulation and excitement, and/or to avoid boredom, and is related to eustress, or the positive form of arousal (Gantz & Werner, 1995; Sloan, 1989).

Escape: This motive provides a distraction from stress, so that people can temporarily forget their problems at work or daily hassles that occur (Wann et al, 2001; Krohn et al, 1998).

Entertainment: This relates to the enjoyable and entertaining aspects of watching your favourite sport especially when your team succeeds and least favourite team fails (Smith et al. 1996; Krohn et al, 1998).

This study investigated the main motives behind why people attend drag racing. Drag racing is a relatively new and expensive sport for competitors to participate in, with the first drag race event being held Australia in 1964. Why are spectators attracted to this type of activity? Do people go to meet other people; are some excited by the competition; do they just want to people watch; do they want a day off from work to have fun and enjoyment with their family, or to provide a diversion from the troubles and daily hassles of their work? These questions will be answered through this study's main findings.

History of Drag Racing

Drag racing began with the 'hot rod' culture of the 1950's that became significant in the lives of some young men growing up in post-war America. Drag racing, or 'hot rodding' as it was known in the early 1950's, was immortalised by the actor James Dean in the movie, 'Rebel without a Cause' in 1956 (Rendon, 2001). This soon became a cult movie that explored for the first time the 'cool' world of the wealthy male teenager that was characterised by drive-in movies, noise, 'jalopies', and 'dragging the strip' (Moorhouse, 1986). Life Magazine in November, 1949 (In Moorhouse, 1986, p. 82) explained that 'hot rodding' was where, "…hundreds of youngsters spend their time in suicidal games on wheels".

Hot Rod Magazine was soon established as the voice for respectable ‘hot rodding’, aiming to promote amateur timing events with spontaneous gatherings of enthusiasts as an acceptable substitute to street racing. “The real hot rodders meet on weekends at the hard-packed sandy stretches in the dry lake beds of El Mirage, 106 miles northeast of Los Angeles. There, under careful race conditions, hot rod clubs…skim over the sand at speeds of 100 to 180 mph” (Moorhouse, 1986, p. 83).

This provided closer control and regulation and was the foundation of drag racing as a new and commercialised sport. An article in *Hot Rod* in 1950 reinforced this new trend stating that, “Drag racing is rapidly becoming an organised endeavour which is providing ‘off the highway’ activity for hot rod enthusiasts and may prove to be an answer to illegal street racing” (Moorhouse, 1986, p. 91).

In the 1970’s drag racing became an enormous success with over 400 strips across the USA. However it wasn’t long before the faster dragsters generated too much power for the small makeshift drag strips resulting in a large number of accidents. As a result, many of the small ones closed down and were replaced by larger and better-equipped ones with guardrails and more space for deceleration. In the 1980’s and 1990’s television and sponsors commercialised drag racing. There is now a vast array of ‘funny cars’ that have been built, ranging from twin engined cars, three-wheelers, cars with engines mounted sideways, to dragsters powered by jet aircraft engines (Wilkes, 1995). Like many other sports, drag racing has its own jargon to describe what goes on. There are ‘dial-your-owns’ to decide; ‘heads-up’ racing with ‘super sedan’; ‘super street’; ‘pro stock’; ‘top fuel’; ‘supercharged outlaws’; ‘top door slammers'; 'top alcohol'; 'top fuel', 'nitro funny'; 'jets'; all of which are very meaningful terms to those involved in this sport.

Drag racing is now a very popular sport in the US and has topped the list for television sports for high-school educated young males aged between 18 and 24 years (Schlosberg, 1987). The sport is still dominated by males, both as participants and spectators. In 1999 it was estimated by the CEO of Los Angeles County Raceway that 80% of the spectators were comprised of teens and early twenty-somethings (Shipnuck, 1999). This perhaps was a reflection of the target market for this particular drag strip as other outlets record much broader age groupings.

Drag Racing in Australia

Drag Racing in Australia mirrored its US origins and for those involved at the top end of drag racing, it is an expensive 'hobby' as equipment is imported into Australia from the United States of America. With the current level of the Australian dollar around A$0.53c to the US dollar, this can mean some considerable expense. Without sponsorship, or access to a large bank balance, it is doubtful whether Australian drivers could afford to compete full time on the circuit, especially as there appears to be very few local or Interstate meets. The sport's governing body is the Australian National Drag Racing Association who allocates events based on the Australian drag racing calendar. One of the main national events is held over the three days of the Queen's Birthday holiday weekend in June of each year and is staged at Willowbank Raceway, approximately 45 minutes drive west of Brisbane, Queensland.

Willowbank Raceway held its first drag race on Saturday September 28, 1985. It was developed from the desire of its foundation members to have their own purpose-built track. For the previous 21 years, drag racing in South Queensland was stationed at the Surfers Paradise International Raceway that was primarily used as a motor racing facility with an airstrip and did not really suit the nuances of drag racing.

Willowbank offers ten family oriented drag racing events throughout the year, as well as street-type events that enable the enthusiast to participate in their vehicle under safe and controlled conditions. These street-type events frequently provide participants with their first chance to experience drag racing as an official sport with rules and accepted procedures.

The Research Study

A strategic marketing survey was developed by the researchers based on the needs of the Management Committee of the Willowbank Raceway. A team of 10 student interviewers were selected to conduct the interviews at the Winternational Drag Racing Championship that was held at Willowbank over the weekend of June 9 and 10, 2001. The interview team attended a training day before the event to help prepare them for the interviewing process. The training concentrated on gaining familiarity with the interview schedule, how to approach potential respondents, the importance of working in pairs, as well as arranging work and rest times and methods of payment. The interviewers wore official T-shirts and name badges to signify that they were official staff approved by the Willowbank Raceway. During the two days of the event, interviewers worked in pairs, approaching spectators and families, asking them whether they would answer a few questions about the event. Therefore, the study design used a convenience sample methodology, as it was the most appropriate way to collect a large sample size over the two days. The interview took approximately 15 minutes to complete and on conclusion, spectators were thanked for their involvement in the study.

Questionnaire

Respondents were asked a series of questions that included:

- How often per year did they attend drag racing at Willowbank Raceway?
- How many days of this event were they attending the event?
- Did they travel to the Brisbane/Ipswich region specifically for the event?
- If yes, how long were they staying in the area? Respondents were also asked their age grouping, gender, and income category.

Respondents were also asked “Why did you come to the event?” that listed 14 closed question responses that were adapted from a questionnaire originally designed for the Centenary of Federation Events. These responses included the following:

1. To interact with others
2. To meet new and different people
3. Because this event is unique
4. I enjoy a celebratory crowd
5. To escape
6. To people watch
7. To relieve built up stress
8. To participate and get involved
9. To experience something different

10. So I could party with friends
11. To have fun
12. It makes me feel happy
13. Speed and crashes
14. The excitement and colour

Each of the respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement to these 14 closed responses using a likert scale ranging from 1-strongly disagree, 2 - disagree, 3 - uncertain, 4 -agree, 5 - strongly agree.

Demographics of the Sample

The sample consisted of 472 participants over the age of fourteen years. Of these, 338 were male (72%) and 134 were female (28%). The largest number of spectators in the sample were aged between 25 to 39 (39%), followed by 40 to 54 year olds (31.7%), 18 to 24 year olds represented by 22% of the total spectators, with the over 55 year olds being the smallest age group of this sample (1.6%). In regard to annual income level, 27.9% of respondents earned between $30,000 and $39,000 while 22.4% earned between $20,000 and $29,000. Of those respondents earning $30,000 to $39,000 per annum, 52.7% were aged between 25 and 39 years of age, and 28.2% were aged 40 to 54 years of age.

Almost a third of the sample were regulars (31.1%), having attended drag racing at Willowbank Raceway more than six times during the year. The next highest category was 22% who attended only once a year (See Figure 1). Two-fifths (40%) of the people who attended the Winternationals stayed in the area for three days compared with 38% who only stayed for a single day (See Figure 2). A large percentage (59%)

of people travelled to the Brisbane/Ipswich area specifically for the Willowbank event, while only 6% indicated that they had other reasons than just the event for visiting the area (See Figure 3). Nearly four-fifths of the respondents who said they travelled to the area were staying for less than five days. Forty percent were staying for one or two days, while 37% were staying for three or four days. Those who were staying for a week or more were only 14% of the respondents (See Figure 4).

Figure 1 Frequency of Attendance at the Willowbank Raceway for Drag Racing

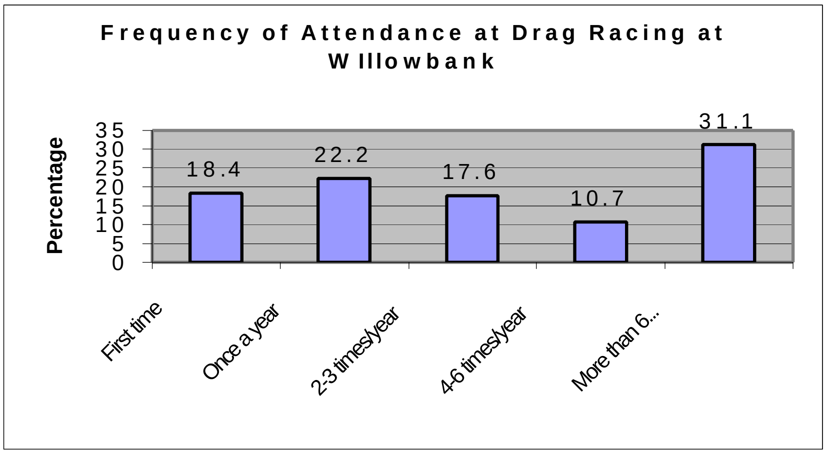


Figure 2 Numbers of People Attending the Willowbank Drag Racing Event, June, 2001

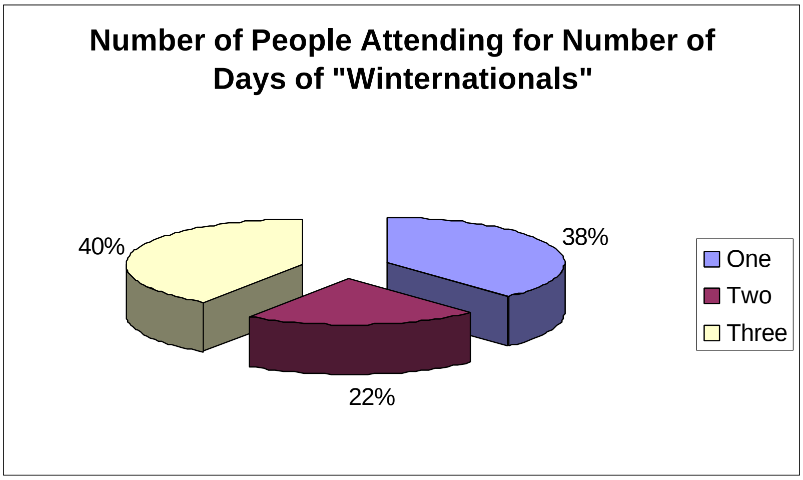


Figure 3 Travel to the Brisbane/Ipswich Region for the Willowbank Drag Racing Event, June, 2001

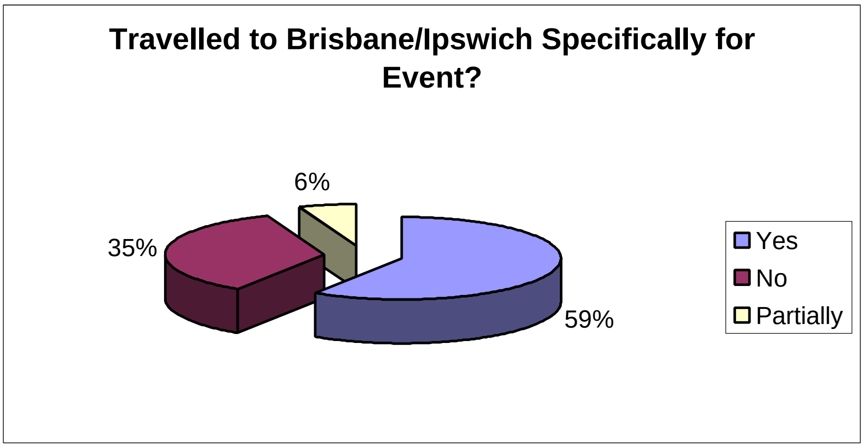
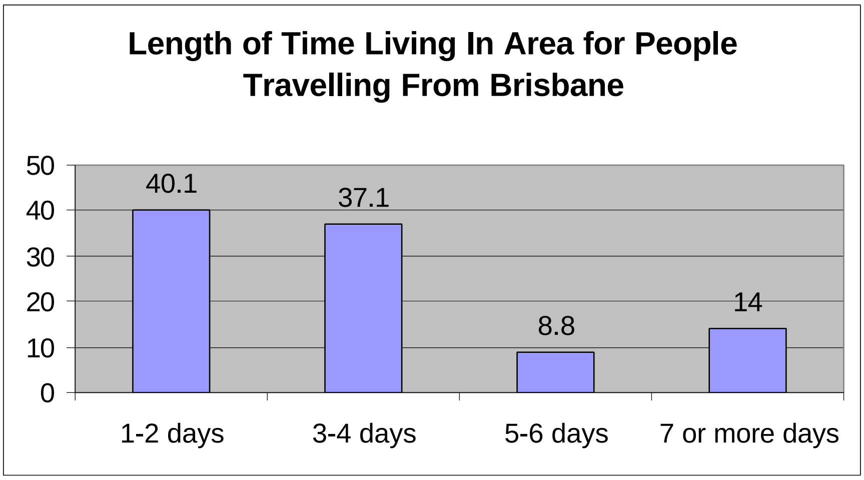


Figure 4 Length of Time Staying in the Ipswich Area who Attended the Willowbank Drag Racing Event, June, 2001



Results

A Factor analysis was conducted to identify the major dimensions of motivation for attending motor racing events. Four factors emerged that accounted for 56.96% of the variance. A varimax rotation was used to maximise the loadings of variables on factors. These factors were named ***entertainment*** aspects (18.4% of instances cited after rotation), ***arousal*** (15.1%), ***social*** (12.5%) and ***distraction from stress*** (11.0%) (See Table 1). There was one item that did not load highly on any factor, (> 0.5) which was termed the ***uniqueness of the event***, and which was included in further analysis as a single item. The alpha reliability for the 14-item motives for attendance scale was also calculated as 0.78, which is regarded as high.

Table 1 Motivational Factors of Spectators who Attended the Willowbank Drag Racing Event, June, 2001

Factors	Variables	Loading
Entertainment	Party with friends	0.716
	Participate and get involved	0.715
	Enjoy a celebratory crowd	0.686
	Relieve built up stress	0.558
	Experience something different	0.512
Arousal	Excitement and colour	0.761
	Makes me feel happy	0.674
	Have fun	0.663
	Speed and crashes	0.553
Social	Interact with others	0.897
	Meet new and different people	0.852
Distraction from Stress	Escape	0.741
	People watch	0.731
Single-item variable retained in study:		
Uniqueness of Event	Event is unique	

A mean score for each motivation factor was then calculated by averaging the ratings for items that loaded on those factors. A one-way ANOVA was conducted on the data using these factors as dependent variables to investigate differences in motivation. The following independent variables were found to have significant differences with the entertainment factor: income (F(6,462) = 2.89, p = 0.009); yearly attendance (F(4, 471) = 10.17, p < 0.001); days in attendance (F(2, 467) = 15.98, p < 0.001); and whether the person had travelled to attend the event (F(2, 465) = 4.92, p = 0.008).

Post hoc analysis (Tukey’s HSD) revealed a significant difference existed between those who earned over $60,000 and those who earned beteen $40,000 and 49,000 (p=0.015). Spectators who earned between $40,000 and 49,000 tended to be more highly motivated by the entertainment motive than those who earned $60,000 or more. Yearly attendance at Willowbank showed a significant difference between those who attended for six or more years and first time attendees (p < 0.001), those who attended once per year (p < 0.001), those who attended two or three times per year (p < 0.001), or those who attended four to six times per year (p = 0.069). Spectators who had attended more than six times per year had the highest ***entertainment*** motive score.

There were significant differences between those who spent three days at the event and those that only attended for one day (p < 0.001), or two days (p = 0.026). The more days a spectator spent at the event the greater was their ***entertainment*** score. Whether a person had travelled to Brisbane/Ipswich for the entertainment aspect or not was also a source of difference in the mean scores for the entertainment factor (p

= 0.007), with those who had not travelled to the event from outside the area having the higher score for the entertainment motive.

For the ***arousal*** motive, there was a significant difference in mean scores between age categories (F(4,472) = 3.0, p = 0.017). Post hoc analysis found that the mean for the age category of 55 years and older was significantly different from the 14 to17 year old age group (p = 0.011), 18 to 24 year old age group (p = 0.014), 25 to 39 year old age group (p = 0.009) and 40 to 54 year old age group (p = 0.027). The arousal motive for those aged over 55 years was significantly lower than for the other age groups.

The ***social*** motive score also differed significantly based on yearly attendance (F(4,471) = 4.7, p = 0.001) and also by the number of days spectators attended the event (F(2,467) = 16.8, p < 0.001). Post hoc analysis indicated that a significant difference existed for the social dimension between those who attended more than six times per year and those who attended only once per year (p = 0.001) or two to three times per year (p = 0.015). Those who attended more than six times per year were more highly motivated by the social motive. For the number of days in attendance there was a difference between those who attended for three days (the maximum possible) and one day (p < 0.001) and two days (p =0.008), with the score for social motivation increasing the more days spent at the event. This supports that fact that people who spend more time at this event are more socially motivated than those who attend less frequently.

The overall score for ***distraction from stress*** was found to differ for age (F(4,472) = 2.5, p = 0.042) and also income (F(6,462) = 2.4, p = 0.028). Post hoc analysis found that the mean for the income category of \$40,000 to \$49,000 differed significantly from the \$30,000 to \$39,000 category (p = 0.029). Those who earned \$40,000 to \$49,000 scored more highly for the distraction from stress motive. One half (50.7%) of spectators who earned between \$40,000 and \$49,000 were aged 40-54 years, whereas about half (52.7%) of those who earned between \$30,000 and \$39,000 were aged 25 to 39 years. Post hoc analysis failed to find significant differences between age categories, although the difference between 40 and 54 years and 25 to 39 years (p = 0.096) was greater than for any other age category.

Discussion of Results

The Winternational Event at Willowbank Raceway mainly attracts younger males between the ages of 25 and 39 years, who earn between \$20,000 and \$39,000 per year. Only 28% of those that attended were female. The total number of days that people attended the event was fairly evenly divided between three days (40%) and one day (38%). A large number of people (59%) travelled to Ipswich from outside the region to attend the Winternationals, and stayed for either one to two days (40.1%), or three to four days (37.1%). This suggests that this event is important as a tourist attraction for the City of Ipswich and may have an economic spin-off for the region.

The main reasons spectators gave for attending the event fell into four main categories. Firstly, the most important was the entertainment aspect of the event itself (to participate; party; experience something different; celebratory crowd). The next most popular reason was the emotional or arousal aspect (excitement, happy, fun, speed and crashes) while the third was the social motive, where spectators expressed the need to be with other people (to interact, meet new people). The fourth reason related to distancing themselves from their present lives (to escape, people watch, or to relieve stress).

Spectators who had attended events at Willowbank Raceway more than six times per year recorded the highest entertainment score. These types of spectators keep coming back because they enjoyed the unique and enjoyable experience and wanted to enjoy the experience of partying with friends that they have made over the years and who are also had similar interests, particularly the love for drag racing. This supports the findings of Smith et al (1996) and Krohn et al (1998), who found that sporting spectators were attracted to the enjoyable and entertaining aspects of watching their favourite sport.

Arousal motives were the next highest reason for attending drag racing. Arousal was significantly lower for those aged 55 years and over, when compared to other age groupings of spectators. Arousal relates to the level of stimulation and excitement the person receives from watching the events (Gantz & Werner, 1995; Sloan, 1989). In regard to this, Zuckerman (2000) concluded that young males in their adolescent years are the greatest risk takers as they are at their peak level for the sensation-seeking motive and the sex hormone testosterone. However, older spectators were found to have lower levels of arousal than younger age groups. Is this because older spectators have ‘done it all’ and no longer become overly excited, or as Zuckerman (2000, p. 84) has stated, as a man ages his level of testosterone drops and as a result his aggressive and anti-social tendencies begin to mellow. Zuckerman (2000) also found that the sensation seeking scores of men aged 50 to 59 were half those of 16 to19 year old males.

For the social factor, this study found that those who attended drag racing more than six times per year were more highly motivated by the social factor than other motivations. This suggests that people in this group have a regular group of friends or family to go with, or to meet people at the races, and to freely interact with them. In addition, the score for the social motive increased with the more days that they spent at the event. This supports the finding that people who spend more time at an event have a higher need for social activities then for those who attend less frequently. Previous studies have supported the importance of sport spectating as a social activity (Melnick, 1993; Danielson, 1997). Sporting competition brings out the need for social interaction and a sense of belonging that is important for followers of drag racing, and this may be because of its highly technical nature and specialised language.

Spectators who were older and earned higher incomes were also attracted to watching drag racing because they indicated that this helped to distract them from stress, more than any other groups of spectators. This suggests that the excitement generated by drag racing provides a temporary diversion from life issues and to help forget problems related to work or personal matters if only on a temporary basis, as suggested by Wann et al (2001) and Krohn et al (1998).

Conclusion

This study supports previous research that showed that drag racing mainly attracts younger males who earn low to moderate incomes. However, the largest group at this event were older than previous studies with almost 40% being 25 to 39 years old. Only 28% of those who attended were female. For future events, the organising committee should consider attracting greater numbers of female spectators by perhaps inviting more women drivers to compete, or by programming specific races involving only women drivers.

A large number of people (59%) travelled to Ipswich from outside the region to attend this event, staying for either one to two days (40.1%), or three to four days (37.1%). This suggests that this event is important as a tourist attraction for the City of Ipswich and may have economic spin-offs for the region. Large sporting events such as the Winternationals are crucial for the survival and/or resurgence of regional areas such as Ipswich, and should be encouraged and supported by the local community. Thus, the relationship between sport and tourism is symbiotic and inextricably linked (Standeven & De Knop, 1999).

This study also reinforced previous research that recently concluded that there are specific motives behind why spectators attend different types of sporting events that are generally quite complex, and often specific to the type of event. The main reasons why people attended drag racing meetings were because of four main motivations: first, the entertainment value in regard to experiencing something different; second, the arousal motive that related to the excitement, fun and happiness generated by the atmosphere. Thirdly, the social aspect of meeting and interacting with other people of similar interests, and finally it helped to provide a release from the stress of work and everyday life and to people watch. These reasons need to be seriously considered by the organising committee when marketing future events of this nature.

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An 'Integrated Comparative Framework' for Data Collection for Festivals in Small Regional Areas: A Case Study of Echuca-Moama

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Abstract

Tourism managers in small regional areas often face difficulties through a lack of reliable data regarding tourists to their area. National collections, such as those conducted by the Bureau of Tourism Research in Australia, are typically collected on the basis of large regions. Unfortunately these regions may be too large for the data to be of value for managers in small areas.

We discussed this problem in a paper at the 2002 CAUTHE Conference (Frost and Foster, 2002). In this paper we extend that discussion to the problems of organising and evaluating festivals and events in small regional areas. As is often argued in the literature, events and festivals are an attractive means for small areas to increase visitor numbers, lengthen stays and build a tourists profile. However, in planning such events, there is a strong need for reliable data, before, during and after the event. The most

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effective means of obtaining such data is through an Integrated Comparative Framework. Festival surveys should be designed after comparison with other collections and as part of an ongoing regional collection.

This paper presents a case study of a survey conducted during the Riverboats, Jazz, Food and Wine Festival at Echuca-Moama. By being a segment of an ongoing collection for the region, valuable data was collected which points to positive benefits for some tourism businesses, but negative effects for others.

Introduction

In recent years festivals and events have become a major part of tourism in many small regional areas. Local councils, tourism associations and interested individuals have combined to develop and promote festivals and events for a wide range of reasons. These include: to raise the profile of the area as a tourism destination, to increase tourism yield through increased numbers and longer stays, to diversify the tourist appeal of the region, to build local pride and community spirit and even simply to keep up with nearby competing areas (Tourism Victoria, 1997: 80-2).

In planning and conducting festivals and events, local organisers run into a major problem inherent in the nature of tourism in small regional areas. This is a lack of reliable and useful visitor data on which to base their decision-making.

In Australia visitor data are collected nationally through the International Visitor Survey and the National Visitor Survey conducted by the Bureau of Tourism Research (BTR). The results for these surveys are available for 84 regions. However, these data are only statistically reliable for large areas which attract large numbers of tourists and therefore large numbers of respondents in the surveys (Hunt and Prosser, 1998; Bureau of Tourism Research, 2001). This causes a problem for tourism operators and planners in small regional areas, as they often find that the data they wish to use is only available for large areas. As these larger regions may contain a variety of quite different small regions with differing tourism attributes and markets, these data may be of very limited use (this problem is discussed in more detail in Frost and Foster, 2002). A further difficulty is that the standard questions in the BTR surveys may not fit the needs or characteristics of particular small regional areas.

Festival and event organisers in small regional areas attempt to solve these problems by conducting their own research. Such small surveys have become a common feature of most festivals and events. However, there are four problems with this common approach. First, organisers in small areas are typically short of resources, they have limited funds to pay for research and often rely on volunteers or use small local market research consultants. This may affect the quality of the methodology and the results. Second, due to limited resources data collection is often confined to just the festival or event itself. Such surveys are essentially concerned only with evaluating the event - Who came? Were they satisfied or not? Preliminary research as part of the planning process is usually ignored. Third, such surveys may be specifically designed only for that event or festival. Organisers may be inefficiently ‘reinventing the wheel’. Fourth, survey development often takes place in isolation from existing data collections, including both broader scale surveys (such as the International and National Visitor Surveys) and small surveys run for similar events and festivals in other small regional areas. Without such knowledge of other surveys, organisers may miss out on valuable information and neglect to ask important questions in their survey.

A Shifting Paradigm: A Review Of Recent Literature

The running of festival surveys is commonplace and the results of such surveys feature heavily in the literature of festivals. Many surveys are designed to assess economic impacts, especially in order to satisfy funding bodies (for examples of such research see the special issue on economic impacts of *Festival management and event tourism*, 1994). A recent survey of the content of festival research papers has shown that economic and financial impacts are the most popular topic (Formica, 1998, 135).

Indeed it has been argued that this focus on economic impacts has meant that little attention has been paid to other festival outcomes (Gitelson et al, 1995, 9).

Other factors which festival surveys have been used to investigate include: the characteristics of visitors, including demographics, socio-economics and motivations (see for example Uysal et al, 1993; Formica and Uysal, 1996 and Krausse, 1998); attendance numbers (Denton and Furse, 1993; Brothers and Brantley, 1993) and the educational or interpretative impact (Gitelson et al, 1995).

In recent years there has been a shift in the focus of festival survey research. Founded in growing dissatisfaction, particularly amongst government funding bodies, with ad hoc fragmented research; the shift had been towards developing research frameworks and standardised approaches. Mainly emphasising economic impacts, these new instruments will enable funding bodies to enforce accountability and provide more reliable and credible survey results (Dwyer et al, 2000; Carlsen et al, 2000; Jackson et al, 2002).

An Integrated Comparative Framework For Data Collection

Standardised instruments (generally imposed by funding agencies) are likely to improve the quality and reliability of festival surveys. However, they still may be limited if they do not allow for comparison with data collected during non-festival periods.

For effective comparisons there is a need to develop statistical collections within what we term an **Integrated Comparative Framework**. This is a twofold strategy. First, organisers need to be aware of other statistical collections and how other organisers have approached similar issues. Organisers need to collect relevant examples, talk to others about their collection methodology and questions and think about the applicability of these other models to their situation. It may be that this development is initiated by local organisers or by a centralised funding agency. If the latter, this would lead to a standardised methodology, though care must be taken to ensure that some local flexibility is allowed.

Second, data collection from visitors to festivals and events should take place as an integrated part of an ongoing survey of visitors to the area. There are significant efficiencies in adapting an existing system rather than attempting to completely design new surveys in an ad hoc manner. While this is an ideal situation, it is recognised that this entails a much higher commitment of resources. However, such an ongoing survey has much broader benefits to tourism operators and planners in an area.

In order to demonstrate the advantages of such an approach, this paper presents a case study of a festival survey which was conducted at Echuca-Moama. This survey was conducted as a component of a larger ongoing visitor survey and offers valuable comparisons.

Riverboats, Jazz, Wine and Food Festival, Echuca-Moama

Echuca and Moama are two towns facing each other across the Murray River (the NSW-Victoria border), 200 kilometres north of Melbourne. Their combined population is about 12,000. They are an established tourist destination. In 1997 (the last year for which figures were collected) they attracted 309,000 hotel and motel guest nights and 668,000 caravan site nights (Australian Bureau of Statistics 1998A, Tables 7 & 11 and 1998B, Tables 7 & 10). In total they may receive nearly two million visitor nights plus a further 750,000 to one million day trips (Frost and Foster, 2002).

Much of the tourist appeal of Echuca-Moama derives from its historic paddlesteamers (or riverboats) and port area. It is an excellent Australian example of an ‘historic gem’ and ‘heritage waterfront’, where rapid obsolescence in transport technology have preserved older areas from development (Ashworth and Tunbridge 2000, 87-91 & 155-8). Other attractions include large gaming venues (built when gaming was legal in NSW, but not in Victoria), recreation (boating, water-skiing, fishing, golf, bowls) and natural features (the Barmah Forest, Kyabram Wildlife Park).

One of the main tourism events organised by Echuca-Moama is the Riverboats, Jazz Food and Wine Festival which is run in February each year. This was developed as a means of attracting tourists in what was usually a fairly low period (being between the peaks of the summer school holidays and Easter). Festival events occur at various venues in and around the port area and river, including a procession through the main street on Saturday afternoon and concerts at various venues on Friday and Saturday evening. Music and other entertainment is provided free of charge at restaurants and other attractions around the town. The highlight of the weekend is a day-long jazz concert on the banks of the Murray River on the Sunday. This is held in a fenced off area and patrons pay a fee to enter.

Visitor data collection has been a long-standing issue for Echuca-Moama. The two towns are in separate states and in separate regions for the BTR collections. The regions they are within are large and mainly agricultural. As tourism regions they lack unifying features and have problems with their brand images (Tourism Victoria 1998). To rectify these problems the Shire of Campaspe (based at Echuca) and the Echuca-Moama Tourist Association commissioned the Echuca-Moama Tourism Study (Frost and Foster, 2002). This was developed as an *en route* or *intercept* survey of visitors to Echuca-Moama, rather than a *household* survey of all potential visitors, as in the BTR collections (Hurst 1994, 453-4).

A stage of the Echuca-Moama Tourism Study was conducted during the festival. Visitors were surveyed at various locations around the town and within the festival compound on the Sunday. The aim was to obtain information from a complete range of visitors to the town, not simply those who paid to attend the concert. The survey was a two-page questionnaire with a range of questions agreed to by a project steering committee composed of the Shire of Campaspe and the Echuca-Moama Tourist Association. In line with the Integrated Comparative Framework outlined above, the questions were essentially the same as those that had been asked in surveys conducted throughout other periods of the year. The questions were also designed to ensure that the results were compatible with the data collected for the larger region through the National and International Visitor Surveys and the 1995 Tourism Victoria Regional Travel and Tourism Survey. For example, the question on age permitted aggregation that is compatible with the IVS and NVS. A question on activities undertaken while on holidays was based on one in the Victorian Regional Travel and Tourism Survey (Tourism Victoria 1996).

Results

The survey collected usable responses from 494 visitors, 65.9% of whom were there specifically for the festival. The data provided an opportunity to draw some interesting comparisons between visitors to the festival and those who visited Echuca-Moama in other periods of the year. For the purpose of this paper, a comparison is made between the festival results (those who indicated that they visited Echuca-Moama specifically for the festival) and those obtained from surveys held at other times in the year. The latter comprised 426 intercept surveys conducted on various weekends throughout the year (labelled 'Non-School Holiday Period ' in the following tables) and 544 surveys conducted during the School Holiday period (labelled 'School Holiday Period').

Figure 1 Type of Group

	Festival (%)	Non-School Holiday Period (%)	School Holiday Period (%)
Single	7.1	5.1	8.8
Couple Only	46.9	38.5	36.1
Single / Couple with children	10.4	26.1	29.6
Larger Family Group	19.0	15.0	11.4
Other Larger Group	16.6	15.3	14.0

Respondents were asked to identify the type of group which they were visiting with (Figure 1). As can be seen, those attending the festival were more likely to be there as a couple or larger family group than for visitors at other times of the year. There was a much smaller proportion of people who were attending the festival with children.

Figure 2 Length of Stay

	Festival (%)	Non-School Holiday Period (%)	School Holiday Period (%)
Day Trip	39.7	56.5	40.7
1 night	9.5	15.2	19.7
2-3 nights	46.9	20.3	28.8
4-5 nights	2.4	3.6	5.0
6-7 nights	1.6	3.0	4.2
8+ nights	-	1.0	1.6

The length of stay of respondents in the three surveys is shown in Figure 2. Of particular interest in this data set is that the festival was attracting people who stayed for the whole weekend (2-3 nights) rather than simply one night. However, the proportion staying longer was far smaller than in the other surveys.

Figure 3 Age Group

	Festival (%)	Non-School Holiday Period (%)	School Holiday Period (%)
16-19	2.9	2.0	2.1
20-24	1.9	3.8	3.0
25-29	7.6	9.0	7.8
30-34	10.0	13.9	11.5
35-39	13.7	16.5	14.5
40-44	12.3	11.8	15.0
45-49	10.4	8.7	10.5
50-54	18.0	11.0	8.6
55-59	6.6	6.6	6.4
60-64	9.5	8.4	6.0
65+	7.1	8.4	14.7

In terms of age group (Figure 3), the festival was clearly attracting a larger proportion in the 50-54 year age group than generally visit the area. As an attractor to the area, the festival was less important to the 20-34 year olds.

Figure 4 How Found Out About Echuca-Moama

	Festival (%)	Non-School Holiday Period (%)	School Holiday Period (%)
Brochure or Booklet	12.8	5.0	2.7
Jigsaw (Tourism Victoria) campaign	2.4	2.7	1.3
Friends / Relatives in Echuca	17.6	7.0	10.2
Friends / Relatives Elsewhere	15.2	9.4	15.4
TV Feature	2.4	1.3	1.8
TV Advertisement	12.0	7.3	1.1
Radio	10.4	0.3	0.4
Newspaper	11.2	2.7	2.0
Internet	-	1.9	0.9
Other	24.8	61.7	64.3

Respondents were asked to explain how they found out about either the festival or the area. The influence of relatives/friends both in Echuca and elsewhere is shown in Figure 4. More importantly, however, was the value of television, radio and newspaper advertising as sources of information for those attending the festival. This played a much less important role than amongst visitors at other times of the year. The ‘other’ category includes responses such as ‘been before’. Again there was a significant difference between those who attended the festival and those at other times.

The accommodation used by those attending the festival is particularly interesting (see Figure 5). A smaller percentage used motels or hotels than was usually the case, and far more stayed with friends and relatives.

Figure 5 Accommodation Used

	Festival (%)	Non-School Holiday Period (%)	School Holiday Period (%)
Motel/Hotel	46.1	58.2	50.1
Backpacker Hostel	-	5.0	1.8
Visiting Friends and Relatives	19.7	7.8	9.6
Camping Ground / Caravan Park	22.4	22.7	30.5
Nearby Town	6.6	-	-
Other (B&B; Cabin; etc	5.3	6.4	8.0

When asked how they chose their accommodation, a larger proportion than normal relied on friends and relatives. However, the main difference was in the ‘other’ category, which mainly includes those who have either used the accommodation before, known about it for a long time, or chose the venue randomly. The latter information could be used to encourage accommodation operators to make sure that they had appropriate signage and ‘specials’ displayed to attract those who had not pre-booked.

Figure 6 Basis for Accommodation Selection

	Festival (%)	Non-School Holiday Period (%)	School Holiday Period (%)
Brochure or Booklet	12.9	14.7	5.9
Friends / Relatives in Echuca	14.5	9.8	10.5
Friends / Relatives Elsewhere	14.5	9.8	10.8
Visitor Information Centre	4.8	7.7	8.0
Travel Agent	3.2	6.3	4.4
Accommodation Guide	1.6	11.9	16.9
Internet	-	4.2	2.8
Other	48.4	35.7	40.7

All respondents were asked to indicate whether they had engaged in a number of activities during their trip to Echuca-Moama. For each activity, the percentage who participated is shown in Figure 7. When the data is compared for those attending the festival and those who visited at other times of the year, a not unexpected pattern emerges. A much larger percentage engaged in such things as dining at a good restaurant, visiting friends and relatives, visiting a winery and visiting a craft centre or gallery. On the other hand fewer festival visitors visited a gaming venue, a park/garden or an educational centre or went on a guided tour.

Figure 7 Activities Undertaken on This Trip

	Festival (%)	Non-School Holiday Period (%)	School Holiday Period (%)
Riding a Paddle Steamer	36.0	38.6	52.4
Dining at a Good Restaurant	65.0	41.1	32.7
Visiting Friends / Relatives	27.0	14.9	17.9
Shopping (for non-necessities)	40.0	33.7	39.4
Bushwalking	3.0	5.1	22.1
Visiting a National Park	7.0	5.7	26.6
Visiting Gallery / Craft Centre	30.0	16.3	35.8
Visiting a Museum	24.0	31.1	71.7
Visiting Aboriginal Centre	3.0	3.1	6.3
Visiting Park / Garden	7.0	12.9	20.2
Visiting Wildlife Park	2.0	13.7	22.1
Going on a Guided Tour	1.0	7.4	6.2
Visiting a Winery	30.0	13.4	14.7
Visiting a Gaming Venue	11.0	18.6	16.3
Fishing	4.0	1.7	9.2
Boating or Canoeing	6.0	1.4	5.7

	Festival (%)	Non-School Holiday Period (%)	School Holiday Period (%)
Water Skiing	5.0	0.9	0.3
Playing Sport	2.0	6.3	6.2
Driving for Sightseeing	32.0	41.7	36.6
Visiting an Educational Centre	5.0	28.3	25.0

Finally, Figure 8 shows the origin of those visiting Echuca-Moama. The festival attracted a higher percentage of visitors from Melbourne and other parts of Victoria than was generally the case. This information would prove to be very valuable when a marketing strategy is being determined for future years of the festival.

Figure 8 Home Location of Respondents

	Festival (%)	Non-School Holiday Period (%)	School Holiday Period (%)
Surrounding Areas	12.0	23.4	4.6
Shepparton	4.0	9.3	8.8
Bendigo	6.0	6.5	4.6
Melbourne	33.0	25.1	26.3
Other Victoria	30.0	21.2	31.3
New South Wales (except local)	9.0	5.6	10.4
Other States	1.9	6.5	9.1
International	3.0	2.3	4.2

Analysis

How data is analysed is often not straightforward. In comparing the data for the festival with the two other periods, two quite different interpretations were developed. Their relative acceptability differs depending on the perspective of the user, for example a restaurant operator might favour one over the other. While the choice of the right interpretation is subjective, it is important to understand that both interpretations came because the data collected at the festival was within the Integrated Comparative Framework. They arose because comparisons could be made between tourists visiting at the time of the festival and tourists visiting at other times (and without the comparative data it is likely only one of these interpretations would have been developed).

The first interpretation is that the festival brought a different type of person to Echuca-Moama. There were higher levels of couples and large family groups. They were significantly older than usual (one might assume that many of the couples had older children who had either left home or could be safely left at home). They came for the weekend, there were less day-trippers than usual, but also less long stayers. They were far more influenced by television, radio and newspapers and far less inclined to say they knew about Echuca-Moama because they had been before. Friends and relatives were important in drawing them in and accommodating them. They recorded high levels of eating at restaurants, shopping, and of visiting galleries, craft centres or wineries.

In this interpretation, the festival can be seen as a great success. It attracted a different type of tourist, the temptation amongst tourism operators in Echuca-Moama was to characterise them as being from the highly desirable *socially aware* category (Tourism Victoria 1997, 119). The festival raised the incidence of overnight stays, again into a highly desirable category of *short breaks*. The activities they engaged in were upmarket and high status, another pointer of their *socially aware* status (our survey does not allow such psychographic segmentation, but these were the type of conclusions made by local tourism operators). Most importantly there are indications of higher yields from the festival visitors, an excellent injection of income into the local economy. The survey indicates high levels of dining at local restaurants, shopping, and visiting galleries, craft centres and wineries in which they presumably spent their money.

The second interpretation is that the success of the festival may have been limited because the new tourists were highly focussed in some areas and did not have an even impact across the full range of tourism operations in Echuca-Moama. The rates of usage of all the commercial forms of accommodation fell and, correspondingly the rate of staying with friends and relatives rose significantly. The use of the Visitor Information Centre to book accommodation fell. The incidence of riding a paddle steamer fell, even though this was a *Riverboats* festival. Activities such as bushwalking, visiting a museum, park or garden, a wildlife park, a gaming venue and educational centres, playing sport and engaging in guided tours all fell significantly.

The festival appears to have focussed tourists into the historic port area of Echuca. This was adjacent to the jazz concert venue. It contains a wide range of tourism operations, including restaurants, shops, galleries, craft shops and winery outlets. Further away from the port area the level of visitation seems to have fallen away sharply. Across the river in Moama, there a range of modern motels, gaming venues and golf courses, which would have been affected by lesser patronage. The wildlife park at Kyabram (50 kilometres away), the Torrumbarry Weir Visitors Centre (35 kilometres), the Golden Cow Dairy Centre at Tongala (30 kilometres) and the Barmah

State Forest – which hosts a number of tours (30 kilometres) all had significantly less percentages of visitors.

It may be that there was an *opportunity cost* factor operating amongst tourists. Having decided to visit the festival, to spend their time and money listening to jazz, drinking wine and eating at restaurants, they were disinclined to travel away from the festival core to take in other experiences. It may also be a marketing issue, that they were focussed on a certain geographical area and certain activities and were not aware of other tourist experiences on offer. If so, the challenge for the festival operators is to extend its benefits across a wider geographic area. There are clear indications of a displacement effect. Usually, displacement resulting from tourism and festivals is viewed as only affecting certain social and ethnic groups (see for example, Ashworth, 1998; Frost, 2001 and Krausse, 1998). In this case there appears to have been a business displacement.

As stated above, whether the festival was a success or not depends on one's perspective. For a restaurant operator next to the port area it would have seemed a very busy event. In contrast, for an attraction or tour operator out of town, it may have seemed to be a very quiet weekend.

Conclusion

The recent growth in the number and range of festivals has been accompanied by a consequent greater interest in surveys of festival visitors. The purposes of such surveys include: to estimate attendances, gather data on demographic and other characteristics for marketing purposes, to provide information to stakeholders and funding bodies on the conduct and impact of the festival and to assess the economic impact on the local area. As a result there has been a proliferation of small surveys of festival attendees. This trend is likely to continue, as funding agencies in particular, increasingly demand statistics to monitor and evaluate festivals.

However, to gain the greatest value from resources spent on conducting surveys and to ensure greater reliability, funding agencies have begun to explore standardised collection frameworks. In this paper we have argued that there is scope for further improvement through the adoption of an **Integrated Comparative Framework** for collecting data on festival visitors. Under such a system, festival surveys should both operate as part of an ongoing regional data collection and be comparable to collections in other regions. We urge funding agencies to consider our approach in developing standardised frameworks.

We have illustrated our concept through a case study of the Riverboats, Jazz, Food and Wine Festival at Echuca-Moama. Visitors to this festival were surveyed as part of the ongoing Echuca-Moama Tourism Study. The questions they were asked were based on, and comparable to, other major collections by the Bureau of Tourism Research and Tourism Victoria.

By being part of a larger survey, it was possible to compare the results for festival goers with two other cohorts – those who came in school holidays and those who came at other times. There were significant differences between the responses from those who came for the festival and those from the other groups. The contrast between the groups indicates the value of integrating the festival survey into the broader study.

However, the causes of the differences are open to differing interpretation. One scenario is that the festival was greatly successful in attracting a different type of tourist, one who seemingly spent more on restaurants, wine and shopping. The second scenario, while agreeing that there was a different type of tourist, more likely to visit restaurants and so on, suggests that these tourists were mainly concentrated near the festival venue and in businesses related to the festival themes. Further away from this core, other businesses were seemingly badly affected by lower than normal levels of visitation.

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The Relative Effectiveness of Special Events as a Promotional Tool: A Case Study

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Introduction

The use of special events as a promotional tool has become a feature of many corporate strategic marketing communication plans, and is particularly common among place marketers. For example, the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games were promoted by SOCOG and other stakeholders as the event that would ‘put Sydney on the map’, and return the considerable investment by the extra tourism and business that would be generated by this exposure. The former Victorian premier Jeff Kennett staked his government’s reputation on producing major sporting and cultural events in Melbourne to increase tourism and financial investment in his state, or in other words to use events to attain corporate objectives. The use of events for these purposes is also now common for companies in the automobile industry, amongst many other industries. The Nutri Grain brand’s use of the Life Saving Iron Man series of events is a well-known Australian example in the Fast Moving Consumer Goods industry. The promotional strength of events is their ability to allow organisations to carefully target a select group and for their marketing message to break through the clutter of mass promotional communication (Lloyd, 1994). This technique was obvious during

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the Sydney Olympics, when major figures on the world business scene were invited to Sydney to experience this mega-event.

For, as Kotler *et al.* (1993, p33) maintain, place image making is concerned with ‘identifying, developing and disseminating a strong positive image for a place’. Substitute brand for place, and this is the focus of this paper.

However, the increasing number of corporate promotional events has not been matched by an increase in reported empirical research into their effectiveness or to establish if events are more effective than other forms of promotion, such as television and print advertising, or other forms of public relations activity.

Therefore, the purpose of the research reported in this paper is to attempt to establish if promotional events are more effective than other forms of marketing communication, using a European car manufacturer and distributor as a case study. The event for this study is a *Track Day*, where prospective buyers of prestigious European vehicles can be entertained by test-driving their car of interest on a racetrack. Many organisations in the automobile industry hold similar events for prospects and existing customers.

Not surprisingly, this event was used as the case study because of the willingness of the company to give access to the event by the researchers.

Promotional Events Defined

Special events are, according to McDonnell, Allen & O'Toole (1999, p10) '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'. This study examines a specific type of special event, one created to achieving marketing objectives.

Corporate promotional events are marketing efforts, whereby the event helps to fulfil a marketing goal or objective. Event marketing can be defined as a process, planned by a sponsoring organisation, to integrate a variety of marketing communication elements behind an event theme. Although this definition encompasses both self-sponsored and externally sponsored events, it has been proposed by, among others, Otker (1988), and Cunningham & Taylor (1995) that more organisations are creating their own specialised events in an effort to more effectively satisfy their marketing communication objectives. Place marketing using special events is one such example.

Cunningham and Taylor (1995) argue that there are some instances where events may be more effective than other promotional tools. For example, a promotional event can increase long-term positive attitudes towards a brand or a place. However, they suggest that other promotional methods can achieve different marketing objectives, such as increasing short-term sales.

Promotion involves the communication of the value of a product or service to a particular target market. Kotler (2000, p578) lists the different promotional methods as advertising, sales promotion, public relations, personal selling, and direct marketing and then defines advertising as ‘any paid form of non-personal presentation and promotion of ideas, goods, or services by an identified sponsor’. Therefore, advertising, the most common form of promotion, is the opposite of promotional events, as it is a form of personal selling.

The Measure of Effectiveness

Effectiveness, as described by Getz is essentially a ‘measure of goal attainment’ (1997, p.332), or in other words, achieving the objectives set for the event. Cunningham and Taylor (1995, p.133) confirm this by stating that ‘effectiveness should be defined as, and ultimately measured by, determining the degree to which objectives are met’. Therefore, in order to establish whether a promotional event is effective, the outcomes of the event must be analysed in terms of its set objective(s).

While for various reasons many organisations are reluctant to set measurable objectives for their promotional events, it is evident that without setting realistic objectives, it is not possible to measure a level of effectiveness. This would also apply to those who use special events to promote a place!

Events as a Promotional Tool

There are a number of recurring themes within the literature of promotional events. Sponsorship of events to satisfy corporate promotional goals is a popular area of research, in particular, the sponsorship of sporting events (Stotlar 1993; Thwaites & Carruthers 1998). Crompton (1993; 1994) among others has examined the benefits sought by corporate organisations from a sponsorship agreement, in order to help event organisers to solicit sponsorship more effectively. These benefits include increased brand awareness and product trial opportunities.

There appears to be little in the way of research or reports from the Australian automobile industry, as most published information originates from Europe or the USA. For example, Guyer (2001) describes new promotional initiatives employed by Suzuki in the USA, while Curtis (1996) examines the events held by Vauxhall in the UK. However, all these reports lack empirical data on effectiveness of events within the automobile industry. There is little evidence to demonstrate the positive effects of events claimed by some authors - for example, that events help to forge personal bonds with consumers as Cunningham & Taylor (1995) assert. A reasonable explanation for the lack of published research is that carmakers are reluctant to disclose this information, to avoid advantaging a competitor.

Using promotional events to communicate with potential customers is increasing in the automobile industry (Smith 1997; Darby 1998; Halliday 1999). Subaru in the USA, for example, spends US$2.3 million on events each year; double that from five years ago (Halliday 1999). Car brands that use events as a promotional tool include BMW, Saab, Volkswagen, Land Rover, Subaru, Lotus, Daimler-Chrysler, Ford, Mitsubishi and Mazda (Curtis 1996; Green 1996b; Smith 1997; Gofton 1998; Grimm 1999; Halliday 1999).

Drive or track days appear to be a common feature of a promotional event in this industry. Land Rover in the UK, for example, holds country themed events for owners and prospects. Gofton (1998) describes an event where participants are invited to spend a day at a stately home or castle in the countryside to test-drive the Land Rover vehicles in both on and off road conditions. It includes additional country themed activities, such as archery and croquet.

It is clamed that the advantages of organising promotional events may include increased brand value and loyalty through the creation and strengthening of relationships with customers (Smith 1997; Gofton 1998). Presumably, these closer relationships will lead to further sales.

Although only a very limited amount of empirical evidence has been published to establish that events are effective, an exception is Land Rover UK who did conduct a study of their events. From a questionnaire survey of participants, Land Rover concluded that 78% of attendees were more likely to purchase a Land Rover because of attending the event (Smith 1997).

What is known is that automobile companies are spending a smaller proportion of their promotional budget on advertising (Cantwell 2001b, Cantwell, 2001d, Smith, 1997, Gannaway, 2001, Greenberg 2001b) and a greater proportion on ‘below the line’ promotions such as special events

The current move from transactional marketing to customer relationship management (CRM) may be one explanation for the decline in expenditure on advertising in the automobile industry. The following section explores the theory of CRM and its implications for the automobile industry.

Many organisations in the automobile industry use the techniques of CRM to nurture closer, ongoing relationships with customers. Honda, Daimler Chrysler, Volkswagen, Ford, Saab, and Porsche all claim to include relationship management goals in their marketing plans (Green 1999a; Kleinman 2000; Cantwell 2001a; Fitzgerald 2001; Irwin 2001a; Lombardo 2001).

One of the most valuable benefits of successful customer relationship management (CRM) is the establishment of trust between the consumer and the producer or distributor. Because an investment in a motor vehicle is normally a carefully considered decision, due to the relatively high purchase cost, a potential consumer must trust the claims made by a manufacturer. Another reason to establish trust, particularly between the manufacturer and the consumer, is the somewhat negative image held of car salespersons by the general public, if the frequently cited public opinion polls on occupations can be believed.

Many industry commentators contend (for example Green 1999a; Cantwell 2001c; Lombardo 2001) that promotional events are an ideal method for organisations in the automobile industry to achieve CRM objectives. Although there is little empirical evidence published in the academic or professional literature that prove the effectiveness of events, there are a number of explanations as to why events are viewed as a superior CRM tool.

One is that they serve a dual function by communicating with existing customers, as well as new prospects. As it is the aim of CRM to create as well as maintain relationships with customers, events may serve a dual purpose, whereas other promotional methods may concentrate more on acquiring customers, rather than maintaining their satisfaction or reinforcing their decision to purchase (Christopher, Payne & Ballantyne 1991).

Another is that events involve direct interpersonal communication between the event sponsor, usually the automobile manufacturer, and the customer. Positive interpersonal communication is one of the most important aspects in the establishment of close and ongoing customer relationships (De Wulf, Odekerken-Schroeder & Iacobucci 2001).

Conversely, other promotional methods such as advertising are more impersonal in nature. Events may prove a better alternative to create relationships between manufacturer and customer. In addition to this, advertising generally attempts to communicate with a mass market, rather than the individual. This focus on communicating with the individual, and satisfying individual wants, rather than the mass market, is a key feature of CRM (Gummesson 1999). Therefore, if the objective of an organisation is to achieve effective CRM, a better medium is probably promotional events, rather than advertising.

An important aspect of communicating with customers is the aim to inform, rather than persuade (Kotler 2000). Many car distributors realise this and do not attempt to push the automobiles on to the customers at an event, although many will incorporate learning about the automobile into the event format, such as in the drive or track day (Cantwell 2001a).

Elements of a Successful Event

Manning (1983) contends that the four elements of any successful special event or festival are: performance; participation; entertainment; and the performance is public. This principle is also valid for promotional events in the automobile industry, which can be seem from the growth in participatory events of the sort studied in this paper. Cunningham and Taylor (1995) report that they are more effective than spectator events, that is, events where consumers passively rather than actively participate in event activities. A reason for this growth may be that when potential consumers are actively involved in an event, they are more likely to be receptive to the promotional message, hence the growth in events such as track days and product trials.

Entertaining events are sometimes also educational and can therefore build closer relationships with customers and allow the organisation to align itself with a related issue such as driver safety (Obermaier, 1993). The track or drive day, a common event within the automobile industry, may also incorporate educational components, such as driver safety training (Mead 2001). Heiman and Muller (1996) also emphasise that it may be beneficial when demonstrating a product to have an expert on hand to highlight product features and shorten the learning process for potential consumers. Therefore, a professional driver safety instructor may be a useful element of a track or drive day to identify the safety features of the range of automobiles.

Having fun or enjoyable experiences at an event makes for a more effective promotional tool. For example, Ford believes that participants at their *No Boundaries* event experience personal challenges and fulfilment while engaging in adventurous sports (Cantwell 2001a), which supports Manning’s proposition.

In summary, it can be seen that that:

- There has been a large growth in the use of events to promote products within the automobile industry.
- This growth in special events has coincided with a reduction in the use of advertising.
- Customer Relationship Management, rather than transactional marketing, is currently the favoured marketing philosophy of many organisations in the automobile industry.
- Public, entertaining, and participatory performance events appear to be an ideal method to achieve some of the goals of CRM.
- Little or no empirical data exists that can support claims that events are more effective than other forms of promotion.
- The use of special events to market places is based on a similar premise to that of using events to market products.

The Track Day Event

A European maker of prestigious European motor vehicles held *Track Days* for two days in Sydney and Melbourne, and for one day in Brisbane, Adelaide, and Perth. Customers and prospects nominated by their dealers around Australia were invited and asked to nominate the model they would most like to drive.

The driving component of the day was organised by a corporate driver training company. A senior car company representative welcomed participants and then the head-driving instructor briefed participants on the day’s elements. On the track, the driving instructors guided the participants through time trials, precision exercises, and wet track patch breaking tests, with the expectation that participants would gain both driver skills training as well as learn about the capabilities of the company’s range of vehicles. Before leaving, the participants experienced a ‘Hot Lap’ as passenger - an exhilarating, very fast lap around the racetrack.

Participants were then invited to stay for lunch and presented with gift bags, containing a branded watch, a toy car, and various promotional materials. The gift bag also contained the questionnaires used in this study. Participants were reminded to complete the questionnaire before they departed.

Measures of Effectiveness

As effectiveness is a measure of goal attainment, it is necessary to establish measurable objectives for the event. The company was reluctant to set measurable objectives for the event for a number of reasons. They were unsure about the likely outcomes of such an event, because of the absence of historical data. The second is the understandable desire not to be judged harshly if objectives are not met. Finally, the company believe that some results might be difficult to measure, especially such ephemeral things as changes in attitude towards the brand.

Therefore, to provide some sort of benchmark, a number of objectives were arbitrarily set by the researchers as follows:

1. Up to one month following the event, a minimum of two vehicle sales to be made to participants on average from each event around Australia;

2. At least 50% of participants are to indicate that the event met their expectations;

3. At least 50% of participants are to indicate that the event assisted them in their purchase decision.

These objectives seem a reasonable return on investment. As the company's marketing plans are unknown to the researchers, it is not possible to be more specific.

Methodology

A number of research methods were used to establish the effectiveness of the *Track Day*.

Track Day Participant Questionnaire

To ensure that the content of the questionnaire was topical, it was based on an extensive literature review of event promotions in the automobile industry. Additionally, an in-depth interview with company marketing staff ensured the questionnaire was appropriate for the event.

The questionnaire examined participants' expectations for the event, and what changes to the structure and content of the event they thought appropriate. They were asked if they intended to purchase a vehicle following the event and the extent to which they believed the event influenced their purchase decision. Participants were asked if they believed promotional events such as the Track Day are superior to other forms of promotion, such as print and television advertising. The usual participant demographic data was also collected.

Immediately after arrival at the event, event staff briefed participants on the survey and its purpose. They then completed the survey after finishing their track experience, while they had refreshments and recovered from their fast driving in the hospitality suite. The data were analysed using the SPSS program.

In-Depth Interviews with Events Personnel

These took place with marketing staff from seven different car manufacturers or distributors in Australia to help to put the findings in an industry context. As much of the industry information available in the literature focused on overseas car companies, these interviews confirmed growing use of events in the automobile industry in Australia.

Marketing staff from Volkswagen, Saab, Daimler Chrysler, BMW, Renault, and Honda had an interview of around a half hour in length and completed using phone, e-mail, in-person, or a combination of these methods. A checklist of topics discussed ensured consistency amongst interviews. These included a description of events organised by their company and the perceived effectiveness of these events. They were also asked to comment on whether they believed events were more effective than other forms of promotion, and why.

Notes were taken during each interview and findings were later organised into conceptual groups.

Observation of the Track Day Event

Both days of the Sydney *Track Day* event at Eastern Creek Raceway were observed using a checklist. This observation examined primarily operational aspects of the event including timing, signage and catering.

Cost per Sale Analysis

This analysis calculated the amount of money made from sales to event participants, and compared the return made to the cost of holding the event.

Marketing staff at the company supplied details on the cost of the event, as well as the contribution made by the dealers. Sales figures were then collected from dealers, and multiplied by the average cost of automobile sold. An assumed profit margin of 30% of sales was compared to the cost of holding the event.

Results and Discussion

The *Track Days* around Australia held in August, September, and October 2001 met the attendance objective with 70 people attending in NSW, 65 in Victoria, 42 in Western Australia, 38 in Queensland and 40 in South Australia. Observation of the event indicated that key event operational elements of signage, parking and catering mentioned by McDonnell *et al.* (1999) were appropriate. However, the attendance figures and favourable observation results alone do not demonstrate that the event was successful or financially effective for the car company.

The in-depth interviews established that most of the car companies held events similar to *Track Day*, often called a *Drive Day*, and that they sponsor many events held by other organisations. Daimler Chrysler for example, sponsors the Mercedes Australian Fashion Week. A number of the organisations looked at events primarily as a way to reward loyal customers. Saab Australia, for example, sponsors events held by Opera Australia, and often have a pre or post-event function for customers. The perception of all organisations questioned was that there is a need for a variety of well-integrated promotional methods, including participatory promotional events such as Track Days. There was a definite view expressed by all organisations that promotional methods should complement each other in an integrated manner, which supports Morrison's (1996) view of the necessity of integrated marketing.

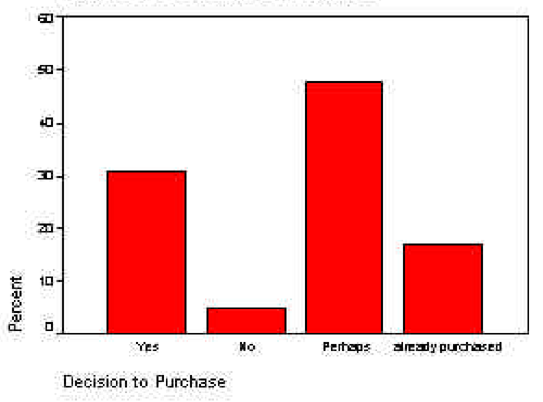
The data from the questionnaire and cost per sale analysis indicate that the event was successful and effective in achieving the three pre-set objectives. These results are presented below.

The questionnaire was offered to the 217 participants at the Track Day events in Sydney, Melbourne, Perth, and Adelaide. One hundred and seventy two questionnaires were completed and returned, a 79.26% response rate. This high response rate was probably due to the method of implementation, which involved reminding event participants before and after the event to complete the questionnaire. As the last activity for the day involved being a passenger in a fast lap around the racetrack, participants enjoyed relaxing with refreshments before their departure. Many completed the questionnaire at this time.

Participants were mainly male (84.5%). The age spread was from 31 and 60 years, with the most common age group being participants 31 and 45 years (39.9%), and

31% of respondents aged between 46 and 60 years. Twenty four per cent were under 30 years while just 5.4% were over 60. The majority of participants had completed some form of post-secondary education, (75.6%) from a TAFE diploma to a post-graduate degree. The demographic characteristics are not surprising, given the expensive nature of the cars, and the higher propensity of males to be interested in cars.

Figure 2: Decision to Purchase



Participants gave firstly their expectations of the event. Table 1 shows the results. What is of interest is that both Manning's (1993) proposition that events should be entertaining, and Heiman and Muller's (1996) ideas on the educational value of events are borne out by the participants' expectations.

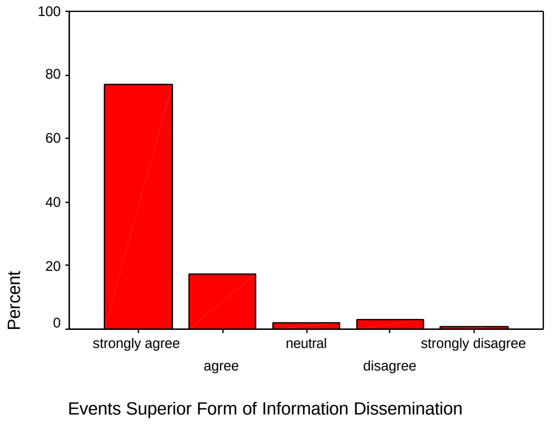
Table 1: Expectations of Event

Expectations Given	Frequency	Percent
Have Fun	23	13.4
Compare Cars	2	1.2
Improve Driving Skills	15	8.7
Learn More About the Cars	41	23.8
Test Drive Cars	41	23.8
None Stated	4	2.3
Drive on Race Track	11	6.4
Compare to BMW Track Day	1	.6
Low Expectations	2	1.2
Sales Pitch	3	1.7
Fulfilled Expectations	8	4.7
Exceeded Expectations	8	4.7
Less Freedom Expected	2	1.2
Unsure	5	2.9
Drive at High Speed	4	2.3
High Expectations	1	.6
Total	171	99.4
System	1	.6
	172	100.0

The next assumed measure of event effectiveness was 50% of participants indicate that the event helped them to make a purchase decision. Eighty per cent of respondents agreed or strongly agreed that the event had helped them in their decision to purchase a vehicle, though only 30.7% stated that they planned to purchase a vehicle following the event, with 48% still undecided. However, many in this group could eventually decide to purchase after consultation with family members, and further research. Therefore, though the data are not overwhelmingly conclusive, it is probable that over fifty percent of participants would eventually purchase. Additionally, 86% of respondents who indicated they would purchase a vehicle following the event agreed or strongly agreed that the event had helped them to make their purchase decision. Figure 2 gives details.

Not surprisingly, 95% of participants agreed or strongly agreed that events were a superior form of information dissemination to others. Figure 3 gives details. However, this does imply that people who do attend events of this type are in a positive frame of mind to receive information about a product.

Figure 3: Events Superior Medium for Information



Participants were asked to suggest any changes to the event. While 31% of respondents believed the event required no alteration, 32% suggested more time. This conflicts with the observation that the event allowed participants adequate time in their vehicle of interest. One possible explanation for this may be that certain types of vehicles were in greater demand than others. This would perhaps make some participants feel that they had not experienced the vehicle as fully as others had, especially if two participants shared a vehicle.

Event participants bought forty cars subsequent to the events, according to dealers' figures. This more than meets the arbitrary objective of two sales per state. With an average cost of $43,93.375 per vehicle, gross revenue generated because of the event ($43,93.38 x 40) is $1,727,735. Although the exact profit margin is unknown, 30% is a realistic figure. Therefore the margin would be (0.3 x $1,727,735) = $518,320.50. With the addition of the dealer contributions to the event of $18,00, the final revenue to the company is $536,320.50. Therefore, the company easily recovered the event's cost.

However, as in all evaluations of promotional effectiveness, the effect of other simultaneous and historic promotions must be considered. For example, in Sydney, the event coincided with a 24-hour test drive campaign that may also have affected the purchase decision. However, as most participants (95%) believe events are a superior form of promotion, then the event may well be the decisive factor in the decision to purchase.

Respondents also gave their views on the relative importance of the different elements of a promotional event of this type. Table 2 gives details.

Table 2 Event element importance

Event Element - %age in each category	Venue	Driving cars	Catering	Theme	Social and Business contacts
Very important	61	87	23	31	11
Important	29	9	25	33	22
Neutral	7	1	32	25	35
Not very important	2	1	16	6	20
Not at all important	2	2	4	5	12

As can be seen from this Table, venue choice and the participatory performance of driving the cars are viewed as the important aspects of an enjoyable event. This confirms Manning's (1983) view that public participation is an essential element of a successful event, even if it is a commercial event, rather than the social events Manning described.

The difficult question to answer is how many sales would occur without the event. Table 3 throws some light on this vexed issue. Over eighty five percent of those who had made a decision to purchase a car either agreed or strongly agreed that the event helped their purchase decision. A similar percentage of those who were considering purchase agreed or strongly agreed. Even forty percent of those who decided not to purchase thought the event helped this decision. The results are similar to those reported by Smith (1997) of Land Rover's events in the UK.

Table 3 Role of event in purchase

Event Helped in Decision to Purchase						**Total**
Decision to Purchase	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	
Yes	25	19	7			51
	49.0%	37.3%	13.7%			100.0%
No	1	2	2	1	1	7
	14.3%	28.6%	28.6%	14.3%	14.3%	100.0%
Perhaps	20	49	10			79
	25.3%	62.0%	12.7%			100.0%
Already purchased	11	3	9	1	1	25
	44.0%	12.0%	36.0%	4.0%	4.0%	100.0%
Total	57	73	28	2	2	162
	35.2%	45.1%	17.3%	1.2%	1.2%	100.0%

Discussion

Results from the questionnaire and cost analysis indicate that promotional events such as the *Track Day* are reasonably effective. However, it is not conclusive that events are more effective than other promotional methods. Although the majority of respondents believed events are a superior form of information dissemination, this is merely participants' opinion, not a sample of car purchasers. An event is more enjoyable for the potential consumer than reading a promotional advertisement in a newspaper, but this may not mean that it produces more sales per promotional dollar.

The marketing and events personnel interviewed were of the view that events were not necessarily a superior method of promotion, and should be integrated with a number of other promotional methods. Integration of all marketing efforts is the basis of successful marketing and should not be forgotten by event promoters.

Given all the results of the research, it is concluded that it is not possible to establish if events are a more or a less effective form of promotion than alternative methods. That would need a comparative study that attempts to control for all other marketing variables, and has access to all financial data of the promotion.

However, the literature located on events in the automobile industry, and on current and future marketing trends, does indicate that events may prove particularly successful in achieving the goals of customer relationship management. CRM has proven particularly successful, as it places more emphasis on retaining old customers, rather than just simply gaining new customers. It may therefore be suggested that events have increasing importance over other more traditional promotional methods.

Although evaluating and comparing different methods of promotion may prove problematic, more research on events and their impacts could be done to add to the limited empirical research that currently exists. Given the very large sums of money spent by governments on place marketing events, it is particularly apposite that further research be undertaken on the effectiveness of these events.

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Use of Dichotomous Choice Modelling to Fix Event Ticket Prices

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Abstract

Organisers of special events face some difficulty in knowing where to set the price for tickets to the event. By their nature, special events are one-offs, or occur infrequently. This makes experimentation with different prices impossible. In addition, the specific circumstances of each event mean that it is often impractical to set prices by reference to similar events elsewhere.

This paper reports on the use of a special type of contingent valuation technique known as dichotomous choice modelling, and its application to ticket prices for Canberra’s annual V8 Super Car race. The technique uses hypothetical prices, but confronts respondents with “take it or leave it” type choices which are often encountered when making actual purchase decisions.

The results indicate that while it is not possible to identify the demand curve using this technique, it does give event organisers very useful information about price

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points, and about segmentation of the market for the event. In particular, the study found a higher willingness to pay amongst people who had been to the event in the past, or to other motor sport in Canberra.

Special events are often subsidised by the Government of the host region. This is because the region may benefit from the economic impact of the expenditure of visitors who are attracted to the region for the event. If event organisers set the ticket prices at a high level, the event may generate more revenue but less economic impact, because fewer visitors would attend.

Therefore, in choosing where to set ticket prices, event organisers need to have some feel for how sales would respond to different pricing regimes. In other words they need to know what the demand curve looks like. If the demand curve is very steep, as in Figure1, prices and revenue can be increased with little reduction in demand, and therefore little reduction in economic impact. On the other hand if the demand curve is flat as in Figure 2, the increase in price causes a significant fall in demand and economic impact[1].

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[1] Technically, the appropriate measure of demand response is elasticity. An inelastic demand has low response to a price change, an elastic demand has a significant response to a price change.

Figure 1

Unresponsive Demand

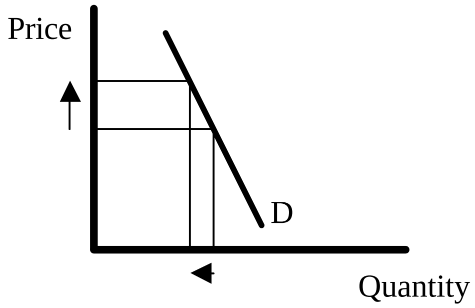
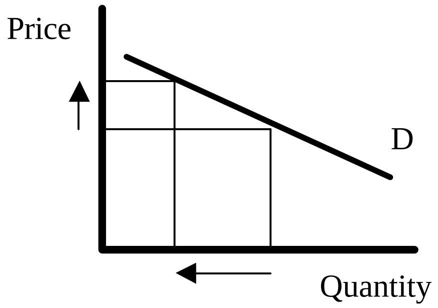


Figure 2

Responsive Demand



The responsiveness (elasticity) of demand for a particular event depends in part upon the availability of substitutes for the event. In general these will include the whole range of leisure and entertainment opportunities which face consumers in the market. Particular substitutes will include similar events held in other destinations.

The market demand conditions for a special event could be represented by the supply and demand curves in Figure 3. The supply curve is vertical[2], reflecting the notion that there is a fixed and finite number of tickets to the event for sale. The equilibrium price is Pe, but if event organisers guess demand incorrectly, they will either have set the price too high, such as Ph and will have unsold tickets of ZZ, or set the price too low such as Pl and have unsatisfied customers of FF. Which is the worse scenario for event organisers depends upon the responsiveness of demand, and the trade-off between ticket revenue and economic impact. In other words, event organisers may not set a revenue maximising price if the objective is to attract a large number of visitors and their associated economic impact.

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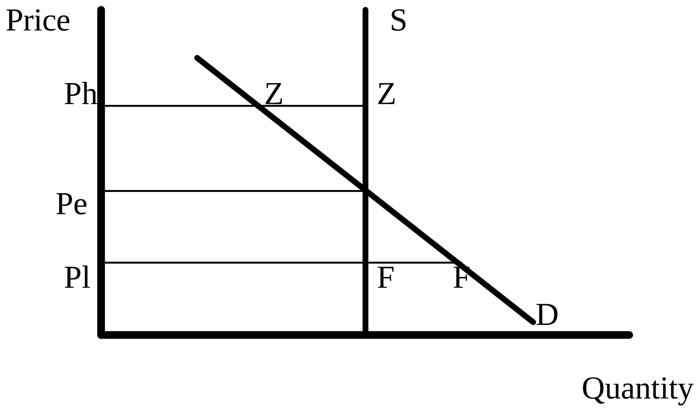
[2] This is a simplification which may hold for the short run, but in the long run, event organisers can elect to build smaller or larger seating areas. However, the essential point of surplus or shortage is not affected.

Businesses may often obtain knowledge about the demand curve for their products by either experimenting with different prices, or by surveying customers about their reactions to potential prices. Non survey methods include the use of internal data on purchase volumes at different prices from in-store checkout scanners (Mercer, 1996). The survey approach has been widely researched and reported in marketing literature (Hamilton-Gibbs, et al, 1992; Wright, Gendall and Lewis,1999; Brennan, 1995; Brennan and Esslemont, 1994).

The Juster Scale (Juster,1966) is reported in Brennan (1995) to have been developed for estimating purchase rates for durable goods such as motor cars (high price, one-off purchases), and Brennan and Esselmont (1994) have demonstrated its use for so-called fast moving consumer goods (FMCG's). This category consists of frequently purchased goods of a low price and recurring consumption, such as soft drink, soap, etc.

Figure 3

Supply and Demand Conditions for a Special Event



While the checkout scanning data approach is appealing as a way of knowing the shape of the demand curve, it's reliability is qualified by the fact that actual purchase decisions are functions of numerous variables other than price. In any case, for event organisers, experimenting with price is rarely going to be an option.

For annual events, the experiment would have to be run for several years, with different prices each year before yielding any results. By the end of the experiment, the data collected in the early years would not be comparable with that collected in later years, and identification of the event's demand curve would not be possible.

Buying a ticket for an event is partly like buying a motor car in that it is an infrequent purchase. But as the price is not likely to be a particularly high proportion of purchasers' incomes, the purchase has elements of a frequently consumed good. The survey approach should be useful in such situations (Brennan, 1995). The approach works best when the respondent has some knowledge of the goods in question, and is likely to be a purchaser of the goods (Wright, Gendall and Lewis, 1999).

Brennan (1995) has shown that the position of the survey estimated demand curve depends upon whether the respondent is initially shown a high price or a low price. This phenomenon has also been noticed in the contingent valuation (CV) literature where the demand curve is being estimated for unpriced goods such as parks and beaches (Mitchell and Carson, 1989). CV is popular where there is no established market, but is mostly used to estimate the demand curve for publicly provided goods.

While a special event does not have the non-exclusion principle of a public good, it does have some characteristics of a public good;

1. it usually requires public subsidy in order to be produced,
2. there are no frequently occurring market transactions which enable market prices to reach equilibrium.

In this paper we report on the application of a type of CV estimation known as dichotomous choice (DC). DC gives survey respondents a buy/not buy choice at a given price. Because the given price has been shown to be an “anchor point” (Mitchell and Carson,1989), it is recommended that the sample be divided into a number of groups, and that each group be offered a different price, rather than offering a range of prices to the same respondent as is usually done in market research studies.

The sample yields the percentage of respondents willing to pay the price, for each of the price points chosen for each group in the sample. This approach is simplistic in that it does not yield the maximum price that any respondent would be willing to pay, but with sufficiently large samples, the information should indicate the demand responsiveness.

The Event

In this paper we report on an application of DC to elicit information about demand for tickets to Canberra’s annual V8 super car race (the GMC 400). The race, qualifying heats, and other motor sport action is held around the original Federal Parliament

House over a Friday to Sunday weekend in June. The event began in 2000, and does not have a history which could be a guide to responsiveness to different ticket prices.

There are four different types of tickets to the event:

- General admission Friday ticket
- General admission Saturday ticket
- General admission Sunday ticket
- Three day grandstand pass

In 2001 there were a total of 39,082 tickets sold, with 12,105 of these being for three day grandstand passes. The breakdown of the remaining 26,977 between Friday, Saturday, and Sunday sessions is not known, although demand is likely to be highest for the Sunday when the race is actually decided. Attendance figures were 28,734 for Friday, 33,209 for Saturday, and 39,050 for Sunday.

Aim and Method

The aim of the research was to determine how responsive demand for the tickets to the event would be to changes in the various ticket prices. It was decided to use DC in a survey approach for reasons outlined above. Random telephone surveys were conducted 8 weeks after the 2001 race, in the ACT and surrounding region within 200 km of Canberra. An economic impact study of the event (Cegielski and Richards, 2001) showed that these two areas accounted for 83% of spectators. The only significant region overlooked was Sydney (8.9%) because of the likelihood of a high screen-out because of lack of knowledge and awareness.

Some 2,200 calls were made, with 477 ‘no answer’, 586 disconnected, and 254 refusals. Four screening questions were used to assess if the respondent had knowledge of the event, and other events in Canberra. A ‘no’ answer to all four resulted in the respondent being screened out. In the end some 370 surveys were completed with 74% being from the ACT and 26% being from regional New South Wales.

Compared to their attendance at the 2001 race, this slightly under-represents the region, because of a high ‘no answer’, refusal, and screen out in the region. The high regional screen out is itself useful information for event organisers, as it shows a low awareness of the event in the region, compared with Canberra itself – an indication that the promotional message is not getting out to the region very well.

The survey process involved asking each respondent if they would pay a given price. They could respond yes or no, but they could not be asked to respond to a higher or lower price. In other words they had a take-it-or-leave it decision such as confronts consumers in the market place everyday. Interviewers cycled through a set of six prices which were distributed evenly around the price which race organisers were considering charging for the event in 2002.

Table 1 shows the range of ticket prices for each of the four categories of tickets. The numbers in brackets are the sample sizes for the price/category pairs. The interviewer read out a brief description of what the respondent could expect for their money for each category. Each respondent was asked for a response to each of the four categories, but to one price only for each.

Interviewers commenced at one of the prices for the Friday Only category, and then cycled through the Friday prices for each subsequent respondent. Each respondent was asked to respond to a price for each of the four categories of ticket. While this approach is unrealistic in the sense that the respondent is unlikely to be buying tickets in each category, it was necessary in order to achieve a usable sample size for each price point for each category.

Table 1 Price Points and Sample Size for Each Ticket Class ($)

Friday Only	Saturday Only	Sunday Only	Three Day Grandstand
17 (49)	32 (49)	38 (49)	170 (49)
18 (45)	35 (45)	40 (45)	180 (45)
20 (49)	37.5 (48)	42.5 (48)	195 (48)
22.5 (38)	40 (40)	45 (40)	200 (40)
25 (39)	42.5 (40)	48 (40)	205 (40)
28 (36)	45 (35)	50 (34)	210 (34)

The sample size in each price/category pair is shown in brackets in Table 1. A minimum sample size in each paring of 30 was used as a rule of thumb. Ideally, a minimum of 50 could be argued for, but the budget and the rate of non-response to telephone calls meant that we had to settle for 30 as a minimum[3].

Results

The results which follow are presented as bar charts, where the height of the bar is the percentage of respondents saying ‘yes’ to the particular price[4]. The higher the price, the lower this percentage should be, following the usual principles of demand. However, in many cases this negative relationship is not clear cut.

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[3] This meant that in the worse case scenario, the proportion saying ‘yes’ to a price/category pair is estimated with ± 18% accuracy. For a pair with 50 respondents, the worst case accuracy is ± 14%.

[4] In theory it would have been possible to fit regression equations to the data and estimate elasticities of demand for various segments. We have opted for a simpler analysis, partly because of the quality of the data, and partly to make the results more accessible to event organisers.

One reason for the anomaly is sampling variability, which could be as high as ± 18%. Wright, Gendall and Lewis (1999) present evidence that one reason for the apparent positive relationship between price and demand in some cases is the failure to screen out non-buyers. While their suggestion may be practical for frequently purchased goods, to apply it in this study would have involved an extremely high screen out rate which was beyond the budget for the study.

Some limited screening was tried, based upon whether or not respondents had visited any of Canberra's major events, and also upon whether they had visited motor sport events in Canberra, and upon whether they would consider attending the GMC 400. In no cases was the instance of a positive relationship removed.

Overall, the maximum willingness-to-pay for a one-day ticket to the Friday session of the 2002 GMC 400 would appear to be around the $20 price bracket. Figure 4 shows that there is a marked decrease in the proportion of people willing to pay more than $20. This would also seem to be a fairly consistent trend when segmented on the basis of origin.

Figure 4: Willingness-to-pay for Friday session – overall and origin

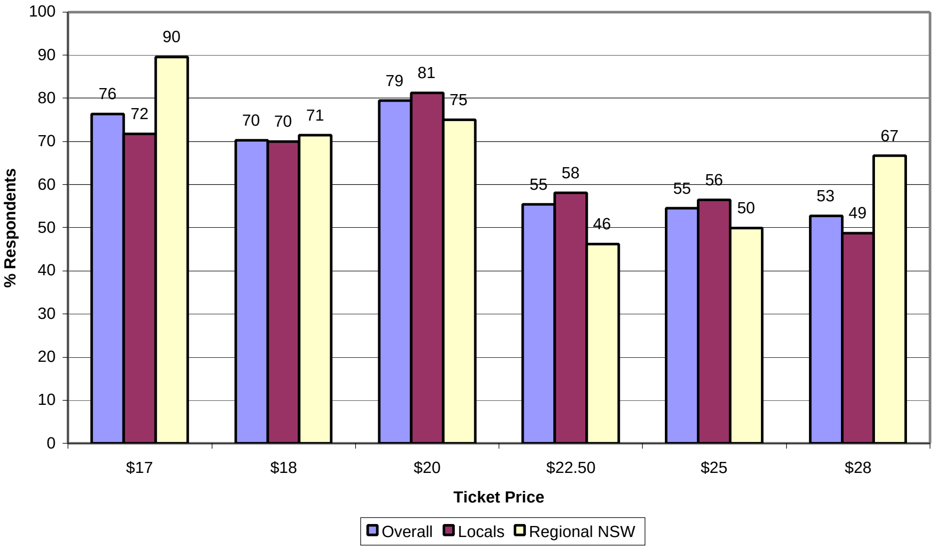
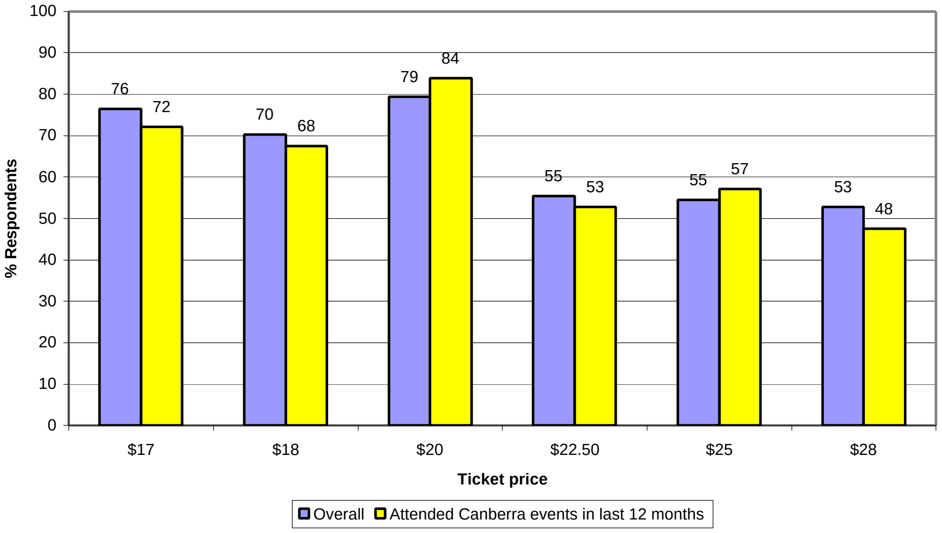


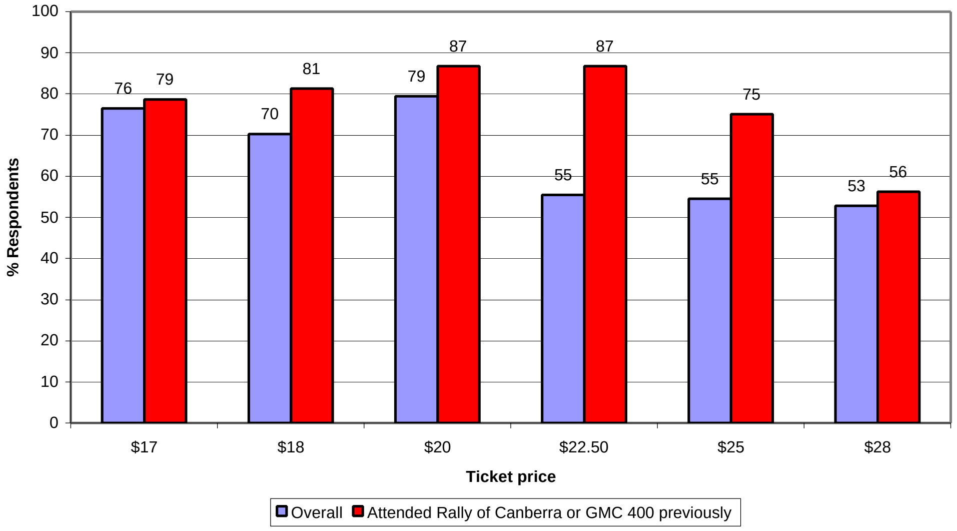
Figure 5, shows that this maximum-willingness-to-pay for the Friday session of the 2002 GMC 400 is similarly placed around the $20 price bracket when also segmented on the basis of ‘attending any major ACT festival and event in the last 12 months’.

Figure 5 Willingness-to-pay for Friday session – overall and general event attendance



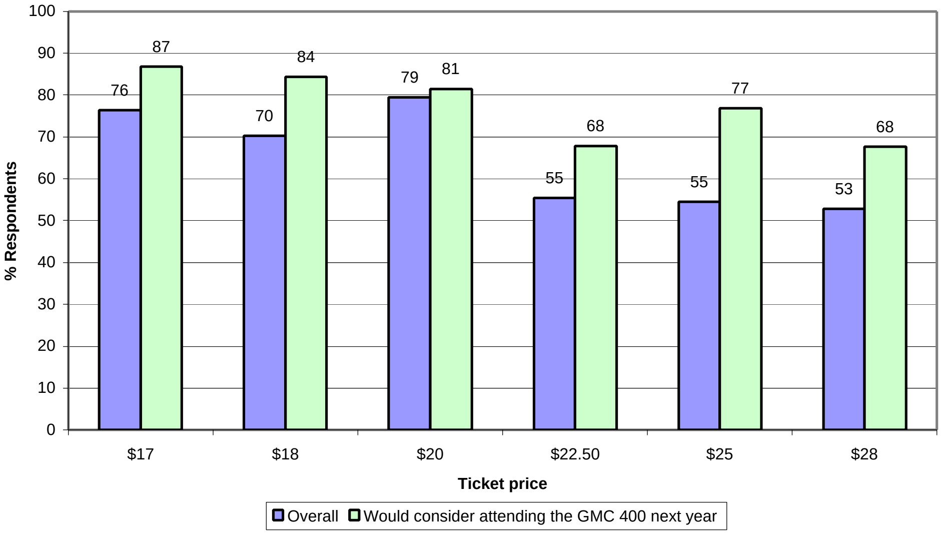
If the data is examined on the basis of previous attendance at the Rally of Canberra or GMC 400, it can be seen that there is an apparently greater maximum-willingness-to-pay for the Friday session of the 2002 GMC 400. This is detailed in Figure 6.

Figure 6 Willingness-to-pay for Friday session – overall and previous attendance at the Rally of Canberra or GMC 400



Similarly, the maximum-willingness-to-pay for a one-day ticket for the Friday afternoon session of the 2002 GMC 400 is also slightly higher for respondents who stated that they would consider attending the 2002 GMC 400. This is shown in Figure 7.

Figure 7 Willingness-to-pay for Friday session – overall and attend 2002 GMC 400



In every case in Figures 4 to 7, there are instances of apparent increased demand at higher prices, in other words an unexpected positive relationship between price and quantity demanded, even in Figure 7 where people who would not consider attending the GMC 400 are screened out. Some of the reason for this may be that respondents have an established price expectation, based on either their knowledge or attendance.

Discussion

In an operational setting, the implications of the findings for event organisers are:

- overall, the maximum-willingness-to-pay for a ticket to the Friday session of the 2002 GMC 400 would appear to be around $20;
- there is however, an apparently higher price ceiling (up to $25) for those who have attended either the Rally of Canberra or the GMC 400 previously, or those that stated an intention to attend the 2002 GMC 400;

- the lower price bracket may be more effective in generating new local markets, especially if the Friday session is pitched as an opportunity to 'trial' the product for curious or interested markets.

Comparable bar charts for responses to Saturday only, Sunday only, and three day grandstand pass tickets are shown in the appendix in Figures A1 to A12. While all charts are characterised by some positive relationships as we move from one price to the next, in general they all show a reduced willingness to pay higher prices as would be expected as we move along the demand curve. In particular, the willingness to pay drops away steeply once the price is above the mid point of the range, which was the price being considered for the event in 2002.

It is interesting to note that people who had attended, or intended to attend either this event or other motor sport in the destination were more willing to pay at each price level than people with no such experience or desire. (see for example Figures A3, A7, and to a lesser extent A11). This is merely another way of saying that the demand curve for the event for that segment of the market with some interest in the type of event is further to the right than for the general population.

Demand for the Sunday session (the actual race day) would appear to be higher amongst regional respondents than among Canberra residents. The willingness to pay prices of over $40 was significantly higher for non-residents than for residents. This was also true of demand from people who had either been to the 2001 GMC 400 or to the Rally of Canberra, and people who said that they would consider attending the 2002 event.

It is noteworthy that the overall willingness to pay for the Sunday session was not significantly greater than for the Saturday session, albeit at higher prices. This result indicates that the event organisers have set the price differential for the actual race day at about the right level. If it were set lower, one would expect a significantly higher willingness to pay for tickets on the actual race day, and vice versa.

Because of its higher price level, the willingness to pay for the three day grandstand pass was lower overall, and for all groups, than one day tickets (Figures A9 to A12). In addition, it appears from Figures A11 and A12 that people interested in motor sport are no more willing to pay for a three day grandstand pass than the general populace. It is also noticeable that in this category of ticket, there is less tendency for demand to decline at higher prices than there was for other categories.

Conclusion

This paper has shown the usefulness of willing to pay surveys in setting ticket prices for an event. In particular, this paper uses the dichotomous choice approach, which confronts respondents with take-it-or-leave-it decisions such as people are used to making every day. Further research in this area should separate respondents into different event categories such as “Friday only” or “Three day pass” in order to further remove the hypothetical situation in which a respondent is asked to imagine buying different categories of tickets.

The particular application of this paper to a Canberra event has shown organisers that demand falls away sharply once prices for tickets reach a certain level, with the level depending upon the category of ticket. Knowledge of the event, or interest in it, does seem to generate a higher willingness to pay for one day tickets, but not for three day passes. Event organisers in general need to be aware of how demand for tickets responds to different prices in order to be able to maximise the operating return from the event. This is especially pertinent for those events which rely on taxpayer funding, for every dollar in lost revenue has to be made up by the taxpayer.

Appendix

Figure A1 Willingness-to-pay for Saturday session – overall and origin

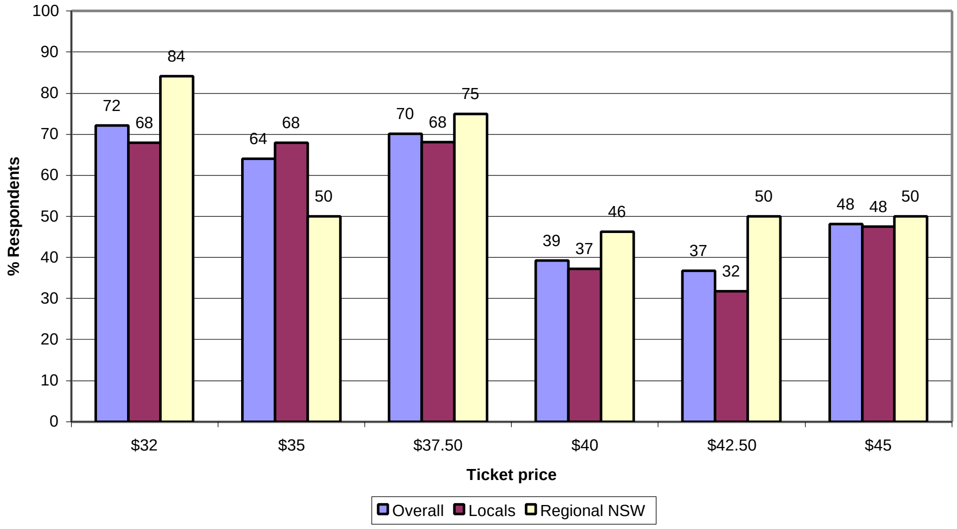


Figure A2 Willingness-to-pay for Saturday session – overall and general event attendance

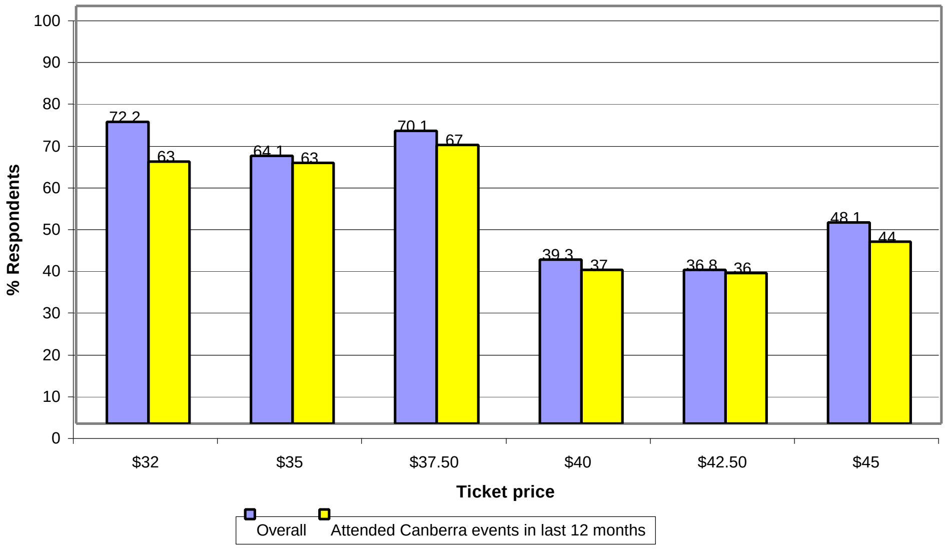


Figure A3 Willingness-to-pay for Saturday session – overall and previous attendance at the Rally of Canberra or GMC 400

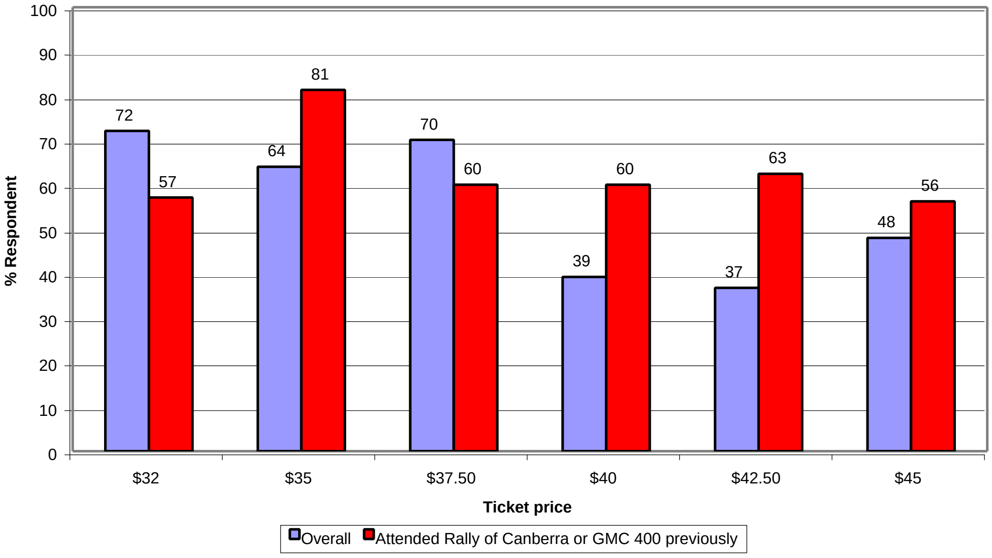


Figure A4 Willingness-to-pay for Saturday session – overall and attend 2002 GMC 400

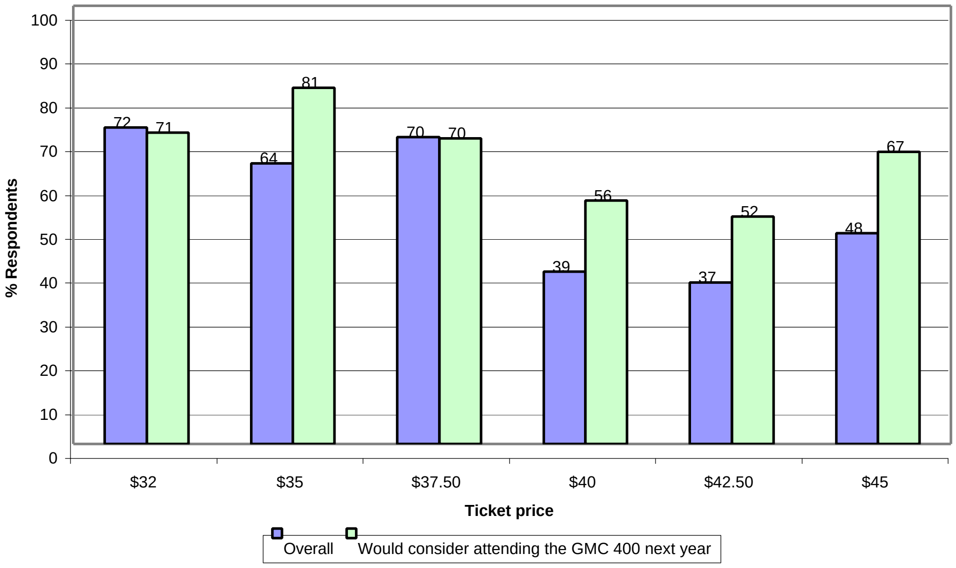


Figure A5 Willingness-to-pay for Sunday session – overall and origin

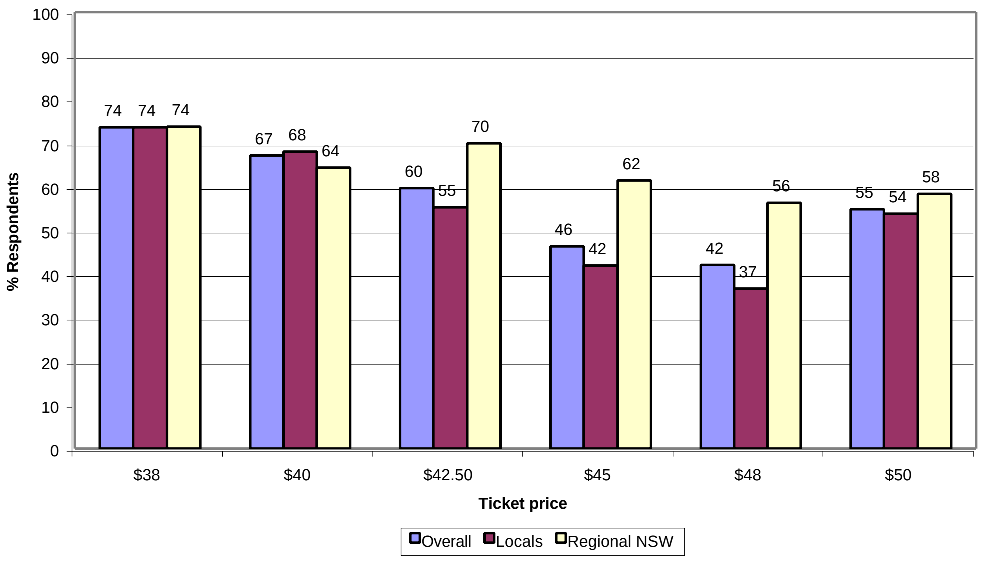


Figure A6 Willingness-to-pay for Sunday session – overall and general event attendance

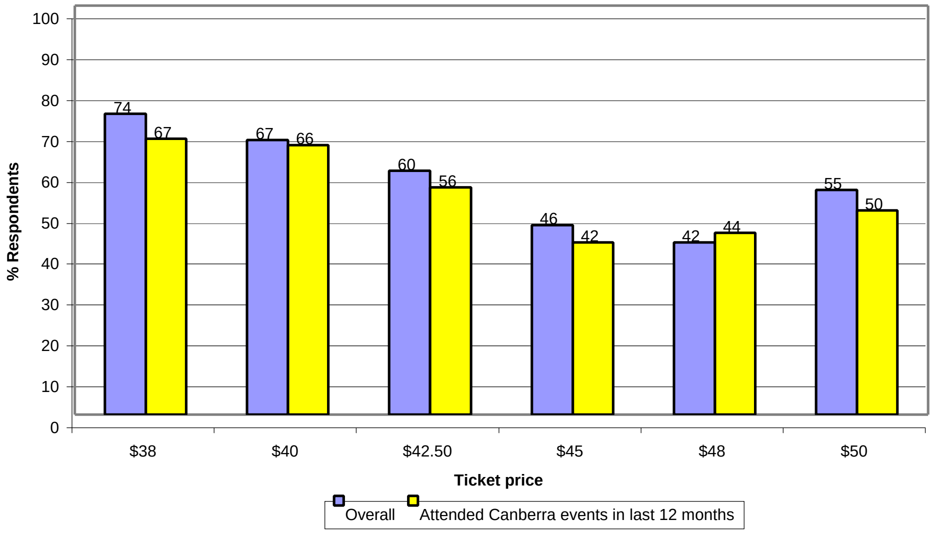


Figure A7 Willingness-to-pay for Sunday session – overall and previous attendance at the Rally of Canberra or GMC 400

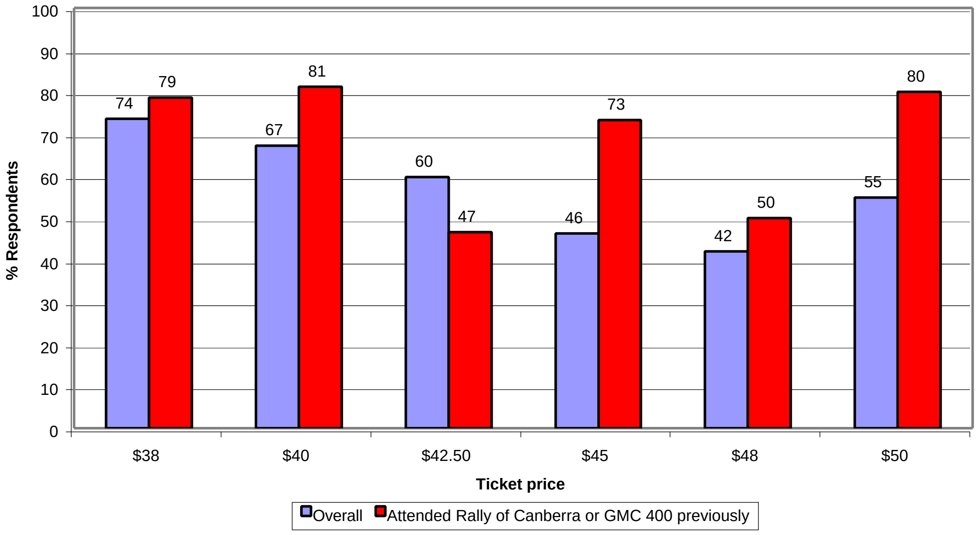


Figure A8 Willingness-to-pay for Sunday session – overall and attend 2002 GMC 400

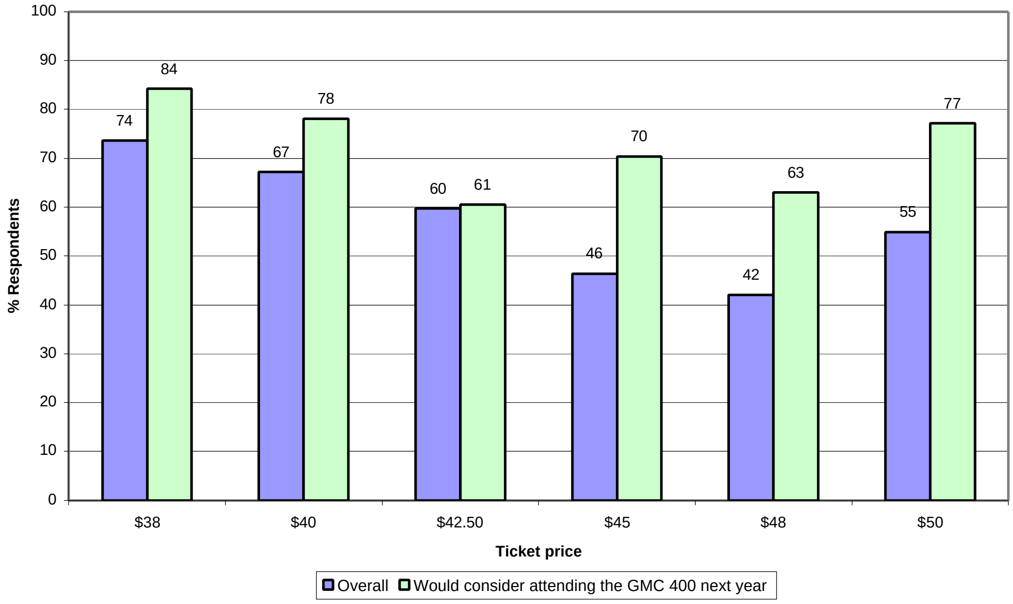


Figure A9 Willingness-to-pay for three-day Grandstand Passes – overall and origin

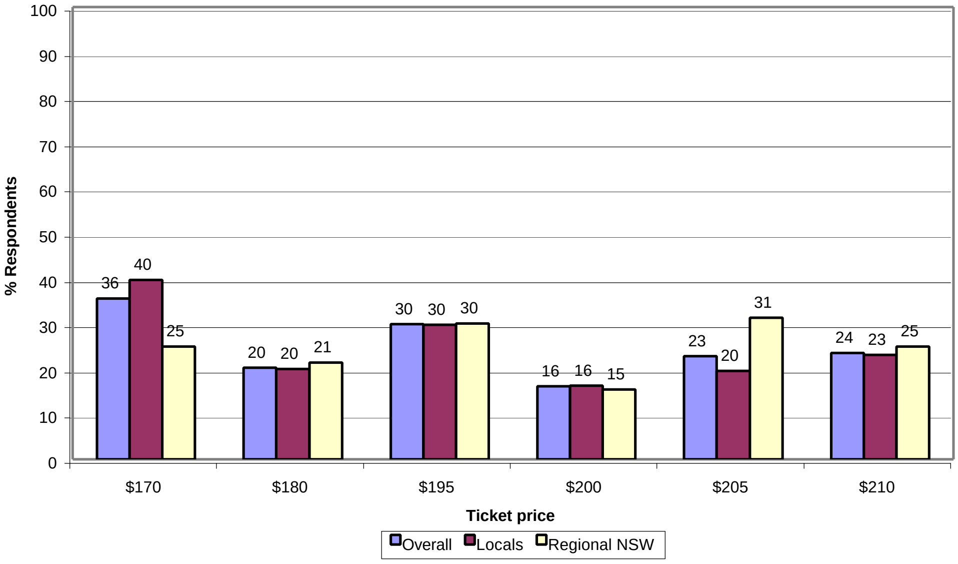


Figure A10 Willingness-to-pay for three-day Grandstand Passes – overall and general event attendance

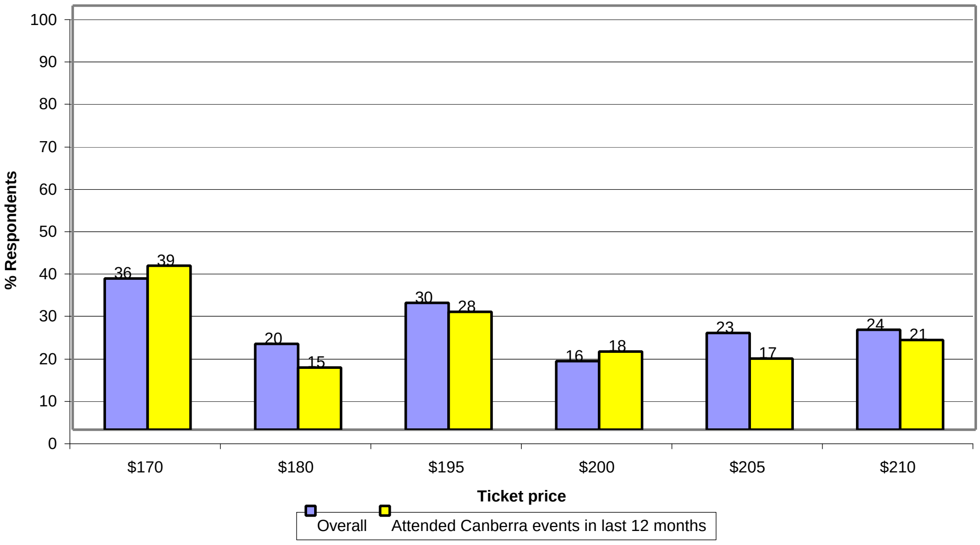


Figure A11 Willingness-to-pay for three-day Grandstand Passes – overall and previous attendance at the Rally of Canberra or GMC 400

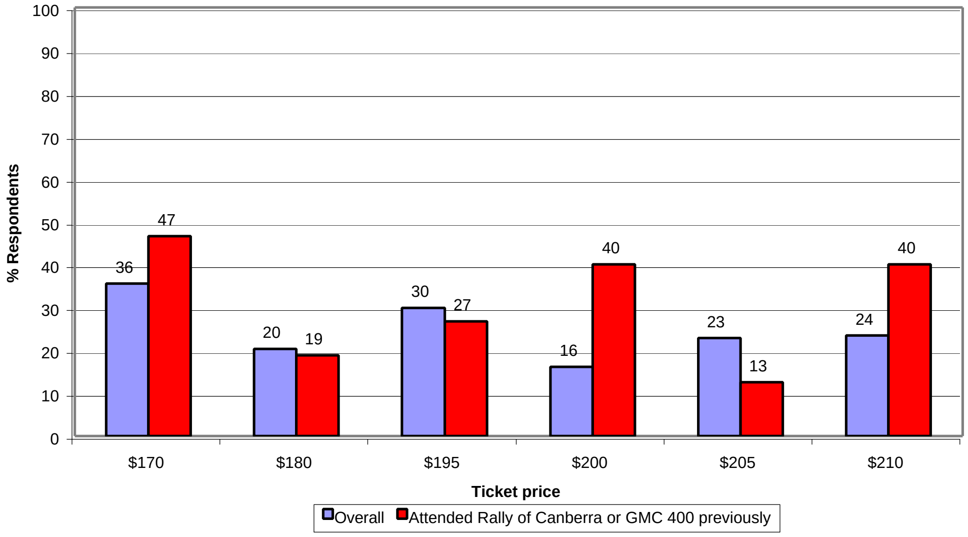
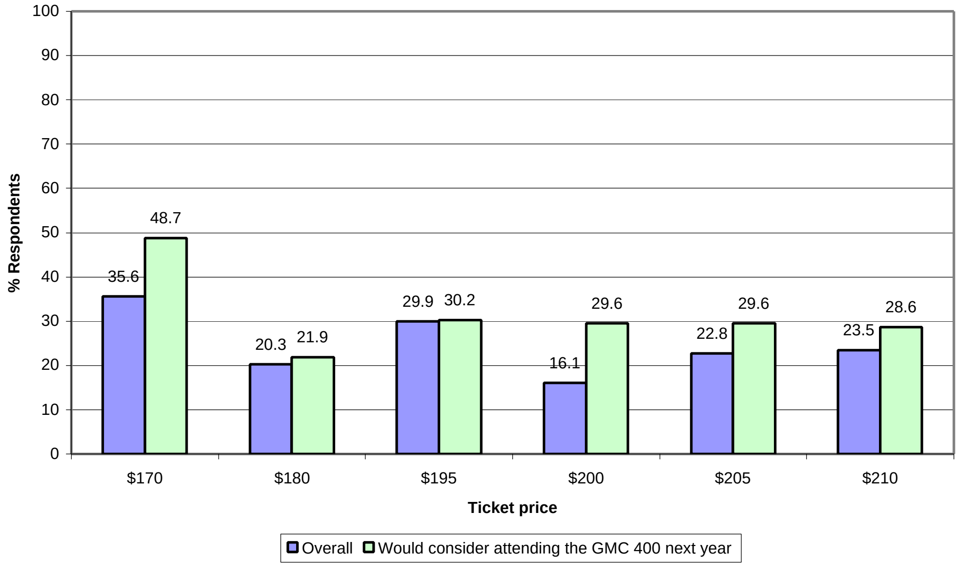


Figure A12 Willingness-to-pay for three-day Grandstand Passes – overall and attend 2002 GMC 400



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Event Management Associations: Goal Driven or Adhoc Planning?

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Abstract

As the event management industry grows and consolidates worldwide, associations play an increasingly significant role in professional support to the industry by ensuring the continued growth and success of event management professionals. Although there are many events that are successfully crewed by volunteers, the increasing competition to secure major events is giving some impetus to the trend to create fully professionalised events (Getz, 1997) with increasing reliance on well educated, experienced and professional event managers. This paper reviews the literature on professional associations and specifically explores the goals and objectives of event management associations.

The literature on professional associations is scant, scattered among a variety of disciplines and consequently has little breadth (Rodenhauser, 1999). As yet, there is limited academic research, which focuses on event management associations in general

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(Arcodia & Reid, 2002) and none which investigate their goals and objectives. Ayal (1986) suggests that there is a lack of formal strategic planning with professional associations and this is due to a wide number of issues such as the mission of nonprofit organisations being diffuse, having numerous goals and objectives that are difficult to define, as well as having many constituencies with conflicting objectives. In addition, he proposes that resolution and decision making within associations is often political in nature, leadership may be voluntary and subject to frequent changes resulting in the lack of time and resources that are available for strategic planning.

This study identified 147 professional associations worldwide involved with event management. While this list is not exhaustive, it provides a very strong sample of event management associations. They were located using a variety of sources such as the internet, industry and personal contacts. Rather than use or adapt an existing framework for analysis, this study applies a grounded approach to the analysis of the content of the goals and objectives. That is, the categories of meaning were developed from an analysis of the data provided rather than imposed by an existing typology from the literature. These associations were categorised by location, including international, regional and special interest associations with numerous sub-categories. Regional associations were divided into continents so that there were six sub-categories, the North American, European, Asian/Pacific, United Kingdom, South American and South African. The special interest associations were included as there were a number in the sample that did not fit within the first two categories, yet they were deemed significant to the study because they dealt with event management issues within the context of a specific industry.

The study concludes that event management associations have a strong record in developing goals and objectives as part of their operational framework. The key themes that emerged are: information exchange, education and training, identity and recognition, ethics and standards, networks and collegiality, business management, membership, premier representative association, product development and being a change agent.

Introduction

Event management has emerged over the past decade as a dynamic sector of the tourism and leisure industries. The number, diversity and popularity of events has also grown throughout this period. As the number of events increase, there is a growing realisation about the continuing need to develop event management professionals who are able to create, organise and manage events. Although many events are successfully crewed by volunteers, increasing competition to secure major events is giving greater impetus for the need to create more fully professionalised events (Getz, 1997) and increasing reliance on well educated, experienced and professional event managers. Consequently, professional associations that focus on the advancement of the diverse facets of event management may have an increasingly significant role to play. Following Getz's (1997:25) proposition that events must be managed as one would a successful business, many event management associations worldwide are implementing strategic planning processes to determine long term goals and objectives.

The literature that has been published on professional associations is scant, scattered among a variety of disciplines and consequently has little breadth (Rodenhauser, 1999:417). Promoting the industry, organising training, offering specialist advice and information, researching and publishing, and providing networking opportunities for members are primary activities of many associations (Crosetto & Salah, 1997; Kloss, 1999). Kloss (1999:71) for example, notes that:

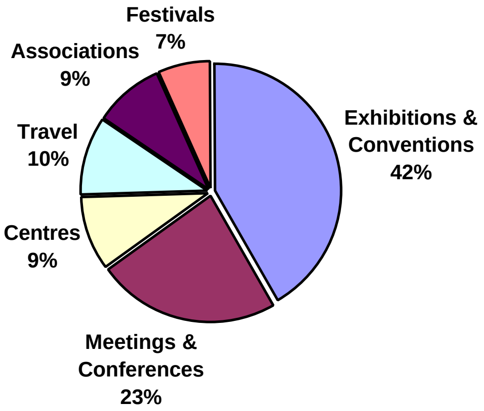
> ‘the professional association exists to advance the standing of the members of the occupation or profession by setting educational and other standards governing the profession, advocating for public and private policies, aiding members in their professional development, and advancing professional practice through research and information dissemination’

Specific issues that have been investigated in relation to professional associations have dealt with long term strategic planning (Ayal, 1986; Kloss, 1999), association lifecycles and administrative dynamics (Rodenhauser, 1999), the role of politicisation and advocacy (Imber & Horowitz, 1999), the need for profiling and promotion (Crosetto & Salah, 1997; Montgomery & Rutherford, 1994), and relationship marketing and membership behaviour (Frank, 1999; Gruen, Summers & Acito, 2000). These have been in relation to professional associations in a number of diverse industries such as real estate (Ayal, 1986), pyschotherapy (Rodenhauser, 1999), sociology (Imber & Horowitz, 1999), environmental health (Frank, 1999) and life underwriters (Gruen, Summers & Acito, 2000). As yet, there has been very little academic research that focuses on the role and responsibilities of event management associations. While there are a number of studies that review the goals and objectives of organisations in other industries, there are no studies previously conducted that specifically investigate the goals and objectives of event management associations. The purpose of this paper is to explore these goals and objectives to understand the current roles that event management associations play.

Methodology

For the purposes of this exploratory study an event management association was defined as one that responds to one or more of the sectors of the event industry such as festivals, tradeshows, exhibitions, incentives and meetings. Figure 1 provides a breakdown of the categories of event management associations, however, it is acknowledged that these associations will overlap in some of the categories and were analysed according to the title of the association. This study identified 147 professional associations worldwide involved with event management. While this list may not be exhaustive, it provides a very strong sample of event management associations. The associations were identified by conducting searches via the Internet, in the academic literature, and from trade journals and personal contacts. Specific associations were contacted by letter or email to inform them of the study and to seek their involvement.

Figure 1 Breakdown of Event Management Association by Category

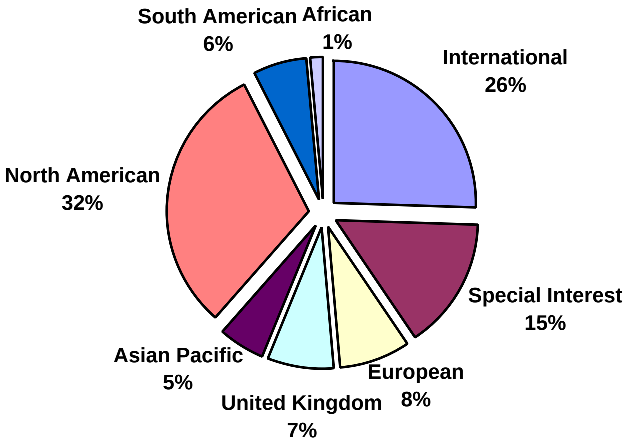


Content analysis was used in this study because it is a multi-purpose method that is useful for investigating a wide range of issues in which the content of communication serves as a basis of inference (Weber, 1985). It is an appropriate methodology to achieve authenticity and validity in the type of qualitative data this study gathered. It did not use nor adapt an existing framework for analysis of the content of the goals and objectives. That is, the categories of meaning emerged by identifying recurring themes in the data rather than being imposed by an existing typology from the literature or a preconceived framework developed specifically for the research.

Eighty percent of the associations (117) responded to requests for information. Of these associations, 49% (72) had goals and objectives already posted on their websites and a further 5% (7) sent publications outlining their goals and objectives. Although approximately 20% (30) of associations were not able to be contacted for various reasons, the goals and objectives procured provided a very strong representative sample.

The associations were classified according to location (see figure 2). The categories included international, regional and special interest associations but there were numerous sub-categories. Many of the international associations for example, have chapters worldwide, however only the mother association was included to minimise repetition. Regional associations were divided according to continents which resulted in the following six sub-categories: North American, European, United Kingdom, Asian Pacific, South American and African. Special interest associations were included as there was a number in the sample that could not be easily accommodated within the first two categories, yet they were deemed significant to the study because they dealt with event management issues within the context of a specific industry.

Figure 2 Regional Distribution of Event Management Associations by Category



The data do not allow for a productive conclusion about differences that may exist between associations that draw from organisational members in contrast to those that draw from individual membership.

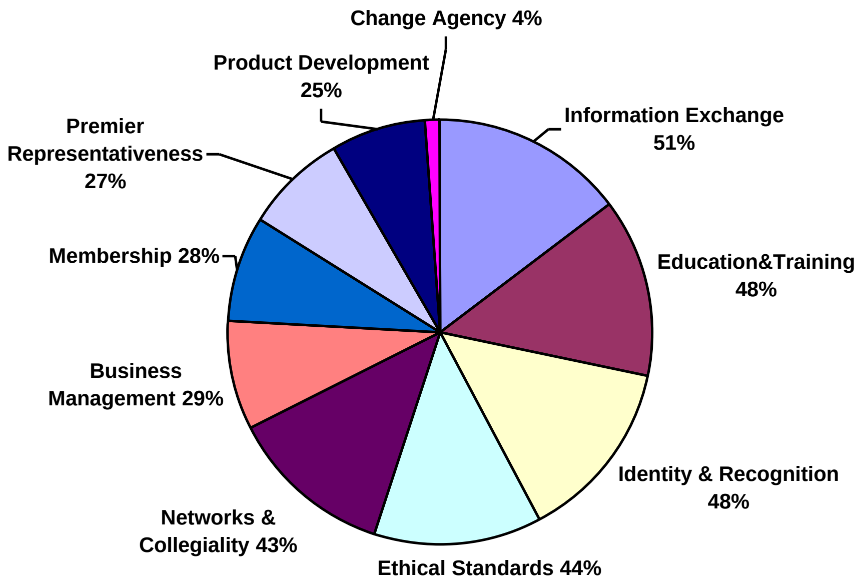
Methodological Limitations

A worldwide study presents some specific challenges and reference needs to be made to at least two caveats. Firstly, there is no worldwide registry of event management associations; consequently, the exact number of associations involved with the event management industry worldwide is unknown. Nevertheless, after conducting an extensive search, the 147 that were included in the study is more than likely a very strong sample population. Secondly, in addition to verifying the number of event management associations operating worldwide, there is an issue of language and cultural orientation. Associations around the world are in existence due to the need within their regions for support in the event management industry, so their primary language may be one other than English. While the working language of all associations is clearly not English, the internationalisation of English in recent years, together with the fact that many associations draw membership from more than one country, has served to minimise this problem. Nevertheless, 32% of the associations are based in North America and this provides for some cultural bias that cannot be avoided in this study.

Findings And Discussion

The analysis of the data found that there were ten themes of goals and objectives that event management associations displayed. These themes are depicted in Graph 3 and include: Information Exchange, Identity and Recognition, Education and Training, Ethics and Standards, Networks and Collegiality, Business Management, Premier Representativeness, Membership, Product Development and Change Agency.

Graph 3 Distribution Of Key Themes Of Stated Goals And Objectives Of Event Management Associations



Information Exchange

The exchange of information has become a key issue within associations as a means for members to understand and discuss what other members are dealing with in their work. This theme is comprised of the following issues: meetings to discuss ideas, communication, knowledge source, up to date information, exchange of ideas and research. The findings indicated that information exchange was the most commonly occurring theme for those associations with stated goals and objectives with 51% (40) of the associations including this theme within their goals and objectives. This was reflected in the International Exhibition Logistics Association (2001) which state:

> 'The objectives of IELA are: To establish a general database which eventually will provide the membership with a schedule of international exhibitions categorised by both country and industry, the temporary and permanent import regulations, temporary and permanent customs regulations by country, as well as floor plans of the major exhibition venues around the world. To establish an environment which fosters general discussion and the exchange of experiences. To provide information on the industry for those who may have just entered it or may be considering entering it. To facilitate the transfer of both voice and data communications by keeping abreast with the latest advances in the telecommunication industry.'

By providing members with a forum for the exchange of information and ideas the associations provide a valuable service. Timely information and research is integral for the development of event management organisations and the industry as a whole. By providing up to date information and market research on issues of concern to their members, associations ensure that members are receiving value for their membership dues. The Federacion Espanola de Organizadores Profesionales de Congresos (SFPCO, 2001) noted this by stating that their goal was to:

> 'Expose to all members the results of research work and know-how whichmight improve the organisation of congresses and meetings, as well as the experience and resolutions reached.'

Additionally, the increased sharing of experiences, ideas, knowledge and research assists in providing a more professional industry. The American Society of Association Executives (2001) reflected this further in their goals which stated:

> ‘Knowledge Source – ASAE will be a worldwide leader and preferred partner in creating, expanding, refining, and transferring the body of knowledge of association management… GOAL 4’

Considerable variation exists however, when analysed further into international, special interest and regional categories. Special interest associations considered this theme to be very important and it ranked as the most frequently occurring one. The North American, European, South American and African categories also rated this theme as important as it occurred as the second most common theme among the stated goals and objectives. In contrast, the Asian Pacific associations rated the information exchange as the least important theme. As a relatively new entrant to the industry the associations in this region may be protective of the information and research that it has at its disposal due to the fear of letting others gain competitive advantage over them.

Education and Training

This theme was represented by 48% (38) of the event management associations who had stated goals and objectives and considered this an important issue to target. This related to the professional development and competency of associations members that was achieved through educational and training programs that associations offer. The Canadian Association of Exposition Management (2001) acknowledged this within their objectives stating:

> ‘To achieve this mission, CAEM has established four objectives:-…provide opportunities for the professional development and education of members.’

The Canadian Association of Exposition Management that was established in the mid 1970s and has a current membership of over 330, is responsive to those serving Canada’s trade and consumer show industry. The association is providing a valuable service by developing objectives that assist members in enhancing career opportunities and professional competencies. This has been acknowledged through its large membership base. The Chicago Society of Association Executives (Association Forum, 2001) further noted that education and training was an important focus of their goals and objectives by stating that the:

> ‘Association Forum shall serve the nation’s second largest association and non-profit business community and its suppliers by capitalising on high customer intimacy and accessibility to: - deliver superior professional education for all levels of expertise and special interests, - enhance the careers of its members and identify qualified talent for association employers…’

The emphasis on education and training improves members' professionalism and the ways in which they do business. This in turn contributes to an increased level of satisfaction, further promoting their skills to others and thus enhancing a more professional view of the industry.

When analysed further into special interest, international and regional associations, there were marked differences in the importance of education as a theme within the stated goals and objectives of event management associations. The North American, Special Interest and European associations all had education as a key theme within their goals and objectives with it rating as first, second and third respectively. However, the International, Asian Pacific, South American, African and United Kingdom categories only rated this theme in fifth or sixth position. This may be attributable to cultural differences about ethical business practices or the lack of recognised training or educational staff within these regions.

Identity and Recognition

Identity and recognition was found to be as equally significant as education and training. This theme was comprised of the following issues: image, reputation, visibility, international status and promotion. The identity and recognition of the associations was directly linked with the potential to provide members with new business opportunities. This was reflected in the Canadian Society of Association Executives (2001) goals and objectives which stated the need to:

> ‘Increase the effectiveness, image and impact of associations to better serve their members and society.’

By developing the positive images of not only the association, but also the destinations in which they operate, increases the opportunity to bid for larger international conferences and exhibitions being held in their area. This consequently leads to economic benefits accruing to the area. The Hong Kong Exhibition and Convention Organisers’ and Suppliers’ Association (2001) has actively sought these benefits and this was reflected in their goals and objectives which stated:

To establish Hong Kong as the major international exhibition and convention capital in Asia and to promote and to develop facilities available in Hong Kong required to effect this aim.

Increased competitiveness within the global exhibition and convention industry leads to the production of new infrastructure for cities that can be utilised by tourism, governments and other industries. Promotional opportunities also assist these destinations with tourism potential that can support the local economy. The Pacific Asia Travel Association (2001) included these objectives within their goals which stated:

> ‘…augmenting and assisting local promotional and developmental efforts of the members and encouraging sources of capital for tourist accommodation and recreational projects, - carrying out advertising, promotional and

> publicity measures calculated to focus the attention of the travel industry and travelling public upon Pacific Asia as one of the world's outstanding destination areas…'

The identity and recognition theme when analysed further indicated that the international, special interest and regional associations considered this an important theme with most including it within the top four. However, the only discrepancy was on the part of the associations in the United Kingdom that considered it of lowest importance. This may be due to long established identity and promotional efforts on the part of associations within this region.

Ethical Standards

Ethical standards was the fourth most commonly occurring theme as 44% (35) of the associations stated ethical standards in their goals and objectives. This theme included issues of excellence, transparency, quality, world peace, breakdown of barriers and care for environment, as well as ethics and high standards. These issues are based on the potential contributions the associations can make to the economic, political, environmental, cultural and social environments. By developing strong standards based on ethical business practices the associations will develop professionalism within the event management industry. This was reflected by the Insurance Conference Planners Association (2001) which states:

> 'The objectives of the Association are as follows:- Promote a high

> standard of ethical and professional conduct…'

Many associations have created Codes of Conducts or Professional Standards to achieve this goal. This ensures that members acknowledge when they join the association, adherence to a code of behaviour that guides their conduct within the industry and with the general public in a just and ethically sound manner.

By including the cultural environment to be considered within the ethical standards theme, ensures that destinations retain their uniqueness that encourages tourist and conference organisers to visit. The International Sport and Cultural Association (2001) was created with the goals of:

Promoting an understanding between people across borders through sports and cultural activities – underlining the view of sport as a bearer of local, regional or national cultural identity, thereby placing it at the centre of international exchange of ideas, opinions and cultural expressions…

The Conseil International des Organisations de Festivals de Folklore et d'Arts Traditionnels (2001) furthered this goal by stating that:

> 'CIOFF has the following objectives:- promote the intangible heritage through such forms of expressions as dance, music, games, rituals, customs and other arts, - serve the objectives of UNESCO, - support the activities of

> its members and those of non-governmental organizations and all other institutions working in the field of cultural heritage, - serve the cause of peace, through the above objectives.'

The inclusion of peace and cultural heritage demonstrates that certain associations strive to be good corporate citizens. The Union of International Associations (2001) within their goals also states that they aim "to contribute to a universal order based on principles of human dignity, solidarity of peoples and freedom of communication".

When analysed further in international, special interest and regional associations there was varying ratings for this theme. International, South American and African categories all rated this theme as the most common theme in their stated goals and objectives with the Asian Pacific rating it as the third most common theme. In contrast, the special interest, European, North American and United Kingdom associations considered the ethical standards as the sixth, seventh and eighth most important theme. These associations already have in place strategies and standards that deal with these issues. Additionally, associations in the International theme consider this most important as they oversee the whole industry.

Networks and Collegiality

Forty-four percent (34) of the associations with stated goals and objectives considered networks and collegiality within their aims. This was consistent among all regions, internationally and special interest associations with the theme rating in the top five for all. This theme includes working relationships, creating networks and friendship. The event management industry is a very relationship oriented industry with networks, business acquaintances and professional friends being important in solving issues and establishing contacts. The International Association of Convention and Visitor Bureaus (2001) within their goals stated that:

> ‘IACVB will develop and strengthen strategic alliances and business partnerships both within and outside of the industry to solidify its global position and influence.’

This is further reinforced in the National Coalition of Black Meeting Planners’ (2001) objectives which state:

> ‘Through programs and special workshop sessions, conducted at the meetings, the organization strives:- To develop a network in the hospitality industry for the African American meeting planner and supplier. The network is set up to facilitate job referrals, exchange lists of consultants and vendors, and share other resources…’

These networks are influential in referring meetings, conventions and exhibitions, job positions and knowledge. They can also support others within the network by solving business problems, seeking business opportunities and responding to management issues.

Business Management

The business management theme was significant to 29% (23) of the event management associations with stated goals and objectives. This theme included issues such as business consultations, developing sound professional practices, profitability and growth. The effective business management and practices of association members leads to a more professional industry. This is reflected by the Meetings Industry Association's (2001:3) aim that stated:

> It seeks to strengthen the position of members' businesses in an increasingly competitive environment and to raise the profile of the Country as an international conference destination.

Without successful event management businesses, the associations would find difficulty in securing membership. Consequently, associations are interested in members' business skills and in promoting a reputable and successful industry. This is supported by the Alliance Meeting Management Consultants' (2001) goals stating that they aim "to serve the business management needs of meeting management consultants…"

When analysed further the results indicated that there was significant variation among the categories of event management associations. The United Kingdom rated the business management theme as the second most commonly occurring theme for stated goals and objectives in that region. However, the Special Interest, International, Asian Pacific, North American and European categories rated this theme considerably lower at fifth, sixth, seventh, eighth and ninth respectively. The South American and African regional associations did not state this theme explicitly within their goals and objectives.

Membership

Twenty-eight percent (22) of the associations with goals and objectives considered membership to be an important component. This included issues such as safeguarding, promoting and supporting members, increasing benefits to members and inclusive membership. Strong membership is pivotal to the survival and success of associations. Additionally, the membership dues are the revenue that support a majority of the activities in which the association is involved. The American Society of Association Executives (2001) acknowledged this within their goals by stating:

Inclusive Membership – ASAE will be an inclusive and accessible organisation involving members, their organizations, and related communities.

The Professional Conference Management Association (2001) further refined this by stating that the "PCMA will establish criteria to attract and retain a diverse membership…". Increased membership also strengthens the position of the association. One way for associations to encourage increased membership is through developing benefits and services for their members. The British Association of Conference Destinations (2000:1) acknowledge this and state that:

> 'The aims of the Association are to:- constantly develop and enhance

> the benefits it provides to BACD members, who offer venues and services to prospective clients…'

Although a significant finding overall, the United Kingdom and Asian Pacific associations rated this as the fourth most commonly occurring theme. In comparison, the International, European and North American categories rated this theme as seventh, seventh and ninth respectively. Meanwhile, the Special Interest, South American and African categories did not mention this theme within their stated goals and objectives. The significance of this theme in the Asian Pacific region may be due to the relatively new industry that operates in this region. Therefore, they are focused on increasing the participation of members and uniting them through membership. The continual focus on increasing membership numbers throughout the other regions may be an implicit strategic direction and consequently this theme is not identified as a separate one. An extension of this theme is the striving to be the premier representative association, therefore increasing membership numbers and recognition.

Premier Representative Association

To become the premier representative association was important to 27% (21) of the associations with stated goals and objectives. This theme was comprised of leadership, coordination, advocacy, advice and to be one voice. By establishing and promoting an association as the leading organisation in event management it sets a benchmark for others to try to achieve. Additionally, it creates a status within the industry that ensures that members will enjoy the status of being recognised in conjunction with the association. This is reflected in the National Tour Association (2001) which stated that the "…NTA will be viewed as the preferred association for packaged travel professionals." The Alliance Meeting Management Consultants (2001) further reinforced this belief stating they aim "to become the premier organisation for meeting management consultants…"

The role that associations can play in advising and advocating on behalf of their members for the benefit of the industry has been an issue that was supported in the stated goals and objectives of the event management associations. By lobbying on behalf of members and the industry to legislative and government organisations ensures that the events industry is well represented and the results will be indicative of this. The Hong Kong Exhibition and Convention Organisers' and Suppliers' Association consider this in their goals and objectives which state:

> '… To act as an advisory body to its members … To promote, support or to oppose any legislation or other measures affecting the interests of the

> industry. … To represent members and appear before any legislative, government, municipal, public or official body, committee or before any court or any tribunal on any matter concerning the convention and exhibition industry as considered appropriate by the Executive Committee…'

The associations are a valuable tool for members to collectively pressure government to deal with matters that affect the industry. The services and products that they offer their members is a result of this and feature as the ninth most commonly represented theme of event management associations stated goals and objectives.

Product Development

Twenty-five percent (20) of the event management associations with stated goals and objectives considered product development as important to the strategic direction of the association. This included the delivery of leading edge products, efficiently and effectively and customer service. The delivery of products that exceed members expectations ensures that an organisation fulfills its obligations and offers value for money to its members. The International Association of Convention and Visitors Bureaus (2001) acknowledged this in their goals and objectives by stating that the "IACVB will deliver products and services that meet or exceed current and future stakeholders' expectations…". The Professional Conference Management Association (2001) further reinforced this by stating:

> 'PCMA will exceed the expectations of its customers through quality

> products and services… -PCMA will have a diversified funding base to
> enable an exceptional range of products and services for all constituencies…'

By diversifying the products and services offered to members it guarantees that an association is differentiated from other associations that service the industry. Another key issue of this theme was the delivery of these products and services in an efficient and effective manner. XM Europe (2001) state this within their goals by "offering services and information which will help the exhibition organizer to be more efficient and cost-effective…". The Association of Corporate Travel Executives (2001) again commented on this within their goals:

> 'Deliver leading edge products that enhance member value and encourage participation of senior level business…Maximize global organizational efficiency and effectiveness in developing and delivering our core products…'

Product development contributes significant benefits to members by increasing services and products offered to them to improve their businesses. Additionally, this is a marketing tool that can be utilised by the associations to differentiate their services from every other association and therefore place them in a position to potentially gain more members.

Change Agency

A further theme identified in the stated goals and objectives of the event management associations was to act as a change agent. This theme included issues such as challenging preconceptions of the industry and business diversification. Considerably fewer associations identified this goal, as only 4% (3) of associations mentioned it, but its significance was perhaps best summed up by the goals of the Greater Washington Society of Association Executives (2001) who stated:

> ‘We are committed to continuing this process by pursuing the following objectives and strategies: Act as a change agent within the association profession…GWSAE will promote diversity, encourage risk-taking, challenge conventions, explore new opportunities and strongly advocate for new ideas, visions and possibilities, stimulate discussion and debate…GWSAE will help association professionals and business partners ask the right questions and expose them to new ideas and new ways of thinking that will challenge preconceptions and stimulate growth.’

Conclusion

As the event management industry consolidates worldwide, event management associations may find themselves playing an increasingly significant role in professional support to the industry and its managers by assisting their continued growth and success. This paper reviewed the literature on professional associations and explored the strategic direction of event management associations by analysing their stated goals and objectives.

The identified themes all contribute to the strategic direction that the associations are committed to following, however, as evidenced from the ten key themes that were discussed, there was significant variation between the most commonly occurring goals and objectives and the least common. The data points to a higher level of organisational sophistication and a broader range of services offered among those organisations that are larger and have been established for a longer period. The event management associations with a focus in North America, Europe or are international depict this trend most clearly. Further research is required to explore at greater depth the current and future roles and responsibilities of event management associations.

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Appendix 1

Event Management Associations

Academy of Tourism Organizations

Association of Female Exhibit & Trade Show Managers

Alliance Meeting Management Consultants

American Society of Association Executives

American Veterinary Exhibitiors Association

Asia Pacific Exhibition and Convention Council

Asian Association of Convention and Visitor Bureaus

Association of Australian Convention Bureaux

Associacao Brasileira das Empresas de Eventos

Asociacion de Ferias Espanolas

Asociacion de Ferias Internacionales de America

Asociacion de Organizadores de Congresos, Ferias,

Exposiciones y Afines de la Republica Argentina

Association of British Professional Conference Organisers

Association of Collegiate Conference and Events Directors - International

Association for Conferences and Events

Association of Conference Executives

Association for Conference Marketing Executives

Association of Convention Operations Management

Association for Corporate Travel Executives

Association of Destination Management Executives

Association of Exhibition Organisers

Association of the German Trade Fair Industry

Association of the Hungarian Exhibition and Fair Organizers	
Association Internationale des Palais des Congres	
Associazione Italiana Meeting Planner	
Association for Wedding Professionals & Bridal Show Producers, International	
Brazilian Association of Conventions and Fairs	
Bridal Show Producers International	
British Association of Conference Destinations	
British Exhibition Contractors Association	
Canadian Association of Convention Bureaus	
Canadian Association of Exhibitions	
Canadian Association of Exposition Management	
Canadian Association of Fairs and Exhibitions	
Canadian Society of Association Executives	
Canadian Society of Association Management	
Centre for Exhibition Industry Research	
Chicago Society of Association Executives	
Computer Event Marketing Association	
Confederation de Entidades Organizadoras de Congresos y Afines de America Latina	
Conseil International des Organisations de Festivals de Folklore et d'Arts Traditionnels	
Corporate Hospitality & Event Association	
Convention Industry Council	
Convention Liaison Council	CLC
Estadi Olimpic De Montjuic/Paulau Sant Jordi	
European Arenas Association	EAA
European Assocition of Event Centers	EVVC
European Federation of Conference Towns	EFCT
European Major Exhibition Centres Association	EMECA

European Society of Association Executives	ESAE
European Stadium Managers Association	ESMA
Exhibit & Display Association of Canada	EDAC
Exhibit Designers and Producers Association	EDPA
Exhibition and Events Association of Australia	EEAA
Exhibition Management Europe Group	XM Europe
Exhibition Venues Association	EVA
Exhibitior Appointed Contractor Association	EACA
Exposition Operations Society	EOS
Exposition Service Contractors Association	ESCA
Federacion Espanola de Organizadores Profesionales de Congresos	SFPCO
Federation of International Trade Associations	FITE
Federation of State and Provincial Association of Fairs	
Greater Washington Society of Association Executives'	GWSAE
Health Care Exhibitions Association	HCEA
Home and Garden Show Executives International	HGSEI
Hong Kong Exhibition and Convention Organisers' and Suppliers' Association	HKECOSA
Incentive Travel and Meetings Association	ITMA
Independent Meeting Planners Association of Canada	IMPAC
Institute of Association Management Companiec	IAMC
Insurance Conference Planners Association	ICPA
International Association of Amusement Parks and Attractions	IAAPA
International Association of Assembly Managers	IAAM
International Association of Association Management Companies	IAAMC
International Association for Exhibition Management	IAEM
International Association for Exposition Management	
International Association of Fairs and Expositions	IAFE

International Association of Hispanic Meeting Professionals	IAHMP
International Association for Modular Exhibitry	IAME
International Association of Municipal Sports and Multi purpose Centres	
International Association of Conference Centres	IACC
International Association of Conference Interpreters	AIIC
International Association of Convention and Visitors Bureaus	IACVB
International Association of Professional Congress Organizers	IAPCO
International Convention and Congress Association	ICCA
International Council of Air Shows Inc.	ICAS
International Exhibition Logistics Association	IELA
International Exhibitors Association on Radiological Congresses	IEARC
International Federation of Boat Show Organizers	IFBSO
International Festivals and Events Associations	IFEA
International Association of Speakers Bureaus	IASB/IGAB
International Meetings Association	ICCA
International Independent Meeting & Event Planners Network	IIMEPN
International Institute of Convention Management	IICM
International Pharmaceutical Congress Advisory Association	IPCAA
International Society of Meeting Planners	ISMP
International Special Events Society	ISES
International Sport and Culture Association	ISCA
Interantional Society of Gay and Lesbian Meeting Planners	ISGLMP
International Sport Show Producers Association	ISSPA
Internationaler Verband der Stadt-, Sport-und Mehrzweser	
Joint Meetings Industry Council	JMIC
Latin Caribe Bureau	LCB
Major American Trade Show Organizers	MATSO

Meetings Industry Association	MIA
Meetings Industry Association of Australia	MIAA
Meeting Professionals International	MPI
Mexican Association of Professionals in Fairs, Congresse	
National Arenas Association	NAA
National Association of Independent Meeting Planners	NAIMP
National Association of Consumer Shows	NACS
National Association of Display Industries	NADI
National Business Travel Association	NBTA
National Catholic Education Exhibitors	NCEE
National Coalition of Black Meeting Professionals	NCBMP
National Speakers Association	NSA
National Tour Association	NTA
New England Society of Association Executives	NESAE
New England Society of Convention & Visitor Bureaus	NESCVB
New York Society of Association Executives	NYSAE
Outdoor Amusement Business Association	OABA
Pacific Asia Travel Association	PATA
Professional Conference Organisers	PCO
Professional Convention Management Association	PCMA
Professional Meeting Planners Network	PMPN
Professional Show Manager's Association	PSMA
Quebec Exposition Professional Association	QEPA
Religious Conference Management Association	RCMA
Society of Association Executives	SAE
Society of Corporate Meeting Professionals	SCMP
Society of Government Meeting Professionals Inc.	SGMP

Society of Incentive Travel Executives	SITE
Society of Independent Show Organizers	SISO
South African Association for the Conference Industry	SAACI
South African Federation of Conference Cities	SAFCC
Stadium Managers Association	SMA
Trade Show Exhibitors Association	TSEA
Union of International Associations	UIA
Union des Foires Internationales	UFI
Venue Management Association	VMA
Wedding and Special Events Association	WSEA
Western Association of Convention and Visitors Bureaus	WACVB
Western Association of Exhibition Managers	WAEM
Western Fairs Association	WFA
World Council for Venue Management	WCVM
World Tourism Organisation	WTO
World Trade Centres Association	WTCA
World Travel and Tourism Council	WTTC

EVENT

MANAGEMENT

OPERATIONS

Understanding the Role of the Stakeholder in Event Management

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Abstract

Event management research has attracted increased recognition within academic literature over the last decade. Much of this research however, has been descriptive in nature and lacks a strong theoretical underpinning. Stakeholder theory emerged in the early 1960s and has been applied in the strategic management, business ethics and tourism fields. As yet however, there are no documented applications of stakeholder theory specifically in event management contexts. This paper examines the role of stakeholders in contributing to successful events.

Stakeholder theory acknowledges that when the objectives of the organisation are developed, they should balance the sometimes conflicting claims of various stakeholders. Dill (1975) noted the initiatives and thoughts of stakeholders were external to the strategic planning and management processes of organisations. More recent accounts by Freeman (1984) and Clarkson (1995) have noted a change in organisational decision making over this period. The theory suggests that understanding an organisation's

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environment and emerging strategic issues will assist in the planning and policy development process. In the competitive business environment there are other factors that contribute to an organisation’s success apart from the attainment of profits. The stakeholder theory approach adopts an ethical way of dealing with not only the shareholders who have a financial interest but also the groups and individuals who are affected in different ways by their operations.

Being responsive to the needs of suppliers, customers and the community with which the organisation engages, ensures loyalty and leads to their long-term success. Therefore, the organisation focuses not only on profitability levels but also on other forms of value creation and ensures that managers consider their impact on the communities to whom they should be responsible. Essentially the organisation is a system of stakeholder groups (Clarkson, 1995) and a failure to retain their participation will result in the failure of that enterprise.

By adopting stakeholder theory and implementing a framework to assess the level of satisfaction amongst stakeholder groups, the organisation is able to monitor and if necessary improve the relationships with all stakeholders. The strategic management process that is involved in event management is not unlike other organisations, however the event’s limited time span is clearly different from an organisation’s context. Engaging stakeholders throughout the planning process provides a stronger likelihood that the community is satisfied with and will support the event. The emergence of numerous events in recent years has increased the competitiveness of the industry.

Employing stakeholder theory and its application to the planning process has the potential of providing a competitive advantage to event organisers.

Introduction

Event management research has attracted increased recognition within academic literature over the last decade. Much of this research however, has been descriptive in nature and lacks a strong theoretical underpinning (Ritchie, 1984; Hall, 1992; Getz, 1997). There is a necessity to develop theoretical frameworks and models that can be applied in event management contexts to further develop this field of study. Stakeholder theory is one area of research that has potential in this endeavour. Stakeholder theory emerged in the early 1960s and has been applied in the strategic management (Ackoff, 1981; Freeman, 1983, 1984; Clarkson, 1995; Donaldson & Preston, 1995; Jones, 1995; Mitchell, Agle & Wood, 1997), business ethics (Argandoña, 1998; Gibson, 2000) and tourism fields (Bryson & Crosby, 1992; Robson & Robson, 1996; Medeiros de Araujo & Bramwell, 1999; Sautter & Leisen, 1999; Yuksel, Bramwell & Yuksel, 1999). As yet however, there are no documented applications of stakeholder theory specifically in event management contexts. This paper is a conceptual one in that it examines the existing literature on stakeholder theory and the role of stakeholders in contributing to successful events.

All events have a range of impacts on stakeholders, including those within the host community. These impacts influence social, cultural, physical, environmental, political and economic environments (Ritchie, 1984). Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell & Harris (2001) note that it is the event managers' responsibility to identify and predict the impacts of events and then manage them to achieve the best outcome for all parties. This paper proposes that by adopting stakeholder theory and implementing a framework to identify and assess the level of satisfaction amongst stakeholder groups, the event organisation is able to monitor, and if necessary, improve the relationships with all stakeholders. As a consequence of this, it is hypothesized that the event will more likely be successful.

Increased competition and the professionalisation of the events industry over the last decade has resulted in a higher level of governmental and corporate sponsorship of events (Getz, 1997). This has led to the need for event managers to not only meet the needs of its audience but also respond to government objectives and regulations, media requirements, sponsors' needs and community expectations (Roche, 1994; Coughlan & Mules, 2001). Employing stakeholder theory and its application to the planning process has the potential of providing a competitive advantage to event organisers. Therefore, the identification of all stakeholders and a review of their agendas will assist event managers in balancing the competing needs, tensions and expectations of all stakeholders.

The strategic management process that is involved in event management is not unlike other organisations, however the event's limited time span is clearly different from an organisation's context. This view is supported by Smith and Jenner (1998) who note that it would be hard to induce and sustain the same sense of excitement and occasion if events were held more frequently. The short term impacts of events are relatively unique as events have high concentrations of tourist activity in a small area over a short period of time and therefore impacts are often intensified. Engaging stakeholders throughout the planning process provides a stronger likelihood that the community is satisfied with and will support the event. Getz and Frisby (1989:1) argue that “without roots in the community and public ‘ownership’, festivals risk failure”.

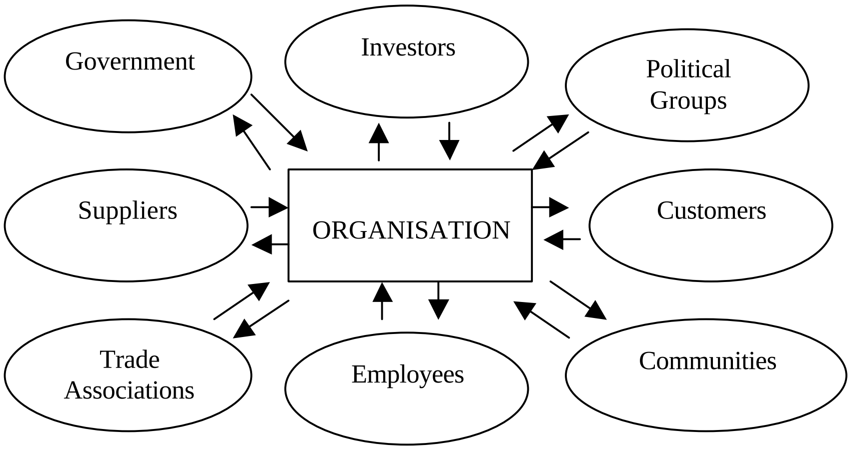
Review Of Stakeholder Theory

Stakeholder theory emerged in the early 1960s with the Stanford Research Institute discussing the role of stakeholders in supporting the activities of an organisation. Ansoff (1965) further explained that balancing the conflicting claims of these various stakeholders should determine the objectives of an organisation. Previous to this, the view was that the initiatives and thoughts of stakeholders were external to the strategic planning and management processes of organisations (Dill, 1975). Stakeholder theory proposes that in a competitive business environment there are other factors that contribute to an organisation’s success apart from the attainment of profits. One of the key principles of stakeholder theory is that an organisation is granted licence to operate by virtue of its social contract with stakeholders (Robson & Robson, 1996). If society sees a benefit in an organisation’s activity it will continue to allow the organisation to operate. The theory also adopts an ethical way of dealing with not only shareholders who derive a financial gain from the organisation, but also all the groups and individuals that affect and are affected by their business (Freeman, 1984; Gibson, 2000). Campbell (1997) explains that by giving a good deal to all suppliers, customers and the community they engage with, will ensure loyalty and lead to the long-term success of a business. Therefore, the organisation focuses not only on value creation and profitability but also ensures that managers think of the full range of communities for whom they should and need to be loyal (Freeman, 1984; Clarkson, 1995; Campbell, 1997).

Stakeholder theory also argues that an organisation's success and survival is dependent upon the ability of its managers to create sufficient wealth, value or satisfaction to those belonging in each of the stakeholder groups (Argenti, 1997; Campbell, 1997). By satisfying the goals and objectives of stakeholders ensures that all the stakeholder groups continue to be part of the organisational system. Clarkson (1995) explains that essentially the organisation is a system of primary stakeholder groups and a failure to retain their participation will result in the breakdown of the organisational system. This in turn will lead to the failure of the organisation to distribute sufficient wealth and value to primary stakeholders. By adopting stakeholder theory and implementing a framework to assess whether satisfaction or dissatisfaction is occurring among the primary stakeholder groups the organisation is able to monitor and improve the relationships with all stakeholders.

This theory is intended to explain and guide the structure and operation of an organisation. Therefore an organisation must be viewed as an entity through which numerous and diverse participants accomplish multiple and not always congruent purposes (Donaldson & Preston, 1995). Figure 1 depicts Freeman's (1984) existing model on the stakeholder theory of an organisation. This theory maintains that all groups or individuals with legitimate interests participating in the organisation do so to obtain benefits and there is no priority of one set over another. Figure 1 also depicts that the organisation interacts with all of the stakeholders and all the stakeholders interact with the organisation.

Figure 1 Stakeholder Theoretical Model (Donaldson & Preston, 1995:69)



Mitchell et al. (1997:854) explain that the holding of one or all of the following attributes could identify stakeholders: legitimacy, power and urgency. Lundin & Söderholm (1995) explain that an underlying factor for stakeholder theory is interests, which are subjectively interpreted and socially constructed by individuals because they are based on individuals' values and expectations. As a result, individual expectations are linked to organisational interests because the individual has certain expectations as to the extent with which the socially constructed interests of the organisation will be met by interacting with other stakeholders. Legitimacy helps identify stakeholders for managerial attention. The event management organisations, and event stakeholders in general, have to ensure that their position is legitimized to gain credibility both within their environment and within the event organisation. Power ensures that stakeholders can influence a firm. The relative power of a stakeholder is based on the degree of authority and resources available to them (Larson & Wikström, 2001). It is the event manager's objective to balance the power games of the different stakeholders so that all stakeholders will be heard. Urgency allows the stakeholder claims to gain immediate attention (Heenan, 1978; Medeiros de Araujo & Bramwell, 1999). Power gains authority through legitimacy, which gains exercise through urgency (Mitchell et. al., 1997). However, as discussed throughout this paper stakeholder theory is also dependent on managerial issues.

Management is essential in defining the purpose or the direction of an organisation, which affects stakeholder theory. Stakeholder theory recommends attitudes, structures and practices for managers to put into place to encourage a stakeholder focused management function (Donaldson & Preston, 1995). This requires simultaneous attention being given to all stakeholders and the establishing of organisational structures, general policies and case-by-case decision-making by managers. Managers must also ensure that all stakeholder groups are given a voice and therefore that they are all consulted. This enables stakeholder groups that are not as strong as some others to still be heard (Sautter & Leisen, 1999). Freeman (1984:46) further states "to be an effective strategist you must deal with those groups that can affect you, while to be responsive (and effective in the long run) you must deal with those groups that you can affect".

As evidenced below however, there is much controversy in defining who or what constitutes a stakeholder. Campbell (1997) explains that each organisation has different and diverse stakeholders, therefore it is management's responsibility to map out who are stakeholders in their organisation. Stakeholder mapping is crucial to managers as it allows them to consider the interests or perspectives of the different stakeholder groups (Freeman, 1983, 1984; Donaldson & Preston, 1995; Robson & Robson, 1996; Sautter & Leisen, 1999; Yuksel et al., 1999). Continuous analysis of this mapping process also allows managers to plan for and identify any changes in the stakeholder environment. This mapping process depends on how the manager conceives the issue and who is perceived to have a legitimate interest. An example of this stakeholder map is evidenced in Figure 1. Freeman (1983) suggests that the strategic management process of an organisation in understanding its external environment can be significantly improved by understanding it stakeholders.

Defining Stakeholders

The term stakeholder has no universal definition in business ethics, strategic management and tourism literature. This is mainly due to contrasting views of who and what constitutes a stakeholder among business ethicists (Argandoña, 1998; Gibson, 2000), strategic management scholars (Ackoff, 1981; Freeman, 1983, 1984; Clarkson, 1994; Donaldson & Preston, 1995; Jones, 1995; Mitchell et. al., 1997) and tourism academics (Bryson & Crosby, 1992; Robson & Robson, 1996; Medeiros de Araujo & Bramwell, 1999; Sautter & Leisen, 1999; Yuksel et al., 1999). As a result there are two different schools of thought; the first develops a broad range of the concept of stakeholders and the second attempts a narrower view of who stakeholders are (Windsor, 1992; Mitchell et. al., 1997).

Stakeholders were originally defined as “those groups without whose support the organisation would cease to exist” by the Stanford Research Institute (SRI) in 1963 (as cited in Freeman, 1983:33). By this definition the SRI included shareowners, employees, customers, suppliers, lenders and society within the list of stakeholders. Rhenman (1968) defined stakeholders as “to designate the individuals or groups which depend on the company for the realization of their personal goals and on whom the company is dependent.” This definition includes all employees, owners, customers, suppliers, creditors as well as many other groups as being stakeholders to the company. Dill (1975:58) broadened this even further by stating that the notion of a stakeholder was “people outside…who have ideas about what the economic and social performance of the enterprise should include.”

The excessive breadth in the classification of stakeholders has arisen from the adoption of definitions such as “anything influencing or influenced by” the organisation (Freeman, 1984). The broader view of stakeholders was based on the empirical reality that companies can be affected by or can vitally affect almost anyone (Donaldson & Preston, 1995). However, Freeman’s definition of a stake can be interpreted as affecting one or both stakeholders, with there being no implication or necessity for that affect to be reciprocated. Therefore, the only ones excluded from having a stake are only those who cannot affect the organisation and are not affected by it.

Clarkson’s (1994:5) narrower definition delineated between voluntary and involuntary stakeholders stating “voluntary stakeholders bear some form of risk as a result of having invested some form of capital, human or financial, something of value in a firm. Involuntary stakeholders are placed at risk as a result of a firm's activities. But without the element of risk there is no stake." This narrows the definition of stakeholders to those that have some legitimate claim on the organisation due to the risk taken. It also is an earlier attempt to differentiate between the stakeholders. Carroll (1993:60) also maintains that stakeholders are "those groups or individuals with whom the organisation interacts or has interdependencies". As with Clarkson, Carroll goes on to differentiate these stakeholders into primary and secondary stakeholder groups. He states that "primary stakeholders are those who have a formal, official or contractual relationship and all others are classified as secondary stakeholders" (Carroll, 1993:62). A significant difference between these categorizations of primary stakeholders was that Carroll's definition implicates a legal relationship between the firm and the stakeholder group. Although Clarkson argues that the survival of an organisation would be in jeopardy without the support or participation of primary stakeholders he does not limit this further to be a legally binding relationship. A similarity between these two definitions has been the belief that without the interests of the secondary stakeholders being acknowledged they have the potential to significantly affect the organisation and therefore have the power to be either a threat or a benefit for the organisation.

Donaldson and Preston (1995) argue that it was essential to draw a clear distinction between influencers and stakeholders. Influencers are deemed to have power over a firm irrespective of whether or not their claim is legitimate or if they wish to press this claim. They (1995:67) state that "stakeholders are identified by their interest in the corporation, whether the corporation has any corresponding functional interest in them, [and] the interests of all stakeholders are of intrinsic value. That is, each group of stakeholders merits consideration for its own sake and not merely because of its ability to further the interests of some other group, such as a shareowner." The underlying principle in this definition is that even if the corporation has no interest in stakeholders, the stakeholders may still be identified due to their stake (interest) in the firm. Legal developments in America have reinforced that stakeholders are defined by their legitimate interest in the corporation rather than simply by the corporation's interest in them (Donaldson & Preston, 1995). However, one of the primary difficulties for event management professionals is the endless number of potential stakeholders that can be involved in the events industry. Larson and Wikström (2001) explain that it is difficult to map all the actors claiming a stake in an event.

Defining Event Stakeholders

The definition of stakeholders applicable to event management research is not unlike the existing definitions of stakeholders. The focus of the 'event stakeholders' definition has a necessity to relate to events, as unlike corporations, the events are devised and conducted in limited time spans. The strategic management process involved in event management is not unlike an organisation, so therefore the way in which event managers engage their stakeholders will contain many of the same characteristics that are evident in an organisation. However, there will also be substantial differences and for that reason the definition of stakeholders adopted in this paper is:

> ‘Groups or individuals who are affected or could be affected by an event’s existence. Primary stakeholders are those individuals or groups without whose support the event would cease to exist. Secondary stakeholders are those groups or individuals who although are not directly involved in the event can seriously impede the event’s success.’

By including all groups or individuals that are affected or could be affected by the event it broadens the range of stakeholders that need to be engaged by event organisers. Events are often used as a strategic initiative by many tourism organisations and have the potential of affecting stakeholders at different levels (Allen et. al., 2001). This includes federal governments that have an established event within their national tourism strategy, to the local community that supports these events.

Differentiating between the stakeholder groups enables the researcher to further categorise stakeholder relationships with the event organisation. It also assists in the methodological framework of analysis. The researcher believes that there are significant differences between the networks and relationships among the primary and secondary stakeholder groups in relation to the event organising committee. Therefore, it was deemed essential to analyse these groups differently.

Application to Event Management

Tourism authorities are increasing the emphasis placed on tourism planning which involves multiple stakeholders so that they may collaborate to develop more effective and efficient tourism experiences (Jamal & Getz, 1997; Robson & Robson, 1996; Medeiros de Araujo & Bramwell, 1999; Sautter & Leisen, 1999; Yuksel et al., 1999). This is a time consuming and difficult approach to tourism planning, however it is justified because in the long-term it will reduce the costs involved in resolving potential conflicts, can build the knowledge and capabilities of stakeholders and is consequently viewed as politically desirable (Healey, 1998; Yuksel et al., 1999). The degree of stakeholder participation in this process is dependent on the level of interest in the issues and also the openness of the key decision makers to outside participation. Nevertheless, stakeholder views can add value by drawing on their intimate knowledge and insights of local issues.

Participation by stakeholders encourages planners to consider the varied social, cultural, environmental, economic and political issues affecting not only tourism development but also more specifically, event management (Bramwell & Lane, 1993). Event management comprises many of the same characteristics involved with tourism planning, therefore there is a need to also incorporate stakeholders in the planning framework of events. As discussed by Allen et al. (2001) events do not operate within a void and affect almost every aspect of people's lives. To include the stakeholders in and throughout the planning and development stages will enable the event organisers to balance the overall impact of the event.

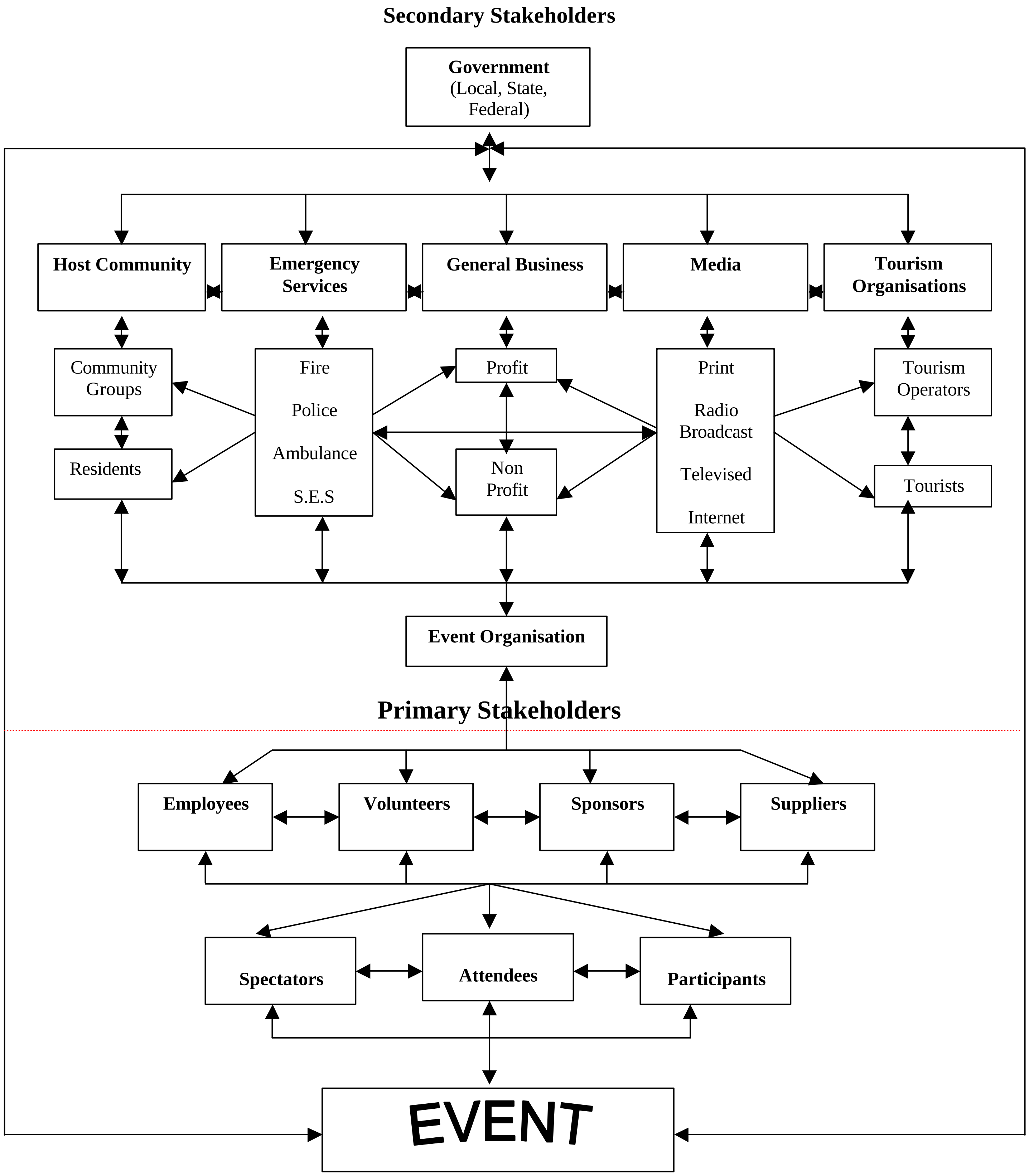
As a result of the review of the literature and the definitions adopted for this research, a conceptual model of event stakeholders has been developed. Figure 2 depicts the relationships that exist between stakeholders and an event. The primary stakeholders of the event organisation in this model are the employees, volunteers, sponsors, suppliers, spectators, attendees and participants. That is, without the direct support of these stakeholders the event would not exist. The group of secondary stakeholders consists of the government, host community, emergency services, general business, media and tourism organisations. This is not to suggest however, that the secondary stakeholder group is less important to the event than the primary stakeholders, but that their impact is not as direct.

Event Organisation

The event organisation is the central component of the suggested model. The managers of event organisations are integral in guiding the stakeholder management approach of the organisation (Freeman, 1984; Campbell, 1997) that is, implementing a framework for the effective utilization of stakeholders in and throughout the planning process. Management has an important function in identifying the stakeholders, bringing them together and fostering an environment that enables all the stakeholder views to be heard. An event organisation is established with many of the same considerations involved in the corporate sector, therefore they need goals and objectives, and strategic plans for the management of an event. A successful event is one that incorporates all the stakeholders within this process of strategic planning and balances, as much as possible, potential conflicts and impacts on these stakeholders. The outcome of all the primary stakeholder groups that come under the event organisation in figure 2 is the event itself, however without the event organisation this event would not take place.

The employees and volunteers, sponsors, suppliers, spectators, attendees and participants are the stakeholders influenced by the decisions of the event organisation and contribute directly to the event, therefore they are classified as the primary stakeholder group.

Figure 2 Event Stakeholder Model


Secondary Stakeholders
Government
(Local, State, Federal)
Host Community
Emergency Services
General Business
Media
Tourism Organisations
Community Groups
Residents
Fire
Police
Ambulance
S.E.S
Profit
Non Profit
Print
Radio Broadcast
Televised
Internet
Tourism Operators
Tourists
Event Organisation
Primary Stakeholders
Employees
Volunteers
Sponsors
Suppliers
Spectators
Attendees
Participants
EVENT

Primary Stakeholder Groups

Employees and Volunteers

An event is not viable without the support and participation of the employees and volunteers. The significant difference between these primary stakeholder groups is that the employees are the paid workers of the event management organisation. The employees are often involved in the planning and management functions of the event management organisation. This takes into consideration the budgeting, staffing and programming issues involved in planning an event. Allen et al. (2001:60) suggest, "for an event to be truly effective, the vision and philosophy of the event must be shared by all the team, from key managers, talent and publicists, right through to the stage manager, crew, gatekeepers and cleaners". The volunteers on the other hand are not paid employees and give of their time to staff the event. This is a cost-effective way of staffing events, as due to their limited time span there is a need for a large number of staff during a limited time. Even though the volunteers are not paid, they are often involved for a variety of reasons such as wanting to be involved in the community, self actualization and fulfillment or to learn skills for future employment (Arthur & Andrew, 1996). Event managers need to take the volunteers' motivations and skills into consideration when placing them in jobs for the event, as this will have a bearing on how they view their contribution and work (Williams, Dossa & Tompkins, 1995; Allen et al., 2001; Hollway, 2002). Additionally, the event manager has to foster a sense of harmony between these two stakeholder groups to ensure that they work together successfully. This is to alleviate any tensions between the two groups over the legitimacy of their individual contributions to an event.

Sponsors

To make an event successful a considerable amount of sponsorship is generally required. A changing perception among corporations over the last decade has resulted in sponsorship being accepted as an important component of the marketing mix (Kerstetter & Gitelson, 1995; Mount & Niro, 1995; Coughlan & Mules, 2001). Sponsorship has the potential to increase brand awareness, sales or to promote the corporations public image. However, it is important that event managers are able to determine what objectives and results that the sponsor is aiming to achieve from the sponsoring of the event to ensure that these can be met (Meenaghan, 1983; Watt, 1998; Mack, 1999). Additionally, in deciding to contribute funds to events the sponsors must ensure they do not support events with large numbers of sponsors and they should be highly visible on the ground during the event to ensure brand recognition among participants (Coughlan & Mules, 2001). Event managers must balance the need for sponsorship dollars with the reality of conflict and rivalry between competing sponsors in determining which sponsors to approach.

Suppliers

The suppliers are those stakeholders that provide goods and services directly to an event. This stakeholder group often is included in the general business stakeholder group as well, however, they are a primary stakeholder for an event when they are providing products and services directly to events and event managers. As in corporate relationships it is in the event manager’s best interests to source suppliers that provide the most cost effective goods and services. However, the most cost effective goods and services may be of a lower quality resulting in tensions between event organisers and the spectator, attendees and participant stakeholder groups. These products and services may also be sourced from outside the local community resulting in economic leakage out of the community and thus causing conflict with local general business members (Ritchie, 1984; Allen et al., 2001). These considerations need to be taken into account when dealing with suppliers of events.

Spectators, Attendees and Participants

There are no agreed definitions of spectators, attendees and participants within the event management or tourism literature, however there is a need to differentiate between these stakeholders. The spectators, participants and attendees are those stakeholder groups with varying levels of involvement in an event, however the stakeholders within these groups are not mutually exclusive. Spectators as a group refer to those at an event that have limited involvement in an event, for example, those people that just view proceedings. People taking part in viewing a fireworks display could be considered within this group. Attendees refers to people that are attending an event and have a higher participation rate than just observing, for example, those at a fair taking part in show rides. Participants are those that are involved in some way in producing and presenting at an event. These groups are primary stakeholders because without them there would be no event. Events have different target markets and it is the event organisations' responsibility to match the expectations and needs of the intended market with the event (Smith & Jenner, 1998). Taking into consideration the other stakeholders' preferences for a particular target market for an event is also important. These stakeholders provide substantial economic and social consequences to a host community and event organisation. Economically these stakeholders contribute through ticketed entry receipts and purchases. Socially, the values and behaviours that they exhibit can have an influence on a host community and this is not always in a positive way. The host community may oppose the presence of event spectators, attendees and participants as influencing younger members to behave outside of the norms and values that they uphold (Hall, 1988; McCool & Martin, 1994; Delamere, 1997; Getz, 1997). Additionally, the congestion that they cause may impinge upon the quality of life of local residents.

Secondary Stakeholder Groups

Government

The government at all levels has an influence on the proceedings in a direct or indirect function. The policies and procedures that they have in place relate to all facets of the stakeholder groups that are depicted underneath. Events need to comply with government regulations and guidelines relating to health and safety issues such as hygiene, waste disposal and appropriate space and safety requirements for the level of attendance. Therefore, the government restrictions and legalities involved in event organisation ensure that governments have an important stake in events. Additionally, some politicians may use events as a way of boosting their popularity through the goodwill and sense of celebration that arises from attending events (Hall, 1992; Boyle, 1997). Successive governments at all levels have acknowledged that events attract visitors, which increases the profile of their area and also their political profile. As suggested by Hall (1989) “events may change or legitimate political priorities in the short term and political ideologies and socio-cultural reality in the longer term”. As an elected representative of a local area, the government needs to respond to the desires of their electorate. Therefore, supporting an event’s development in an area where the local constituents in the host community stakeholder group oppose the event has the potential of resulting in a backlash at the next election.

Host Community

The host community is included as a stakeholder because an event is located within a geographical area and therefore all the citizens within this area are affected or could be affected by the event. Within this group there are numerous community groups that contribute to the host community and event organisation. Community groups include stakeholders such as religious and church groups, support and welfare agencies, recreational and community service groups and residents. Understanding the demographics and psychographics of the host community will assist in developing events that best suit the needs of the market (Smith & Jenner, 1998). Awareness of the more prominent leisure pursuits of the host community will also determine the more successful activities and themes to include. Involving community leaders and key stakeholders within the host community in the planning process is also a way for event organisers to ensure that the community participates in and has ownership of the event (Delamere, Wankel & Hinch, 2001). The Queensland Police Service & Liquor Licensing Division of the Department of Tourism, Sport & Racing (1999) note that including these community stakeholders who may be affected by the event in the planning stages will ensure that they are cooperative and supportive. However, it is noted that significant tensions can result between the host community and a number of the primary stakeholders and even within the secondary stakeholder group. Host communities may not welcome or be supportive of tourism in general, which could result in tensions and resentment of the tourist influx during an event (Rothman, 1978; Hall, 1988; Burns & Holden, 1995). The pressures that an event causes to the host community infrastructure also impinge on the quality of life of residents (Hall, 1992). Increases in the cost of goods and services during an event caused by the high demand from visitors also have the potential of causing inconvenience and economic hardship for the local community (Graburn & Moore, 1994; Brunt & Courtney, 1999; Tomljenovic & Faulkner, 2000). Additionally, as events are held in certain locations those residents and businesses closest to this location are disrupted with noise, congestion, pollution and socially deviant behaviours (Ritchie, 1984; Getz, 1997).

Emergency Services

The emergency services groups such as the police, fire brigade, ambulance and state emergency service personnel are another stakeholder group that is essential for the success of an event. These groups are able to control crowds at the event, which will play a part in other spectators, attendees and participants having a good time. They are also needed throughout the planning stages to assist in the safety issues surrounding the event such as transportation, medical emergencies, public drinking and security procedures. The contributions that they make to the event organisation are often in supporting the event through volunteer labour. These features can be a factor in the success of the event as safety and security are primary concerns for attendees and event organisers. However, controversy arises if the emergency services oppose an event being held due to the excess work that an influx of visitors in a celebratory atmosphere may cause by overworking all of the services and causing an increase in social delinquency problems within the host community. Compromises in the level of safety precautions implemented, caused by cost reductions on behalf of the event managers also adds tension between these key stakeholders.

General Business

Industry and business stakeholder groups play a multi-faceted role in supporting an event. These include the provision of services and goods for spectators, attendees and participants, as well as through assistance in marketing and sponsorship. The expenditure by visitors who attend events can be beneficial to industries such as travel, accommodation, hospitality, service stations, shopping and other tourism related services. Fredline (2000) maintains that it is a widely held and not unfounded belief, that major events stimulate the local economy and 'showcase' the region to the world through the potential promotion of future tourism and business activity. Therefore, events have an economic impact upon a host community that would not otherwise occur. Unsuccessful and controversial events also have the potential of degenerating the originally positive tourism image, which could have widespread affects for the local tourism and general business community (Ritchie, 1984).

Media

The media stakeholder group has the potential of promoting images and awareness to a large market. This has increased in scope in recent years due to the proliferation of media types including television, radio, print media and the Internet. As a marketing tool the media is able to inform the public of the event, which potentially widens the audience. The media also creates images of the event and creates a profile in visitors' minds of the location of the event leading to a potential increase in tourism to the area. As suggested by Allen et al. (2001) the live audience at an event can be superseded by the television audience with many events being created primarily for the television audiences, such as the modern Olympic Games. The media groups also contribute through major sponsorships and the payment of media rights for an event. For example the print media may be able to contribute by publishing the event program or having special editions as well as covering leading stories on the event. The Internet might be utilized by the event organisation as a forum for advertising the event and for the pre-purchasing of tickets. Radio and television may also be used as an advertising forum and for broadcasting from the event, which will also increase awareness. Having the support of the media will lead to the positive promotion of the event and therefore enhances the success of the event (Ritchie, 1984; Hiller, 1989; Smith & Jenner, 1998; Fredline, 2000). On the other hand, negative publicity from the media stakeholder groups has the capability of causing a very poor image of the location and host community.

Tourism Organisations

Events have been increasingly used by tourism organisations to promote a location and increase tourism (Ritchie, 1984; Hall, 1992; Getz, 1997). These organisations primarily are involved in the marketing and coordination of tourism activities in a region, therefore it is vital that the event organisation has their support. The promotion of an event can lead to interstate, intrastate and international tourists attending an event (Pawson & Swaffield, 1998; Veal & Lynch, 2001). Therefore, a successful event can increase the economic impact of the tourists from outside of the region contributing to the event and also the local tourism and business industry. Events also have been used by tourism organisations as a way of extending the tourism season or of creating interest in the low season (Ritchie, 1984; Hall, 1989; Getz, 1997; Smith & Jenner, 1998). As noted throughout, the support of the host community and other stakeholder groups of tourism is key to the continued survival of tourism and event development.

Conclusion

Stakeholder theory has been applied to a variety of business contexts but there are no previously documented applications of stakeholder theory to event management situations. This paper has reviewed the key notions of stakeholder theory, defined stakeholders within a broad organisational context and then attempted a specific event context definition. A tentative stakeholder model has been proposed that may have potential for use in event management contexts. It can assist event management organisations in planning their strategic direction and defining their philosophies. Additionally, as a tool in the identification of relevant stakeholders, the model can direct the attention of event managers to take into consideration the goals and objectives of stakeholders that have the potential to influence or be influenced by the event. As a consequence, the event management organisation is in a stronger position to increase the positive impacts and reduce the negative impacts that might arise from the hosting of an event and to balance the conflicting claims of all stakeholder groups. Continuing research will test and refine the model to determine its relevance in mapping stakeholders of events and factors that contribute to their involvement.

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Inclusive and Accessible Special Events Planning: An Australian Perspective

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Abstract

People with disabilities have a right to access the full range of social activities and services available in a society. Nonetheless, the way physical and social environments are sometimes constructed the ability of such people to exercise such a right can be greatly restricted. This paper looks at how those engaged in the organisation of events can facilitate the involvement of people with disabilities in the conferences, festivals, and sporting events etc that they conduct. The paper begins by providing a brief overview of selected facts, and other matters associated with disability in Australia. It then moves on to address the specific issue of planning and conducting events, or building event venues/sites, that are both accessible and inclusive to those with disabilities. The final part of this paper provides a brief overview of how the issue of access was dealt with in the context of the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games. The paper concludes by pointing to the requirement, both moral and legal, to take the needs of people with disabilities into account when conducting events or designing venues, and by

reinforcing the need to engage directly with such people to ensure such an outcome is achieved.

Introduction

Disability is part of human diversity and not separate to it. All societies contain individuals with disabilities and there are approximately 500 million people with disabilities living today (Charlton 1999). The construction of the social environment can act to dramatically restrict access of people with disabilities to a range of social activities and services, and hence, involvement in the community (Swain et al. 1996). This paper focuses on the involvement in the leisure experience of special events, and discusses how those involved in the organisation and/or the design of the venues/sites where they take place, can ensure the needs of individuals with disabilities can be strategically included. The paper begins by providing a general overview of selected facts, and other matters related to disability in Australia. It then moves on to address the specific issue of planning and conducting events, or building event venues/sites, that are both accessible and inclusive to those with disabilities. The final part of this paper provides a brief overview of how the issue of access was dealt with in the context of the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games.

Overview Of Disability In Australia

Market size and general characteristics

In 1998 an estimated 3.6 million people, or 19% of the Australian population were classified as having a disability that affects their activities in everyday living. As Table 1 shows, this was an increase of some 400,000 people over 1993. Of this group, approximately 150,000 were wheelchair users, while a further 350,000 required mobility aids. Additionally up to another 1,200,000 required assistance with self-care, mobility or communication (ABS 1998). It is also noteworthy that, in addition to those identified as having some form of disability, 3.1 million individuals were classified as having a condition or impairment that, while currently having no significant impact on their daily lives, would likely result in some form of disability in the future (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1998).

Table 1 Disability in Australia

Year	No. Of Persons	% of Population
1993	3.2 million	18
1998	3.6 million	19

(Source: ABS 1993 and 1998)

Disability and the Law

In Australia at both Federal and state levels, there exits human rights legislation that makes it illegal to discriminate on the grounds of disability. The disability and anti-discrimination legislation is reinforced through complementary State disability policy, environmental planning legislation, the Building Codes of Australia and referenced Australian Standards. The *Disability Discrimination Act*, 1992 (DDA) is the major Federal legislation dealing with disability discrimination. This act seeks to:

- eliminate discrimination against people on the grounds of disability;
- ensure that a person with a disability has a right to equal treatment before the law; and
- promote community understanding that a person with a disability has the same fundamental rights as the rest of the community. (HREOC 1994)

Under this act disability is categorised under the following broad categories (HREOC 1994):

- Physical;
- Sensory;
- Intellectual;
- Psychiatric;
- Neurological;
- Learning disabilities;
- Physical disfigurement; and
- Presence in the body of disease causing organisms.

The DDA also provides protection against discrimination because a person is accompanied by an assistant, interpreter or reader, a trained animal, such as a guide or hearing dog, or uses equipment or an aid, such as a wheelchair or a hearing aid. Additionally, the DDA provides protection for the carers, friends, relatives and co-workers of people with disabilities if they are discriminated against because of the person's disability. From an event organisers perspective the DDA implicitly makes it unlawful to discriminate against people with disabilities from: access to premises used by the public; provision of goods, services and facilities; and education (if the event has an educational context). In particular, the DDA ensures access to goods, services and facilities and access to public places by making it illegal not to provide access for people with disabilities. People with disabilities have a right to obtain goods and use services and facilities in the same way as people without disabilities. This means an event organiser cannot (HREOC 1994):

- Refuse to provide people with disabilities with goods, services and facilities;
- Provide goods, services and facilities on less favourable terms and conditions; and

- Provide goods, services and facilities in an unfair manner.

Event organisers should be familiar with the DDA and other relevant legislation and ensure the needs of people with disabilities are addressed when planning and organizing their event. The consequences of not doing so can include costly and time-consuming legal action, additional or remedial building costs, and adverse media attention.

From the perspective of the events industry the DDA and other acts, regulations and standards provide a design and operational context, that covers, amongst other things, access to areas used by the public, and the provision of goods, services and facilities. Non-compliance with these requirements can lead to the lodging of complaints and legal action. A number of event related cases under these provisions have taken place. These include:

- Cocks v State of Queensland - Brisbane Convention Centre – this case concerned the lack of provision of an accessible main entrance for all patrons. People with disabilities were provided with a separate back entrance whereby they were required to separate from able-bodied patrons. The Brisbane Convention Centre was required to provide an accessible main entrance for all its patrons.
- Interim order under the DDA - Arts Festival – this order concerned an event organiser who had booked an inaccessible venue, a hall at Adelaide University, for the festival. Two separate complaints were lodged were lodged by an exhibitor and a person who wished to attend the festival. The conciliated outcome required the festival to be moved to a accessible venue and that for the future Adelaide University committed funds to making the hall accessible for future use
- Complaint lodged against Sydney Organising Committee for the Olympic Games – this complaint concerned not providing alternative format ticket booklets for people

with vision impairment. The complaint was upheld and while originally ignored by SOCOG was taken to the Federal Court of Australia where an undertaking was given to provide alternative format information for the future and to compensate the individual involved. (HREOC website 1999).

Planning for Accessible and Inclusive Events

From the previous discussion it can be determined that those individuals with disabilities potentially represent a considerable market for the events industry. Nonetheless many events continue to ignore this group as Chouinard notes in the context of conferences,

> *"Conference organization is often a sobering example of practices which exclude disabled colleagues. Conference rooms lack reserved seating for the disabled, conference forms typically lack spaces for indicating special needs, and few if any steps are taken to ensure full participation of persons with disabilities (for example, access to sign language interpreters, Braille maps of conference layout, personnel to assist persons with special needs). Although barriers to conference access may be "invisible" to non-disabled organisers and participants, they also send out strong signals to persons with disabling differences that their presence and participation in academic space is not sufficiently important to ensure that all access needs are met." (Chouinard, 1997: 382).*

How can those involved in the events industry therefore ensure that the venues they select or their venues/sites and events are planned to be both accessible and inclusive of those with disabilities? For practical purposes access planning for special events for people with disabilities can be thought of as having three dimensions. They are:

1. Physical;
2. Sensory (sight or hearing impaired); and

3. Communication (Disability Council of NSW 1994).

Physical access involves those people with mobility impairments requiring the use of wheelchair or walking aids. It requires the provision, for example, of paths, ramps, lifts, handrails, clear directional signs, kerb cuts, circulation room, wide doorways, hobless showers, lowered counters and telephones etc. These should be coordinated into a "continuous pathway". This term refers to:

> *"An uninterrupted path of travel to or within a building providing access to all required facilities. For non-ambulatory people, this accessible path shall not incorporate any step, stairwell or turnstile, revolving door, escalator or other impediment which would prevent it being negotiated by people with a disability." (SA 1993:7)*

Sensory access involves those people with hearing or sight impairments. It requires the provision, for example for people with hearing impairments, of hearing augmentation-listening systems, sign interpreters (Austlan in Australia), verbal material presented in print form etc. For people with sight impairments, of tactile signs and labels, tactile markings, audio cues for lifts and lights, visual cues at changes in levels of flooring, print material available in alternative formats (disk, large print, Braille) etc.

Communication access involves those people that have difficulty with the written word, with vision, speech or hearing impairment, or are from other cultures. It requires the provision, for example, of TTY telephone typewriters, access to information in a variety of media, non verbal signs or posters, plain English documentation or other community languages (Disability Council of NSW 1994).

In seeking to deal with these areas of disability, event professionals in Australia can make reference to Standards Australia (AS) guidelines. These include:

- AS 1428.1--1998, Design for access and mobility Part 1: General requirements for access -- New building work
- AS 1428.1-1993, Design for access and mobility - General requirements for access - Building
- AS 1428.2-1992, Design for access and mobility - Enhanced and additional requirements - Buildings and facilities
- AS 1428.3-1992, Design for access and mobility - Requirements for children and adolescents with physical disabilities
- AS 1428.4-1992, Design for access and mobility - Tactile ground surface indicators for the orientation of people with vision impairment
- AS 1735.12-1999, Lifts, escalators and moving walks - Facilities for persons with disabilities

Specifically AS 1428.1 provides standards for:

- Walkways, ramps, landings, handrails & grabrails
- Doors, doorways and circulation space
- Lifts and stairways
- Toilets and showers
- Controls and floor surfaces
- Parking
- Entertainment venue seating
- Signs

- Hearing augmentation-listening systems

Additionally Standards Australia AS 1428.2 deals with items not covered under AS 1428.1 and offers enhanced requirements particularly for areas affecting Special events organisers. These include:

- Continuous accessible path of travel
- Lighting and sound levels
- Reach and viewing ranges
- Furniture and fitments
- Street furniture
- Gateways and checkouts
- Vending machines
- Telephones and Postboxes
- Time delays at lights and pedestrian crossings
- Kitchens and laundries

While these guidelines provide a useful reference point for those involved in the events industry, it is also possible to identify a range of generic considerations associated with the creation of inclusive and accessible events:

Event Information

All event information should carry a signifier of the organization's awareness of disability issues. This can be as simple as the universal symbol for access with a statement underneath identifying a person in the organization to contact for further information about access to the event.

Registration forms should contain a line that allows people with various requirements to be able to list those requirements so event organisers can be made aware and begin planning for their inclusion. This places the responsibility on people with other requirements to take responsibility for making those requirements known whether they be disability related or otherwise.

Staff Training

Staff on all levels must be aware of the provisions for access and disability issues. It is of little use having one person designated as the responsible staff member if no one else in the organization knows of their role and that there is a system for providing access related information. Those staff who will be dealing with or assisting people with disabilities should be provided basic disability awareness training. Further, disability awareness training should be planned to be included as a topic in future staff development opportunities.

Venue Selection

Venue selection should include understanding of access provisions as discussed in this paper. Questions should be asked of the venue manager as to their access provisions. If a venue manager cannot enter basic access related questions serious consideration should be given to not using it. It also needs to be kept in mind that access is more than for just wheelchair users or people with ambulatory impairments, and that questions should be asked about provisions for people with sensory impairments i.e. hearing assistive devices etc.

For those involved in planning the development of new venues & facilities, architects must be queried as to their process for inclusion of access and disability related design. Again if architects cannot competently answer basic access related questions then another architect should be engaged for the project. Further, access consultants generally work with architects on major projects. It is too late to find out that your architect was not access aware after the facility has been completed.

Transport

While event organisers may not be responsible for transporting people to their event they should be aware of, and be able to provide information about, accessible drop off points, public transport routes and accessible parking locations. For those event organisers who are responsible for transporting people to their event, or for day trips/field visits etc. and have people attending who require accessible transport, a range of commercial options are available. For example, many commercial car and mini bus hire companies have accessible transport for rental.

Accommodation

As with transport event organisers may not be responsible for providing accommodation but those that negotiate special event/conference rates should do so with an accommodation provider who has good quality accessible accommodation. A number of books and organizations can provide assistance in locating accessible accommodation. The best of these is Cameron (1998) *Easy Access Australia*, or NICAN (www.NICAN.com.au) which has a database of accessible accommodation.

Social Calendar

In planning an event/conference where a social calendar is included consideration must be given to access to the venues and places selected. To exclude participants with disabilities from these events is discriminatory. This also includes how it is intended that participants be transported to these places.

Support Services

A major area of diversity inclusion is catering arrangements. Apart from people who are vegetarian, there are a range of other dietary considerations because of people's cultural, religious, or medical requirements. An area for dietary considerations should be included on the registration form. All event workers and volunteers should be provided with disability awareness training. If your event is to be attended by a large number of people with disabilities a person should be designated as their contact point for information etc. Lastly, it is always a good idea to provide all participants with general support information relating to local medical services.

The Sydney 2000 Games

To understand how the events industry has adapted to the challenge of accommodating the needs of people with disabilities it is useful to briefly examine how the largest event conducted in Australia to date, The Sydney 2000 Games, dealt with the issue of access.

The main vehicle through which the issue of access was addressed for the Sydney 2000 Games, was an Access Advisory Committee (AAC). This committee was established to advise the Olympic Coordination Authority (OCA) on access issues and comprised a range of community representatives on access and disability issues (see Figure 1). The OCA, together with this Committee developed a set of *Access Guidelines* to cater for groups with special needs including people with an intellectual disability, vision impairment, auditory impairment, ambulatory disabilities and others in 1996 (OCA, 1996). These guidelines were later revised and a second Edition was released in 1998 (OCA 1998).

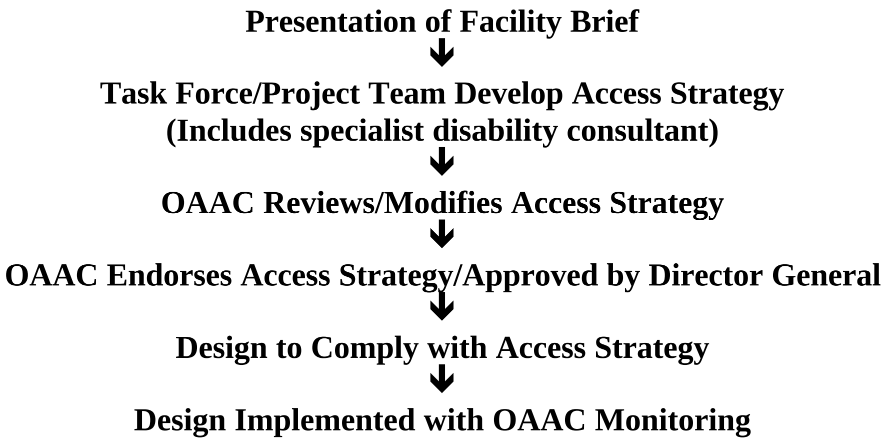
The Access Guidelines created by OCA, in consultation with its AAC, incorporated current access requirements stipulated in the Building Code of Australia and the Australian Standards for Access and Mobility, and other relevant standards (AS 1428 parts 1-4; AS 4299 etc.). Further, they were proactive in seeking to incorporate the spirit and intent of the Disability Discrimination Act, 1992 (DDA). The Guidelines covered all Games facilities, venues and operations, and required that an access strategy be prepared for each venue and that an access audit be carried out. Further, these requirements were extended to include the Cultural Olympiad venues, and were interpreted as embracing any other necessary services that would be considered part of the Games 'precinct' (e.g. hospitals).

Table 5 Membership and Affiliation of the Olympic Access Advisory Committee

REPRESENTATIVE	ORGANISATION
Terry Fletcher (Chair)	Chair
Lynne Davis**	Disability Council of NSW
Robert Sawyer**	Ageing and Disability Department
John Ahearn	Department of Transport
	SOCOG
Gerry Hewson	SPOC
Eric Poulos	Anti Discrimination Board
Jean Halcrow	Acrod Limited, NSW
Ian Cooper	People with Disabilities NSW Inc.
Heather Johnson	Consultative Committee on Ageing
Carol Ireland	Royal Blind Society
Hugh McCaighy	NSW Council for Intellectual Disability
Ray Piesse	Self Help for the Hard of Hearing
Marcia Girke	
Naomi Clark	National Federation of Blind Citizens
Trish James	National Federation of Blind Citizens
Chris Johnson	Government Architect Design Directorate
Glen Redmayne	People with Disabilities NSW Inc.
David Richmond	OCA
David Pettigrew	OCA
Phil Sidoti	OCA
Jane Woodruff	OCA
Dianne Leeson	OCA
John McCartney	OCA
Bryan Govers	OCA

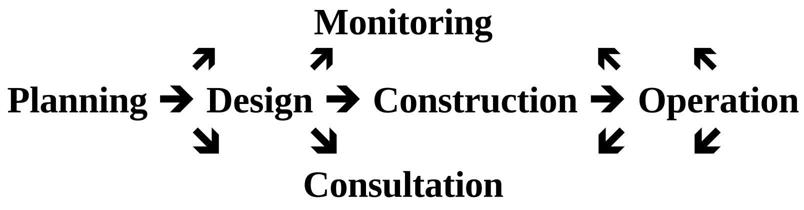
Figure 2 presents the inclusive facility planning process undertaken by OCA. As Figure 2 illustrates, this is supported by ongoing monitoring through development stages (planning, design, construction and operations). Integral to both Figure 1 and 2 is an active and two way consultation process with the Olympic Access Advisory Committee and other people with disabilities.

Figure 1 The Facility Planning Process


Presentation of Facility Brief
Task Force/Project Team Develop Access Strategy
(Includes specialist disability consultant)
OAAC Reviews/Modifies Access Strategy
OAAC Endorses Access Strategy/Approved by Director General
Design to Comply with Access Strategy
Design Implemented with OAAC Monitoring

Source: Adapted from OCA 1998 & Fletcher 1998

Figure 2 Development Stages, Monitoring & Consultation


Monitoring
Planning
Design
Construction
Operation
Consultation

Source: Adapted from OCA 1998 & Fletcher 1998

An essential component of the facility planning process in Figure 1 is the employment of a specialist access/disability consultant. The process of selecting an access consultant has been problematic in the past. While consultants with architectural and planning backgrounds have called themselves access consultants there has been no system for assessing knowledge of access and disability related issues. Part of this problem can be traced to the lack of involvement of people with disabilities in the planning processes. Consultations with people with disabilities are essential to understand how space is used and not just how to technically adhere to access requirements. Examples abound of access planning completed by "qualified professionals" where the result is unusable for people with disabilities. In 1997 OCA called for expressions of interest for a register of access consultants for Olympic projects. This was the first attempt to develop a resource of 'suitably qualified' organizations to provide access advice. However, it still lacked a systematic system of evaluation.

The OCA continued the process of consultation beyond the official Olympic Access Advisory Committee. From July to November 1999 OCA, for example, undertook wide consultation with disability groups in a series of workshops, tours and information sessions with groups and individuals representing people with physical, vision, intellectual, hearing disabilities, as well as with senior groups (pers. comm. Woodruff 21/9/1999). This research was supplemented with evaluation and research from the experiences of people with disabilities in the test events leading up to the Games (Darcy and Woodruff 2000). Outcomes from these processes in turn were incorporated into operational plans, guidelines, checklists and training for staff and volunteers.

Conclusion

Accessibility is about being inclusive of the whole community in whatever activities are being planned, rather than an obstacle to be overcome. By embracing such a view an event organiser is likely to minimise the risk of legal action by people who have been excluded by their actions or inaction, while at the same time maximising the capacity of their event to attract the largest possible audience from their chosen markets. In order to create events that are inclusive of people with disabilities, whether they be sensory, communication and physical in nature, thought needs to be given to areas such as transport, event information, venue/site choice/design, and accommodation selection. The obvious way of doing this is via directly involving people with disabilities in the event planning process. The example given in this paper, while that of a mega-event, nonetheless displays how a process can be established to ensure events meet the needs of people with disabilities, or at least go a long way towards achieving such an outcome.

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Placemaking Means Not Wastemaking

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Abstract

‘Place’ is an important part of the event experience. For many events the location is specifically selected to enhance participants’ enjoyment of the event. This is most clearly seen in the conduct of events in locations such as the Great Barrier Reef where the environment itself is an integral part of the conference or event ‘experience’.

The problem for such places, is that the people attending these conferences and events leave behind more than additional dollars in the local economy – they leave behind their rubbish too, not to mention the rubbish created in feeding and accommodating them. If this rubbish ends up in the local landfill, it may have a negative impact on the very environment used to attract further conferences and events.

Landfill sites may produce greenhouse gases such as methane and carbon dioxide. If poorly maintained they may also leak toxic chemicals into the local water table and have a number of other undesirable impacts on the environment. In addition, they may contain a wide variety of potentially recoverable recyclable and reusable resources.

A poorly managed waste system at an event or venue may also lead to high levels of litter, further despoiling the environment and reducing the enjoyment of attendees.

The result is that events and venues that do not appropriately manage their wastes can inadvertently impact negatively on the quality of the local environment that helps attract customers, and in so doing, jeopardise their own future.

To assist events and venues to manage their wastes in a more environmentally sustainable manner, the ‘Seven Steps to a Waste Wise Event’ were developed, initially by Eco-Recycle Victoria, and later adopted and modified by Resource NSW. The 7 steps are: Commitment, Packaging, Equipment, Management System, Signage, Communication/Promotion, and Evaluation.

Properly implemented, these 7 Steps provide events and venues with the means of substantially increasing the recovery of reusable and recyclable resources and a corresponding decrease in the amount of waste sent to landfill and litter. The result is significant benefits for both the local and wider environment, and maintenance of the desirable environmental characteristics integral to a successful event.

This paper briefly describes ‘The 7 Steps to a Waste Wise Event’ and outlines the environmental and economic benefits able to be achieved by events and venues through their implementation.

CASE STUDIES

Re-building the Community with Fire, Water, and Music: The WaterFire® Phenomenon

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Abstract

WaterFire® began as a one-time public arts installation in Providence, Rhode Island in 1994. Popular demand then called for the artist, Barnaby Evans, to redesign WaterFire as an on-going art installation. Within a few years, in large part due to WaterFire, Providence began to be listed among the most desirable cities in North America to live and work. WaterFire is a multimedia sculptural installation, whose main ingredients are fire, water and music, and which now takes place approximately 20 times each year. WaterFire is produced with the support of hundreds of volunteers and has attracted millions of local citizens and tourists who stroll alongside the river watching black-clad volunteers in boats stoke giant bonfires in the middle of Providence's three downtown rivers. Recorded music accompanies this spectacle to create a relaxing, contemplative environment for all to enjoy. This paper will examine the social, economic, political, environmental, and cultural impacts of this unique event and propose a model for how such an event might be replicated in other communities that require revitalization. Key words: WaterFire, cultural, economic, environmental, art, festival, hospitality, impacts, political, social, and tourism.

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Rationale For The Study Of WaterFire

This study examines the significant social, political, cultural, and economic impact that WaterFire has had upon the City of Providence and the State of Rhode Island. WaterFire will be used as an example to illustrate how an art installation or similar event may revitalize a city.

WaterFire began in 1994 as a relatively small commemorative environmental art installation. Subsequently, it has expanded from the initial 11 bonfires illuminating the Woonasquatucket River in 1994 to 100 bonfires in the 2001 season. WaterFire has been one of the key forces in the positive economic and social development that Providence has seen since the mid-1990s. According to an impact study conducted in 1999 by WaterFire Providence® (the non-profit organization that stages WaterFire) over a million WaterFire visitors and tourists were expected to spend at least $23 million dollars during their trip to Rhode Island to see the fires during the 2000 WaterFire season. With this influx of visitors into the city, it was estimated that WaterFire would generate close to $2.4 million dollars in direct and indirect state tax revenue during its 2000 season, including sales tax, gas tax, and income tax receipts (WaterFire Economic Impact, 1999, p. 12). WaterFire Providence had an operating budget for the 2000 season of slightly more than $1 million (WaterFire Economic Impact, 1999, p. 21). Visitors to WaterFire create new jobs in Rhode Island in the hospitality industry including an increase in the number of restaurant wait staff, hotel positions, parking lot and service station attendants, extra bus drivers, increased law enforcement officers, and sales clerks employed at the area retail stores.

According to David DePetrillo, Tourism Manager of the Rhode Island Economic Corporation, “WaterFire has become a signature event for both Providence and the entire state of Rhode Island. Its benefits have extended beyond the obvious direct impact. We have used images of it on the covers of our publications, in consumer ads, in multi-media presentations and so forth. Since the emergence of WaterFire as a major event coincided with the rebirth of downtown Providence, it has come to symbolize the emergence of Providence as a leisure destination.” (D. DePetrillo, personal communication, February 4, 2002).

With both the collaborative effort and support of hundreds of volunteers, local sponsors, and the tireless efforts of the WaterFire staff, who are also responsible for both producing the event and soliciting the funds necessary to sustain the project, WaterFire has illustrated how an event may positively affect the economic, political and social environment of a large geographical area. WaterFire draws visitors from local cities and towns, as well as tourists from all across the world, to experience a work of art that permeates every sense of the human body. WaterFire also stimulates several areas of business development including corporate and individual sponsorship, volunteerism, and collaborative support from city and state officials. With these entities working together toward a common goal, WaterFire has and will continue to be a successful event enjoyed by all that participate.

This exploratory study of WaterFire will examine the central ingredients for the success achieved in Providence, Rhode Island. Since the concept of WaterFire does not work in every community, the recommendations section of this report will outline how other communities could create equivalent events tailored to their specific community. The opportunity to create new community events that are reproducible in other destinations could become a new phenomenon for community event developers who are seeking opportunities to share costs and share success with other compatible event destinations.

Data for this study was collected from WaterFire Providence using both primary and secondary research methods, personal interviews with key informants from WaterFire Providence, and city and state officials.

History Of WaterFire

WaterFire combines sparkling bonfires, a romantic ambiance, the fragrant scent of aromatic wood smoke, and volunteer fire tenders dressed in black wardrobe who stoke the flames from torch-lit boats. Enchanting music originating from various cultures across the world engages the senses and emotions of those who stroll the paths and bridges of Waterplace Park. WaterFire is an invitation to slow down, walk through the city, or simply sit by the water's edge, and experience a work of art that has become a community event built around a shared, outdoor evening experience (WaterFire Providence, n.d.a). The symbolism at the heart of WaterFire draws upon the traditions of Classical Greek Mythology that associates the flowering of human culture with the theft of fire from the gods. Fire and water are ancient symbols of life and death and the delicate balance between these two mutually self-destructive forces underscore the fragility and miracle of life. The boats, named after Greek gods and heroes, glide down the river, playing an integral, and yet mysterious role in the creation and performance of WaterFire. Every detail and movement, both on the water and off, is carefully designed and choreographed by the artist, to bring to life the artistic potential of the sparkling fires poised above the shimmering water.

WaterFire is a work of contemporary sculpture designed and developed by Barnaby Evans, an artist who creates site-specific installation works. Evans created "First Fire" in 1994 as a commemoration to celebrate the 10th anniversary of Providence's New Year's Eve celebration, First Night. In June of 1996, Evans created Second Fire for the International Sculpture Conference. It was at this event that WaterFire became a gathering place for thousands of spectators. Passionate art supporters convinced Evans to redesign the work as an on-going fire performance that led to the establishment of WaterFire Providence as a non-profit organization. WaterFire had 42 bonfires in 1997 and expanded to 97 in 1999. WaterFire currently illuminates a series of 100 bonfires that blaze for two-thirds of a mile just above the surface of the three rivers that pass through the middle of downtown Providence lined by a series of public parks (WaterFire Providence, n.d.b). Since 1996, WaterFire Providence has attracted over three million people to downtown Providence.

Evans attributes the success of WaterFire to its origin as a work of art and to the attention that is given to every detail of its aesthetics and presentation. As WaterFire has grown in scale and popularity it has been forced to become more of a special event as it confronts the logistical and production challenges that come with an attendance of as many as 100,000 visitors in an evening. WaterFire is both a work of art and an event, sharing aspects of both (WaterFire Providence, n.d.b). In his book, *Event Management and Tourism*, Getz (1997) stated, "whether an event is organized by professionals or volunteers, corporations or nonprofit associations, event management is both an art and a science" (p. 11). Getz's observation is an accurate assessment since WaterFire combines the magnificence and attention to detail of fine art with the planning and organizational techniques of an event. WaterFire goes to great lengths to protect the integrity of the art piece, with full artistic control being retained by the artist. WaterFire Providence has "banned recreation boats from the exhibit, and stopped vendor sales of glow necklaces and other illuminated items, which they say detract from the fires" ("Providence a melting pot," 2001). These efforts are clearly appreciated by the crowd who often comment on the remarkable level of detail and the sophistication of the experience. "One of the most beautiful, haunting moments of my life." "I think WaterFire is the most remarkable event I have ever attended. It made me realize how much beauty there is in all things. I was overwhelmed by the moment and it brought tears to my eyes." (WaterFire Visitor Comment Books)

WaterFire estimates that the event attracts from 20,000 to 75,000 people on any given evening depending on season and weather and that it has attracted well over 3 million people since 1994. The Providence Police have estimated that attendance occasionally reaches 100,000 people. Analysis of WaterFire's visitor comment books show that in 2001 WaterFire attracted spectators from every state in the United States as well as from over 38 countries. It is tremendously difficult to obtain the exact number of attendees since there is no formal ticketing process or admission to WaterFire and the site is large and porous with hundreds of potential entrances.

Because of the popularity of this event, WaterFire has recently expanded its offerings to include not only the illumination of the bonfires, but also ancillary events such as outdoor ballroom dancing and live jazz performances at locations near the bonfires.

The true testaments of WaterFire's success are the words of visitors taken from comments written in the organization's guest books. Entries recorded by visitors in these log books describe WaterFire as a "powerful, moving, awesome, unbelievable, fantastic, artistic, magical, and a breathtaking experience." "It is so spiritual. You have this overwhelming respect and awe. I am without words." With these testimonials, it is apparent that there is every reason for WaterFire to continue to illuminate Providence for years to come.

Economic, Social, Cultural, Political, and Environmental Impacts of WaterFire

Sponsorship, in its simplest form means, "to provide funds or 'in kind' contributions to promoters of events and receive consideration in the form of logo usage and identity with the event" (Catherwood & Van Kirk, 1992, p. 101). Traditionally, sponsorship meant that both corporate and private organizations would provide funds to support an event. In return, the prospective sponsor would generate some revenue as a result of the event. Today, however, sponsorship does much more. Oftentimes, the sponsor and the organization putting on the event will work collaboratively whereas the sponsor has much more of a role than it did in past years when they simply wrote out a check to sponsor the event. Today, this means that there is nothing charitable about sponsorship simply because the organization is looking for something in return (Catherwood & Van Kirk, 1992). This raises the question of how to determine the economic impact of WaterFire to justify investment by sponsors. Leora Moldofsky (2002) in the January 8th issue of *Time Magazine*, Providence states that "Providence was listed as one of the best cities to visit in North America." (Time 2002) This article further provides accolades for WaterFire and has confirmed the positive effects on the economic, political, and social environments of the City of Providence thus increasing the interest of local and national sponsors to seek sponsorship in the WaterFire event.

As with any nonprofit organization, WaterFire is competing for the financial resources of numerous local and national organizations. It is also difficult to compete with local non-profits. Individuals, as well as corporations, have different causes that they hold close to their hearts and as a result, place their financial support in various directions. WaterFire has had to contend with such challenges. It is an ongoing effort to solicit the funds necessary to support the event. WaterFire charges no admission fees and has very little earned income; less than 3% of its budget is raised from earned income (WaterFire Economic Impact, 1999). All the rest of its budget must be raised from corporate sponsors, governments, and private donors.

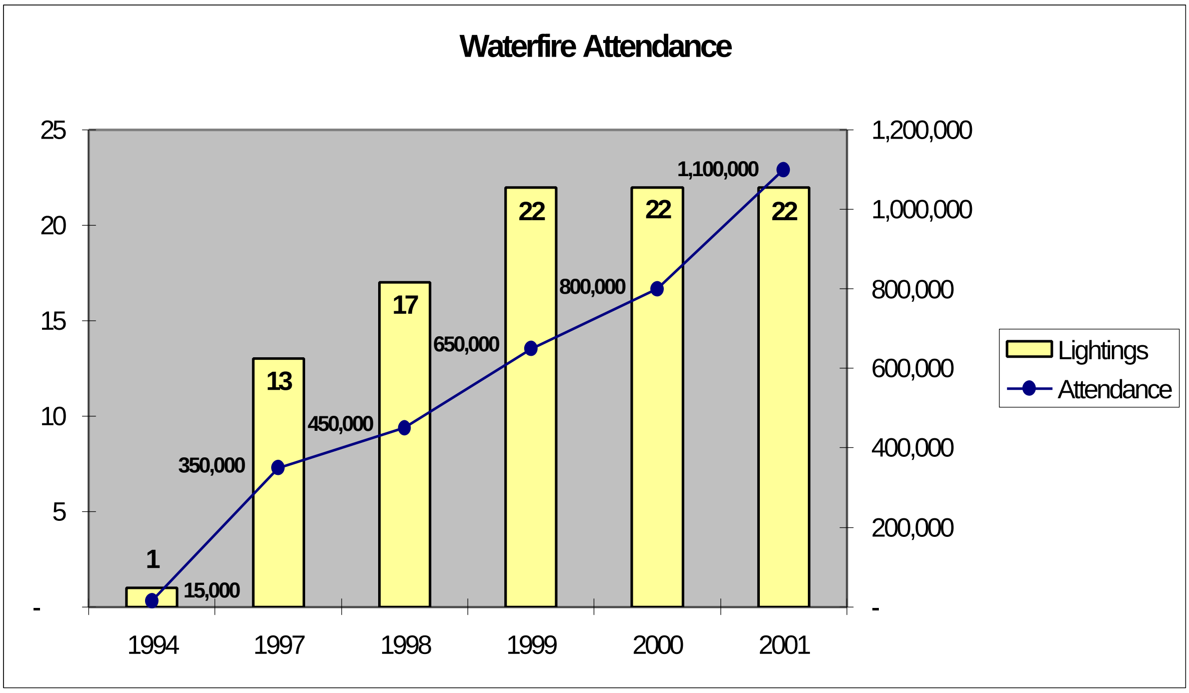
David DePetrillo also states that "The long-term success of any event that is conducted by private efforts must ultimately depend on private sector support. No state or city can guarantee long-term financial support for such an endeavor, regardless of how great it is. Budget surpluses often dissolve into deficits. Over time, government administrations change. To rely on such funding would be dangerous. That being said, I believe that WaterFire should receive local and state financial support; however, it should not base its survival on expectations that this support will continue indefinitely.” (D. DePetrillo, personal communication, February 4, 2002).

Furthermore, Vincent A. Cianci, Jr., Mayor of Providence, Rhode Island concurred with DePetrillo and stated the City of Providence was an early and continuing supporter of the event with enthusiastic support from the business, educational, and artistic communities. With WaterFire not only enhancing the city’s culture but boosting tourism and the general economy as well, the city is willing to act as a sponsor, along with other segments of the community (V. Cianci, Jr. personal communication, February 4, 2002).

Economic Impact

The economic impact of WaterFire has had a positive effect not only on the City of Providence and the State of Rhode Island but also on local area establishments such as restaurants, hotels, retail stores, and private vendors that include food, souvenirs, as well as local artists and street performers. In the vicinity of the event site are hundreds of retail stores and restaurants. Each business directly benefits from additional revenue generated from visitors to WaterFire. In an article written in *The Providence Journal*, author Michael Corkery states, “People from around the country e-mail the WaterFire staff, asking for places to stay and suggestions for restaurants.” (The Providence Journal, 2001) The 1999 Economic Impact Study also indicated that audience spending by visitors to WaterFire during the previous three seasons (1998, 1997, & 1996) exceeded $44 million dollars. During its 2000 season alone (a season that saw a greater number of lightings than past seasons), WaterFire visitors were expected to spend at least $23 million dollars in the State of Rhode Island. Over half of this spending comes from out-of-state tourists and represents new spending in the region. The 2001 season and the current 2002 season consist of a similar number of lightings as took place in 2000. Additionally, a survey was conducted sampling a random 577 visitors to WaterFire. The study revealed that 73 percent of all attendees had lunch, dinner, or drinks at a restaurant or bar before, during, or after the WaterFire event and that 85 percent of out-of-state visitors ate at a restaurant or bar (WaterFire Economic Impact, 1999, p. 6). As confirmed by DePetrillo and Cianci, the event is a source of major economic injection for the city of Providence and surrounding area.

Chart 1



*Attendance data is based on the estimated population.
Source: WaterFire Economic Impact, 1999.

Chart 1 depicts the relationship between the increase in the number of lightings and the increase in attendance to the WaterFire event. With the increase in attendance, more money is brought into the state via taxes as well as increased revenue to local merchants.

Yet another effect that WaterFire has had on the State of Rhode Island has been the increased potential for the number of conventions being held in Rhode Island. Convention planners have found WaterFire to be an ideal special event to crown a successful conference in Providence. Both the Convention and Visitors Bureau have reported that WaterFire is a unique, special attraction that can convince a convention coordinator to choose Providence as its meeting site. Because of the additional conventions coming to Rhode Island, the economic benefit to the state is further increased. Many corporate organizations as well as local business establishments have implemented successful advertising campaigns that specifically include the WaterFire theme. As an example, the Westin Hotel implemented an advertising campaign theme called “ignite the imagination” in a “red-hot setting” with WaterFire in a meeting “that will set your group on fire” (WaterFire Economic Impact, 1999, p. 8).

The primary economic benefits of event tourism include generating tourist expenditures, increasing tax revenues, attracting sponsorship and grants, and expanding employment opportunities (Getz, 1997). In addition to these benefits, some events also result in the development of capital projects to permanently improve the event venue. As a result of the success of WaterFire, the Providence Parks Department has continually invested in and improved the parkland that borders the area where the event is located.

Social Impact

The social impact of WaterFire may be the most compelling aspect of this event. Many Rhode Island natives will attest to the fact that Providence, at one time, was not known for being a safe environment. Oftentimes if local residents wanted to enjoy an evening out, they looked towards other surrounding states or simply visited a local establishment. "There was a time when officials in Providence, RI, talked often of the one tool they thought might revive their broken home—the wrecking ball" (Nifong, 1996). However, this has changed with the advent of WaterFire. The Providence Place Mall and the Rhode Island Convention Center were entities that were created to draw visitors to the State. However, with the development of WaterFire, visitors not only visit the vast amounts of establishments that were available to them, but WaterFire became the focal point, or nucleus, to the trip to Providence. Local establishments around WaterFire reaped the benefits of the influx of 1 million visitors who came to experience the illuminations. Visitors plan trips to Providence around the WaterFire art installation, and corporate sponsors plan corporate meetings and conventions around these nights.

Mayor Cianci describes the lighting of WaterFire as "a seminal event promoting community, bringing people of all ages alongside the rivers and to the river walks in downtown Providence, to join in a communion celebrating the elements of our city while reveling in the music and kinetic art provided by WaterFire" (V. Cianci, Jr., personal communication, February 4, 2002).

One of the major positive effects that this event has had on the city is the improvement in safety and security for residents and visitors. While City officials donate the services of local fire, police, and sanitation departments, it is the presence of people in the parks that assures safety. This means that visitors can feel comfortable walking through the streets of Providence at 11:30 p.m. feeling just as safe as they do at 11:30 a.m. This change is welcomed by local residents since it is a feeling that most people have not experienced while living in Providence prior to WaterFire. To summarize, WaterFire has brought a new sense of pride to the citizens of Rhode Island. It has transformed downtown Providence into a safer and busier city with a greater number of elements to experience. Local residents who previously traveled to other states for various forms of entertainment now look to Providence, Rhode Island for entertainment and out-of-state visitors have now made Providence a destination. Providence is no longer viewed as a “detour” on the way to the Cape Cod or Boston, Massachusetts. WaterFire has allowed Rhode Islanders, for the first time in decades, to feel proud of the city in which they live.

Events such as WaterFire play a key role in the rediscovery of cities throughout the United States. In an article by Gerald Krausse (1998), Krausse discusses the effects of regional events such as waterfront festivals located in the Rhode Island and Massachusetts area. In an article written by Howell, 1990 (as cited in Krausse, 1998) he stated water-based celebrations provide communities with both a reason and mechanism to show off their maritime heritage, which in turn, can promote tourism.

Legal Issues

WaterFire is presented in Providence by a non-profit, 501(c)(3) arts organization. Evans has worked with a number of cities and art museums to create related works for other sites and remains interested in creating new works for appropriate sites. While

WaterFire can be considered an event from an organizational perspective, it is primarily an original work of contemporary visual and performance art and as such is protected under international copyright and trademark law. Aside from the legal aspects, WaterFire is an internationally known and respected work of public art and any attempt to duplicate it without the permission and involvement of the original artist would be broadly condemned by the larger arts community as inappropriate.

According to Steve Kumins, WaterFire's Director of Development, WaterFire is an original work of art protected under United States and international copyright law and the names WaterFire and WaterFire Providence are both registered trademarks owned by Barnaby Evans. WaterFire controls the use of its name and of images of the installation and does not allow the sculpture to be replicated without the artist's consent and involvement in order to protect the integrity and aesthetics of the work of art. Evans remains interested in working with other cities, museums and non-profits to create successful public artworks. (S. Kumins, personal communication, January 24, 2002).

Political Impact

McDonnell, Allen, & O'Toole (1999), state that governments around the world have realized how events can improve the image and profile of politicians and the cities and States in which they preside over. An effective event will, no doubt, attract visitors and ultimately will create economic benefits and jobs. In a study conducted by Fisher, Hatch and Paix, 1989 (as cited in McDonnell, Allen, and O'Toole, 1999) they noted:

> ‘Governments in power will continue to use hallmark events to punctuate the ends of their periods in office, to arouse nationalism, enthusiasm, and finally, votes. They are cheaper than wars or the preparation for them. In this regard, hallmark events do not hide political realities; they are political reality’ (p. 27).

WaterFire has been broadly supported by both the City of Providence and the State of Rhode Island. However, WaterFire must seek additional revenue to support the event. Since politicians have been eager to associate their names with the event, it has occasionally caused problems where visitors may assume that the event is entirely funded by the city and state. This can lead to the average patron feeling as though their financial support is not needed. While financial backing from the city and state is critical, at times it can lead to this perception problem.

Findings And Recommendations

According to Catherwood & Van Kirk (1992), there are several keys to success in event planning. One key is determining whether or not the event is a good idea. WaterFire is clearly a spectacular example of the old adage that “if you build it, they will come.” It is obvious that this event has proven to be well received by the visitors who attend. This might in part be due to the fact that it is open to the public and is a free event. WaterFire is working in Providence but what will work in other cities? Another key to success involves having the right planning and marketing skills available as well as the right community. Evans states that WaterFire would not necessarily be successful if he simply duplicated the installation in another city. WaterFire’s impact is the result of a careful balance between the physical aspects of the site and the emotional resonance of the installation involving subtle decisions in response to everything from site materials and scale to crowd psychology, from acoustic effects to ambient light to public expectations. Evans' installation works are "designed pieces created for each city, site, or museum" (B. Evans, personal communication, January 24, 2002). He further described how he would explore a number of different approaches to creating installations for other cities.

The Model for Event Replication

For these reasons Barnaby Evans does not desire to pursue the prospect of a traditional franchising arrangement for WaterFire. Franchising by definition is "a business arrangement in which the developer/owner (the franchiser) of a business concept grants others (the franchisees) the license right to own and operate a business based on the franchiser's business concept" (Brooke, 2000). The franchising model presupposes that the installations or events would be identical. The model that is more appropriate is a partnership between the artist and the city where they will explore the potential for commissioning Evans to come work with the community to create a specific work of art that is appropriate for their site.

For example, in 1998, Evans worked with Houston, Texas where he designed and installed a fire installation work for the Buffalo Bayou as part of a major dedication of the expanded Sesquicentennial Park in the city's arts and entertainment district. In an article by Patricia Johnson (1998) in the May 8, 1998 edition of *The Houston Chronicle*, she describes how "the anchors and buoys, which stabilizes the strings of fires in Providence, were scaled back and redesigned for the bayou to keep the fires within 6 inches of their desired location." The Houston site was very different from

Providence, and WaterFire Houston differed accordingly and was a very successful work.

Evans installed a different fire work for the new Museum of Contemporary Art and Glass in Tacoma, Washington in September of 2001. He created a water based installation for the Institute of Contemporary Art in Boston, Massachusetts in the summer of 2000. Earlier Evans designed and installed an entirely different indoor installation work for the Rhode Island School of Design Museum of Art in 1999.

The success of Evans' different installations in Providence, Houston, Tacoma, and Boston do not assure that works could be created for every city, but Evans is open to exploring potential sites with cities who might be interest in commissioning and sponsoring such an event. Other artists such as Christo, best known for his large works of art using fabric to wrap existing structures, also firmly believes accepting licensing deals alters and compromises the art. Christo insists on working in total freedom and having total control over the aesthetics of his installation (Church, n.d.). WaterFire involves a considerable investment in specialized physical infrastructure and Evans is investing in additional equipment to allow the organization to present short-term installations in other cities. These temporary installations could be one-time events, annual events, or an experiment towards the development of a longer-term installation.

An example of a festival that has had an impact on urban revitalization similar to WaterFire is The International Alliance of First Night Celebrations, which is an organization originally founded in Boston, Massachusetts in 1990. This organization "provides a forum for education and exchange of ideas among its membership through newsletters and an annual conference." The First Night celebration in Boston serves as a model for a New Year's Eve celebration. Other communities from Cape Cod, Massachusetts to Sydney, Australia host similar First Night arts festivals (Earls, 1993). If Evans was willing to, the question is could WaterFire follow in the footsteps of First Night and market this event to other cities as a generic, standardized event? In a telephone interview with Zeren Earls, President of First Night Boston & the International Alliance of First Night Celebrations she confirmed that this was not possible or feasible. She agrees with Evans that WaterFire is a work of art created by one artist and that WaterFire was carefully designed specifically for Providence (Z. Earls, personal communication, April 2, 2002). First Night, on the other hand, is a showcase of many local artists and performers sponsored by each city, not a unified work of art informed by the coherent vision of a single artist. First Night is similar to WaterFire in its broad impact on the city's economy. "Urban revitalization and tourism are strong by-products of the First Night Celebration. Seventeen years ago, Boston was a quiet place on New Year's Eve" (Earls, 1993). Similar to WaterFire, First Night also has grown from attracting a little more than 25,000 people in 1976 to close to one million people in 2002 (First Night, n.d.).

Yet another example of a Festival that has lead to urban revitalization can be found in the country of New Zealand. New Zealand experienced a restructuring over the past 20 years similar to Providence. New Zealand sought to develop tourism to strengthen the country's economic state. Twenty years ago, tourists who visited the center of the country found it virtually deserted. Today, however, New Zealand is the host to over 25 events such as The New Zealand Festival that runs for three weeks. In essence, New Zealand becomes part of the representation of life that the media and other forms of cultural production engage in through festivals (Thorns, 1997). The events serve as examples of how events can help revitalize a city and transform it into a prosperous and attractive entity.

According to Nancy Moses (2001) there are key issues in cultural development planning. These issues can be used as a model in determining what would be the most effective event for a city. Moses (2001) stated that, "a cultural development plan uses a community's cultural assets—its history, architecture, museums, performing arts, and more—to spur economic growth and tourism development". The community should explore such areas as (1) the unique identity of the community (2) its cultural assets (3) its regional and tourist markets (4) its prime location(s) for new cultural facilities (5) strategic alliances that could be made with nation entities (6) buy-in need from key interest groups (7) optimal scale and sequencing of the cultural plan and (8) costs and revenue sources. Since every community has a unique identity, it is vital that the community use this to create a sense of place and position. WaterFire has been highly successful in targeting Providence's cultural assets. It is up to each community to identify its own cultural assets and define its community to give visitors a reason to visit.

Most products or services have a product life cycle and this may apply to WaterFire has well. "Programs should be planned to have a life expectancy, and if it is not a planned process, there is a real risk that the event will lose popularity or money" (Getz 1997). WaterFire is currently still in the growth stage. As with any attraction, new programs must constantly be added to attract new visitors. (Incidentally, Evans has stated that he considers the constancy of WaterFire from night to night to be part of the appeal of WaterFire.)

Figure 1 The Model for Event Replication

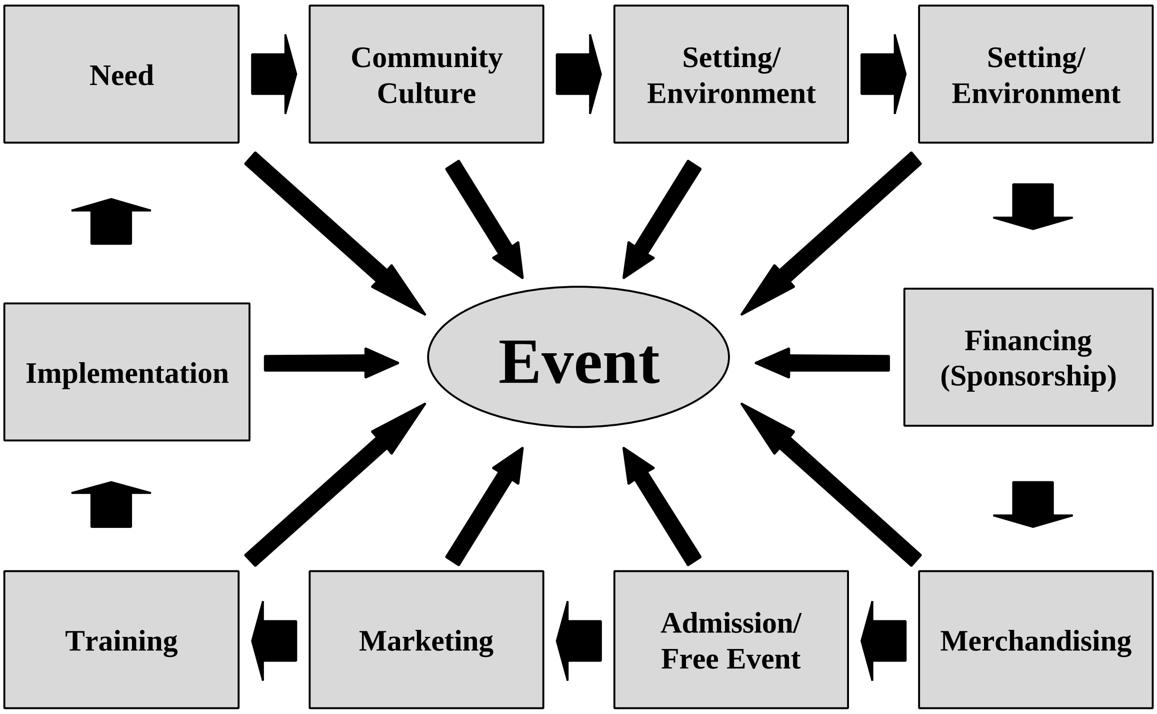

Need
Community Culture
Setting/ Environment
Setting/ Environment
Implementation
Event
Financing (Sponsorship)
Training
Marketing
Admission/ Free Event
Merchandising

Figure 1 illustrates a model of the elements necessary for potential replication of an ongoing event in a community.

Recently, WaterFire recognized the need to disperse the large number of visitors concentrated on the river by adding two new stages to their current program. The diffusion of visitors not only shifted people around but it also attracted a new group of visitors who were interested primarily in the new attractions. The new features were successful in dispersing the crowds, but their additional appeal may have also increased the total number of people in attendance. In order to sustain the success of this event, DePetrillo further states that “it is important for WaterFire to maintain consistency by continuing to deliver a quality event in a quality setting. At the same time, it needs to add ancillary events that complement the primary event and not take away from it. I think these ancillary activities will keep the event fresh and attract new visitors as well as encourage loyal attendees to return. If it is able to accomplish that, the desired outcomes of the next three to five years will result in a stronger event that has evolved without losing its soul. It will then be the nucleus for attracting new audiences, while retaining a loyal following” (D. DePetrillo, personal communication, January 2002).

Mayor Vincent A. Cianci, Jr. concurs with DePetrillo stating it is important to draw more people to Providence each year. WaterFire has already become a prominent component of the city’s cultural offerings and the supplemental programming, such as dance, outdoor art displays and music are already in place. Building on this programming will further showcase Providence as the vibrant and vital center of culture and arts that it is (V. Cianci, Jr., personal communication, February 4, 2002).

WaterFire is a phenomenon that has made important contributions to the renaissance of Providence. “In place of polluted waters and a dead “downcity,” as the business district is called, Providence has become more like those vibrant European cities with rivers running through them and picturesque bridges joining the two banks” (Deitz, 2000). There is clear evidence that events can transform communities in a positive way as it has done in Providence, Rhode Island with the advent of WaterFire. Further, it may also demonstrate through future development how a successful event such as WaterFire may be implemented in other destinations. This implementation may lead to the generation of additional income through consulting and the provision of technical advice and support. As a result, this model may further enable some events to become less reliant in future years on public subsidy and achieve greater self-sustainability through the revenue generated from other sources of income.

Although this study confirms that it may not be possible to simply replicate a unique event such as WaterFire there are opportunities for event organizations to cooperate with artists such as Barnaby Evans to develop new successful events. There may also be opportunities to offer consulting and other services to individuals and organizations who desire to develop similarly successful event programs.

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“One Hundred Years of Light”: A Cause for a Community Celebration

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Abstract

Located at the most easterly point of the Australia’s coastline, Cape Byron Headland Reserve provides a powerful sense of place with its unique combination of stunning natural and historic built environments. The Cape Byron Headland Reserve contains rich flora and fauna, aspects of Aboriginal heritage and European history and is regarded as a natural, cultural and recreational resource of outstanding significance. The Cape and the Lighthouse continue to be a reference point for the Byron Bay township and domestic and international tourists who visit the popular destination of Byron Bay (Wildsite Ecological Services 2001).

This paper examines how the Cape Byron Headland Trust and its event management team approached and managed a series of community events to mark the one hundred year birthday of the Cape Byron Lighthouse. The innovative and creative celebration program, the majestic characteristics of the Cape Byron Headland site, its unique management structure, and the diverse composition of the Byron Bay community provide an interesting and useful case study of event management issues associated

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with the celebration of place and community. This study can be regarded as a model for community hallmark events that aim to celebrate a significant public space and site while endeavouring to satisfy the celebratory needs of a diverse community.

Introduction

The management of the Cape Byron Headland Reserve differs from most other National Parks and Wildlife Service Areas in that it is managed by a local incorporated non-profit community trust. This translates into an informed and careful approach to management of the Reserve and its Lighthouse precinct with strong support for continued community involvement. It should be acknowledged that the Arakwal Aboriginal People are also actively involved in the Reserve and its planning and management issues.

This strong sense of community was reflected in the planning and management of recent hallmark celebrations to mark the one hundred year birthday of the Cape Byron Lighthouse. In recent years the Cape Byron Headland Trust has actively hosted and supported community events and programs including a Whale Watch Weekend, the Winter Whale Ocean Swim, New Years Eve Breakfast, music concerts and film festivals with the aim of having a diverse range of community-link activities which benefit the local community.

In contrast to many Australian regional attractions and communities that use special events as an integral and major part of tourism development and marketing strategies of their destination (Mules and Faulkner 1996), the “One Hundred Years of Light” celebrations were designed and developed to celebrate the significance of the Cape

Byron Headland, its Lighthouse and Reserve precinct to its regional community. From an event management perspective, the aim of the celebrations was to create a festive and informative program of events that culminated in an official celebration weekend in December 2001. This paper examines how the Cape Byron Headland Trust and its event management team approached and managed a series of community events to mark the official opening of the Byron Bay Lighthouse on December 1, 1901. Key issues to be explored in this paper include:

- The significance of “place” and of the celebrations to the Byron Bay community
- The nature of community involvement (management and participatory)
- Programming, production and logistics techniques used to enhance a powerful sense of place and community
- Event management issues associated with utilising public space and a memorial site as an event facility.

Significance of Place – Cape Byron Headland

During the past decade Byron Bay has established itself as a significant tourist destination for both domestic and international visitors. For these visitors, the Cape Byron Headland Reserve offers a diversity of recreation opportunities including natural experiences provided by its rainforests and beaches and the more adventurous recreation activities of hang-gliding and surfing. Located on the most easterly point of Australia’s eastern coastline at one of Australia’s popular tourist destinations, Byron Bay, the Cape Byron Headland Reserve is considered to be a major tourist attraction within the Northern Rivers Tropical New South Wales Region. It attracts approximately one million visits each year and is adjacent to South East Queensland, the fastest growing region in Australia. Approximately half a million people currently live within one hours travel time of the Reserve (Wildsite Ecological Services 2001). Recent and on-going upgrades to the Pacific Highway linking South East Queensland to the far north coast of New South Wales, and the perceived "safe haven" status of Australia by international tourists is likely to translate into increasing numbers of tourists to Byron Bay and its Headland Reserve.

In order to demonstrate the significance of the "One Hundred Years of Light Celebrations", it is first necessary to briefly explain the significance of the powerful sense of place projected by the Cape Byron Headland and its Reserve precinct. Kijas (2001) describes ocean headlands simply as "variously amalgamated hillocks of rock and vegetation that protrude into the sea". She claims that headlands have their own histories bound up in their physical form, leading to various cultural, social and economic issues, sometimes in competition with each other. She further suggests that when we look at these formations, what meanings we invest in them, how we feel about them and seek to use them will vary between individuals, within social and cultural groups, and over time.

The Cape Byron Headland and its Lighthouse certainly plays a profound role in the Byron Bay community and has become a symbol of a forward-looking, progressive community that cares for its natural environment and honestly recalls its history (Wildsite Ecological Services 2001). The move from being a whaling station in the 1950s to a whale watching community and research facility in the new century is typical of the changes that have taken place in Byron Bay. The significance of the Lighthouse precinct cannot be underestimated. It is listed on the register of National Estate and is recognised for its impressive architecture, scientific and technical features and majestic landscape setting and for the social history of the site (Baker 2001).

The Cape Byron Headland Reserve has been described by Wildsite Ecological Services (2001) as generating a powerful sense of place providing inspiration, respite and reconnection. It is also claimed that the individual heritage, cultural and environmental values of the Cape are significant in isolation, and that the combination of these values creates an overall sense of place and unique character. An important component of the Cape's sense of place is further described as being a contrast to the pace of life within the Byron Bay township, providing a separation and respite from daily routine and providing a setting which is both alternative and complementary to that of Byron Bay (Wildsite Ecological Services 2001).

Cape Byron has also been regarded as a place of great significance for Aboriginal people for thousands of years. The Aboriginal values of the Reserve remain significant for indigenous communities despite changes to the landscape brought about by European settlement. The Arakwal Aboriginal people have lived in and visited the Byron Bay area for at least 22,000 years. In the Reserve's Palm Valley, the surviving midden and open camp-site are over one thousand years old, possibly the only and oldest of their type remaining in the region. The heritage values of the Reserve are closely associated with the historical development of the Byron Bay region: through exploration, settlement, trade, commerce and land use. The Reserve is also considered to be a major recreational resource for Byron Bay and the north-coast region providing easily accessible recreation opportunities of a diversity and quality unique to the north-coast. The Cape is a prominent visual element of the coastal landscape and provides unrivalled views of the Tweed to Ballina coastline, the hinterland and the ranges, (Wildsite Ecological Services 2001).

Event Management Objectives

As part of the "One Hundred Years of Light" celebrations, organisers wished to showcase the majestic and inspiring iconic nature of the Cape Byron Headland precinct, the symbolic and special power of the Byron Bay Lighthouse and to demonstrate its link to this diverse community. Programming for the range of events and activities for the celebrations focused on creating a "sense of pilgrimage" from the community back to the Cape, thus capturing a sense of history, place and community. The celebrations were seen as a means by which the Cape Byron Headland Trust could give something back to the community in the form of a celebration. Objectives determined for the event by organisers were as follows:

- To utilise the site to showcase its significant natural and physical heritage elements while maintaining minimal impact to the environmentally sensitive area.
- To encourage the community to take pride and ownership of the event through participation and or attendance.
- To demonstrate the traditional significance of the site in terms of both Aboriginal and European heritage.
- To demonstrate the Lighthouse's maritime significance and value as a preserver of life and safety
- To create special and distinctive activities and events located at the site in order to entice the community to participate and attend.
- To encourage and involve as many of the diverse range of community members and groups as possible.

- Where possible, to pay for local services and supplies rather than seek financial or in-kind assistance from the community given the on-going support by the community through volunteer and local business financial assistance for Trust Management over the years.
- To incorporate official celebration opportunities into the program suitable for special guests and dignitaries.

McDonnell, Allen and O'Toole (2002) recommend that event planners must establish well-conceived objectives that adhere to the "SMART" principle, i.e. objectives that are specific, measurable, achievable, relevant and time-specific. Objectives determined by event organisers for the "One Hundred Years of Light" celebrations can be considered to adhere in part to the SMART principle given that they were: specific and relevant in providing particular event activities aimed at various community groups; achievable in terms of resources available, and time-specific. However, objectives could have been made measurable in order for event organisers to determine whether they had been successful in achieving desired goals (McDonnell et al 2002). One way of achieving this would have been to determine quantifiable goals, for example quantifiable goals of attendance.

Significance of the Celebrations to the Community

According to Cotter, Boyd & Gardiner (2001), "places become the medium for community values and beliefs and, through places, people express their fundamental understanding of identity and relationships between themselves and their environment and their neighbours". This quite aptly describes the strong sense of community that links the Cape Byron Headland to its regional community.

In the first instance, the management of the Cape Byron Headland Reserve differs from most other National Parks and Wildlife Service areas as it is managed by a local community trust, an incorporated, non-profit body. Strong and meaningful community involvement is the foundation of the Trust's management of the Reserve. The Trust maintains community ownership and stewardship of the Reserve through the provision of opportunities for the community to be involved in its planning and management and it is dedicated to supporting programs that benefit and enhance the vitality of the community. The Trust in recent years has initiated an extensive community-link program that includes hosting special events, fundraisers, charitable activities and education awareness, (Wildsite Ecological Services 2001).

Trust management viewed the one hundred year birthday of the Byron Bay Lighthouse as an opportunity for the community to celebrate, reflect and validate not only the history of Byron Bay Lighthouse and its precinct, but also the Byron Bay township's heritage and community values in general. The aim of the "One Hundred Years of Light" celebrations was therefore to create a festive and informative program of events that would acknowledge the site and its link to the community and culminate in an official celebration weekend in early December 2001.

The Lighthouse celebrations were designed and developed specifically to foster a "sense of community" rather than generate an increase in tourist numbers to the site and the region. No large buses and cars were allowed to the Cape Headland site on the official celebration day. In a way this was a means of "discouraging" tourists to the celebrations and no publicity for the events was generated beyond the local media.

The celebrations therefore became a means by which the community could “reclaim” the Lighthouse and its precinct and for the community to bond in a common celebration. According to Shone (2001) events are a potential mechanism for strengthening weak community structures in a particular location and to help in developing community cohesion, increased cultural and social understanding and improved community identity and self-confidence. This is also supported by Derrett (2001) who claims that “a sense of community engenders meaning and relationship, thus inclusion enables members of the culture to create a shared history and common destiny and that it is the sense of community which fosters cooperative actions”. She goes on to describe community celebrations as “glue”, which can bind a community, and as an “elixir”, which keeps community relevant and responsive to the needs of the times.

According to Getz (1997) understanding the needs and wants of special interest groups is a key to understanding the modern “community”. In terms of engaging and encouraging the community to become involved in the “One Hundred Years of Light” celebrations, a range of event activities were developed specifically to reach and encourage participation from a wide cross section of the local community, from children to the elderly, from new residents to long-term residents, Aboriginal people and other diverse social, cultural and sporting community elements. The following table highlights the various event activities that were scheduled and the different community groups targeted. It should be noted that in order to attract different community groups to participate in the celebrations, event activities were scheduled to commence one month prior to the official weekend celebrations.

Table One: Summary of Event Activities and Target Groups

Activity	Target Group	Objectives	Description
Community Story-Telling Day Held one month prior Saturday November 3	• **Older local residents** and people with connections to the Lighthouse (e.g. Past Lighthouse keepers) • **Arakwal Aboriginal People**	• To link Lighthouse to Byron Bay community in general – for example link to whaling days, Norco dairy production factory. • To reach a section of the community who wouldn't perhaps normally attend other event activities – older locals. • To begin to build a historical portfolio of stories that could be housed in the Lighthouse Museum	• Morning tea and story telling day. Local residents invited via media publicity to present oral histories of Lighthouse and Byron Bay community. • Stories were recorded and scribed for use on celebration day and for historical display and archive collection in the Lighthouse Museum. • Organisers felt that the stories were pivotal to event and would bring the "place" alive.
Schools Day - Friday November 30	• **Byron Bay School Children**	• To educate children regarding the maritime and heritage values about the site	Over 300 primary school children participated in interpretative walk through the Reserve and participated in a Lighthouse tour.
Official Launch Friday November 30 6.30-9pm	• **Special and invited guests** • **General public**	• To launch celebrations at site of the official celebration of the opening of the Lighthouse in 1901 • To incorporate an official event into celebration program suitable for special guests and VIP's. • To incorporate historical and educational elements to official proceedings.	• Cocktail party at the Great Northern Hotel where the official banquet opening the Lighthouse was held 100 years ago. Tickets available to public @ $25 per person.
Official Breakfast Saturday December 1 8am - 9.30am	• **Trust volunteers** • **Invited guests** as for Official Launch	• To acknowledge Trust volunteers and their efforts • To link event to Year of Volunteer 2001.	Breakfast served at Lighthouse Keeper's Cottage, Cape Byron Lighthouse. Certificates of appreciation presented by the Governor of NSW
Celebration Day Saturday December 1 7am to 8pm	• **General Public**	• To create a significant public event – a day that would be special and acknowledge the site • To achieve a consistent flow of people through the site • To create an interesting program of events to attract people to the site • To showcase regional talent	A special day of celebration for all at the Lighthouse precinct and parts of the Reserve. See Table Two for details of specific event activities
Community Lantern Walk Saturday December 1 8pm .to 9pm	• **School children and their families** • **Community in general**	• Designed to symbolise the spreading of the light from the lighthouse to the community. • To have minimum of 200 children in their parade with their families • To take people off the site by 8.00pm given that the lighthouse precinct is closed at this time.	Lantern workshops were conducted at the Byron Bay Public School and Byron Bay Community School in the weeks leading up to the celebrations. Children and their families walked with their lanterns from the Lighthouse to The Pass. Shuttle buses transported people to Byron Bay following the parade. (approx. 1500 people attended)
Spectacular Light Show Saturday December 1 to Friday December 6 From 8.30pm	• **Byron Bay community and its visitors**	• To showcase the Lighthouse in a majestic yet complementary manner • To enable those who could not attend the Celebration Day to be part of the celebrations.	Lightshow beamed on to façade of Lighthouse. A symbolic way of taking the light into the community. The Lightshow also enabled celebrations to extend into the evening without having to have people on site.

Nature of Community Involvement – Management Perspective

McDonnell et al (2002) claim that event managers should recognise the need for the host community to own and participate in an event, and recommend that event mangers should identify and consult community leaders in the planning of event activities. This is supported by Wickham and Kerstetter (2000) who suggest that profiling the characteristics of individuals who are strongly attached to their community is helpful to event managers responsible for developing relationships with their local community. Production of the "One Hundred Years of Light" celebrations therefore involved an amalgamation of experienced volunteer participation and employment of specialist event coordination and production staff from the Byron Bay community.

In terms of contribution by the community to certain management aspects of the celebrations, event organisers recognised that the more diverse and disparate the groups recruited for involvement in the production and organisation of the various events, the more diverse and disparate the attendees would be at the celebrations. Many different community groups responded to invitations from the event organisers to contribute to the celebrations and offered their time and energy to ensure that the celebrations captured the essence of Byron, both past and present. Harris and Allen (2002) claim that the use of volunteers is central to the success of many events, yet many event managers do not put sufficient effort to thinking through their approach to the use of volunteers. Volunteers with well-established links to Cape Byron, such as the Northern Rivers Wildlife Carers group, were called upon to assist with interpretation activities along the walk from Wategos Beach to the Lighthouse. Other community groups were involved in the coordination of the various event activities. For example, the local Coast Guard was instrumental in the coordination of the “Boat Flotilla” given their obvious experience and expertise in managing activities on the water. Public volunteers were also called for through local press publicity and worked in positions as waitpersons, bus attendants, hosts and walkway attendants.

Event organisers were particularly keen to gain support and participation of the Arakwal Aboriginal People in the celebrations, given that the Cape Byron site possessed a rich cultural heritage prior to European settlement. Participation of the Arakwal People in the story-telling day and official launch activities was pivotal to gaining support and contribution to the celebrations and helped set the historical context of the site.

According to Altman and Finlayson (1993), Aboriginal people avoid direct and intensive social interaction with tourists due to the adoption of cultural styles that can be foreign and daunting and that there is concern among Aboriginal people about Aboriginal heritage protection with respect to sites of religious, historical and archaeological significance. Altman and Finlayson (1993) further claim that the cultural sustainability of Aboriginal participation is largely dependent on Aboriginal control of the extent and nature of participation. Given that the “One Hundred Year Light” celebrations were genuinely community based rather than aimed at attracting tourists, the participation by the Arakwal People can be viewed as an example of integration of non-aboriginal and Aboriginal communities. Event organisers placed a high priority in ensuring that the Arakwal People were consulted and invited to contribute to plans for the event celebrations from the outset.

Organisers, however, recognised that in order to create interesting and dynamic event elements, specialist professional staff would have to be employed to manage and organise certain event production elements. Of particular significance was the employment of an audio-visual specialist to design, manage and coordinate a spectacular Lighthouse Laser Lightshow. The use of specialist audio-visual staff is supported by Harris and Allen (2002) who claim that by outsourcing audiovisual services, the event manager is acting to ensure that this aspect of the event is dealt with in a professional manner. The production team subcontracted to work on event activities also included: stage production staff to construct a temporary stage at the Lighthouse site and a lantern making specialist employed to run the local primary school lantern workshops and to assist with the coordination of the lantern parade. Trust management also strongly believed it was important to showcase and pay regional artists and performers as part of the celebrations. The use of specialist staff is also supported by Larson and Wikstrom (2001) who claim that the event organiser is dependent on a number of other actors in order to realise an event and Long (2000) who further suggests that these partners may be beneficial because of their special skills; the resources they have available or the funding they can attract to the event.

Use Of A Memorial And Protected Site As An Event Facility

According to Allen and Harris (2002), stages are basically platforms that serve to elevate performers and presenters above the height of an audience. The Cape Byron Headland site can be considered to be a 360-degree stage with a powerful sense of place encompassing land, sea, and air space. Organisers wished to utilise all three of these elements as “production stages” in the events program using audio and visual production techniques for event activities. Organisers were, however, mindful of the appropriateness of staging and producing event activities that complemented the natural and heritage values of the site, rather than desecrating or diminishing their worth. As stated previously in this paper, one of the objectives of the celebrations was to showcase the Cape Headland Lighthouse and its Reserve precinct. The site was therefore a key element in event activities. Use of the site involved:

- Consideration of how to link the three stages, land, sea and air, to the event program.
- The creation of a consistent flow of pedestrian activity through most of the key areas of the Cape Headland Reserve precinct.
- Consideration of the Reserve's sensitive natural environment and continued preservation of its heritage infrastructure.
- Consideration of risk management issues associated with production of extraordinary activities and events a headland site.
- Gathering a team of local specialists who could facilitate an innovative and unique events program within a minimal budget.

The consideration of unique and sensitive site characteristics is supported by Goldblatt (2000) who questions the appropriateness of presenting an event in a historically prominent, memorialised, location. He asks that event organisers "should carefully examine whether or not they are conserving or innovating what is best about the site and the event when they seek a location to celebrate, consecrate, or even memorialize in the future". He also suggests that event organisers should determine how the event preserves the historic purpose of the site and recommends that convenience should not dictate the location for events.

From an events production perspective, it is useful to highlight how event organisers incorporated the use of three production stages of the land, sea and air and how innovative visual and audio events production techniques were incorporated into the program. As Derrett (2001) points out, in Byron Bay there is an interest in providing diversionary activity for pleasure and leisure of the residents. This is clearly demonstrated by the range of event activities scheduled for the “One Hundred Year Celebrations”, which reflected and incorporated various lifestyle and recreation choices of many of its residents while acknowledging and commemorating the heritage, cultural, educational and recreational values of the Cape Byron Headland site. A number of innovative and creative production and logistic techniques were utilised by event organisers to enhance a powerful sense of place and community during the official celebrations. Getz (1997) supports the use of various event activities and suggests that programming elements and activities can be thought of as “elements of style” which can be mixed and matched in unlimited creative ways. Event activities for the Celebrations are described in the following table:

Table Two Programming Elements of One hundred Year Celebrations

Timing	Event Activity	Comment
7am	“Salute to the Sun” – yoga demonstration at Little Wategos Beach	Symbolic of typical leisure and lifestyle activity in Byron Bay
7am	“Awakening Sound Installation”– gong from the Lighthouse	Use of powerful audio as well as symbolic visual
7.30am	Lighthouse Single Fin Classic 2001 – Surf competition Cosy Corner Beach	Symbolic of typical recreation and lifestyle activity in Byron Bay. Incorporates youth surf group into celebration activities
9.20am	Arakwal Aboriginal Welcome to Country	Acknowledges and incorporates Aboriginal heritage and cultural values to celebrations
9.30am	Official Opening of Lighthouse Museum	Of value to the future from heritage and educational perspectives.
10.30am	Arakwal Men’s Performance	Acknowledges and incorporates aboriginal heritage and cultural values, visually entertaining
10.30am	Lighthouse Tours	Demonstrates historic maritime links

10.30am to Sunset	Walk from Wategos Beach to Lighthouse -	Interactive interpretative displays on walk. Sights and sounds created especially for the day to complement the natural environment. Focus on history and memories of Lighthouse. Seven sound installations stations with interesting looking and good sounding metal percussion instruments along route from Wategos to Lighthouse – safe and practical for use by children. Sandcastle sculpturing was also featured at Little Wategos Beach.
11.30am	Boat Flotilla	Coast guard and other large craft in the area invited to participate as flotilla below Lighthouse. Organisers would have liked to include as many craft as possible, but given safety issues regarding launching of small craft in the area, this was not feasible.
12.30am to 7pm	• Roving Performers • Hang-gliders/ parachutist display • Aerial circus performance	Use of airspace as stage. Regional performers and artists. Hang-gliders and parachutists typical of recreational activity at the site.
7.30pm	Grand Finale	Feature performance by Gyna, world class singer from the Lighthouse Balcony
8.00pm	Community Lantern Walk, from Lighthouse down to the Pass	Approximately 1500 children, parents and community members participated in this spiritual event, leading people from the Lighthouse, off-site.
8.30pm	Lighthouse Sound and Light Show	The Lighthouse was flood lit with high-powered architectural lighting that scrolled through a rainbow of colours and was designed for long distance viewing and clearly visible from the town center of Byron Bay. Sound was simulcast to music on Bay FM, the Shires community radio station. In fact, the spectacle was viewed from any location in the Shire where there is a line of sight to the lighthouse. The use of this dramatic production technique was relatively inexpensive compared to large city laser light productions but demonstrated innovative and professional event management style of event organisers.

Other Site and Event Management Issues

The following discussion briefly highlights some additional production and logistical considerations associated with utilising a public space and memorial site as an event facility for a community celebration.

Timing

Timing for the official celebrations was scheduled for September 2001, exactly one hundred years after the official opening of the Byron Bay Lighthouse in 1901. Given that celebrations were aimed at attracting the local and regional community, this timing was appropriate as event activities were scheduled outside normal peak tourist times.

Special Permission to use Heritage Site:

The Byron Bay Lighthouse is operated by the Australian Maritime Authority and was leased to the National Parks and Wildlife Service (NPWS) and the Cape Byron Headland Trust for the event celebrations. Special permission was sought to utilise the Lighthouse structure for "out of the ordinary" purposes, for example, the Lighthouse Lightshow and Lighthouse tours. Permission was granted by the Authority provided that event activities did not interfere with navigation systems and that the diesel generator used to power the Lightshow did not generate smoke that would scar the Lighthouse structure.

Transport

In order to manage vehicular movement within the Reserve, the area was open only to pedestrian traffic. To encourage visitors to the site, a shuttle bus service was employed to transport visitors to and from the Cape Byron Headland site every half hour throughout official celebration day. To encourage disabled and aged access to Lighthouse a mini bus service was utlised.

Management of Pedestrian Flow & Risk Management Issues

The Wategos Beach to Lighthouse interpretative walk encouraged pedestrian flow through the site and was designed to showcase features of the Reserve precinct. The "Lantern Walk" as well as being a beautiful and inspiring element of event activities served as a means to take pedestrian traffic off the site. The walk took participants along a one and a half kilometer walking track from the Lighthouse and down to the "Pass" area of the Reserve. Shuttle buses collected those participating in the walk back to the Byron Bay Township. This was a significant logistical tactic as the Lighthouse precinct closes at 8pm and congregation of large numbers of attendees in one location at the site would invite serious risk management problems. As Getz (1997) points out, event organisers should consider site capacities at peak times during an events program and that efforts need to be made to disperse attendance in time and/or space. He cites Citrine (1995) who also recommends circular flows of pedestrians within the event site, as this a means of reflecting natural preferences of attendees and avoiding dead ends where congestion can occur. Having attendees move off-site also addressed risk management issues associated with having members of the public on site during evening hours and avoided organisers having to seek extra public liability insurance. It should also be noted that letters to parents of school children participating in the Lantern Walk specified that adult supervision of children had to be of the ratio five children to one adult supervisor and children were instructed to wear natural fibre clothing and sensible footwear. Organisers also ensured performers had their own relevant insurance cover, in particular those demonstrating extraordinary activities such as the parachutists, hang-gliders and aerial circus performers.

Ceremonial Activities

According to Goldblatt (1990) "every special event involves some ceremony and ritual; and every event planner that oversees a ceremonial event is concerned with getting and sustaining the attention of the principals, VIPs, honourees and visitors and guests in a positive and memorable way". Organisers for this event were particularly mindful that celebrations needed to incorporate official ceremonial program elements to facilitate the opportunity for attendees to reflect on the contribution of the Trust management board and its various partners and stakeholders, for example the Arakwal Aboriginal people and the NPWS, and to honour special invited guests including the Governor of New South Wales, long-term employees and volunteers. However, the Lighthouse and its precinct buildings provided no suitable space to effectively implement formal event ceremonial opportunities. The official event launch celebration was therefore held at the Great Northern Hotel, located in the heart of Byron Bay Township. This venue provided appropriate purpose-built event space as well as an historical link to the Byron Bay Lighthouse as this was the site for the official opening celebrations of the Byron Bay Lighthouse in 1901. It is also provided a central location that maximised accessibility to the various participant groups (Getz 1997).

Event Management & Coordination

The event management team for the celebratory events consisted of a professional event coordinator, who was employed one day per week for a period of three months and a key NPWS staff member, who worked almost full-time on the event for a three month period. This team was appointed by the Cape Byron Headland Trust and were charged with the responsibility of planning and implementing event celebration activities. Both organisers acknowledged that the combination of professional event management skills and sound knowledge of the Cape Byron Reserve and its management contributed to a successful working partnership.

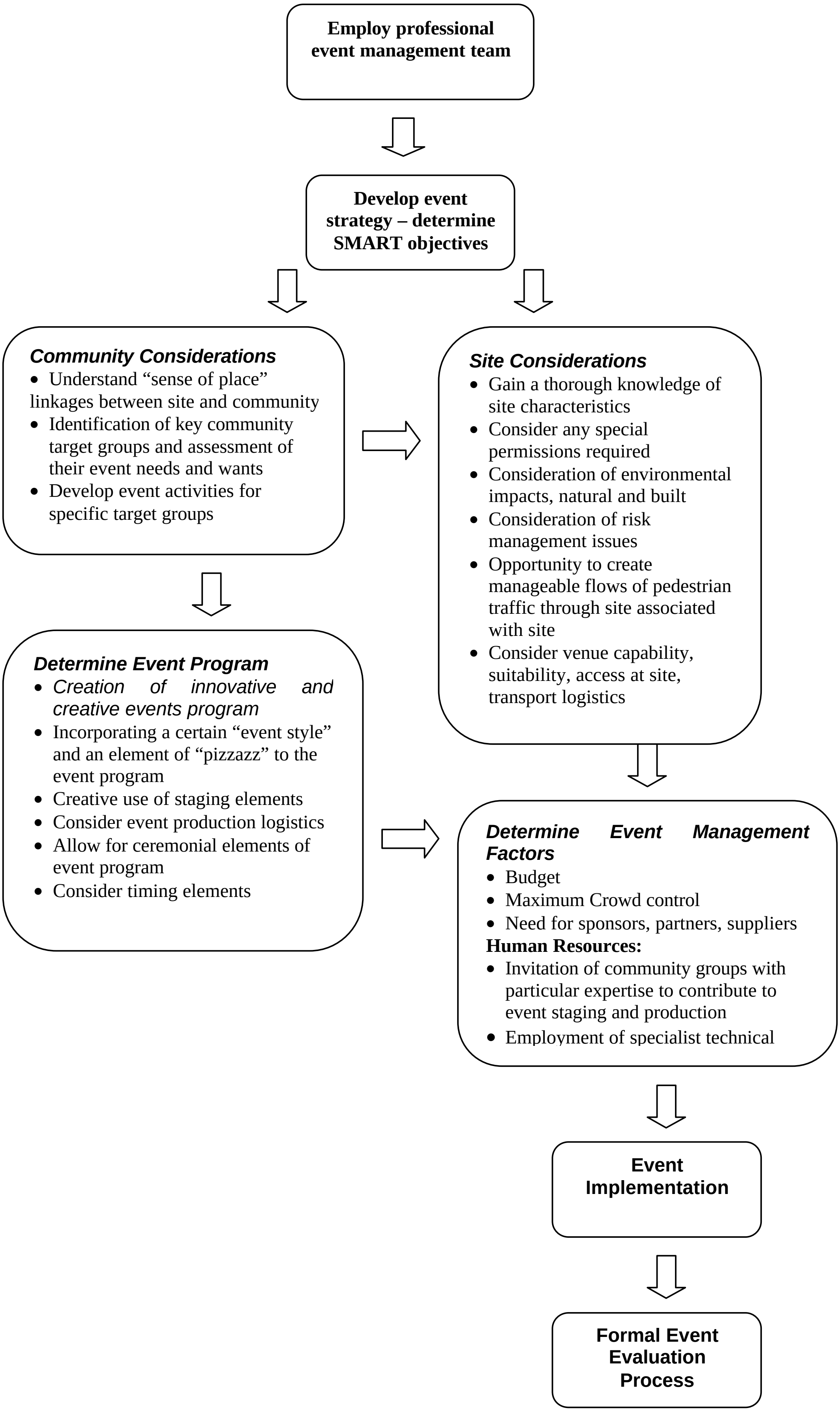
Event Evaluation

Delamere, Wankel and Hinch (2001) suggest that the measurement of community attitudes toward the social impacts of community festivals, and the development of instruments to measure those attitudes is of critical importance for both communities and for festival organisers. They argue that as community leaders and organisers become more aware of the needs and priorities of the community, they can better respond to community concerns and work together to maintain an appropriate balance between the social benefits and social costs that emanate from community festivals. Given that organisers of the "One Hundred Years of Light Celebrations" aimed to create and develop an event especially for the regional community, it would have been of use to develop a survey instrument to measure the success of the event from the community's perspective.

Developing a Community Event Blueprint

This case study can be regarded as a model for community hallmark events that aim to celebrate a significant public space and site while endeavouring to satisfy the celebratory needs of a diverse community. Figure One presents a model of the community, site and management considerations identified in this case and incorporates other key planning and management factors identified in the "event operations planning process model" developed by Getz (1997). These considerations may be useful for event managers charged with the responsibility of planning and implementing future events aimed at delivering a community celebration at a memorial or key public site.

Figure One: Community & Site Considerations in Event Planning Process



Employ professional event management team

Develop event strategy – determine SMART objectives

Community Considerations

- Understand "sense of place" linkages between site and community
- Identification of key community target groups and assessment of their event needs and wants
- Develop event activities for specific target groups

Site Considerations

- Gain a thorough knowledge of site characteristics
- Consider any special permissions required
- Consideration of environmental impacts, natural and built
- Consideration of risk management issues
- Opportunity to create manageable flows of pedestrian traffic through site associated with site
- Consider venue capability, suitability, access at site, transport logistics

Determine Event Program

- *Creation of innovative and creative events program*
- Incorporating a certain "event style" and an element of "pizzazz" to the event program
- Creative use of staging elements
- Consider event production logistics
- Allow for ceremonial elements of event program
- Consider timing elements

Determine Event Management Factors

- Budget
- Maximum Crowd control
- Need for sponsors, partners, suppliers

Human Resources:

- Invitation of community groups with particular expertise to contribute to event staging and production
- Employment of specialist technical

Event Implementation

Formal Event Evaluation Process

Conclusion

Perhaps the key to the success of the “One Hundred Years of Light Celebrations” was the recognition by organisers that celebration of the site alone was perhaps not sufficient cause for celebration. The site needed to be linked to the community in some way. This was achieved through historical recollections of the Lighthouse and of the township of Byron Bay on the Story-Telling Day and also by identification of various event activities that targeted specific community groups such as the local primary school children’s involvement in the Lantern Walk. Innovative programming elements and the creative use of three production stages of the land, sea and air reflected the lifestyle choices of many of the region’s residents and the spiritual and inspirational power of the Lighthouse precinct. In terms of management of public site, organisers were mindful that impacts to the built and natural environment were minimised and ensured that event activities showcased and complemented the site in terms of its heritage, cultural, educational and recreational values. An element of “pizzazz” was however achieved with the spectacular Lighthouse Lightshow. The professionalism of the event management team was demonstrated by their consideration of: risk management issues; the need for specialist staff and performers; the control of pedestrian and vehicular traffic; the need for official ceremonial elements of the event program. There was however no formal evaluation of the event to determine whether the celebrations satisfied attendee’s expectations. It is recommended that organisers of similar events consider implementing a formal event evaluation as part of the event management process. However, the following quote from the Governor of New South Wales in a letter of thanks sent to the Chair of the Cape Byron Headland Trust Chair aptly describes the sense of community achieved by the celebrations, “*there is indeed a great spirit of community in the area of which you must all be very proud*”.

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Espiritu Santo - An Event

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Abstract

Often events and festivals provide a means for communities and tourists to experience and share what is unique to a particular destination or region. This interaction with host and visitor allows them to experience the local way of life, music, foods and culture of the residents. In essence this 'sense of place' evolves to a point where ultimately the product or commodity becomes the destination marketing message. This being a consequential outcome when the tourism operators and local community alike brand the event and/or festival as a means of marketing the desired destination.

Given this fact, the focus of this study then was to explore the nature of community acceptance of event tourism on remote islands. More particularly, of interest to the researcher was the potential for greater acceptance of event tourism by local residents. To this end, the study sought to ascertain what local residents perceived should be improved upon in terms of the tourist infrastructure as currently in place. Through statistical analysis of the responses provided, a number of key concerns were identified that may impact on the future of event tourism on the two remote island locations chosen as the focus of this study. Such concerns, including issues pertaining to infrastructure and commercial development, are discussed and suggestions put forward as to how they might adequately be addressed.

Events in the Environment - a Description of the Sirocco Wetland Concert and its Consequences

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Abstract

Over the last thirty years the folk festival movement has grown in size and significance in Australia. Festivals such as the Woodford Folk Festival and Port Fairy Folk Festival have created a brand that is securely anchored in geography. The philosophy of these festivals is to discover and enhance aspects of Australian culture through music. Music events, such as these, have a long history of associating events and music composition with a specific place and time. Although this movement is new to post colonial Australia, it is common to cultures around the world.

This paper describes the music events of the Australian ensemble, Sirocco. Their events are used as a model and a point of study to illustrate a much wider social and cultural philosophy whereby a location is given cultural meaning. Their concerts, in places such as the Macquarie Marshes in western NSW, has had an effect around the world.

The paper puts these events in the context of the creation of a music culture that uses geographic place and history as inspiration. One consequence is the recognition of the area as a place of significance beyond its immediate locality and its enhancement in the culture of the host country. As a result of the event, and subsequent activity, the

place is given a new meaning, a cultural value, and in the case of the Macquarie Marshes, it is recognised as a major factor in preserving this wetland environment.

The Use of Cultural Events in City Promotion:

Rotterdam Cultural Capital of Europe 2001

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Abstract

This paper examines the use of a cultural event to generate new sources of income and employment and to improve the image of the city of Rotterdam. As part of its event-led regeneration strategy, the city bid for and was awarded the title of 'Cultural Capital of Europe' for 2001. The Cultural Capital event was supposed not just to attract visitors to the city, but also to stimulate cultural consumption among residents and to position Rotterdam as a major cultural destination. An evaluation of the success of the event in achieving its aims was undertaken by surveying over 2000 visitors to the event. This research allowed a detailed analysis of aspects of image formation among visitors and residents. Using these data an assessment of the image effects of the Cultural Capital event is made. The preliminary results indicate that there is a positive image effect among both visitors and non-visitors to Rotterdam as a result of staging the Cultural Capital event. Rotterdam is shown to be relatively successful in using the event to position itself as a cultural destination in Europe.

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Introduction

Many studies of tourism and city marketing in recent years have pointed to a trend in the increasing use of events as a means to market places and in particular major cities. This phenomenon can be linked to a general increase in competition between cities for the attention of tourists and other important stakeholders and consumers. As the effects of globalisation become more widely felt, a greater number of places are drawn into this competitive environment, and at the same time the built environment, infrastructure and amenities in different places tend to converge. Cities therefore need to find new ways of distinguishing themselves from their competitors. Some cities have tried building distinctive attractions or landmarks to boost their image and create competitive advantage, but few cities can afford major investments in bricks, mortar and world famous architects.

This is arguably one of the most important reasons why events have become an increasingly important aspect of inter-urban competition in recent years. Cities compete fiercely for the honour of hosting events such as the Olympic Games, the World Cup Final or a World Expo. Events can arguably be staged with less investment than the building of physical attractions (although events may also be the excuse for creating new facilities), they are better able to generate repeat visits to a location and by hosting a series of different events a city may profile itself in a number of different potential markets. Such arguments have led to the development of what Harvey (1989) termed ‘festival marketplaces’ in many cities, which are areas of the city designed as a backdrop to a continually changing range of events and activities. Examples of such festival marketplaces include Baltimore Harbour, London’s South Bank and the Pompidou Centre in Paris.

Today the process seems to have progressed even further through the dedifferentiation of a range of urban functions. Whole cities (or more usually city centres) have become stages for a continual stream of events which lead eventually to the ‘festivalization’ of the city. Tourism, leisure, sport and culture are no longer discrete elements of consumption to be enjoyed in their own specific arenas, but simply elements of what Ritzer (1999) terms the ‘means of consumption’, which can be enjoyed in the street as much as in the opera house. The traditional barriers between different leisure forms, such as tourism, sport and culture are disappearing. In such a climate, cultural events in particular have emerged as a means of improving the image of cities, adding life to the city streets and giving citizens renewed pride in their home city. Culture has also become an important means of attracting tourists from outside the city. This is an important point, since the economic benefits of staging cultural events can only really be captured if spending power is attracted from outside the city.

In view of the growing importance of events, and cultural events in particular, it is perhaps not surprising that the competition which surrounds the hosting of major sporting events is now becoming more common in the cultural sector as well. This importance is underlined by the fact that underhand tactics have allegedly been employed to win cultural events in much the same way as for some major sporting events. In this climate, the ability of cities to attract and stage events such as the European Cultural Capital Event (ECC) may be seen as a crucial aspect in the urban competitive field. The extent to which competition to stage the event has grown may be judged from the fact that 14 cities are jostling for the nomination to stage the 2008 UK Capital of Culture event. This emphasises the growing attractiveness of cultural events as catalysts for place marketing and urban redevelopment.

This paper considers the role of the ECC event in place marketing, taking the specific example of Rotterdam in 2001. It draws upon a major visitor survey held in the city in 2001, as well as data drawn from the ATLAS Cultural Tourism Survey, which has been measuring the image of different European cities since 1997 (Richards 2001).

Place Images and Events

The image of a place is usually very important in attracting visitors, and destination image has therefore become an important aspect of tourism research. This research has tended to underline the complexity of the image concept, a point which is made clear when reviewing the image literature.

In broad terms, images are the ‘currency of cultures’ (Morgan and Pritchard 1998), reflecting and reinforcing particular shared meanings and beliefs and particular value systems. Indeed, place imagery is a particularly important notion in the context of urban tourism. On the whole, research examining imagery from the perspective of the tourist has emerged from within four (broad) contexts: measurement of image content; components of image; formation and modification of images; and the role of image in holiday choice processes.

Measurement of Image Content

Previous research on the measurement of destination image content has often involved generating image ‘attributes’ associated with the destination, often evaluated on multidimensional scales (e.g. Hunt 1971, Crompton 1977, Goodrich 1977, Pearce

1982, Gartner and Hunt 1987, Richardson and Crompton 1988, Gartner, 1989, Calantone *et al* 1989, Schofield, 2000). Studies employing 'attribute checklists' (Echtner and Ritchie, 1991) and similar category-based approaches (Tapachai and Waryszak 2000) for measuring destination image content have also been undertaken. Other researchers have examined image content using unstructured and interpretive qualitative approaches to tourist images and experiences (e.g. Reilly, 1990, Jenkins 1999, Ryan 2000). In this study, we have utilised attributes identified by Rotterdam Marketing as being important elements of the image of Rotterdam.

Components of Image

However tourism images might be theorised, there is a general agreement within and between academic disciplines that images contain a variety of aspects, or components. For example, many conceptualisations of place imagery from outside of the tourism field (e.g. Pocock and Hudson, 1978, Golledge and Stimson, 1997, Nasar, 1998) have distinguished between ‘designative’ and ‘appraisive’ components of the image. The ‘designative’ or informational aspect is related to the categorisation of visible elements of the environment – what is ‘known’ about a place in terms of cognition. On the other hand, the ‘appraisive’ aspect is concerned with feelings, values and meanings (and therefore, affection, evaluation and preference) – what is ‘felt’ about a place in terms of affection and evaluation. The appraisive component of an image can itself be demarcated into two different components (Pocock and Hudson, 1998):

> The evaluative (concerned with the expression of an opinion) (c.f. Nasar 1998, Walmsley and Young, 1998)

> The affective (concerned with the specification of a preference) (Dann, 1996b, Gartner, 1993). Indeed, given the predominance of studies of affective imagery, it is not surprising that the terms ‘affective’ and ‘appraisive’ are often used synonymously.

In this paper, we employ these particular terms in differentiating between the various aspects of Rotterdam's image as a cultural destination. However, studies have often applied different, yet overlapping, terminologies in describing these same aspects of destination image. In terms of tourism images, for example, both the tangible aspects of a destination, such as cost or hotel facilities, and the more intangible aspects, such as a vague and unattributable awareness of a place or product, have also been considered as separate, identifiable image components. As such, Echtner and Ritchie (1993) argued that destination image consists of two main components; attribute based (cognate) and holistic (affectional). They maintained that each of these components of destination image contains functional, or more tangible and psychological, or more abstract characteristics.

Nonetheless, several studies have concluded that images comprise, at the very least, a cognitive and an affective component (e.g. Baloglu and Brinberg 1997, Um 1998, Gartner 1993, Dann 1996b) and indeed, these correspond roughly to the notion of designative and appraisive components. Others, however, have suggested three different (but hierarchically interrelated), image components. The first is a cognitive component: the sum of beliefs and attitudes of an object, leading to some internally accepted picture of its attributes (Gartner, 1993); or, an intellectual appraisal (operationalised by comparing/externalising mental images of the destination) (Dann, 1996b). The second, an affective component, involves the motives one has for destination selection (Gartner, 1993); or, a motivational evaluation (Dann, 1996b). Thirdly, there is a conative or action component (Gartner, 1993).

Commentators have also examined the extent to which images and their subjective meanings are commonly shared, This consensual component of image has been referred to as ‘common image’ (Harvey, 1973). Indeed, similar individuals in similar contexts and environments are likely to have similar images in their minds (Walmsley and Lewis, 1993), but somewhere between the individual and the common components, Lynch (1960) conceptualised ‘collective images’, in reference to the degree of correspondence between individual and common images.

Formation and Modification of Images

Mayo and Jarvis (1981) and Ahmed (1994) have examined the factors that may influence the formation of a destination image. More recently, researchers have combined both cognitive and behavioural factors when looking at the determinants of destination image (Baloglu and McCleary 1999, Baloglu 1996). Such models incorporated information sources (variety and type), socio-demographics and socio-psychological travel motivations. Temporal aspects of place images are important for tourism planning, given that visitor impressions and experiences vary greatly with the time a place is visited (Gunn, 1993) but research has been limited. Image modification, while having been the focus of various studies (e.g. Pearce, 1982, Chon, 1990, Gunn, 1972, 1988) has often been considered less worthy of research than the image formation process (c.f. Stabler 1988, Gartner, 1993, Dann, 1996a, Baloglu and McCleary, 1999a) in tourism studies. In the current study we have drawn upon image modification concepts, because Rotterdam has attempted to use cultural events as a means of changing its image from that of a ‘working city’ into that of a cultural city.

The Role of Image in Holiday Choice Processes

The impact of information sources on destination image has also been addressed (Butler, 1990 Bojanic, 1991 Telisman-Kosuta, 1989), mainly with respect to the destination selection process. MacKay and Fesenmaier (1997), for example, specifically examined the pictorial element of destination image formation. Distance from a place, or cognitive distance, may also be a factor in the complexity of images (Walmsley and Jenkins, 1992b; Ankomah *et al* 1995, 1996; Hunt, 1971,1975), as may the influence of direct experience with a destination. Familiarity with a destination is also a significant concept, due to its role in tourist destination selection process (Baloglu, 2001). Previous studies have also focused on how destination image varies with familiarity and have often measured this by previous visitation (direct destination experience) (Pearce, 1982; Phelps, 1986; Dann, 1996; Fridgen, 1987; Chon, 1990b; Ahmed, 1991; Fakeye & Crompton, 1991; Hu & Ritchie, 1993; Milman & Pizam, 1995; Baloglu 2001).

The current study combines elements of all four of the approaches to place image described in the literature. Attribute measurement is used to identify the components of the image of Rotterdam, and links made with visitor behaviour (destination choice). Longitudinal changes in the images of the two cities are also analysed with the specific aim of capturing the image effect of the City of Culture event. In this sense, the current research attempts to provide a more holistic approach to the assessment of the image effects of cultural events.

Previous Studies of Cultural Event Impact

Despite a notable interest in city image modification following major sporting events, there have been relatively few studies of the image effects of cultural events. Puczko and Ratz (2001) studied the image of Budapest in relation to the Budapest Spring Festival. This research indicated that festival visitors had a more positive image of the city than non-visitors. In spite of this apparently positive image effect, however, Budapest did not have as strong an image as Vienna, one of its closest tourism destination rivals. Meyercough's (1991) study of the Glasgow ECC event also briefly considered image effects. This research showed a more positive cultural image of the city developing in the run-up to the event and during the year itself, but dropping off very rapidly thereafter.

Given the complexity of trying to measure image effects, however, it is not surprising that previous studies of cultural event impact have tended to concentrate on economic or visitor impacts. A review of the results of the 2000 Munich Oktoberfest, for example, (Munich Tourist Office 2002) emphasises the 0.7 billion Euro spent by the 5.5 million visitors to the event. The 16 day festival also generated employment for 12,000 people. The Edinburgh Festival, one of the longest running arts festivals in Europe, has held regular reviews of the economic impact of the event, largely to support public funding (Gratton and Taylor, 1992). In 1997 the economic impact was estimated at 200 million Euro, or the equivalent of 4000 jobs in Scotland.

The current study attempts to provide a more complete evaluation of the impact of the Rotterdam event on the image of the city, both for visitors to the event itself and longitudinally in the European tourist market as a whole. The following sections of the paper give a general background to the Cultural Capital Event and the city of Rotterdam.

The European Cultural Capital Event

The Cultural Capital Event originally had purely cultural aims. The event was designed to ‘help bring the peoples of the member states closer together’ through the ‘expression of a culture which, in its historical emergence and contemporary development, is characterized by having both common elements and a richness born of diversity’ (European Commission, 1985). Athens was designated the first Cultural Capital in 1985. Since then, the event has rotated around the member states of the EU, with a different city being awarded the honour every year. The aims of the event were basically twofold: first to make the culture of the cities accessible to a European audience, and second to create a picture of European culture as a whole (Corijn and Van Praet, 1994). However, as the event has developed, it has been used in different ways by the cities, either to support, extend or challenge the original Cultural Capital concept.

Corijn and Van Praet (1994), in their review of the history of the Cultural Capitals, highlight the way in which different cities treated the designation. Athens, for example, concentrated on big foreign names, and ignored ancient Greek art. Florence highlighted its own historic importance, while Amsterdam projected itself as a European art city. Berlin was criticized for having an elitist approach, while the event was hardly visible among the normal cultural bustle of Paris. The common feature of all these cities was that they were already established European ‘Cultural Capitals’, identified by Bianchini and Parkinson (1993) as having a wealth of cultural facilities.

The turning point for the Cultural Capital event came with the designation of Glasgow in 1990. Glasgow, unlike its predecessors, was not a capital city or one of the established 'cultural destinations' of Europe (Van der Borg, 1994). Glasgow won the nomination against competition from other British cities largely on the basis of promised commercial sponsorship and the fact that it planned to use the event to stimulate urban regeneration and to boost the image of Glasgow as a cultural city. As Bianchini (1999) argues in the context of European cultural policy, this transition marks the advent of the ‘age of city marketing’ (mid 1980s to present). In this period concern shifted away from the socio-political concerns of the 1970s towards economic development and urban regeneration policies. The extent to which urban redevelopment and city marketing objectives have replaced purely cultural ones in cultural policy is illustrated by the objectives of recent hosts of the ECC event. For example the Glasgow event was judged an economic success, producing a net economic benefit to the city of between 40 - 47 million Euro in 1990, mainly as a result of tourist expenditure (Myerscough, 1991).

In 2000 Helsinki had two major aims: ‘to enhance the quality of life of the inhabitants and to increase international awareness of Finnish culture’ (Helsinki City of Culture Foundation 2000: 3). Helsinki, one of the lesser known European capitals, wanted to put itself on the cultural map of Europe with the event. In Brugge (2002), a city which already attracts 3 million visitors a year, one of the major aims is to convince more day visitors to stay overnight, thereby increasing the economic impact of tourism (Brugge 2002 2001).

Although many cities have claimed that cultural motives remain at the fore of the event, the success of the event is often measured in terms of the visitors it attracts. Visitor numbers increased substantially in a number of cities as a result of the event: 12% more in Copenhagen (1996) and Stockholm (1998), and a claimed threefold increase in the case of Antwerp (1993). The EEC is therefore attractive not only as a means of developing the cultural infrastructure of a city, but also as an economic development tool and a means of enhancing the image of the city. These were also the basic arguments used by Rotterdam when the city began bidding for the event.

Rotterdam as City of Culture

Rotterdam is the second city of the Netherlands, and just like many other ‘second cities’, tries hard to compete in cultural terms with the capital, Amsterdam. But Amsterdam is the undisputed centre of cultural heritage in the Netherlands, with the most important monuments, museums and national arts venues. Rotterdam, badly damaged by bombing the Second World War, has always struggled to establish a cultural profile alongside its image as a major port and industrial centre.

In Rotterdam, therefore, culture has long been a major theme of tourism marketing. The strategic marketing plan for the Rotterdam city tourist office (VVV) for the period 1992-1994, for example, identified the key elements of the tourist product as water, architecture and culture. The weakness of Rotterdam was its relatively poor supply of traditional cultural facilities, particularly on an international level, compared with cities such as Amsterdam. Rotterdam has therefore decided to project an image of being a modern art city, using its futuristic architecture as a spearhead. Product developments undertaken in relation to cultural tourism include the opening of the National Architecture Museum, the Kunsthal, the development of the Museum Quarter and the Witte de With ‘cultural quarter’ (Hitters and Richards forthcoming).

In Rotterdam, the general cultural policy has shifted away from the traditional Dutch model of decentralizing and subsidizing cultural resources (Bevers, 1993), towards lowering barriers to participation through marketing (Brouwer, 1993). By enriching the cultural life and profile of the city, the local authority hopes to be able to compete more effectively with other 'second cities' (such as Barcelona, Frankfurt and Milan) in attracting tourists, investment and jobs. To achieve this, a development programme has been established with the aims of stimulating internationally-orientated culture, building the image of Rotterdam as a cultural festival city, and supporting the applied arts, such as architecture, design and photography. Brouwer argues that for Rotterdam, art is becoming increasingly interchangeable with sport and tourism, as another 'top attraction' that can be used to attract the 'new urban middle class', whose high incomes can stimulate the local economy. As a result of this cultural event-led strategy, Rotterdam recorded the highest event attendance growth rate of all Dutch cities in the 1990s (Bonink and Richards, 1997).

The staging of the ECC event in 2001 fits well in this general strategy. The decision to bid for the event was taken after local government officials had visited the ECC in Antwerp in 1993. Impressed by the success of Antwerp, which attracted 10 million visitors that year, Rotterdam decided to emulate its closest rival port city. Rotterdam invested considerable effort into securing the nomination, which was apparently finally grasped thanks to a political deal with the Belgians. The budget for the Rotterdam event was almost 40 million Euro, the highest budget since the event was held in Stockholm in 1998 (50 million Euro).

The basic aims of the event were to:

- Stage a festival with activities aimed at the whole city, attracting a broad audience as well as art-lovers.
- Structurally strengthen the cultural infrastructure of the city in terms of participation, activities and facilities.
- Help to improve the international cultural image of Rotterdam.
- Generate long term economic benefits, for example by stimulating tourism.

In order to determine the extent to which these aims had been achieved, evaluation research was undertaken by a research team from the Erasmus University in Rotterdam and Tilburg University in the Netherlands. The remainder of this paper reports on the results of the evaluation to date. Longitudinal studies of the long-term effects of the event are planned over the coming years.

Methods

In order to evaluate the extent to which RCH2001 was successful in achieving its aims, Rotterdam Culturele Hoofdstad (the event organisers), the City of Rotterdam and Rotterdam Festivals commissioned the Arts and Culture Department of the ERASMUS University Rotterdam and the Association for Tourism and Leisure Education (ATLAS) to undertake research. The main part of this study consisted of visitor surveys held at a number of events during 2001. The aim of these surveys was to establish a visitor profile for RCH and to examine the motivations, activities, attitudes and expenditure of people attending RCH events. In addition to measuring the economic spin-off of the event, and important objective was to examine the image that visitors had of Rotterdam, and to evaluate whether RCH2001 had had any effect on that image. The long-term image effects of the event will only be able to be measured over the next few years, but a short-term evaluation can be made by comparing the image RCH visitors have of the city with measurements made by ATLAS in previous years of the image of different European cities among cultural visitors in different European countries (Richards 2001). In addition, the elements of the image of Rotterdam among RCH visitors can be evaluated against the desired image that Rotterdam is trying to project. The City of Rotterdam has, in recent years, carried out a number of image evaluations, and similar questions were posed in the research among RCH visitors.

In order to provide comparability with the results of earlier ATLAS surveys, many of the basic questions on visitor profile, motivation, expenditure and activities were retained in the RCH research. Additional questions were posed about visitor evaluation of the RCH programme, Rotterdam as a tourist destination and the elements of the image of Rotterdam.

The research was conducted through visitor surveys at 7 different RCH events, selected to represent a mix of ‘high’ and ‘popular’ cultural forms and events with a local and a more international character. The surveys were carried out predominantly through self-completion questionnaires handed out and collected during the events. A small number of questionnaires were returned after the events by post. A total of 2200 questionnaires were returned. The refusal rate was less than 5%. Because the events sampled constituted a very small proportion of the total programme of RCH, the results of the surveys were weighted using data on the attendance at different types of events staged over the whole year.

The Visitors

The overall visitor profile for the RCH event was not significantly different to that of previous studies of cultural attractions and events undertaken by ATLAS in the Netherlands and elsewhere (Richards 2001). The respondents were divided almost evenly between male and female. Over half the respondents were over the age of forty, underlining the appeal of high culture events to an older audience. Over 70% of the sample was either employed or self-employed, with significant groups of retired people (12%) and students (9%). The visitors were predominantly from managerial or professional backgrounds, and the vast majority (over 70%) have a higher education qualification. The relatively high status of the respondents is underlined by the fact that almost 40% of the sample had incomes above 40,000 Euro (US$ 36,000).

In order to adequately sample the different visitor groups that RCH was trying to attract, stratified random sampling was employed. The final sample consisted of 48% local residents, 35% domestic tourists and 17% foreign tourists. A comparison with representative surveys held at the same events indicated that our sample contained less local visitors and more foreign tourists than the total visitor population. For analysis of the total sample, therefore, the data were weighted to reflect the composition of the total visitor population.

Visitors' Image of Rotterdam

The image that visitors had of the city of Rotterdam was measured using a series of 13 attributes. These attributes had already been used in previous image research on Rotterdam, providing the opportunity to compare the results.

Image Components

In general, visitors tended to place designative attributes highest (Table 1). The aspects of the city image that are most striking for visitors are the physical attributes of *modern architecture* and the *water* in the city. Then come four appraisive image components: Rotterdam as a *multicultural* city, a *working* city, its *international* orientation and its *dynamism*. These elements of the image all stem from the function of Rotterdam as a major international port and a major industrial centre. In essence, these components define the character of the city as seen by both residents and visitors. *Culture and art* is the highest rated intangible designative image component. This suggests that the ECC has been successful in raising the profile of art and culture facilities in Rotterdam. *Events, shopping* and particularly *nightlife* score lower as designative image aspects, perhaps because these are more specific urban amenities that are not used by all visitors.

Perhaps most significantly, the appraisive components *cosy* and *unsafe* score the lowest. Because these components are related to people's personal feelings about the city (they can both be classified as appraisive-affective) this suggests that the city does not affect visitors very strongly on a personal level. Worryingly, this tends to suggest that the city lacks the 'atmosphere' necessary to affect visitors either in a positive or a negative sense. Rotterdam is not really seen as a cosy city, apart from by Rotterdammers. The majority of visitors do not feel that Rotterdam is unsafe, but Rotterdammers feel more unsafe than visitors, perhaps because they are more aware of the crime that does take place.

Some of the image attributes for Rotterdam are strongly correlated with each other and also with other aspects of the visitor experience. For example, positive responses to the association of Rotterdam with events is most highly correlated with associations with ‘art and culture’ and ‘lots to discover’. There is also a significant positive correlation (r 2 = 0.484) between the score given for the ECC programme and the score for Rotterdam as a tourism destination. This suggests that the ECC event has had some positive impact on the perception of Rotterdam as a tourist destination. The perception of Rotterdam as a city with lots of events was also positively correlated with its score as a tourism destination. This may indicate that visitors who perceive the city as an event city see it as more attractive because of the liveliness created by those events.

When looking at the image of Rotterdam according to visitor characteristics, significant differences are evident. For example, women are far more likely to agree that Rotterdam is a centre for culture and art and events than men. Younger respondents tend to think Rotterdam is a more international, multicultural city, which they associate more positively with shopping, nightlife and events. The older respondents tend to emphasise the dynamism of Rotterdam and its associations with water. A similar division is evident when looking at students and retired people.

Events tend to be emphasised by students and those in employment far more than retired respondents, which may suggest that the current events policy does not provide as much benefit for senior citizens.

When looking at foreign respondents, there are some marked differences according to visitor origin. For example the French do not see Rotterdam as multicultural, which may suggest that they tend to visit high culture events with low ethnic minority participation. German tourists tend to see the city as more international than either French or Belgian tourists. The Belgians tend to see Rotterdam as more international, being linked to culture and art, architecture, shopping, dynamic, lots to discover, events. In spite of the initial assumption that the more positive attitude of the Belgian tourists might relate to a high frequency of visitation, there was no significant difference in image attributes by extent of previous visitation.

This latter point was also confirmed when looking at the sources of information that foreign visitors used to find out about the city. Belgian tourists were less likely than others to have used knowledge gained during a previous visit. They were however more likely to have made use of newspapers, perhaps because Flemish Belgians speak Dutch. It is likely that Rotterdam would have received more attention in the Flemish press than in other foreign countries, and many Belgians visiting Rotterdam could also have read the Dutch papers as well.

The surveys also confirm the growing importance of Internet as an information source for foreign tourists. This is particularly important for foreign tourists who will probably not have access to local media.

Relationship between Image and Visitor Spend

The different image attributes were also examined against visitor spend data for the Rotterdam event. There was no clearly identifiable relationship between destination image and spend for visitors to the city. In general, expenditure was positively correlated with distance travelled, particularly because foreign visitors tended to spend more on accommodation. When visitor origin was controlled there were no significant relationships between the image components of the city and expenditure. Domestic tourists who perceive Rotterdam as a suitable destination for a cultural holiday did spend more than other Dutch visitors during their stay, but there was no significant difference among foreign tourists. These results indicate that the relationships between destination image and expenditure, if they exist, are fairly complex. This issue is perhaps worthy of specific study in future.

Relationships between Image and Destination Choice

The reaction to the different image attributes for Rotterdam varied according to the visitation patterns of respondents. First time visitors were significantly less likely to totally agree with the attributes than other visitors, probably because they did not have enough information to make a firm judgement about the nature of the city. The image of the city therefore seems to become stronger with a higher frequency of visitation, but the greatest difference is found between first time visitors and those who have visited once or twice. It seems that the image of the city is sharpened considerably between the first and the second or third visits, with subsequent visitation having considerably less impact.

There were also significant differences in image in terms of purpose of visit. Those coming to Rotterdam specifically for the ECC tended to see Rotterdam as an international city with modern architecture. Interestingly these respondents tended to see Rotterdam less as a cultural city or a centre for events. This may be because people with a specific motivation for visiting the ECC had higher expectations than those visiting as part of a holiday or business trip. Visitors who agreed most strongly with the image attributes for Rotterdam were also more likely to be highly satisfied with their visit. This suggests that those people who identified most closely with the image that Rotterdam promotes are also most likely to be satisfied with their visit to the city and the event. This underlines the importance of matching the product to the expectations of the visitor. In addition, visitors who saw Rotterdam as a suitable destination for a cultural holiday were also significantly more likely to be satisfied with their visit to the city. These visitors were also more likely to see Rotterdam as a cultural and art city.

The Image of Rotterdam Relative to Other Cities

One aspect of the image assessment of Rotterdam was to ask visitors to evaluate Rotterdam and a number of other cities as cultural destinations. This question was also posed in previous years during the ATLAS research in different European countries, and was also posed in other locations during 2001. This makes it possible to judge the image effects of the ECC event over time as well as providing a measure of the image impacts of the event for non-visitors.

In general, the visitors to the ECC in Rotterdam scored the city very highly as a cultural destination. This is in line with the results of previous ATLAS surveys, which also show a high score for cities in which surveys are conducted. Inhabitants of Rotterdam also tended to be much more positive about their city than visitors.

When asked to rank a selection of cities as cultural tourism destinations, there were significant differences in terms of visitor origin. In general, foreign tourists tended to rank their own capital city relatively highly. In addition, classical cultural centres, such as Florence, tended to score highly, particularly among French tourists in Rotterdam. French and German visitors were also likely to score Amsterdam in particular as a suitable cultural holiday destination. Rotterdam scored much lower than its rival Amsterdam, but received relatively good ratings from German and Belgian visitors. Rotterdam scored better than Glasgow and Maastricht with German and Belgian visitors, and Germans placed Rotterdam above Brussels, Antwerp and Dublin. French visitors, on the other hand, did not rate Rotterdam as a cultural destination at all, which is consistent with their expressed image of Rotterdam.

When the image of Rotterdam is measured against other European cities over time, it is clear that the ECC had a positive effect on the image of the city in 2001. The proportion of respondents to the ATLAS Cultural Tourism Survey indicating that they considered Rotterdam to be in the top 5 cultural destinations in Europe increased from under 3% in 1999 to 5% in 2001. Rotterdam consequently rose from 20th place to 15th place in the list of 22 European cities in the ATLAS research. This indicates that the ECC event has had some image modification effect. An interesting aspect of the follow-up research on the effects of the ECC will be the extent to which Rotterdam can hold on to the image improvements it gained in 2001. The experience of other cities indicates that it is difficult to maintain such gains unless there is a structured programme of cultural development in subsequent years as well. In the case of Glasgow, for example, the effects declined rapidly after 1990, and this decline was only reversed after 1996 with the opening of a new modern art museum and the staging of the European Year of Architecture in 1999 (Richards 2000).

Conclusions

The image of Rotterdam seems to be strongly differentiated in terms of the components of the image and terms of the image held by different groups of visitors. In general, the image components identified most strongly by respondents were the designative, tangible aspects of the cityscape, such as modern architecture and water. The evaluative image components associated with the ‘character’ of Rotterdam, such as ‘multicultural’, ‘working city’, ‘international’ and ‘dynamic’ also scored very highly. Culture and art also seem to have scored relatively highly compared with other components related to the facilities or amenities available in the city, which suggests some positive impact of the ECC on the image of Rotterdam as a cultural city. Unfortunately the evaluative-affective components of the image of Rotterdam score lowest, indicating that the city has a rather neutral image overall, perhaps suggesting that Rotterdam is lacking in ‘atmosphere’.

The components of the image of Rotterdam identified by visitors to the ECC also vary considerably according to visitor origin, age, status and gender. In general, Rotterdammers tend to have a stronger and more positive image of their own city. The main exception to this is the fact that Dutch visitors from other parts of the country tend to score Rotterdam higher in terms of its physical features and appraisive aspects such as 'multicultural’, ‘international’ and ‘dynamic’. This may reflect the fact that Rotterdam is arguably the only ‘real’ city in the Netherlands, boasting the highest concentration of tall buildings and the largest proportion of ethnic minority population. Dutch visitors may therefore see Rotterdam as a big international city in comparison with others in the Netherlands. Foreign visitors, on the other hand, tend to score Rotterdam low on image attributes across the board, indicating that they have a weaker, more diffuse image of the city as a whole. This study therefore suggests that the different components of destination image identified in the literature can be useful in analysing the image effects of events. In addition, the fact that different visitor groups have distinctive evaluations of image components suggests a link between image components and destination choice.

The current research also identifies a positive role for the ECC in modifying the image of Rotterdam. A comparison of the research conducted in Rotterdam during the Cultural Capital Event in 2001 with previous studies of European city image shows that Rotterdam improved its ranking in the field of European cultural tourism destinations in 2001. The proportion of visitors seeing Rotterdam as a suitable destination for a cultural holiday rose from under 3% in 1999 to 5% in 2001. This still places Rotterdam way behind the established cultural capitals such as London and Paris, but it has gained ground on closer rivals, such as Antwerp and Glasgow. This indicates that the Cultural Capital Event has had a positive impact on the image of the city in the short term.

The Rotterdam research underlines the importance of including image assessment in the evaluation of major events. The findings of this research also suggest some wider implications for the study of events in general. Given the differences in city image encountered for different visitor groups, event organisers need to be aware that visitor perceptions of the event location are unlikely to be homogeneous. This could have a significant effect on the composition of the audience attracted to an event, and may well have implications for the way in which events can be effectively marketed. This seems to be particularly important for domestic visitors, whose image of the event location may be more positive in some aspects than local residents. Foreign tourists, on the other hand, may have a much less coherent image of the destination, and may be more inclined to attend because of the content of the event rather than its immediate location.

Potentially, the most interesting question to be addressed in future research relates to the durability of the positive image effects caused by such events. This could be examined through longitudinal research, undertaking periodic measurement of the image of event locations before, during and after the event. In undertaking such studies, it would be pertinent to measure the different components of destination image and to assess which image components are most strongly affected by the event. This would also allow the contribution of events to the overall marketing of destinations to be more accurately assessed.

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Figure 1 Components of Destination Image

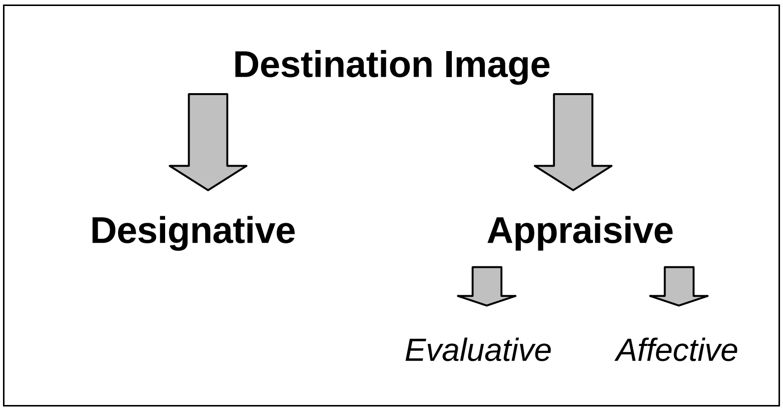

Table 1 Agreement with Image Attributes among Visitors to Rotterdam Cultural Capital (% totally agree)

Image Attribute of Rotterdam	Rotterda-mmers	Residents of Zuid Holland	Other Dutch visitors	Foreign Visitors	Total	Image Type
Modern architecture	84.9	78.6	88.0	66.4	80.1	Designative
Water	79.9	83.8	89.1	68.5	79.6	Designative
Multicultural	83.1	81.3	85.3	60.2	77.5	Appraisive
Working city	84.2	79.7	81.3	57.0	76.3	Appraisive
International	74.4	77.5	84.3	61.8	73.7	Appraisive
Dynamic	66.3	70.9	75.4	44.9	63.7	Appraisive
Culture and art	64.0	65.3	71.3	38.1	59.0	Appraisive
Lots to discover	62.1	57.7	71.7	33.2	56.8	Appraisive
Events	65.8	60.4	65.8	26.2	55.7	Designative
Shopping	54.4	66.7	59.7	25.9	50.1	Designative
Nightlife	43.5	46.3	42.3	21.4	38.5	Designative
Cosy (gezelligheid)	38.5	41.1	32.2	13.0	31.1	Appraisive
Unsafe	20.5	19.1	21.4	8.4	17.7	Appraisive

The Links Between Mega Events And Urban Renewal: The Case Of The Manchester 2002 Commonwealth Games

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Abstract

Whilst the tourism benefits of mega events such as the Olympics and Commonwealth Games have been well documented, the links with urban renewal are less well understood. This paper explores these linkages in the case of the 2002 Commonwealth Games in Manchester, U.K. With the decline of traditional economic activities in industrialised cities such as Manchester, mega events as an economic development tool is becoming increasingly important.

The mega events literature indicates an emphasis on the immediate short-term economic, social and environmental impacts, but few authors link mega events to urban regeneration in the long term. More importantly, there is very little evidence of the policies and programs used to capitalise on the success of mega events in the

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process of urban renewal. However, the relationship between tourism and urban regeneration has been acknowledged and its importance is constantly being reviewed. This paper finds that economic legacy is the overriding factor and that there has been considerable efforts to ensure that there are no ongoing costs of the event to the residents. The facilities that will be built for the Commonwealth Games are intended for use as world class sporting facilities for future events. This will also help to promote an image of Manchester as a sporting city, already well known in the world game of soccer but eager to expand into other avenues of sports and tourism events.

The hosting of large international events is not only beneficial for the tourism industry but it is linked to all aspects of the economy and society. Manchester has actively sought out a policy of sports and cultural events as a means of showcasing the city as well as accelerating the process of urban renewal. The paper will examine how the management structures, policies and programs for the Commonwealth Games were linked with existing efforts to achieve long-term urban regeneration.

Introduction

The main objective of this paper is to examine the links between mega events and urban renewal in the case of the Manchester 2002 Commonwealth Games. Research into mega events such as the Commonwealth Games is often concerned with tourism and short-term economic impacts (Kang and Perdue 1994, Pyo, Cook and Howell 1988, Hall 1989, Hall 1992) but understanding the links between urban regeneration requires a longer-term scope.

Large international events are not only beneficial for the tourism industry but are also linked to all aspects of the economy. Manchester has actively sought a policy of sports and cultural events as a means for showcasing the city. The research will evaluate how the management and processes of the Manchester 2002 Commonwealth Games were developed so that urban regeneration can be realised.

Literature Review

Defining urban regeneration is difficult, though most agree that it is the means of improving a city's facilities and infrastructure so as to promote economic growth and development of the inner cities and other areas of decline. Urban regeneration projects are not only linked to mega events but are often part of a broader economic development policy (Bianchini and Parkinson 1993). Events and tourism provide a good basis for justifying the allocation of resources to areas which would be unlikely to receive funds through other means. Increasingly City Councils are becoming aware that there is a need to have a diversified product to obtain a sustainable tourism product and this can incorporate many areas of governmental policy.

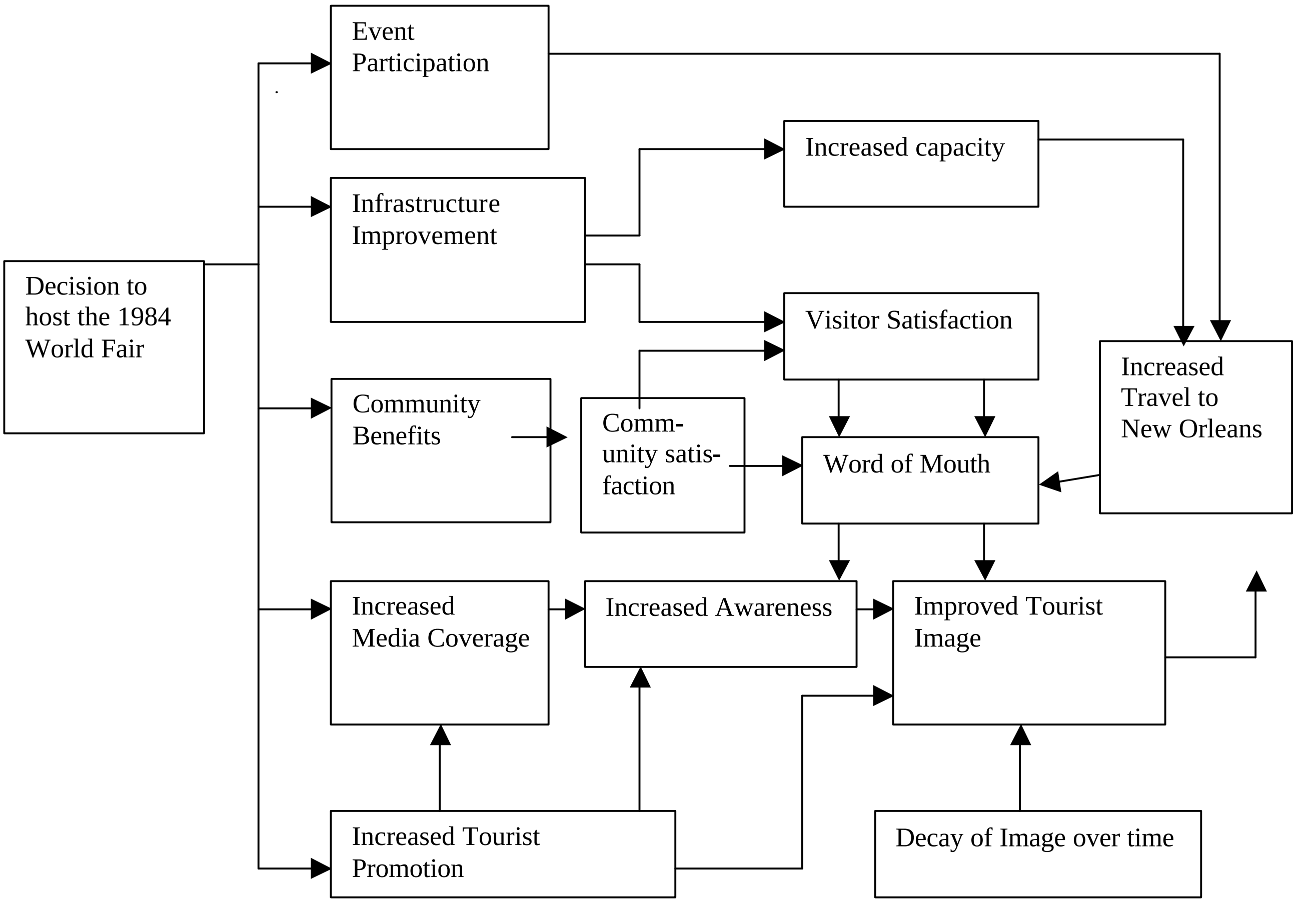
In a practical sense the industrial heritage of the United Kingdom has made it the leader of urban regeneration initiatives in Europe. These initiatives create new urban infrastructure, generate investment, employment and income and improve the tourism image of post-industrial cities, such as Manchester. Asworth and Voogd (1990) attribute the proliferation of urban renewal policies to radical government policies and a market-oriented approach to public urban planning. This approach sought public-private sector investment partnerships and stressed image promotion as a method for leveraging private sector investment in infrastructure projects. A number of Development Corporations (DCs) were established with public and private sector board membership to drive urban renewal in UK cities. London Docklands DC was the first example of this public-private partnership approach and served as a model not only for other UK cities, but also for Western Europe. Out of the DCs came more formalised Integrated Development Operations, of which the Manchester, Salford, Trafford IDO was deemed the most successful. It was based on the strength of the relationships between public agencies at the local and national government level, as well as the public-private sector partnerships in the preceding DCs. The IDO programs were highly strategic and had objectives focussed on rejuvenation of old industrial areas, business development and support, infrastructure development (housing and roads), urban amenity, workforce training and tourism and cultural activities. It is this last of these that provides the links with mega-events which have the potential to provide a showcase for the urban renewal and to change the image of the city.

However, Law et al (1991) cautions against claims that tourism can be a catalyst for urban regeneration and a panacea for inner city problems. Tourism has often been cited as being the way forward for creating jobs and improving inner city environments, but it is hard to accurately identify the economic benefits of tourism in urban areas. In many cases economic development is influenced by political expediency, which inevitably flows over into the staging of mega events in urban areas.

Hall (1992) highlights the problem that all tourism policy is inevitably linked to the political process. The lack of research on tourism policy is surprising, given the emphasis it has been allocated in economic and regional development. Cities are being re-imaged in order to attract investment and middle class employment markets, but there is a lack of research as to how tourism development is achieving its goals. Hall (1994) also acknowledges that political motivations will determine the effectiveness of any long- term strategy for the region. There is potential for mega events such as the Olympics to be viewed as “white elephants”. The very large investments that are needed to stage mega events such as the Olympics and World Fairs mean that the short term returns are usually negative (Dimanche 1996) and the money spent in hosting such events is hardly ever recouped (Getz 1997).

Dimanche (1996) established a framework for assessing the long- term success of an event. Through the use of a model based on Kang & Perdue (1994) it assesses the impact of mega events on international tourism by establishing the links through which mega events produce long-term impacts on international travel to a host country. (See Fig 1)

Figure 1 Impact of 1984 World Fair on New Orleans Tourism (Dimanche1996)


Event Participation
Increased capacity
Infrastructure Improvement
Decision to host the 1984 World Fair
Visitor Satisfaction
Increased Travel to New Orleans
Community Benefits
Comm-unity satis-faction
Word of Mouth
Increased Media Coverage
Increased Awareness
Improved Tourist Image
Increased Tourist Promotion
Decay of Image over time

These linkages show the means of understanding the impact of events but do not clarify the links with urban renewal. The means to quantify the short-term impact of an event is through the use of variables such as visitor satisfaction, visitor expenditure, economic data (cost and benefits), inward investment, regeneration of urban areas, image of the destination, improvement of the tourist infrastructure and the overall growth of tourism (Dimanche 1996). The problem with using this model is that the long-term information, for example on ‘improved tourist image’ is not often available. Organisers of mega events do not often consider doing research beyond short-term economic benefits.

Dimanche (1996) sees that mega events such as the world fair can be thought of as a spring board that will allow a local tourism industry to reach a new potential and rejuvenate communities. Events need long-term development strategies if the effects are going to be felt and evaluated over time (Roche 1994). Mega events are short-term events with long term consequences for the cities that stage them. The long-term significance of mega events must be evaluated because the multiple impacts cannot be fully understood in the short term (Dimanche 1996)

Hughes (1993) argues that hallmark events will provide substantial tourist flows for Manchester and can make a significant contribution to urban regeneration. This contribution could come through the inward investment in infrastructure that will take place prior to the event. However, Hughes cautions against the creation of tourism and sporting facilities that may get little use after the event.

Methodology

The methodology used for the research is grounded theory. This method uses both inductive and deductive thought to develop a theoretical framework based on observation, with the intention to arrive at prescriptions and policy recommendations technique.

The initial stage of grounded theory is coding. Open coding is a process that identifies, analyses and categorises the raw data and information. These codes are organised into a pattern of concepts and categories. This is accomplished by classifying the different elements into distinct ideas. The properties of each category are defined along a continuum. These labels are completely subjective and chosen by the researcher so an explanation of the labels is needed. (Hussey and Hussey 1997)

The next stage is to use these labels to recognise patterns and concepts and link them at the dimensional level. At this point theories are then created regarding the relationships that exist. This method is used due to the fact that the research is looking at real world problems/issues and looking for a means to understand the issues. In order to collate the information the process of interviews and analysis of policy documents has taken place with key organisers involved with the Commonwealth Games (Figure 2).

Figure 2 Table of policy documents used in the research and their link to regeneration goals for Manchester

Commonwealth Games policy areas	**Organising Body**	**Links connecting to the regeneration goals**
Tourism awareness and increased tourism travel to Manchester and the North West	Marketing Manchester and Partners	North West Tourism Strategy Document and partnerships for tourism development
Image renewal showcasing Manchester and the North West through new industries, ITC, Creative and Media	Marketing Manchester and Partners	Marketing promotions via trade delegations and other events connected to MIDAS inward investment goals for the region and City Council regeneration policy
Physical Regeneration	East Manchester Ltd, MIDAS, City Council, Marketing Manchester, Central Government	Management and development of the commonwealth games venues and commercial incentives.
Economic Benefits	MIDAS, Marketing Manchester, City Council, East Manchester Ltd., Manchester 2002 Ltd., Central Government	Tourism strategy as well as MIDAS commonwealth Games program
Social Legacy	MIDAS, Central Government, City Council, Manchester 2002 Ltd. East Manchester Ltd.	City involvement initiatives, cultural festival, educational and social programs

Figure 2 shows the links between the main organising bodies involved in the Commonwealth Games with Manchester urban regeneration and Commonwealth policy areas. It also demonstrates how each partner has there own objectives as well as having a contributing role in urban regeneration

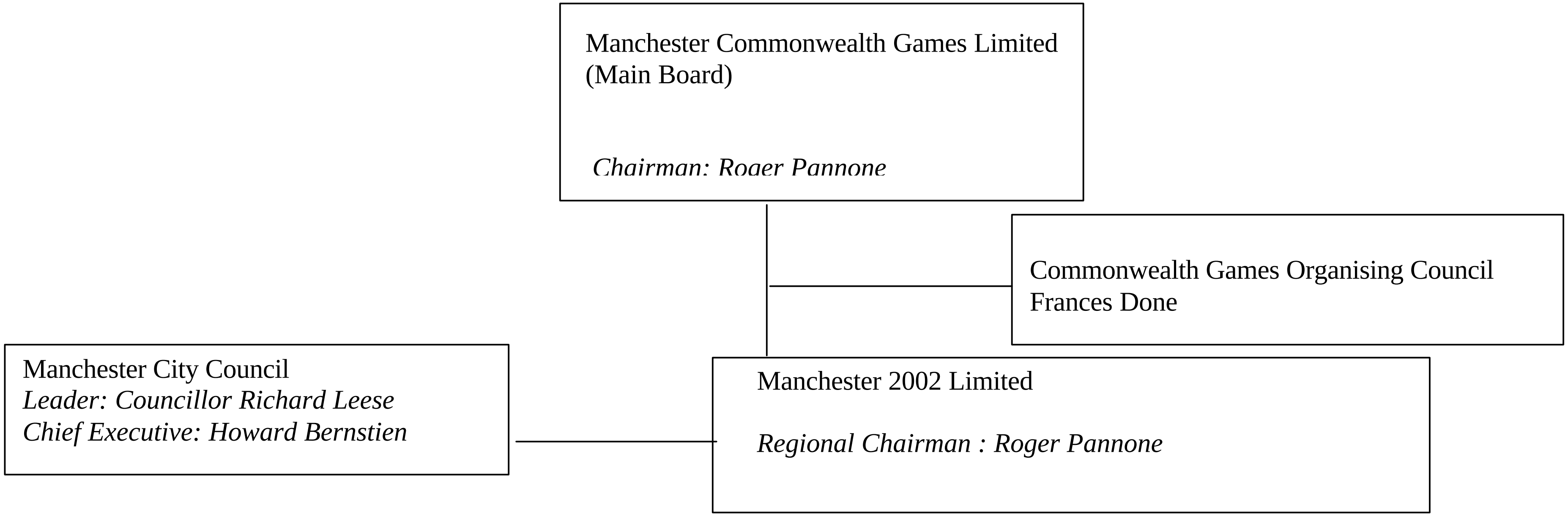
Findings And Discussion

Planning and Co-ordination of the Games

Figure 3 depicts the official management of the Commonwealth Games. The actual picture is much more complicated and involves many different players. Essentially the main organisational body for the Games is that of the Commonwealth Games organising council and they are a part of Manchester 2002 Ltd that are in control of the financial aspects and all report to the main board of the Commonwealth Games. These are also all tied to Manchester City council that have set up all these different organisations for the running of the event and social economic programs linked to the Commonwealth Games.

The organisational chart does not explain other aspects of the leadership and how the central government's role is depicted. Any large international event on this scale must have governmental support from the top down to be successful. Manchester learnt this lesson through the unsuccessful bids for the Olympics in 1996 and 2000. For the Commonwealth Games bids it was essential that Manchester had the support from the government so that it can attract the sponsors and investment for the infrastructure that is needed to host the Games. In order to do this the Government has allocated a special minister on the cabinet that will be responsible for the Commonwealth Games and will help Manchester to achieve its goals, in accordance to bid proposals and government policy.

Figure 3 Manchester 2002 Organisational Relationships

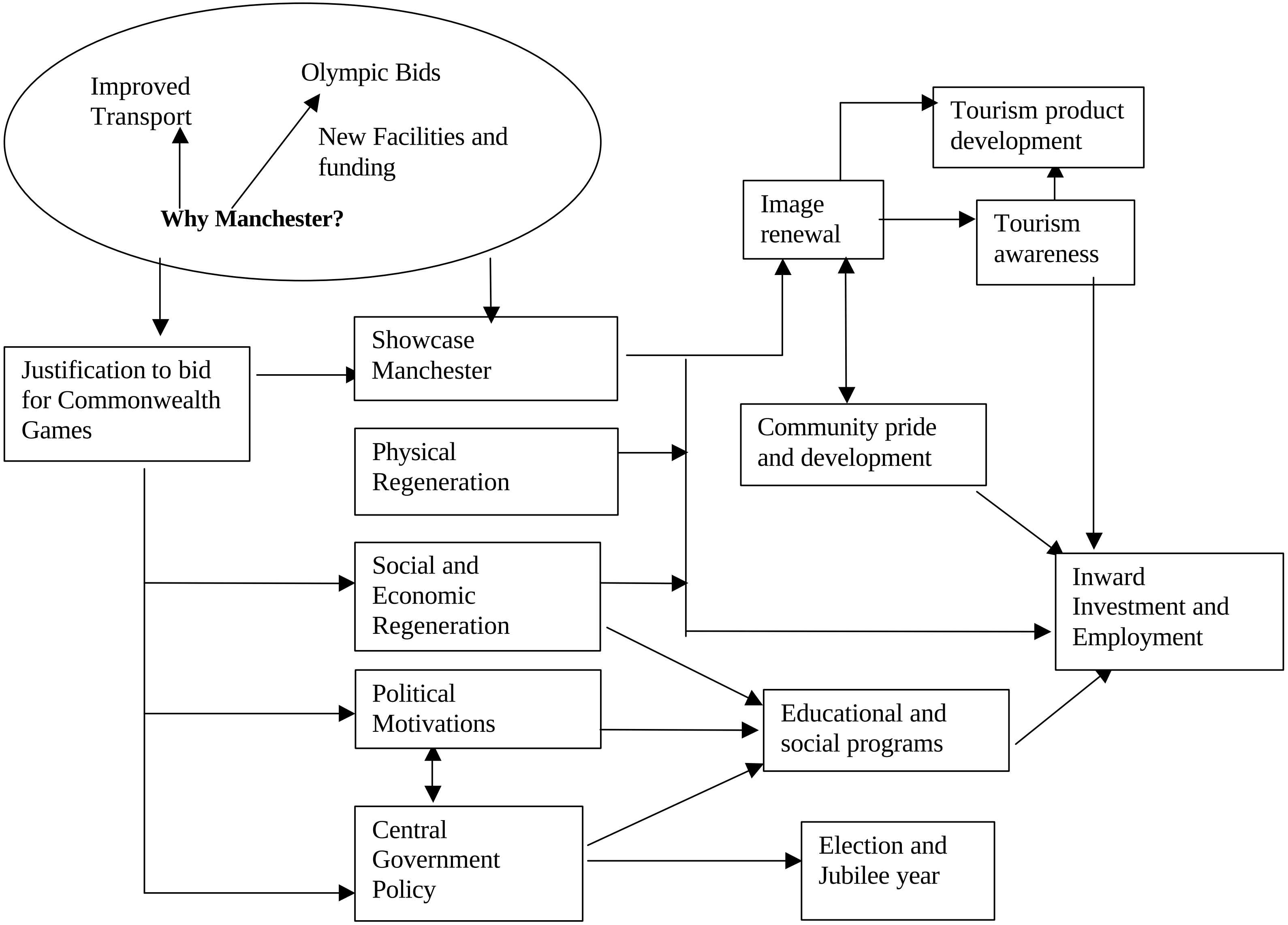

Manchester Commonwealth Games Limited
(Main Board)
Chairman: Roger Pannone
Commonwealth Games Organising Council
Frances Done
Manchester City Council
Leader: Councillor Richard Leese
Chief Executive: Howard Bernstien
Manchester 2002 Limited
Regional Chairman : Roger Pannone

Links between urban regeneration and the Manchester 2002 Commonwealth Games

When examining the management of the Manchester 2002 Commonwealth Games policies, it is clear that the organisations involved are jointly concerned about the main themes of the economic regeneration and the image of Manchester on a national and international level. Though these are the underlying motivations for the Commonwealth Games bid, it is important to see how these factors are linked to the overall strategies for the Games and the coordination of the event itself.

To highlight how these issues are interlinked, and how they effect regeneration it is important to start with the justification of why Manchester decided to bid for the Games (see Fig 4). The figure also highlights the effect of the bid document and how the links of the Olympic bids and the showcasing of Manchester are developed through these documents. The emphasis of Manchester’s policies for the Commonwealth Games have been highlighted previously but the management and coordination links that are needed for the success of the Games and regeneration goals are less well documented. To achieve these goals there is an understanding that the management of the event and regeneration policies influenced by the games, need to have the same key vision and motivation.

Figure 4 Links between the Manchester 2002 Commonwealth Games and Urban Regeneration Policy.


Improved Transport
Olympic Bids
New Facilities and funding
Why Manchester?
Tourism product development
Image renewal
Tourism awareness
Justification to bid for Commonwealth Games
Showcase Manchester
Physical Regeneration
Community pride and development
Social and Economic Regeneration
Inward Investment and Employment
Political Motivations
Educational and social programs
Central Government Policy
Election and Jubilee year

Social Policies and Programs

One of the main ways that Manchester City Council hopes to fulfill some of the aims of the urban regeneration policy is through the use of employment programs, especially for the 16 to 25 age group.

Between 1999-2004 an economic and social program will be implemented. Funds were obtained through a program called SRB Challenge round 5. The program is focused on the North West of England and has been designed to complement local regeneration strategies taking place in conjunction with the 2002 Manchester Commonwealth Games. Three strategic objectives have been identified. The first objective is to improve skills and education within the target area, as well as in the Commonwealth Games communities and young people. Secondly, community and health development to create cohesion and improve skills amongst the disadvantaged through health improvement programs linked with the Games. Thirdly, business competitiveness and commercial opportunities generated by the Games to improve the competitiveness of target sectors and ethnic minority businesses.

In achieving these objectives the Manchester City Council is looking to enhance employment prospects through education skills of local people, address social exclusion, support and promote growth in local economies. The main emphasis for the urban regeneration program of the North West is in line with Central Government policy, which is the establishment of a large skills base in the population and to increase skills of the unemployed. This will be done through gaining work experience, qualifications and skills that can lead to employment through the Volunteer program, and the passport 2002 scheme.

The Commonwealth Games will need volunteers with a wide range of skill areas. The SRB Program will provide an opportunity for 3,000 disadvantaged people throughout the region, to take part as volunteers, providing them with a range of services including information, counseling, vocational advice and training, leading to qualifications in the skill area required. The areas will include customer service, tourism information, sport and recreational services, travel, security and transport services. In addition to the short-term opportunities an Intermediate Labour Market Model will establish a pool of employees to provide clerical, administration and IT support with the opportunity to gain 12 months work experience (North West Partnership Manchester 2002, 1999).

The program is targeted at the 25 most disadvantaged areas in the region where an average of 120 people from ethnic minorities, aged 16-25 years and long term unemployed will be recruited. The social and economic regeneration program has had to be limited by available funding. Due to the scarce resources available for the social programs, they could not be fully adapted to address all the problems faced by the city. Allocating available resources to areas that would most benefit from the program will provide opportunities for urban renewal to take place.

The Commonwealth Games in Manchester will not only facilitate economic regeneration for the city but will also establish a cultural legacy from the Games. Manchester has large communities from other Commonwealth countries and the aim through the cultural programs is to create awareness of these communities and promote understanding throughout the Commonwealth. The social and cultural policies are implemented through the cultural program ‘Lets Celebrate’. The North West Cultural Program is to be coordinated by Manchester City Council, North West Art Board, Marketing Manchester, MIDAS and other local authorities. These bodies have identified three main areas for long term benefits that they hope can be used as a template for other regions:

- Education programs established within schools to raise awareness and understanding of the various Commonwealth countries.

- Environmental programs such as street dressing during the period of the Spirit of Friendship Festival and on a long-term basis through public art commissions.

- Social and community development through cultural activities from within the Commonwealth communities which will increase mutual understanding of cultural diversity (Manchester 2002 Ltd, 2000).

Conclusion

Mega events and tourism are often seen as a useful tool for governments to justify the large amount of spending on infrastructural developments and urban renewal. However economic, social and cultural benefits from mega-events can only be maximised through an integrated approach with long-term urban regeneration policy and planning. Event tourism can also expose the host city to great financial risk in the short-term. In the case of Manchester the city has put little or no money into the development of capital projects, and funding has come from the Central Government and private sponsorship. It is due to this factor alone that the city can produce substantial benefits from the event while minimising exposure to risk.

This research has found that in the case of the Manchester 2002 Commonwealth Games, economic legacy is the overriding factor and that there have been considerable efforts by the city to ensure that there are no ongoing costs of the event to the residents. The facilities that will be built for the Commonwealth Games are intended for use as world class sporting facilities for future events.

The social programs that have been established to enhance links between Manchester and the Commonwealth generating countries are vital due to the large population of the city that originates from these countries. These will give people the ability to understand the diverse cultures that exist with in Manchester. In regard to the specific games Xchange and passport programs that have been established, it will take significant time to evaluate their success. Due to the establishment of base line data this evaluation can take place and analysis of the success of the programs can be completed over time. One aspect of the social program is that of limited availability and that there are no follow up programs envisaged. This is often the problem of social incentives due to lack of funding available. However, it is also evident that without the mega event these types of programs may never have received adequate funding or attention from the public and private sector.

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Viva La Gong - A Call/Catchcry for a Cultural Evolution

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Abstract

Viva la Gong is an annual celebration of the Illawarra’s creative talents and cultural diversity in a ten-day festival located in unique natural environments. It arose from an identified need to overcome Wollongong's cultural cringe, to promote and celebrate the diverse and vibrant cultures of the Illawarra. The title itself honours the working class roots and social activism of the area –it is a call to solidarity to launch a cultural evolution in a post steel and post steelers city.

Wollongong is a city actively reinventing itself-it has unlimited potential to establish itself as a contemporary and creative regional centre, at the economic hub of the Illawarra. Our city is blessed with an extraordinary natural environment, a rich cultural diversity, precincts of distinct character, industrial heritage and a proud history of activism. Our unique geography has created many distinct and proud communities, our industrial history has established a rich and diverse multicultural population. Our cultural infrastructure includes: successful tertiary institutions, a distinguished regional art gallery; a major performing arts centre; several vibrant performing arts companies; many local museums, a rare heritage cinema; and an dynamic annual festival. If Wollongong is to become a sophisticated city of vision and charm we must engage our community and promote these unique features to visitors and investors alike.

A city wide cultural festival enables the community to build a sense of regional distinctiveness by celebrating and valuing our heritage, social, cultural and physical features. It also has lasting economic and social benefits for the city. These include: attracting tourists and visitors to the region, encouraging attendance at cultural events, stimulating new and small business growth, building audiences for the future, developing innovative cultural product, showcasing the innovative and emerging identity of our region, and attracting new residents. The social benefits include: promoting our local cultural diversity, stimulating a sense of community identity and pride, facilitating partnerships between communities and organisations, focussing attention of the creative energy within the Illawarra.

Viva la Gong is a contemporary festival that promotes cultural diversity and creative innovation. It showcases the work of artists, writers, performers, filmmakers, and musicians in unique environmental surroundings. The artists selected are at the cutting edge of contemporary arts practice, scientific experimentation and cultural innovation.. The festival is actually a direct stimulus for the development of local cultural product and an attraction for the touring of national and international artists. The festival has a popular and accessible program that showcases arts and culture in people friendly locations without any elitist pretensions.

The festival combines quality contemporary culture with the latest innovations in environmental technology. The events showcase the latest research devices of the engineering department of the University of Wollongong in solar power pyramids, compostable toilets and recycling waste management. This is a unique emphasis in festival planning and of great interest and appeal to younger audiences. It creates an interest and curiosity in contrast to the 'industrial heartland' stereotype of our city.

The first Viva la Gong Festival was honoured with an Award of Distinction for Special Events and Regional Festivals at the 2000 Yellow Pages Awards for Business Excellence in Tourism. This paper explores the processes of community engagement, regional identity, creative innovation and cultural diversity that have made this event such a success in such a short time.

Italian Festivals In Australia's Little Italys : The Use of Public Spaces in Italian-Australian Commercial Precincts to Create a Cosmopolitan 'Sense of Place'.

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Abstract

This paper explores Italian festivals held in the public spaces of Australia's three Little Italys - Carlton, Victoria; Leichhardt, NSW and Norwood, South Australia – and their contribution to the 'cosmopolitan character' of these places. Festivals in these outdoor Mediterranean-style public spaces are examined as to their origins and the role of Italian traditions in authenticating a cosmopolitan 'sense of place' in historic Australian settings. It is argued that the cultural setting of the Italian festivals, the Italian style of these urban Little Italys, dominates the outdoor spaces in these Australian main streets. Significant traditional Italian features of these places are the small size, familial and market style of outdoor cafes; the interconnectedness of Italian food suppliers, owners, staff and associated Italian networks, and the outstanding style of the cultural landscape, an intimate, intense, and theatrical usage of public spaces. The religious Italian Festivals and the Italian led daily secular Festivals of passeggiata and street theatre acted out against this theatrical landscape

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are explored in three ways. Firstly, their infusing these piazzas with an authentic ethnic based ‘sense of place’; with an almost spiritual or inspirational 'sense of place' at festival time, and as icons of urban belonging for citizens and tourists.

The role of these festivals in authenticating a cosmopolitan 'sense of place', an associated egalitarian ethos which embraces cultural diversity and the appropriation of these qualities in ongoing cultural tourism is also explored. A particular focus is the historical development and role of urban tourism in replacing the intimacy and connectedness of the neighbourhood block and the parish scale in Australian urban life. The ongoing ability of the events of passeggiata and street theatre in these Little Italys to attract tens of thousands of urban tourists weekly from the encircling region and beyond is examined.

Field Data and Photographs

Italian and Australian field data and photographs will be used to demonstrate the Italian traditions from which these festivals are derived, how event audiences value Italian cultural events, and the number of urban tourists involved.

What Is An Event? How Does a ‘Sense Of Place’ Develop?

The heart of this paper examines how rituals build a sense of belonging to a place in the three major Little Italys of Australia: Leichhardt, Sydney, New South Wales; Carlton, Melbourne, Victoria and Norwood, Adelaide, South Australia. First though, we have to know what is an event, and how it makes a place memorable and how a ‘sense of place’ develops.

When Italy won its way into the World Cup Soccer finals in 1990, Italian members of the Juventus Soccer Club in Adelaide, South Australia raced to celebrate not in the new, purpose built soccer stadium in a southern Adelaide suburb, but where Juventus had previously lived for 40 years since its establishment. The spiritual home of Juventus was a small pavilion attached to a public oval near St Ignatius Catholic Church and the main street, The Parade in Norwood(see Figure 1: Norwood, Adelaide’s Little Italy). This was the place of their collective belonging and collective memory and around this place a procession of people in cars and on foot, waved Italian flags, honked horns, sang, shouted and whoopeed. Everybody knew and recognised their elation at the Italian win. The insiders, that is. This group of noisy young men claimed the victory crown for all South Australian Italians and soccer fans. By their actions they also marked out the Italians ceremonial home ground, the same places and streets occupied by the formal spiritual festival, the San Pellegrino Matire Festa.

Next day the procession of the soccer fans was reported by the media as an event. The place was named as authentically Italian because the Italians went there voluntarily, contesting the decision of the mainstream Australian culture to make the ‘home’ of soccer in a place which lacked collective memory.

Authentic Places

This event precipitates discussion as to what is an authentic place. We all know when we are outsiders and we don’t know how to stand, where to stand, how to dress or how to be. We also recognise when we belong as insiders and how the group controlling the locality and the time has redefined us. The use of public places has cycles, by day, by time, by season, by collective memory, collective imagination, residential or symbolic use.

Linking Authentic Italian Places And Events To Tourism Events And Secular Place Making

This paper concentrates on tourism events and the commodification of places which build on the authentic collective memory, religious and secular festivals of an authentic group, the Italians**.** The Italians are Australia’s largest culturally diverse population in being the dominant non-Anglo non-English speaking background (NESB) migrant group ever to come to Australia. The Italian born number 260, 000 people in comparison to the 130,000 native born Greeks in Australia. The first, second and later generations of Italians in Australia now number 520,000 people. Melbourne’s Italian community of approximately 105,000 Italian born with their families numbering 210,000 are clustered around Carlton and the Eastern and North Eastern suburbs. Adelaide’s 30,000 Italian born and their families totalling 60,000 are tightly concentrated around Norwood and the North East suburbs around the Torrens

River valley with some suburbs having over 30 per cent of Italian born people. The Sydney Italian born population of 70,000 are concentrated around Leichhardt through to Fairfield and Cabramatta further west. In this way each state's Italian community is clustered around the Little Italys of Carlton, Adelaide, and Leichhardt. The clustering is not as tight as in the immediate post-war period, yet is still apparent.

Theoretical Links In Analysing Events And Place Making

The exploration of the links between Italian events and places and urban tourism builds from a classical spatial analysis following the traditions of Cultural Geography, particularly Jackson (1989), Anderson(1991) and Jacobs(1996). Each examined the effect of other or exotic groups on the wider cultural character and tourism activity of the cities they belong to. This paper identifies a similar tradition in Australian cities with regard to Little Italys and follows Craig-Smith and French (1994) work in linking these places as 'historic honeypots' and places of 'imagination', strong elements in building Australia's new 'sense of place' in cosmopolitan tourist locales.

Much work in this paper is original research and includes data concerning people's experience of places of ethnic difference, attendance patterns, geographic dispersal and identification with the Little Italys. It provides insights into the way an authentic place is commodified in contrast to the construction of places especially as tourism destinations. The marketing of the 'sense of place' is therefore a contrast between the authentic and a facade.

Most significantly this work does two things. It examines how tourism is an actor in the contesting of ownership and control of tourism destinations in urban Australia.

Secondly it increases knowledge of how culturally diverse Australian urban landscapes work, for Italians, Greeks and the Vietnamese people, and how to utilise and market these places for tourism.

The Growth of Urban Tourism in Australia

Italian events in Australia's three major Little Italys are a prime example of how cultural tourism events create a sense of place and community. It also demonstrates how urban tourism operates. In these examples it is intertwined with recreational shopping and recreational events and the special role of ethnic festivals in public places. Nowadays festivals and special events build on a layer of shopping, service provision and habitual activity in identifiable public spaces, mostly a commercial or other secular centre rather than a religious site. Set against 19th Century cultural streetscapes the Little Italys are also 'historic honeypots'(Craig-Smith and French 1994) in attracting tourists. The tangible streetscape of the Italian transformed older buildings and piazza style public places providing 'the tangible (which) is a catalyst to the imagination (French 1995).'So the ephemeral festivals are catalysts for building a 'spirit of place' on the continuing 'sense of place' of the physical Little Italy. Both the secular and religious Italian events deepen the level of knowledge of the cultural practices and the 'insider knowledge' of observers and participants. This enables a deeper level of identification with a locality to develop, an ownership of its 'sense of place', essential to its continuing character as a tourism destination.

These urban tourists in all of Australia's major metropolitan areas belong to focal areas or small regions in groups of approximately 60,000 to 80,000 people. They already visit their own or an adjacent focal area regularly for activities beyond the scope of their neighbourhood or district centre.

Issues of Scale in Urban Tourism

These new regions replace two levels of activity and identification characteristic of Australian urban life in the 1950s and 1960s as mapped by Martin (1967). Then urban activity was conducted predominantly in two arenas. The neighbourhood block level, the micro level and parish-scale affiliations, be it church, personal or special interest networks, which constituted the mesa or middle level of urban life. These arenas dominated people's connection and identification with their locality. The parish and the neighbourhood were the two intimate and intense places of identification, and, most importantly, they were on a human scale and to a large extent people controlled their own human landscape.

In contemporary urban life these two scales of activity have to a large extent, been lost. The loss is of knowledge of people at the neighbourhood block level and the loss of the mediating middle, or mesa, scale of connection between people. Now the individual has just home and a regional, mainly consumption landscape, using Zukin's (1995) term, to relate too. Urban tourism therefore plays a significant role in replacing traditional 'Saturday and Sunday' urban patterns and providing for increased personal knowledge of, and identification with, a place.

All three Little Italys are then part of the phenomenon of urban tourism which actually fills a spatial 'gap' in Australian urban life. Most importantly, though, these regional citizens are mobile and a car measures the distances in their lives. Their mobility and the 10-minute drive to larger focal areas or service centres, has redrawn the urban map of Australian suburban life. Identification with these centres is a new form of Australian spatial membership. The mesa and the macro have fused. We belong to home and an enlarged locality. The (geographical) region is dead; long live the (symbolic) region (Smith 1988).

Evidence of this citizenship is that local council figures, market surveys and media reports in each of the three Little Italys in Carlton, Norwood and Leichhardt show that only 60 to 70 per cent of people using the commercial centre are residential and business residents from the municipality and nearby catchment area. Included are substantial Italian-Australian groups, ranging from 20 to over 30 per cent of the population.

The remaining significant numbers of 20 to 30 per cent are urban tourists. A detailed study of this group in Norwood identified that one group came on weekends from the further perimeter of the eastern region, building on their mid-week regular shopping and service trip pattern (Donaldson, 1990a and 1990b and McGregor, 1990). Secondly 5,000 people attending the Orange Lane Market who signed the Orange Lane Market Petition (1994) to keep this culturally diverse market open on weekends were domestic, urban tourists. Approximately eighteen per cent were from all over the greater metropolitan area of Adelaide, including near country areas and eight per cent were interstate and overseas tourists. This is a regular figure for a regular weekend event. During the Italian Festival; the Adelaide Biennial Festival; the Formula One Rally and other special events, the figure is estimated at above twenty per cent interstate and international tourists.

Additionally all three little Italys are surrounded by extensive Italian and Italian-Australian activities. The infrastructure of Italian sporting, recreational, religious and special interest clubs; the Italian and Italian-dominated suppliers; manufacturers and retail outlets; the mammoth network of Italian-Catholic schools; the continuous Italian ownership of 20 per cent of all commercial premises and 60 percent of all ethnic premises since the 1970s in the Norwood Little Italy, for example (Chessell 1999); and most importantly the work of the Italian and Italo-Australian staff, supports the authentic ‘sense of place’ and closely associated ‘sense of continuity’ to the Italian festivals in these places. The significant issue of scale, power and control in modern life can be seen here. The Italian mediterraneo streetscape and the spatial and emotional qualities of an alfresco, relaxed, small-scale and family-based activity replacing the small scale and intimate sense of belonging lost in people’s lives.

Little Italys as Focal Areas of Character

The issue of scale and individual preference for focal areas of character must be measured against the dominance of enclosed Westfield-style white ‘consumption cubes’. Their anonymous, uniform whiteness and alienating ‘sense of place’ contrasts strongly with the colourful, organic and market derived sense of place of the Little Italys. The accessibility of the heart of these three Little Italys for after-hours visiting allows an organic ‘sense of time’ or organic 24 hour rhythm to the life of the street. The egalitarian control this gives to citizens is heightened by their outdoor sprawling style, acceptance of varied dress and tongues, and a tendency to promote a working class rather than elite style of goods.

The choice of street promenade or passegiata as a form of street entertainment or street theatre also reflects the increasingly high status of a democratic and free use of the public spaces of these inner urban cosmopolitan streetscapes. Promoted as significant sites for urban tourism, the cosmopolitan ambience of the Little Italys is part of the phenomenon of inner urban tourism across Australia. In Sydney substantial groups visiting Leichhardt include people from nearby regions of Sydney; some intrastate tourists from Dubbo or the Warrumbungles; a proportion of interstate tourists, most likely from the near States of Victoria, Queensland or the ACT, and international tourists.

What tourists particularly love, is to share an insider view, or at least have a personal introduction to a place marked for its uniqueness. These are key points in both attracting tourists and in ensuring they remember and publicise the event and the place. Festivals and events have the potential to provide tourists with an insider view or an approximation of it, as they provided condensed, public parades and spectacles in an intense time frame, with a complexity of sights, sounds, costume, music, displays and ritual activity.

Against this backdrop of the development and role of urban tourism, three Italian festivals will be examined to explore how events can create a ‘sense of place’, and an ongoing drawcard for cultural tourism. The festivals examined will move from the religious to the secular.

The Field Examples

The first example is a traditional Italian religious festival, the San Pellegrino Matire Festa held in Norwood, South Australia (see Figure 1: Norwood, Adelaide's Little Italy). The second, the Italian festival of the daily evening promenade or 'passegiata' along the main street of Lygon Street in Carlton's Little Italy, Victoria (see Figure 3: Carlton, Melbourne's Little Italy). Then the continuing festival of 'street theatre' in Leichhardt, Sydney (see Figure 4: Leichhardt, Sydney's Little Italy) in the newly constructed Italian Forum off Norton Street, a secular reproduction of a traditional Italian piazza.

Australia's Major Little Italy's

The Italian festivals and events each take place against the backdrop of an Italian-Australian urban style. The major Little Italys have five common features. In Carlton, Norwood and Leichhardt the Italian businesses are usually small-scale and family-based; most goods from food, clothing and cooking equipment to art and ceramics are developed from traditional Italian industries. The Italian shops are derivative in being either market-style or high-fashion style; the Little Italy is interconnected with a local network of Italian staff, services and suppliers; and the outstanding tradition is an intense human-scale usage of public spaces in the style of an Italian piazza.

In addition to these five spatial characteristics, the family, small-scale and mediterraneo outdoor dining by both Italian cafes and mainstream cafes 'adopting' the Italian style, seems to have created an inclusive character on each main street. This reinforces Zukins(1995) view that modern commercial cities are 'consumption landscapes', yet with the potential to develop an individual character. It is an interesting term which may be just as applicable to Australian sites like our Little Italys as it is to American urban landscapes. Citizenship, consumption landscapes and the influence of cultural diversity are central to our developing Australian cultural identity across many Australian cities.

Background to Italian Festivals

Italian festivals are held throughout Australia in a variety of sacred, secular and public places. The majority of Italian festivals were started by an Italian Catholic Church or Italian Club, often initially re-enacting a religious Festival associated with the village of origin of a group of Italians. Sometimes this presaged a larger event around the original religious event developed by the Italian Chamber of Commerce or similar body often held at the same time or in the same place.

It is important to remember here that the strength of the Italian community in supporting chain migration, independent of government support, led initially to concentrations of Italians interrelated or friends, known to one another as *paesani* or fellow countrymen.

The majority of Italian festivals are events celebrating religious persons, seasonal events and above all, locality. Locality is the dominant feature of Italian Festivals in Australia as the majority of saints festivals celebrate the patron saint of the village of origin of Italian-Australians. At the state level groups representing the regions of Italy, from Veneto to Calabria, participate in the Parades, Fairs and other Festival activities. Other Italian festas are held near the location of major employment, as in the Blessing of the Fleet held wharfside and on the sea for the fishing fleet of the people from Molfetta, Italy at Port Pirie, South Australia and Ulladulla in NSW. The place where these secular and religious Italian festivals are held is always a place of strong meaning, a complex ‘culturally encoded’ place.

The public spaces of Australia's three Little Italys - Carlton, Victoria; Leichhardt, NSW; and Norwood, South Australia – are all significant places of present meaning and collective memory for the Italians. All three areas were place of first arrival and first residence for large proportions of Italian immigrants in the post-World War II period of mass migration. Migration for first the immediate family, then cousins, friends and *paesani*, all from the village of origin was the basis for these migration chains. Relatives and *padroni*, patrons, provided sponsorship money for fares, and arranged accommodation and a job on arrival. So the place of first arrival, residence and nearby workplace made these places of deep meaning. The confines of language and a relative’s home in Carlton, Norwood and Leichhardt were both the basis and boundary of their new world and new opportunity.

Italian Festivals in these Australian localities are related to this strongly encoded and embedded meaning of place. Commitment to the Festas is therefore interlaced with much mutual affection and obligation. An excellent example to start with is the religious festival, the San Pellegrino Martire Festa, the village-of-origin festival of 5,000 people from Altavilla, a hill town behind Naples in the Region of Campania in Southern Italy. The 5,000 people from Altavilla predominantly settled in Norwood.

Adelaide's Pattern of Italian Settlement

The home of the Altavillese and the major commercial focus of Adelaide's Little Italy is along the commercial main street known as The Parade, Norwood, four kilometres from the Adelaide GPO. Its 19th century architectural landscape is dominated by the Italian mediterraneo style. The geographical centre for the Eastern region of metropolitan Adelaide, between the city and the hills, it was the home of the first Italian in South Australia, Antonio Gannoni, from 1863 and has the largest continuous concentration in place and over time of Italians in a metropolitan area in all Australia (Hugo (1989 and 1993) and O'Connor (1993).

Norwood is also unique in Australia as during the mass migration post-World War II, all British migrants were settled in the distant, outer northern suburb of Salisbury and the 'new city' of Elizabeth, 25 kilometres from Adelaide city (see Figure 1). Therefore Italians and other European migrants were distanced from the 'poms' and occupied the older, deteriorating housing stock of the inner suburbs, uncontested. This post-war and present-day intense concentration of Italian activity in one inner-urban area, Norwood, makes the Italian infrastructure behind the Italian festivals more evident in South Australia than in the other states. It provides the clearest map of the infrastructure needed to support these Little Italys as viable places for cultural tourism.

The Italian piazza of Adelaide's 'Little Italy' at Norwood is therefore an exemplar of the cultural influences occurring almost simultaneously in Carlton and Leichhardt. In all three Little Italys, Italian dominance of the ethnic activity in Australian inner-urban areas created similar Italian piazza's and cosmopolitan streetscapes.

Adelaide's Little Italy

Norwood's commercial centre now operates as an outdoor Mediterranean-style main street, attracting weekly about five times its local population of 9,000 people, that is, 45,000 people per week. Dominated by Italian pavement cafes, original 1880s buildings and piazza-style shopping malls, the Parade's Italian style is cited as a major attraction in the marketing of the Norwood area and in tourism literature. Surveys of shoppers document that the diversity of people, the casual multicultural atmosphere and the overall cosmopolitan sense of place attract people who reflected that 'It was the diversity of people found there, both shopkeepers and shoppers, that attracted participants. The casual, multicultural atmosphere is created by the people on The Parade young, old, and with differing cultural and ethnic origins'(McGregor, 1990).

Yet they identified strongly that it is the Italian dominance that most strongly authenticates and influences Norwood's 'sense of place'.

'Norwood is more cosmopolitan, with an Italian influence' (McGregor, 1990)

Description of the Saint Pellegrino Festival

The Saint Pellegrino Martire Festival or Festa is a traditional three day event which reproduces the Festa of the patron saint of Altavilla Irpina in Campania, Southern Italy. Altavilla is a hilltown behind Naples which like Norwood is the regional Centre for a number of small villages. Held each January from the early 1970s, it follows the tradition in Europe of clustering Festivals in the relaxing and celebratory period at the end of the summer harvesting time. Australia Day was chosen as the Altavillese felt it celebrated their coming to Australia, and that summer was the traditional time for Festivals in Australia. The organising committee consists mainly members of the Altavilla Social and Sports Club who are also members of the St Ignatius Catholic Church in Queen Street.

Although the festival derives its validity and authenticity from the name and tradition of Saint Pellegrino, the religious part is almost exclusively confined to the third day. On Friday night there is a dinner for all participants; Saturday is mainly commercial and recreational activity, such as spaghetti eating competitions, wine pressing, commercial and recreational displays, food stalls, children's games and Italian music in the evening. Examining Sunday's activity, the festival processions, will enable us to understand the meaning of symbolic behaviour in the event for this locality.

San Pellegrino Festival Morning Procession

On Sunday morning a procession of white-clad runners half-jog and sway to represent a long journey in the early morning, of the 'battenti' or barefoot runners. These runners travelled overnight on rough roads from small towns to the hilltop town of Altavilla. For centuries this pilgrimage has been a sign of religious devotion and penance. The pain of jogging barefoot on stone and dirt roads, gain the runner many spiritual blessings and the redemption of many sins.

The morning procession transforms the section of the Parade that goes past two churches, the Clayton and Wesleyan Churches, into a sacred place. Gathering monumentality from Clayton Church's status, a Pugin reproduction of an 1842

Church from Manchester, and the large stone Wesleyan Church and Hall opposite, the facades combine to give a strong sense of containment. This containment or sense of hermetic enclosure, noted by many original Italian residents, becomes stronger as the procession comes into the commercial centre and moves down to the St Ignatius twin Italianate 1880s towers. No wonder the Italians feel at home in Norwood.

At the church, the procession kneels and kisses the sacred ground of the Altavillese home Church in Australia. As the procession enters the church for mass, some devotees enter on hands and knees, demonstrating their penance and their love for the saint. All runners and attendees are active participants in the festival procession. All singing in Latin or Italian and following the banner of the Saint of their home town. There are no observers.

The long service in Italian and Latin is followed by the traditional rituals of a long lunch and siesta, maintaining the ritual in its traditional time periods.

San Pellegrino Festival Afternoon Procession

At four o'clock the long procession of 1,500 people is led from St Ignatius Church by four devotees carrying an image of San Pellegrino surrounded by carabinieri (Italian military police), priests, the local Italian leaders, state and federal politicians, the mayor and other local government officials and dignitaries (see Figure 2: The San Pellegrino Festival). Twenty or so other Italian religious groups march behind the saints' banners, with ordinary people marching and praying to complete the long procession. All join, in Latin and Italian, in the singing and chanting processing around the streets of Norwood for several hours (see Figure 1 for route of procession).

Children are carried, older people are pushed in wheelchairs, and children physically support their parents. Often the January heat becomes exhausting. Yet everyone persists, as it is a solemn event, moving for the absolute devotion to slow procession and ritual chanting in which all ages and all combinations of people participate. This reclamation of the streets is also therefore a reclamation of Norwood as a place of intergenerational and gender mixing and a place of strong participation by the inhabitants.

In fact the women are the strongest group represented and are recognised as powerful interceders with the Madonna, and all of saints whose banners they carry. The strength of the women in this sacred work and an associated caring role is particularly apparent in the women garbed in brown San Franciscan robes. Anyone who has prayed successfully to Saint Francis to intercede for a loved one is entitled to wear the robe. As such it carries a high status and is a visible symbol of the power of Italian women, acknowledged as leaders in their caring, nurturing and supportive roles. The recognition of women’s personal experience as the basis for a role in a festival may provide a model for Australian secular festivals.

In blessing the main street, the town hall activity, the shops, the houses and the people of Norwood, the priests, believers and followers make the place a sacred theatre. Norwood during the San Pellegrino Festival is thus transformed into a sacred monumental place. In re-enacting their festa they have recaptured the time, place and spirit of their original place and transformed it into a new Italian-Australian ritual of locality. It is now an ongoing part of Norwood’s ‘map of meaning’ as a cosmopolitan place. It strengthens also the sense and spirit of the locality, for all citizens of Norwood.

Melbourne’s Little Italy : Lygon Street, Carlton

Lygon Street, Carlton, the main street of Carlton, Victoria, and the commercial centre of Victoria's 'Little Italy' (Figure 3: Carlton, Melbourne’s Little Italy), reveals a similar pattern of intense settlement and usage by Italians and transformation by 2000 into a Italo-Australian dominated cosmopolitan streetscape. Italians settled in Carlton predominantly in the 1920s to 1940s, with groups of both Northern and Southern Italian pioneers using it as a base for employment and sponsoring further 'chains of family and village migration'. Notable groups were the southern Viggianesi who concentrated around Argyle Square and Cardigan Street, while the Friulani and Trevisani followed the northern custom and settled in a scattered pattern throughout the area. The use of Carlton's large 19th-century houses for extended family use and as boarding houses for regional compatriots and the joint purchase by two families of cheap, small terraces and shops, neglected in the Depression and war years, are similar to the Norwood pattern and are well known to those of us who are post-war migrants or who lived through that time.

Throughout Australia, as in Carlton and adjacent suburbs, the building industry welcomed Italian settlers for their skills in terrazzo, plasterwork, road building, construction projects and general building work. Another area of Italian expertise, food production, processing and catering, became established around Carlton and the Victoria Market precinct. Around Lygon Street the Italian family of Valmorbida purchased King and Godfree in 1952, Italian's established 'European style' Lygon

Food Store the same year, La Cacciatora restaurant in 1959, Giancarlo's Coffee House and its first commercial coffee grinder in 1962, the Universal Bakery and Pasta Dura Bread in 1969, Toto's Pizzeria in 1966, Brunetti's specialist cake and gelati cafe in 1979, and Casa Del Gelato in 1981. Of course this Italian style is now multiplied many times over as people of many cultures adopt and emulate the Italian style in their businesses on and around Lygon Street. In fact, any cafe nowadays with a replastered, rendered wall claims it is 'Tuscan style".

In their movement into inner-city premises and in family-based small-scale business activity, Italian businesses in the main streets of Carlton and Norwood mirror each other. Also, their spatial character and social characteristics are copied over and over again by non-Italians. The market style is perhaps more ornamental in Carlton, for Norwood still has fruit and vegetables, pasta and dried beans in bags and barrows on the pavement, and many varieties of cheap food stores. In Carlton, the fruit and vegetables mostly come cooked on a plate from the plethora of Mediterranean-style cafes.

There are cultural differences from an earlier Jewish settlement and the close settlement of university students in Carlton which add further complexity to the culturally diverse traditions which enable both these sites to be called cosmopolitan places. The overall operation, though, of Carlton, as of The Parade, is as a piazza and the major festival is the daily passeggiata

Carlton's Nightly Festival of Passeggiata

Every evening the passeggiata or promenade pictured in Figure 2, begins. Lygon Street becomes like the secondary piazza in an Italian town, with little public transport: a dense population housed nearby and a developed range of characteristic Italian food stores and eating places. The local population, including a proportion of approximately twenty per cent Italo-Australians; diverse ethnic cultural groups; University students and staff; regional citizens; intraurban tourists; interstate tourists and international tourists promenade. The area is the size of a secondary piazza in Italy, roughly 800 metres across two commercial blocks, along both sides of a centre divided street and past about 40 outdoor public benches and outdoor cafes. All parade up and down enjoying the sights of the transformed 19th Century architecture, the mix of languages, dress and signifiers of status and belief. All are there to promenade. A proportion plan to eat - anything from pizza to prosciutto, to savour gelati in the cone, to drink Italian frascati or vino rosso. Large hand gestures are allowed. Dress can be exotic or workmanlike. Placards can be distributed and songs of love, war or discontent equally heard as buskers position themselves midstream of the promenade, acknowledging the space which is for the nightly festival of passeggiata. Most significantly, this is every night. These are citizens walking, rewalking and stamping out their place. The passeggiata does not just happen on Fridays and Saturdays.

The Lygon Street evening passeggiata is an excellent example of the role Australia's cosmopolitan main streets play in providing a new common ground and focal areas for personal identification and urban tourism. Obviously, from the research cited here, the Italian population, young and old, Italian and Italo-Australian alike, have many connections with Carlton. Many Italians consider that they continue to be symbolic citizens of Carlton or Norwood, their place of first arrival. They belong both in the place and in the insider group that has a membership of that place. Yet it is the acceptance of promenade that marks the passeggiata as fulfilling both the requirements of a traditional Italian festival and of our needs as a society, to allow and welcome this event in a public space. All are participants. All are citizens. Tourists are included in this event in a public space.

Leichhardt's Little Italy

Leichhardt's Little Italy (see Figure 5: Leichhardt, Sydney's Little Italy) now focussed along Norton Street, shares the settlement history of Norwood and Carlton, with some exceptions. In the interwar years groups of Southern and Northern Italians were located in the market gardens of Cabramatta, Canley Vale, Liverpool and Sutherland with the formal Italian establishment in the inner suburbs of Glebe, Paddington and Redfern. (Pascoe 1987) Following the boarding house to cheap housing pattern, the Italian population moved through the suburban corridors in the 1950s and 1960s so that by the end of the 1960s the concentration was in Sydney's cheaper western suburbs, around Leichhardt. Italians at first dominated the ethnic businesses along Parramatta Road, with Pascoe recording that 'the political and social development of life in postwar Leichhardt mirrored much of what was occurring in Carlton during these years' (1997).

From the early 1970s to 1980s Leichhardt, like Carlton and Norwood, housed an increasing Italian-Australian infrastructure. At the same time the role of Italian commercial activity expanded to serving the whole population of the region. In parallel, traffic along Parramatta Road increased usage of Norton Street, which is now home to La Fiamma; Co-As-it - the Co-ordinating Committee for the Assistance of Italians; The Italian Multimedia Resource Group; The Italian Family History Group; the Italian Sydney Film Festival; a notable proportion of Italian-Australian Councillors and staff at the Leichhardt Town hall; and a complex infrastructure of Italian suppliers, tradespeople, retail businesses and, very prominently, Italian cafes, restaurants, gelati bars, fashion shops and fashion shops and fashion shops.

Many of these are located in the new Italian Forum, adjoining Norton Street, and the place to examine the final festival.

The Italian Forum : Leichhardt's Italian 'Street Theatre' Festival

The continuous street theatre festival of the Italian Forum is the clearest example of the recent social construction of a place for urban tourism. The entire Italian Forum, from the physical setting including the design of residential and commercial premises, public buildings and public spaces, steps and promenade areas plus the naming of areas and piazzas is designed to authenticate a cosmopolitan 'sense of place'.

The Norton Forum's major feature is a large piazza, placed Sienna, San Gimignano and Napolitaine style against a modest residential set of three-to-four storey townhouses. The Civic Library and a communal Italian Cultural Centre add a touch of monumentality, as does the Dante Alighieri Statue and Fountain situated outside the more formal restaurants. Figure 6, Leichhardt's festival of street theatre shows how like the ancient Roman theatres the Italian forum is. The double storeyed facade, the tiered iconography of the place give a sense of intimacy, monumentality and dramatic involvement of the audience at the one time. Likewise the piazza, massive steps, corridors and spaces are built for promenade and procession and the re-enactment of an ideal form of Italian piazza life. This is not just evening passeggiata as in Carlton. This is a full-blown dominant Forum space , huge in size and with the obvious intention of it being a forum for speech, gathering, gesture, costume, debate, lyrical performance, and even constructed play for the children on a 'merry-go-round' with idyllic Italian pastoral scenes atop.

This is street theatre or 'Street as Theatre'. Again, though, there are seats, all are participants. There are no observers. In being players in the Italian Forum we are perhaps coming as close to being believers as those in the San Pellegrino Festival religious procession. We **are** the players, the promenade and the procession. The theatre facade feels constructed but is real in form and dimension. The spatial scale, though grand, is inclusive as we are all actors. The human scale and familial style of the secular activity, be it cafe, shop or piazza space, reinforces our symbolic ownership of the place. We become both actor and citizen in this space for a time. We have owned the urban stage.

Tourism and Australia's Ethnic places

For tourists especially, Australia's Little Italys provide a way of seeing Australia's multi-cultural people and their way of life in a public event. International tourism to all of Australia's ethnic places are an increasing part of travels which enable tourists to explore the 'backwaters'(French 1995) or have an insiders view of Australian culture. More importantly, given Australia's dependence on Domestic Tourism, places like Australia’s Little Italys provide excellent growth potential for intraurban, intrastate and interstate tourism.

The other long-term contribution of the Italians to Tourism is that the Little Italys are not an example of the exotic ghetto or exclusive domain. Peter Jackson (1989) in his book *Maps of Meaning* analysed urban areas as the domains of social groups whose members have exclusive citizenship and all others are outsiders. In Australia we have a combination of non-Italian and Italian activity in Carlton, Norwood and Leichhardt which reflects a partnership of cultures. The ‘adopting’ rather than ‘appropriating’ of the Italian style is unlike what Peter Jackson called ‘exclusionary closure’, whereby a marginal group create their own district. The inclusive style of the Little Italys, outdoor, sprawling and open long hours is seen as being welcoming and therefore inclusive by the young, old, families and single people alike. In fact the cultural agreement reflected by the Italians and non-Italian partnership: Anglo-Australian, Greek, people from Baltic States and newer Asian migrants, in all three sites could be termed an ‘inclusive closure’ in terms of cultural geography. There are certainly both spatial and socially inclusive qualities characteristic of the small-scale, family-orientated and market style of these main streets which reproduces the cultural landscape of the Italian piazza in Australia. These spatial and cultural qualities are reinforced by the warmth and exuberance of the Italian people themselves, and the traditions of daily parade or passeggiata and the festival of street theatre that they model in public spaces.

Summary

Overall we have explored the way Italian derived festivals enable a ‘sense of place’ to develop and for people to become insiders or citizens of a place. Jackson (1989) analysed urban areas as the domains of social groups whose members have exclusive citizenship and all others are outsiders. Yet this paper has demonstrated how the outsiders, or urban tourists ‘map of meaning’ can be strengthened through their knowledge of language, dress, and experience of Italian gathering places and rituals. Sharing the life of the piazzas of these Little Italys and sharing in the daily festivals of passeggiata and street theatre provides an opportunity for tourists to be active participants in an event and develop their own ‘sense of place’ in so doing. They can move along the continuum from outsider to insider citizen.

An overall symbolic association for Urban Tourists with Leichhardt, Carlton or Norwood can be strengthened. The authenticity of these places and the mediteraneo style of the poetics of the Italo-Australian landscapes in these three places is attractive, stimulating and welcoming. The strength of Italian and non-Italian Australian participation in the passeggiata of Carlton and the street theatre of Leichhardt demonstrates community recognition of the meaning of ongoing festivals of place. Festivals and events in these Little Italys. Although it is a struggle to define, maintain and market authenticity to Domestic and International Tourists, Australia’s ethnic gathering places, their festivals, events and distinctive ‘sense of place’ provide many opportunities to strengthen ethnic places as Australian urban tourism destinations.

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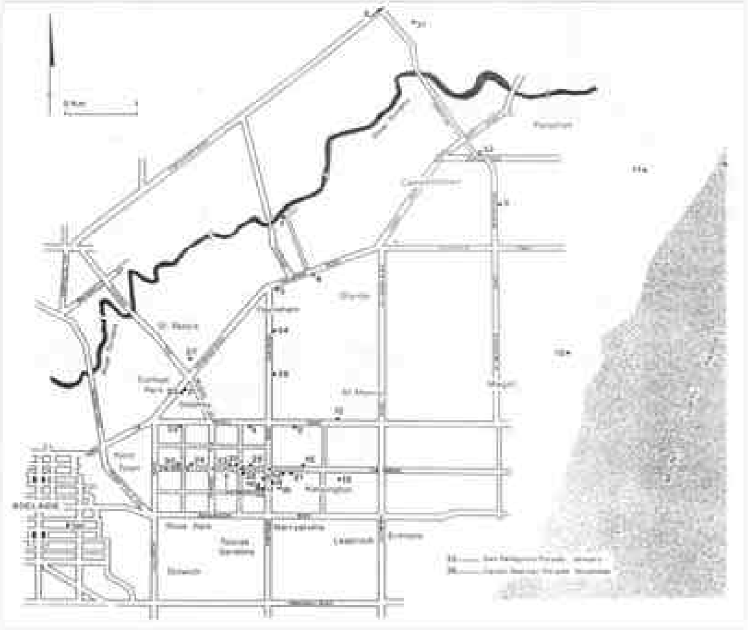
Figures

Figure 1 Norwood, Adelaide's Little Italy: Chessell 1999



Attachment to Figure 1 List of Norwood's Little Italy

1.	Arena Community Club	**14.**	Spinelli Knitting Mill	**27.**	Italian Assemblies of God Church
2.	Co-As-it, Co-ordinating Committee for the Assistance of Italians	**15.**	Altavilla Irpina Club	**28.**	St Joseph's School
3.	Il Globo Newspaper	**16.**	Mary MacKillop College	**29.**	Da Libero Restaurant
4.	Italian Chamber of Commerce and Industry in SA, Inc	**17.**	St Joseph's School	**30.**	Rio Coffee
5.	San Giorgio Club	**18.**	St Joseph's Convent	**31.**	Mensa: Inter-Italian social club
6.	Italian Consulate	**19.**	St Ignatius College Junior School	**32.**	Marche Regional Club
7.	Fogolar Furlan Club	**20.**	St Ignatius Church	**33.**	Catholic Church of the Holy Name
8.	Campania Sports and Social Club	**21.**	La Campagnola restaurant	**34.**	Our Lady Queen of Peace
9.	St Francis of Assissi	**22.**	Varis Generali Alimentaria	**35.**	San Pellegrino Parade: January
10.	Rostrevor College	**23.**	Caffe Buongiorno	**36.**	Italian Parade: traditionally November
11.	St Ignatius College Senior School	**24.**	Café Medici	**37.**	Molinara Social and Sports Club
12.	La Famosa Shopping Centre	**25.**	Inter-Italian Social Club of Adelaide	**38.**	South australian Italian Association
13.	(ex) Juventus Soccer Club	**26.**	Italian Festival, Norwood Oval	**39.**	Sicilian Club

Figure 2 The San Pellegrino Festival: Chessell 1993

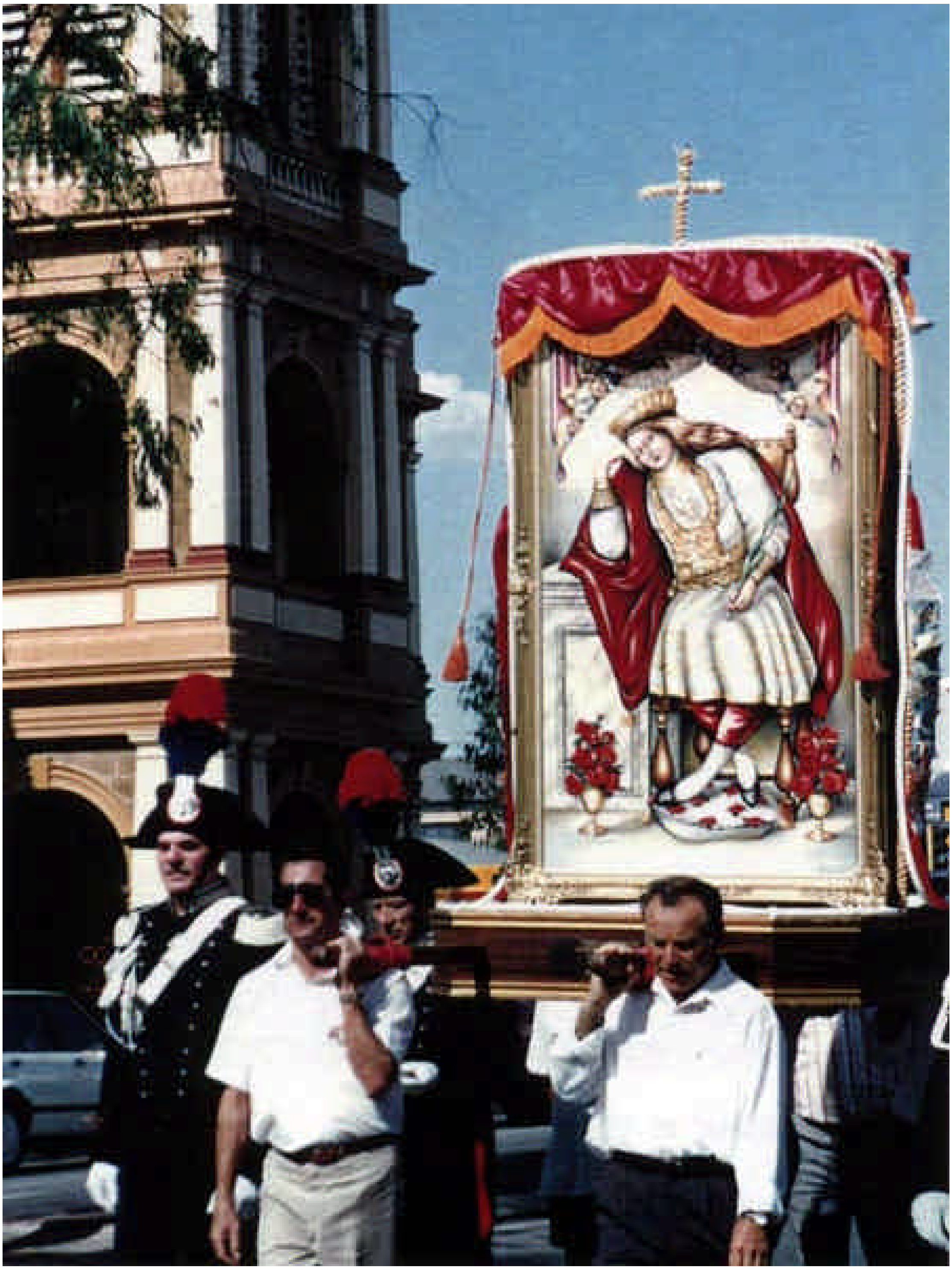
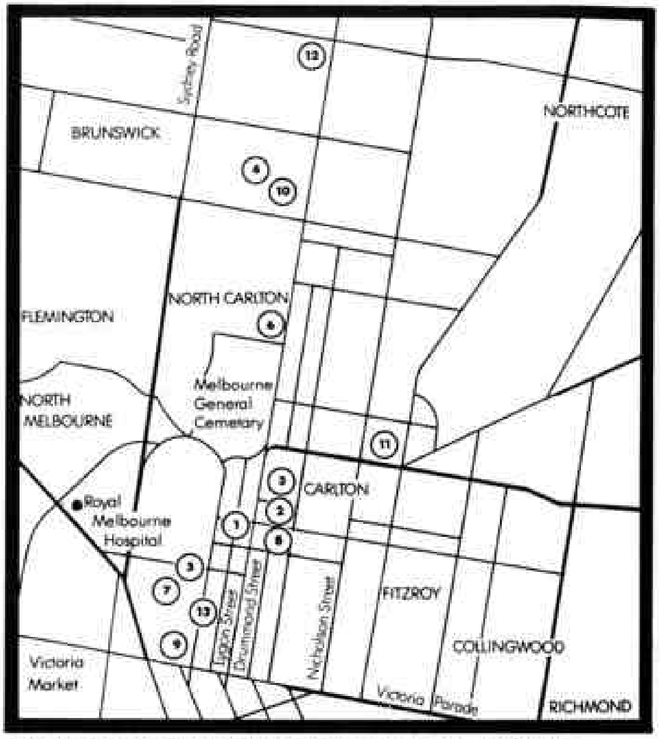


Figure 3 Carlton, Melbourne’s Little Italy: Pascoe 1987

1 *Il Globo* offices
2 Co.As.It.
3 Clare Castle Hotel
4 Federation Granolithic
5 Borsari Sports Centre
6 Eolian Society
7 Bomboniere Barbieri
8 Scopo Bookshop
9 Toto's Pizza
10 Transformers Manufacturing Co.
11 St Brigid's
12 Casa Abruzzo
13 Marasco House
14 San Remo Ballroom


Sydney Road
12
BRUNSWICK
NORTHCOTE
4
10
NORTH CARLTON
FLEMINGTON
6
NORTH MELBOURNE
Melbourne General Cemetery
11
3
CARLTON
Royal Melbourne Hospital
1
2
8
3
7
13
9
FITZROY
Lygon Street
Drummond Street
Nicholson Street
COLLINGWOOD
Victoria Market
Victoria Parade
RICHMOND

Melbourne's Little Italy: Offering a complete range of goods and services, the inner northern suburbs remain the heart of Italo-Australian social life.

Figure 4 Carlton’s festival of passeggiata: Chessell 2002

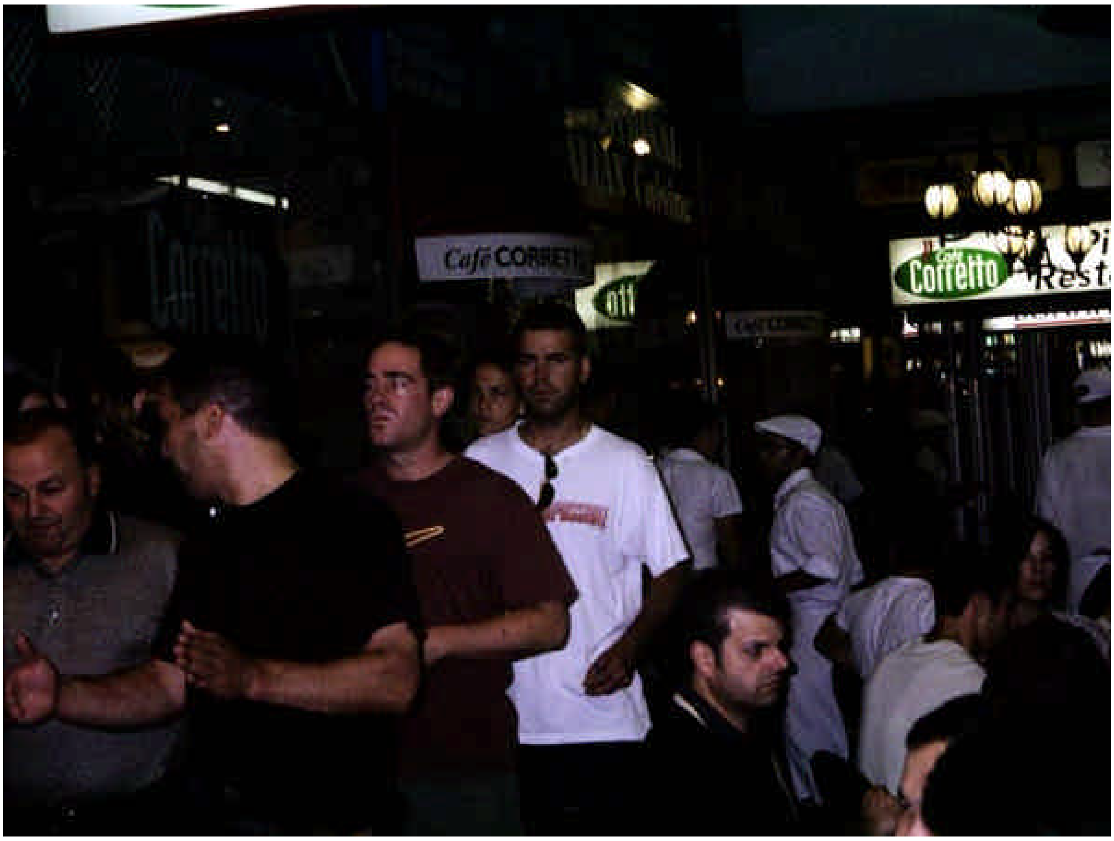
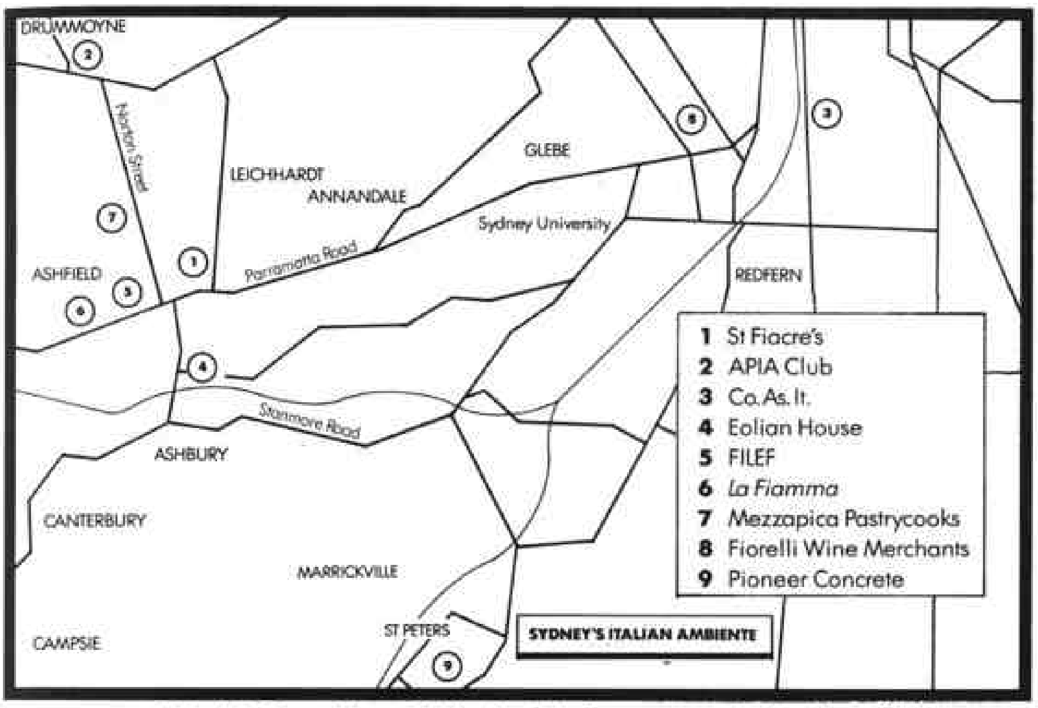
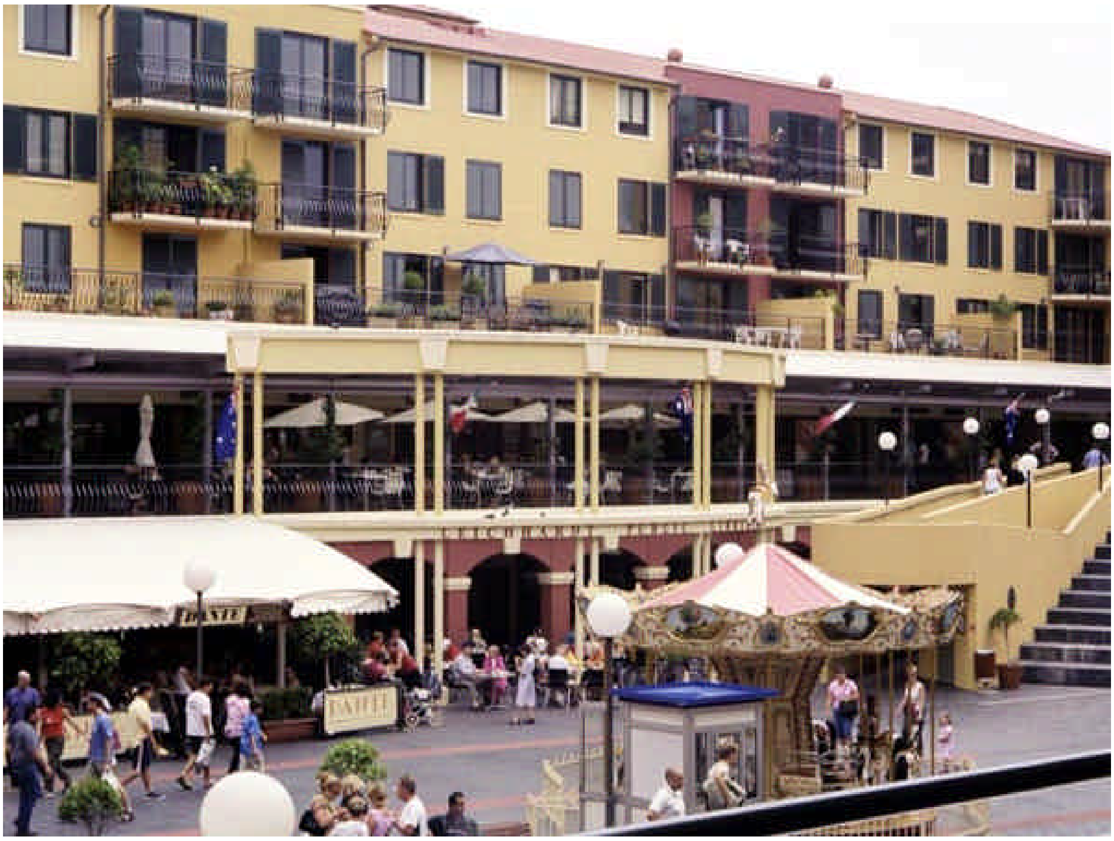

Corretto
Café CORRETTO
Caffè Corretto

Figure 5 Leichhardt, Sydney's Little Italy: Pascoe 1987


DRUMMOYNE
Norton Street
LEICHHARDT
ANNANDALE
GLEBE
Sydney University
Parramatta Road
ASHFIELD
REDFERN
Stanmore Road
ASHBURY
CANTERBURY
MARRICKVILLE
CAMPSIE
ST PETERS
1 St Fiacre's
2 APIA Club
3 Co.As.It.
4 Eolian House
5 FILEF
6 La Fiamma
7 Mezzapica Pastrycooks
8 Fiorelli Wine Merchants
9 Pioneer Concrete
SYDNEY'S ITALIAN AMBIENTE

Sydney's Italian *ambiente*: Leichhardt and the inner western suburbs of Australia's largest city contain all the goods and services required by local Italo-Australians.

Figure 6 Leichhardt's festival of street theatre: Chessell 2002



Festival Places: Mobilising Ethnic Difference in a City of Spectacle

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Introduction

A major challenge facing Australia and many other Western countries at the end of the 20th century is how to regenerate old manufacturing cities and regions. One solution has been to see in the service sector - especially in the tourism and employment generated by major events - an alternative to physical and social decay. This paper will engage with a key question faced by governments, planners and communities as they implement this strategy - do the resulting festival places contribute to the economic regeneration, sense of place and social cohesion of cities and regions? What if these objectives do not align; so that a community event may not lead to significant investment or economic transformation but may very effectively boost social identity and cohesion? While the planning, tourism and urban geography literature concentrates on the various economic impacts of major events, their value may lie elsewhere; with place making and community identification every bit as valuable. Indeed it will be suggested that such events provide a real foundation on which further investment can be built, though this may not be their major objective or focus. This paper will explore these issues by way of a case study – the Pako Multicultural Festa in the Victorian regional city of Geelong.

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Geelong, 60 kilometres south west of Melbourne (Figure 1), is a city which has undergone major industrial restructuring. It is also a place where the tourist spectacle is integral to local economic (re)development plans. As a single centred city of 155,000, it is small enough to allow the assessment of such a strategy but large enough for such an evaluation to be relevant across urban Australia. Here this appraisal will be located within academic debate on the postmodern city and postcolonial tourism and will consider the extent to which the mobilisation of ethnicity in at least one festival affirms community and builds a sense of place. As a result the 'city of spectacle' will be connected to debate on the 'city of difference'. Further, drawing on two mass surveys, it will be argued that the definition and celebration of ethnic difference is the primary aim and most valuable outcome of this event. The economic impact of this mobilisation of ethnic difference is relatively small, though it perhaps provides a real and solid foundation on which it could be grown.

The City Of Spectacle

Much has been written on the postmodern city - as a space of flexible accumulation, the centre of a new service economy newly located within globalised communication networks, as somewhere divided by social polarisation, class and racial tension; but also as a place of liberated desires and attractor of hyper mobile capital and a new leisure class consuming major sporting and cultural events (Lash and Urry 1987; Cooke 1988; Castells 1989; Davis 1990; Soja 1989, 1996; Wilson 1991; Fainstein et al. 1992).

Work that focuses on the ‘city of spectacle’ and the ‘festival place’ as key dimensions of the postmodern city is primarily concerned with charting the economic impact of such activity – with how the resulting attractions, designer landscapes, tourist precincts, theme parks and major events attract mobile investment capital and generate employment, investment and visitors (such as Harvey, 1989; de Jong, 1991; Sorkin, 1992; Kearns, 1993; Craig-Smith & Fagence, 1995; Hannigan, 1998; Judd & Fainstein, 1999). Thus, for example, in his discussion of Baltimore's Harbor Place, the economic geographer David Harvey traces the origins of this project to civic leaders responding to the 1960’s race riots. Under the direction of city authorities, urban planners created the symbol of community - the City Fair - which also became the nucleus of a major inner city redevelopment; with a science centre, aquarium, convention centre, marina and innumerable hotels (Harvey, 1989, p.90). The origin of such a redevelopment - in attempts to construct civic unity and to raise the living standards of marginalised ethnic groups - becomes lost in Harvey's evaluation, which locates this redevelopment and its serial repetition across the United States firmly within the logic of competitive capitalism. This analysis - along with a range of others (see above and Levine, 1992; Holcomb, 1993; Fensham, 1994; Wagner et al 1995; Jessop 1997) - primarily considers the economic impact of urban spectacles. While undoubtedly important and of great interest to the politicians, investors and regions concerned, this take on the contemporary post modern city and the festival within it, is but part of the story.

This approach to festival places is not confined to urban planning and geography. The evaluations of major events and urban festivals conducted by those working in tourism studies also tend to focus on and prioritise economic multipliers (for example Carlsen et al 2001; Crompton & McKay 1994; Uysal & Gitelson 2002). In Australia this is partly a result of shifts in cultural policies which link the arts to the cultural industries and events to tourism, such that 'value' is primarily assessed in economic terms (Throsby 1997; Anderson 1991). The result is an array of guides and innumerable publications from the Bureau of Tourism Research and within the event management literature assessing the value of tourism primarily in terms of its economic impact (see Mules 1998, but also Cultural Ministers Council 1997; Harris et al. 2001; Faulkner et al. 2001). Similarly, when discussing with Arts Victoria how a survey of Geelong events should proceed, the suggestion was to utilise a "Regional Festival Survey Kit". A useful document and spread sheet, well grounded in the tourist literature cited above, its primary objective is to accurately record just who came to the event from outside the region and to monitor their expenditure. Local visitors and their experiences were of less importance to the main objectives of the survey and to the government authority who was devising it and (often) funding the events. What mattered was how many participants came from outside the region and how much they spent – this was the major indicator of success and the basis on which critical funding decisions were made (Interview , Arts Victoria May 10, 2001).

With the exception of work by, for example, Soja (1996) and Hannigan (1998) - who concentrate on how class groups are variously displaced or embraced in festival cities - and Barker, Page and Meyer's broad assessment of the impact on Auckland of the 2002 America's Cup (2002), the success of festivals or major events is rarely assessed in terms of which social groups benefit or lose. One unanswered question is therefore, how does the postmodern city – which the literature argues is increasingly divided by socio-economic group, by race and ethnicity - become registered and incorporated into the city of spectacle? Do festival places construct liberatory possibilities or do they primarily deflect attention from social inequality and conflict (Debord, 1977; Wilson, 1991)? Do those festivals which specifically address gay or ethnic communities succeed in constructing and reaching their constituency or, as in the case of Sydney's Gay and Lesbian Mardi Gras, go way beyond their target audience (Marsh and Greenfield, 1993; Murphy and Watson, 1997)? Do ethnic festivals create an ersatz 'Other' which is then uncritically consumed; or present authentic localised identities for the education and enjoyment of visitors? (Urry,1995, 1999; Selwyn, 1996) Alternatively do general, inclusive festivals - regularly sponsored by governments as community building exercises - attract only particular groups? In short, how do festivals construct and mobilise 'difference' in the city and with what social effect?

A range of literatures exists which addresses the issue of social differentiation in the city – Marxist, feminist, post colonial, queer – and further discussion has occurred within tourism studies, geography and anthropology on how the object of the tourist gaze – such as the ethnic 'Other' – is constructed and with what consequences for host and visitor alike. Here it is possible to only briefly touch on some of the key works in this vast arena of scholarship.

The City Of Spectacle Meets The Politics Of Difference

America's Black Power movement, Marxism and later feminism all forced the foregrounding of social difference as a vital political and theoretical project. Such discourses were advanced by queer theory with its emphasis on sexuality, and by post-colonialism with its renewed emphasis on racial and ethnic difference. Such discussions have become more complex as a result of postmodern and deconstructive notions of identity formation; with gender, for example, seen as "performatively produced and compelled by the regulatory practices of gender coherence" (Butler, 1990, p.24). In academic circles at least, it is no longer possible, therefore, to consider social groups in terms of single markers of differentiation - such as class, gender or race. Rather, identities are increasingly viewed as multifaceted, fluid, performatively enacted, lived in place and enmeshed within complex webs of power (Jacobs & Fincher, 1998).

Within Australia, few studies which have seriously engaged with how such thought impinges on the urban environment. Johnson's work on gender in Australian cities has charted the ways in which planning regulations and house designs have enforced certain narrow views of women (Johnson, 1993); while in1994 she explored some meanings of 'difference' - both Aboriginal and non-English-speaking migrant - in a Melbourne suburban development (Johnson, 1994). Jane Jacobs' work also admits the centrality and fluidity of racial difference in contests over spaces in Melbourne and Perth (Jacobs, 1996, 1998) while that of Leonie Sandercock directly engages with the planning challenges and implications of ethnic and other markers of 'difference' (Sandercock, 1998). In the same vein there have been some important studies of how ethnic groups are constituted and make their marks upon particular urban environments, such as the Chinese, Vietnamese, "Arabs" and Italians in Sydney and Melbourne (Anderson, 1990, 1998; Dunn, 1993; Watson, 1996; Grace, et.al. 1997; Pulvirenti, 1998). However, in all of these cases, while the issue of individual and group identity is seen as fluid and contested, the role of the urban festival in such identity creation and expression has not figured prominently. There is therefore, a need to connect the city of difference to the city of spectacle.

Clues as to how this can be done are present in work linking anthropology to tourism. Thus the anthropologist Tom Selwyn locates the contemporary tourist experience within the processes of globalisation which, he argues, has radically displaced the cultures of the world via migration, refugee movement and massive international tourism. As a consequence, signs and artifacts of cultural difference are now used in a continuous process of reformulating and hybridizing cultures. At the same time, he argues, the tourist seeks out cultures which have in some way survived the onslaught of globalisation; pursuing 'authenticity' – knowledge about the nature, culture and society of a tourist destination. Such knowledge is both sought by the visitor and consciously presented by the hosts (Selwyn, 1996, pp.1-2). This tourist quest – for the authentic 'Other' which in turn is then consciously if ambiguously presented - can usefully be conceptualised in terms of Homi Bhabha's notion of hybridity. In The Location of Culture, Bhabha presents culture as actively constructed and involving a complex and shifting amalgam of discourses, migrations, practices and fusions; such that no one culture can ever be fixed or defined (Bhabha 1994). As a tourist searches for the authentic experience then, all they can both expect to find and encounter are (re-) made cultural objects, experiences and places. The consumption of 'Others' by tourists is thereby both real and manufactured, stable and contested, fixed and fluid (Hollinshead 1998).

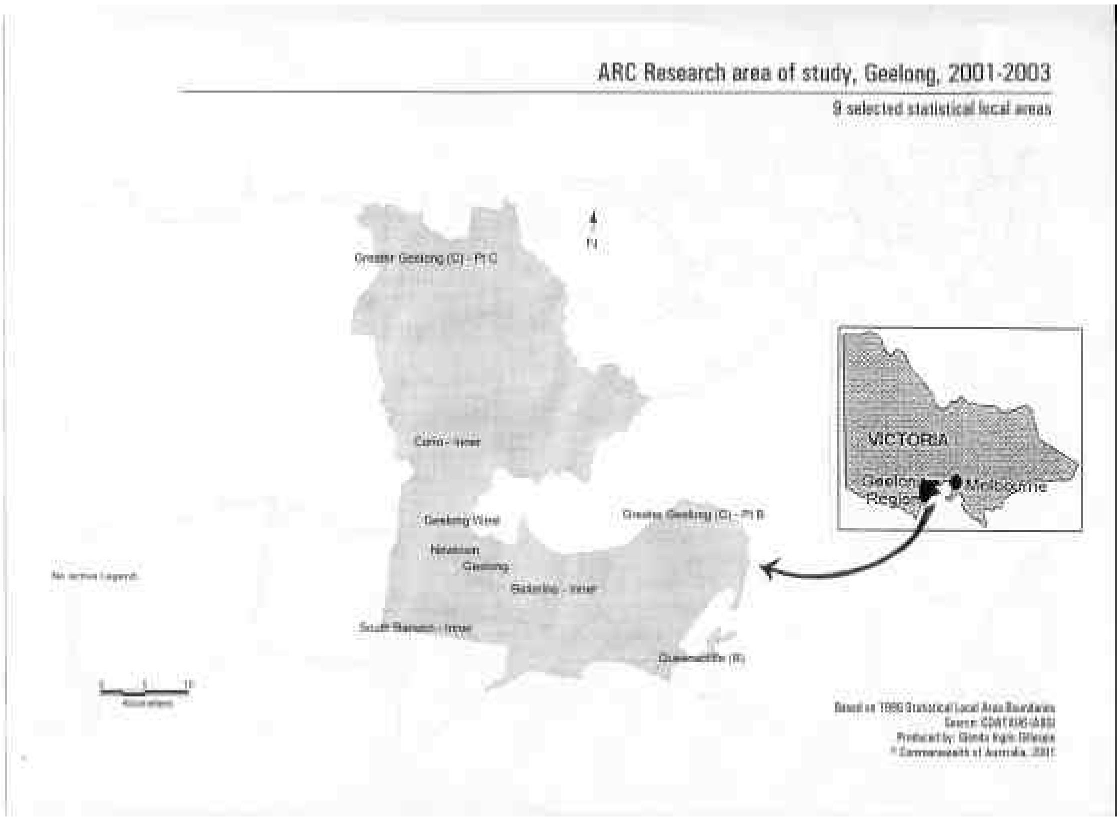
How such notions are grounded in places and communities is the subject of the rest of this paper. In this ARC funded study of Geelong in Victoria the post-modern city of spectacle is being linked to the city of ethnic difference (1). This occurs most obviously in a few major events based on ethnicity – the Pako Multicultural Festa, Scots Highland Gathering and the National Celtic Folk Festival. A study of one of these events highlights the contested, fluid and historically changing nature of the migrant experience but also the vital importance to various communities of fixing ethnic identities in this place – what Gyatri Spivak has labelled ‘strategic essentialism’ (Spivak 1987). These markers of difference are in turn presented as elements of ‘otherness’ to an invited, sympathetic but also actively engaged audience. In such a way the festival place – in the case of the Pako Festa, a marked out section of Pakington Street in Geelong West – is constituted by the mobilisation of ethnic difference. It is this that is the primary objective of the Festa for its organisers and those attending. The economic spin-offs of the Festa are small and relevant primarily to its sponsors and to those within and outside the region who see community events only in monetary terms. However, it is on this community building festival that real economic development can most likely be built, if indeed its value as a social and place building activity is acknowledged.

Geelong and the Urban Festival

Geelong is a classic ‘rust-bucket’ city of 155,000 which is consciously attempting to rebuild its industrial economy on the basis of tourism and the spectacle (Interview, City of Geelong, 1999). Located 60 kilometres south west of Melbourne, in many ways it is a city which sociologically and economically represents Australia as a whole (See Figure 1; McCaughy 1987). It began as a port and wool service centre in the early 19th century before developing as an industrial hub; with agricultural processing industries – such as textiles, flour milling, soap and candle making. This status as a manufacturing centre was cemented with the coming of the Ford Motor Company in 1925 and the subsequent expansion of this and other heavy industries in the 1960s, including International Harvester's truck manufacturing plant, Shell oil refining and

Alcoa aluminium. Many European migrants were actively recruited and attracted to these industries, especially during the 1950s and 1960s (Johnson, 1992).

Figure 1 Location and boundaries of the Geelong Region


ARC Research area of study, Geelong, 2001-2003
9 selected statistical local areas
N
Greater Geelong (C) - Pt C
Corio - Inner
Geelong West
Newtown
Geelong
Bellarine - Inner
South Barwon - Inner
Greater Geelong (C) - Pt B
Queenscliffe (B)
No active Legend.
0 5 10
Kilometers
VICTORIA
Geelong Region
Melbourne
Based on 1996 Statistical Local Area Boundaries
Source: CDATA96 (ABS)
Produced by: Glenda Inglis Gillespie
© Commonwealth of Australia, 2001

(Map of Geelong drawn by Glenda Inglis-Gillespie from ABS Small Area Data. Location relative to Melbourne from the Geelong Regional Commission)

From the 1970s however, these industries and the older agricultural processing plants began to shed labour; as a result of new processing technologies, changing trade and currency policies, rising imports from cheaper producers and the rationalisation of multinational operations (Johnson, 1990). The resulting calamitous fall in manufacturing employment has only been partly offset by expansions in education, health and community services. In the 1980s and 1990's the collapse of the local Pyramid Building Society and retrenchments across the service sector - especially in local, State and Federal government and in the education and health industries - contributed to ongoing high levels of unemployment (Johnson & Wright, 1994; Johnson, 1996). While manufacturing continues to be viable, it is no longer the largest employer and is regularly viewed as problematical and backward. Thus in public pronouncements by the city council, in local newspapers and in tourist promotions, service sector growth is presented in highly positive terms as *the* future of the city. In particular, there is an emphasis on the prospects of tourism generating major investment and job growth in the city. Such a view reached its zenith in the bid for a Guggenheim Museum (Geelong Business News, 2000). On a more mundane level for the City Of Greater Geelong and the Geelong Otway Tourism Authority, cultural tourism and urban festivals promise to both reinvigorate a troubled economy, displace the 'rust bucket'/'Sleepy Hollow' image and ease the associated social strains and divisions (GOT, 1999). Such claims and aspirations need to be examined critically. Here the focus will be on one of the major events within the city – the Pako Festa held annually over two days in February and attracting between 60,000 to 100,000 people over 1999-2002 (estimates from the organisers, interviews Mavros, 2000 and Walsh, 2002). The Festa will firstly be put into its urban, social and economic context.

Festivals in Context

If a festival can be defined as a community event which brings people together in a public place for mutual expression (Walden, 1972), then in 1998 there were 24 such events in and around the City of Greater Geelong (taking in urban Geelong and its immediate rural and coastal hinterland. See Figure 1 and Table 1). Of these, seven were located within the newly redeveloped bayside Steampacket Place precinct but many more were scattered across the city in older, more traditional venues - such as the showgrounds, major parks, indoor stadia and racecourses. Most of the outdoor and waterfront events were in the summer. Only four festivals could be defined as general in their appeal - the Waterfront, Poppy Kettle, Gala and New Year's Eve by the Pier. Others were more specific to particular interest groups: with a number concerned with sport - horse racing, triathlons, sailing, surfing, car racing and bike racing, music - the Celtic folk festival, the Rock Eistedford and Schools Music - and heritage. Only three were specifically identified with ethnicity - the Celtic Music Festival, the Scots Highland Gathering and the Pakington Multicultural Festival or the Pako Festa. In 1999, the number of festivals increased to 30, including additional music events, food-based festivals and a contemporary arts event. In 2000 ‘major events’ – defined by the local tourist authority to include a host of sporting as well as cultural activities - ran to 50. So there are undoubtedly a large and growing number of festivals in this region. The most significant in terms of attendances are the Waterfront and Pako Festa with around 50,000-100,00 attending each. How then to evaluate their economic and social significance?

There are a number of models within tourism studies to assess the economic impact of festivals - direct and indirect employment, visitation rates and the turnover of relevant businesses, return on capital invested and input-output analysis of multipliers across the regional economy (see for example Mules, 1998; Price Waterhouse, 1999). On the veracity of these various measures opinions differ but the purpose of this paper is not to systematically assess the economic impact of festivals in the Geelong region. However it is appropriate to give some general economic background to the Pako Festa. Here, therefore, brief consideration will be given to three indicators of tourist and festival activity in the Geelong region: employment, visitation rates and returns on investment.

Considering employment in the sector most directly linked to the urban festivals - Cultural and Recreational Services – Table 1 indicates a small if rapidly increasing level – up 66% over ten years to 1996. The significance of the sector in the Geelong economy is, however, relatively minor. For the biggest economic sector is Wholesale and Retail (20.7% of employment) followed by Manufacturing (19.5%), Finance and Property Services (10.1%), Health and Community Services (10.1%) and then Recreation and Cultural Services (10.0%) (ABS, 1996). It is arguable that many of these sectors – especially retailing, property and some community services - owe their success in part to the Cultural and Recreational sectors but it is unclear to what extent.

Table 1 Employment in Cultural and Recreational Services, Geelong *
(City of Greater Geelong and Borough of Queenscliffe) 1986-1996

	1986	**1991**	**1996**	**% change 86-96**
Men	315	380	525	67
Women	373	479	616	65
Persons	688	859	1141	66

(Source: ABS, 2001. Table compiled by Ms Glenda Inglis-Gillespie)

If employment has been rising from a low base to modest levels, the role of tourist visits into the region receives on-going positive portrayal by the Geelong Otway Tourism Authority (GOT) and regular articles in the Geelong Advertiser (GA). Thus GOT recorded a 32.5% increase in visitor numbers into the region since 1997 (GA 8.8.99). However, the Authority also notes how domestic tourism has risen by a similar amount and that 40% of the region's visitation occurs during January and February, for many years the months when Melbourne-ites leave the city for the beaches beyond Geelong on the Bellarine Peninsula. The Authority continues to observe the growing importance of the conference and convention trade to these figures - activities which bring in big spending visitors from outside but which tend not to be linked to any urban festival - while asserting that the ‘rise in visitor numbers is the result of an increase in major events and conventions in the Geelong region’ (GA 9.7.99). The exact contribution of festivals to the growth of tourism in Geelong is therefore hard to quantify.

There is also the question of how much capital has been invested to generate the 450 Recreation and Tourism jobs since 1991. Looking at that space which is the focal point of festival and urban regeneration activity – the city waterfront - at least $150 million has been injected into this precinct by a range of players, including $10 million from Deakin University (and thence the Federal and State governments); $15.4 million directly from the Victorian State government and $17 million by the City of Greater Geelong. In addition, there are investments by the private sector - for the 600 seat Smorgy's restaurant on the refurbished pier, a $6.5 million residential apartment block and the $28 million hotel complex (Semple, Age 15.1.97). Stan Liacos, onetime Project Director of the Steampacket Place Authority, acknowledged that no economic benefit analysis existed of the massive amount of public and private investment into this precinct. But he also asserted that he ‘knew the impact of the project had been positive’ - with well over 300 jobs directly attributed to the development in education, tourism, hospitality and construction along with a substantial number of indirect jobs (Geelong Business News,1997). When these jobs are looked at more closely, they can be seen to comprise a large number of part time and casual jobs in restaurants (around 150) while the 200 attributed to Deakin University's occupation of the Waterfront campus were moved from other campuses. The 30 construction jobs associated with the project will, of course, evaporate once it is completed.

Claims for tourism, employment and the waterfront precinct should also be placed within the general economy of the city. So while the Marketing Manager of the city can enthuse: ‘The Waterfront Precinct has breathed new life into this once run-down section of city wharves and is in fact leading a revitalisation of the whole city. This new focus has led Geelong to cast off its tired rust-belt image and embrace education, tourism and technology’ (Geelong Business News 1997), other economic news is not so bright. Thus over 1999 the Geelong Advertiser recorded the loss of 600 jobs in the region (2) most of which were in manufacturing as plants closed and downsized. Such a pattern continues a longer term trend whereby, from 1988, Geelong has shed more than 5, 000 manufacturing jobs.

Community And Place Building – The Pako Festa

But if the economic costs of promoting urban festivals and waterfront redevelopment are high and the returns modest, what of their social and more localised benefits?

In 1999 the Major Ken Jarvis extolled the ‘Smart Move’ campaign to encourage families and businesses into Geelong - with its mix of cash payments, incentives and lifestyle emphasis - as an economic and social winner. The dimensions most anxiously sought by the Mayor and other city boosters are profile, visibility, activity, investment, in-migration and confidence. For Jarvis: "Geelong now has a very different perception internally and is seen much differently from the outside ... the change was due to the re-imaging of the city through programs like the Smart Move campaign". (GA 20.2.99) The support given by the City of Greater Geelong, the Geelong Advertiser and the local radio station - K-Rock - to urban festivals builds on these sentiments. For community festivals are seen as ways in which public confidence can be displayed and enhanced as well as vehicles to get the locals spending and outsiders to notice an industrial provincial city desperately trying to shake off its ‘Sleepy Hollow’ image.

A systematic social and economic appraisal of major festivals in Geelong is yet to be completed (1) but an examination of one festival – the Pako Festa – a large event with its emphasis on building community, enhancing ethnic identities and supporting Geelong (West) as a place; usefully connects the quest for urban spectacle to the city of difference.

Begun by a small Migrant Resources Centre in 1983 as a celebration of an ethnically diverse heritage suburb, the Pako Festa is a combination of local communities, traders and schools, ethnic food and dance; all overseen by the Geelong Ethnic Communities Council in the main street of Geelong West – Pakington Street. In 1999 50,000 people attended over a warm February weekend and in 2001 and 2002 organisers estimated attendances between 60,000 and 100,000 (Interviews Mavros, 2000; Walsh, 2002).

The Chairman of the Pako Festa Committee George Ballas spoke of the event in a 1999 Geelong Advertiser supplement for the Festa: ‘I invite everyone to join in the celebration of our diverse cultural heritage. Pako Festa is the best opportunity the people of Geelong have to experience the color and richness of our cultural heritage. Pako Festa also supports local ethnic community groups in maintaining their traditions and sharing them with the general community' (GA 23.2.99).The Pako Festa does have connections back into the diverse ethnic communities which make up Geelong - though most have been in the city since the 1950s and 1960s. Critical to the Festa is the active involvement – through 'community representatives' on the organising committee and the Ethnic Communities Council – of 27 different ethnic groups. These groups range in size from the 8,000 strong Dutch and 5,000 Croatians to individuals representing the 300 Filipino and Lithuanians in Geelong (Pako Archives [3]). In the Festa content there is a focus on food and dance – two of the more obvious markers of ethnic difference – but also through the opening parade on varied ways in which community groups (migrant and others) chose to represent themselves.

Attending in 2000 and 2001 I observed large and diverse audiences at the dance performances – by Scot, Lithuanian, Albanian and Croatian folk dancers – in a park area which also included an Aboriginal contingent selling barbecued sausages, Italians pizza and coffee, and a group of Celts in full Viking armor and mock boats! The audience was even more diverse with a babble of languages and a range of age groups. Along the street the emphasis was on diverse food stuffs served from clearly identified migrant groups – with Philipina abutting Greek, Vietnamese, Dutch, Spanish and other food caravans as well as the local very Anglo-Celtic hotels serving wine and beer. The festival therefore specifically included and addressed Anglo and non-Anglo ethnic communities, presenting common markers of 'difference' such as 'ethnic' food but also now more traditional and, some would argue, inauthentic and idealised markers in the form of music and costume (Gunew, 1996). All are presented in a way that is consciously inclusive.

The organisers are vehement that their aim is financial viability rather than profitability. The 2000 Festa cost $100,000 to stage; with monies coming from sponsors, local traders and civic authorities. Sponsors included multi national, national and local industry, regional authorities – such as the City Council and Tourism Authority – but also Arts Victoria and the Special Broadcasting Service both of which support it as a regional, ethnic, cultural event. However, there is pressure on the organisers to capitalise further on the event. Thus the City of Greater Geelong and the Geelong-Otway Tourism Authority are major sponsors and wish the festival would generate more income – by its relocation from its community and street base to the redeveloped waterfront, by connecting it to other tourist events -such as conventions or conferences - and by assuming a more commercial orientation (Interview Quelch, 2000).

To assess more systematically the social and economic impacts of the Pako Festa,two surveys have been conducted. The first was a pilot of 220 attendees in 2000. The respondents were chosen by five workers under the auspices of the Migrant Employment Service. Over the course of two days they administered a short questionnaire - based on the Arts Victoria Festival Evaluation Guide - to a random selection of adults walking down the street during the daylight hours of the two day festival. This survey followed the model of the survey kit with its emphasis on where visitors came from and how much they spent. It was these questions which were most fully answered by the respondents – who tended not to engage with other questions about their own ethnicity and reasons for attending the event. In relation to who had come from outside the region, these numbered only 11 out of the 220 while of these, only 9 came to Geelong for the Festa. Of the 73 who gave detailed answers to the questions on expenditure the amounts spent were modest. Thus their combined expenditure - for themselves and any accompanying others and children - was $2,333 or $32 per head (source Johnson, 2000). While not a large amount, if this was the amount spent by every one of the 100,000 attendees, the turnover for the two days was in the order of $3.2 million, though most did not come from outside the region.

What is disturbing for those authorities mainly interested in the ousiders who attend such events was the low proportion who came from beyond the region and who paid for accommodation – only one -though six stayed extra nights because of the Festa. These are not the sort of numbers which will revive an ailing regional economy. However, this was only a pilot survey. There were limitations in the actual conduct of it – primarily in the level of training and supervision of the staff who did the survey - which meant that the numbers of surveys administered were wildly uneven over the two days and the number of questions answered by each respondent varied too much for the answers to be reliable. Also the survey was not developed in close collaboration with the organisers whose concerns are less those of financial inflow and more with the social inclusiveness and meaning of the event for those who attended.

With considerably more funding in 2002 and a part time Research Fellow to oversee, there was a formal training and debriefing session for the 10 staff recruited and screened by a local employment agency to do the survey. As a result the 2002 survey was a far more systematic one. In addition the instrument itself was extensively modified in the light of archival research, conversations with the organisers and a broader commitment to access the social as well as the economic dimensions of the event.

Thus the survey included questions on the background of those who attended, their location and length of stay as well as their expenditure at the Festa; but it also focused on the sort of people who attended – their ethnicity, language spoken at home, what other activities they participated in - and then their expectations and experience of the Festa itself across the two days. In short the aim was to both capture the usual questions on outsider spending but to broaden the survey to access other dimensions of the Festa experience relevant to the organisers, those who attended and suggested by the academic literature on ‘cities of difference’.

The 389 surveys were administered evenly over the two days of the event and also across the various precincts of Pakington Street – which were differentiated by the sort of activities and hence, it was assumed, by the nature of the crowd. Thus towards the western end of the street there was a park in which family events and ethnic dance were concentrated; around the Town Hall there were activities for children; in another central plaza there was more of an orientation to officials and older people; in the middle a large hotel catered to single Anglo drinkers; and at the eastern end of the street a precinct for young people. Partly as a result of this spread of activities and the staging of the survey team, respondents were from all age groups, with some concentrations in the 20-29 and 40-49 age bracket. The vast majority had a partner and children and most were working professionals in the service sector who spoke English at home. However, 28 people spoke another language at home while 27 were born outside of an English-speaking country, primarily in Italy, Germany, Croatia, Holland and Greece. As with the 2000 survey few people came into the region from outside – 59, of which 12 came from metropolitan Melbourne. Of the 42 visitors who responded about their stay in Geelong, 30 were staying for at least one night but the vast majority – 24 – were staying with friends and relatives with only three paying for a motel or hotel accommodation. Again as with the 2000 survey, average expenditure was $34 per person though over the 100,000 people this amounts to a considerable sum (Inglis-Gillespie, 2002). However as most is spending that is not from outside the area and is basically a redeployment of internal expenditure, then the conclusion is that the event is of minor economic significance.

However, as the survey and other research has also pointed out, the financial element is only a small part of the event and its meaning, to those who attend and to the Pako Festa organisers. For this is an event to celebrate multiculturalism. Pako Festa 'supports local ethnic community groups in maintaining their traditions and sharing them with the general community' (GA 23.2.99). The Chairman of the Geelong Ethnic Affairs Council observed that it has never been about money but bringing the community together; to not exclude, factionalist or marginalise, but to include. It also offers a way in which the contemporary and aging leadership of the 27 different ethnic communities can enthuse the younger generation in their cause (Mavros, Interview, 2000). In 2000 this was the message registered by those who attended. For most enjoyed the music, the diversity of food and the costumed colour of a range of cultures. They were there to observe, to participate and to consume the ethnic 'other' but they had also been invited and were presented with definite markers of difference. So too with the 2002 survey. Why people came to the Festa – and most, 290 out of

389 had been before! – was because of the food and ‘ethnic activities’, the location and the atmosphere, opportunity to meet old friends, to socialise and attend specific events – such as the parade and the Battle of the Bands. The three most popular precincts were West Park, for the music, variety of activities, relaxed atmosphere and shade; the Town Hall area for the performance stage, children’s activities and ethnic food stalls and around the Barking Dog hotel for the social atmosphere, alcohol, street seating and music. Many though did not notice the various spatial precincts and did not see any part as being better than others. The most valuable parts of the two day event were hard to qualify as they ranged widely and usually involved a combination of events, locations and activities. However the most commonly cited most enjoyed activities were eating different food, watching the parade, watching the dancing, listening to music, children’s activities, meeting friends and the multicultural dance/music/ costumes. Many people commented on the local community involvement or their role as a participant as being a highlight (Inglis-Gillespie, 2002).

While many can be critical of what can be regarded as superficial elements of multicultural identity, expressed in a temporary and non-threatening way within a public space (Watson, 1992; Gunew, 1996); the emphasis on food, dance, dress and music is the choice of those ethnic groups organising the Pako Festa and is favoured by the attendees. It is also the subject of far more profound negotiation and meaning creation than a cynical viewer may acknowledge (Hage, 1997). The form each dance, music presentation or food item takes is the result of a meeting of tradition, memory, nostalgia and local variation. While some represent a fixed notion of tradition there are also hybrid and youth forms as well as ongoing tensions (Ommundsen, 1999). This then is a festival which mobilises ethnic difference but does so in a way that is strategic, consciously inclusive, fixed but also open to negotiation, change and contestation. It is these elements which are of most value to those organising and attending the event.

Conclusion

The Pako Festa - and the host of other festivals which run each year in Geelong and across Australia – are about constructing places. In defining and mobilising various notions of 'difference', the built and natural environment plays a role but so too does the creation or projection of particular social identities, be they based on socio-economic class, age, ethnicity or sexuality. The Pako Festa deploys a range of strategic notions of ethnicity as one way to link past traditions with second generation migrants but also to invite others into its multicultural space. Those invited are defined by their political commitment to multiculturalism but also by their enjoyment of ethnic food and dance, music and display and as members of a geographical community. The come and are invited not as an exercise in voyeurism but as a statement of tolerance and inclusiveness. The event is unashamedly about having a good time, promoting local business and place-making but it is also linked to the particular social economy which produced it. While Pako Festa makes only a limited but not insignificant contribution to the flagging manufacturing and service economy of this provincial centre its social impact is broad and vital. It is this element which could provide the basis on which other activities and investment initiatives can be built.

Notes

1. This project is funded over three years – 2001-2003 by the Australian Research Council. Entitled "Cultural Capitals? Quantifying and qualifying the value of cultural capital in the cultural industries of one Australian city", the project involves the employment of a part time Research Fellow – Ms Glenda Inglis-Gillespie – and the quantitative and qualitative survey of the cultural industries of the Greater Geelong region. This includes a study of three major events but also an inventory and discussion with small and large cultural industry organisations and producers in the region to establish their "value".

2. For 1999-2000 the total job losses recorded in the *Geelong Advertiser* was over 600. These comprised:
   - The closure of Geelong Cement in 2000 with a loss of 180 jobs
   - The loss of a major contract to supply car seats to Ford Australia by Henderson Automotive such that in 2000 the plant will have to retrench 110 workers
   - Shell Australia will shed 140 from its Geelong workforce
   - BHP will close its Geelong rod mill with the loss of 80 jobs having shed 60 workers from the nearby wire mill
   - Kinnears Ropeworks will finally close with the loss of 70 jobs
   - Closure of COA Press with the loss of 30 staff
   - CMI Placements goes into receivership putting the jobs of 40 employees at risk
   - Quicksilver will move in manufacturing operation to Thailand with the loss of 15 machinist jobs.

3. As part of a 2000 Deakin University Bridging Grant for this project, a research assistant was employed to retrieve, sort and collate all of the materials held by the Geelong Ethnic Communities Council which relate to the Pako Festa. These are now stored at its headquarters in the Geelong West Town Hall and comprise the ‘Pako Festa Archives’.

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EVENT STRATEGIES AND THE IMPACTS OF EVENTS

Something for Nothing? The Legacy of Ephemeral Events

JOHN ROSE

STRATEGIC EVENTS

TOURISM NEW SOUTH WALES

Abstract

The benefits of events and the appropriateness of public investment in them is attracting increasing attention from researchers, administrators, politicians and event owners/organisers, excited by the increasing level of public resources required, and the attendant need to demonstrate a return on investment.

The issue has become even more important as large scale events come to be viewed not only as major drivers of incremental tourism growth but also as key factors in positioning strategies, the attraction of inbound investment, host-region regeneration, community development, and a catalyst for “place making”.

Events, unlike manufacturing or service operations, are by definition unique to the location in which they are held, and strictly temporary, and therefore an assessment of their comparable costs and benefits and their long-term impacts is fraught with uncertainties, multiple variables and subjective measures.

Nevertheless, the level of public resources required to host major events demands that an attempt be made to measure their benefits. The process typically involves one or more of the following:

a) economic benefit from incremental tourism and business investment. The most commonly used measure, but subject to varying methodologies, even within the widely accepted input-output analysis framework. Contested or controversial factors include multipliers, economies of scale and overcapacity, destination switching, leakages, and supply side constraints, as well as the impacts on employment, skills development, productivity and competitive capacity.

b) increased promotion and media exposure for the host city or region. Questions persist about what constitutes an effective measure and how exposure translates into an actual benefit, such as an increased propensity to visit the host city or region, or an increase in inbound investment.

c) physical legacies, such as improved sporting or cultural facilities, or urban regeneration projects. Are such facilities a cost or a benefit? Do facilities demand further expenditure to attract additional events? Or should they be regarded as enabling the host city or region to attract previously unattainable events? Are communities better off ignoring large-scale events and fostering smaller-scale sports/arts tourism supported by community-level facilities? Is urban regeneration itself an unalloyed benefit? How do cities or regions integrate events within a broader long-term approach to community/civic development?

d) the “public good”, such as increased access to or participation in sport, arts and culture, or civic pride and self-esteem, or improvements to quality of civic life. What is the nature of the benefits that might flow from increased participation in or patronage of sports and cultural activities? How do you measure the feeling of pride and the occasional quite apparent transformation of a community’s self-confidence and self-perception brought about by an event? Little or no work has been done on examining this phenomenon or how it works to the benefit of a community – or on how and why Government could or should plan for such transformations by acquiring and supporting major events.

The above issues are addressed with reference to a number of major events and event locations such as the Olympic Games, World Expo, the Manchester 2002 Commonwealth Games, the experience of Sheffield since the 1991 World University Games, the Brisbane Commonwealth Games and World Expo in the 1980s, the Australian Formula One Grand Prix in Melbourne, and others.

The Ipswich Events Corporation: Policy Directions - Past, Present and Future

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Abstract

A growing number of events take place in rural and peripheral communities (Higham & Ritchie, 2001) and events play a central, social and political role in different societies and cultures (Alomes, 1985). Moreover, events can provide the opportunity for communities to not only enhance their image (Wolman & Spitzley, 1996) but also to promote growth and development. Thus governments, as key stakeholders in the development of events, produce policies in an attempt to facilitate the growth and potential of events as a platform for industry and economic development (Burgan & Mules, 2000).

Despite the paucity of research undertaken to date, to determine the effectiveness and consequences of government policies pertaining to events at either Federal, State or Local levels (Formica, 1998), the significance of effective local government event policy and the need for event policy analysis must not be underestimated as contemporary events are increasingly providing opportunities for the socio-cultural and economic advancement of regional communities. (Alston, 1998).

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The growth and development of local communities and concurrently, community events are dependent to a large extent upon the policies and or initiatives of local government. One such initiative undertaken by the Ipswich City Council (ICC) in May 1992, led directly to the formation of the Ipswich Events Corporation (IEC). The IEC charter intended, among other things, to oversee the promotion of the City of Ipswich through the introduction of policy supporting the development of events (Ipswich Events Corporation, 2001). Interestingly, in many instances the IEC works in conjunction with other event stakeholders and interest groups. This action is considered desirable by Long (2000) who suggested that the management of events often involves some form of partnership between different organizations and interest groups

The purpose of this paper then is twofold. First, to identify and map the policy community (Oakley & Green, 2001) within which the IEC operates and second, to critically review the development and significant policy outcomes of the IEC over the last ten years.

Introduction

There is an emerging realisation amongst the various stakeholders of the event industry, that events can be utilised as a suitable vehicle for the development of economic and social capital. Consequently, there are a growing number of events taking place in rural and peripheral communities (Higham & Ritchie, 2001) throughout Australia in recent years. Because of this higher profile being afforded to the event industry, all three levels of government are endeavouring to produce public policies pertaining to the development of events in an attempt to facilitate their potential as a platform for industry and economic development (Burgan & Mules, 2000).

The literature (Reynolds, 1988; Craik, 1990; Hall & Jenkins, 1995; Hall Jenkins & Kearsley, 1997; Aulich, 1999) suggests that the growth and development of local communities and concurrently community events have to date, been largely dependent upon the policies and or initiatives of local government. The purpose of this study then, was to undertake an analysis of public policies produced by the Ipswich City Council (ICC) and the Ipswich Events Corporation (IEC) from 1990 to 2001 to first, identify and map the policy community (Oakley & Green, 2001) within which the IEC operates and second, to critically review and evaluate the development and significant policy outcomes of the IEC over the last ten years.

In order to achieve this, the paper will first, present an overview of the event industry and local governance in Australia. Secondly, a background of the ICC and the ICE will establish the context of the study. Thirdly, the paper will provide an overview of the methodology employed for the public policy analysis and finally, the results of the analysis will be presented and discussed.

The Event Industry

Australia has a colourful history of celebratory events. However, over the last two decades, the nation has witnessed the emergence of a socially and economically significant events industry. The Commonwealth Games staged in Brisbane in 1982, heralded the beginning of large scale elaborately planned and managed spectacles, commonly referred to in the current literature as mega events. A series of high profile special events were staged in the 1980s, including the America's Cup defence hosted at Fremantle in Western Australia and Expo 88 staged at the Southbank Quarter in Brisbane. Adelaide successfully staged the first of a world renowned series of Formula One races and the Australian Bicentennial celebrations were successfully presented in 1988 with a particular focus on Sydney. In 2000, the Sydney Olympic Games was something of a milestone for the industry in Australia, ushering in a new era of maturity and expertise with a greater focus on the use of technologies to manage both crowd and scheduling activities. Thus, special events such as these have helped the events industry in Australia develop into a significant industry with an increasingly professional profile.

In part, the growing importance of special events is a result of their ability to not only attract visitors to a host region but also their subsequent contribution to the economic and social well being of that region. For instance, Jago & Shaw (1998, p. 22) maintained that benefits derived from special events include increased visitation to a region, economic injection, increased employment, improvement of a destination's image, enhanced tourism development, reduction of seasonal fluctuations or extension of the tourism season, animation of static attractions and enhanced community pride.

Thus, the field of special events is increasingly becoming an integral and essential component of many regions' strategic planning, development and tourism policies. In Australia, the importance of special events was recognised at the Commonwealth level in the 1992 National Tourism Strategy and subsequent State Government tourism strategies produced since 1992 acknowledge, to varying degrees, special events as an important tourism development option. Moreover, it is worth noting that as a consequence of the increasing economic and socio-cultural importance of events, governments at the Commonwealth and State levels have established special event divisions in most of their respective State and Territory Tourism Organisations (Jago & Shaw, 1998). However, it is not only the Federal and State Governments that have acknowledged the aforementioned benefits that can be derived from staging events. A growing number of events are now taking place in rural and peripheral communities (Higham & Ritchie, 2001) and these events are increasingly playing a central, economic, social and political role (Alomes, 1985) as local governments seek to develop and implement policies which facilitate and encourage the staging of events in their local community.

An Overview of Local Governance in Australia

Australia's political institutions and practices follow the Western liberal democratic tradition with a three-tiered system of government. The balance between the powers of the national and state governments is defined by the constitution (Dept, Foreign Affairs & Trade International Public Affairs Branch, 1994). However, local government is not mentioned in the constitution and is described by Finn (1990) as the Cinderella of our public administration because, among other things, it has the weakest range of local government functions of any Western country (Gyford, 1986). Nevertheless, local government is possibly the most appropriate and effective level of government in Australia to assume responsibility for the development and implementation of events, as “it is potentially the most sensitive to the diverse regional and local interests” (Stilwell & Troy, 2000, p. 909).

Local governments in Australia, of which there are approximately 750 (Australian Local Government Association, 2001), generally have roles and responsibilities that extend well beyond a traditional focus on roads, rates and rubbish to include such things as town planning, public health, maintenance of community leisure centres, public libraries and community centres (Stilwell & Troy, 2000). Importantly, due to reform to the Local Government Acts across various States, including Queensland, new legislation has enabled local government to become involved in enterprise activities and entrepreneurial ventures (Aulich, 1999) such as the development and implementation of special events.

While these new reforms have enabled local governments to become more business like and engage in entrepreneurial activities (Aulich, 1999), such as the staging of local events, economically, local government remains the least well-resourced tier and finance for their undertakings still primarily continues to be obtained through rates and from the Federal and State Governments (Australian Local Government Association, 2001). For instance, The Queensland State Government Department of Local Government and Planning is a funding source for the 125 local governments in

Queensland (The Queensland State Government Department of Local Government and Planning, 2001). Thus, it is not surprising that many local governments throughout Queensland appear eager to reap the potential economic benefits from their own locally produced events.

The facilitation of effective liaison between the 125 local Queensland governments and the Queensland State Government Department of Local Government and Planning, is undertaken by the Local Government Association of Queensland (LGAQ). The LGAQ was formed in 1896 to give local government a united voice in its dealings with other Governments, unions, business and the community (Local Government Association of Queensland, 2001) and one of the 125 councils under the auspice of the LGAQ is the ICC.

Ipswich City Council

Ipswich is a city located in South-East Queensland and has a population of 135,000 (ICC, 2001). ICC claim the city is “a key regional centre of South East Queensland, Australia’s fastest growing region” (ICC, 2001, p.3) and a significant economic generator in the region (ICC, 2001).

Local government, such as ICC, “has traditionally had a role in economic development. However, … reduced central government funding, economic recession, and a changing global economy have increased the pressures on the local state to create employment opportunities, and to attract investment and income generating activities” (Hall & Jenkins, 1995, p. 37). ICC has recently taken the opportunity to use events as a vehicle for economic development. Such ventures include the establishment of the Ipswich Motorsport Precinct at Willowbank, which Council believe will establish Ipswich as the motorsport capital of Australia and the Olympic Torch Relay in which the city staged an F111 strike jet spectacular finale (ICC, 2001).

ICC management maintains it has forged strong partnerships between the community, business and other levels of government to ensure that Ipswich is rapidly evolving as a progressive city enjoying quality lifestyle through delivery of a well balanced mix of essential, social, environmental and economic services. Eisinger (1988) described this new style of interventionist local state as the ‘entrepreneurial state’, increasingly focusing on the “demand side strategies which aim to discover, develop, expand and create new markets” (Hall & Jenkins, 1995, p. 37). Like other cities and regions in this new entrepreneurial state, ICC appears to be “constantly seeking to image and re-image (itself) in order to promote (itself) as an attractive place to live, work, invest and play” (Hall & Jenkins, 1995, p. 38).

Ipswich is Queensland’s oldest provincial city and “has historically been known as a coal miners’ and workers’ town” (ICC, 1975, p. 9) with its early employment focus being limestone quarrying, cotton manufacturing, coal mining, and railway workshops. The influence of these heavy industries has declined and has “been replaced to a degree with service industries” (ICC, 1993, p. 7). The rapid growth, combined with the change from primary and heavy industry to the service industries has, however, contributed to social and economic problems that were identified by the ICC as early as 1975 (ICC, 1975). Workers describing themselves as managers, administrators or professionals make up 16.8% of the workforce while 29.8% describe themselves as clerical sales and service workers (ABS, 1996) and the need exists “to encourage more jobs in the communication and finance/business services” (ICC, 2001, p. 12). Furthermore, “unemployment is a major issue impacting on youth in Ipswich” (ICC, 1995. p. 12) with 18% of people under the age of 25 being unemployed (ABS, 1996) and the development of a strategy is needed to “break the current cycle of crime and abusive behaviour” in the youth sector (ICC, 1995. p. 39).

Thus it would appear reasonable to assume that the City of Ipswich may have an image problem to overcome brought about by unemployment and related socio-economic problems. Interestingly however, Hall and Jenkins (1995, p. 38) claimed that “among other things, the hosting of large-scale sporting and cultural events are components of re-imaging” while tourism is a ready source of employment opportunities and will be an income generator (Hall, 1994). Not surprisingly then, ICC appears to be placing an increasing emphasis on the development of its event agenda. The ICC has a tourism and events unit to service and implement the Council's Ipswich City Tourism Strategy by supporting the Ipswich events program, encouraging tourist development through participation in regional and local tourism programs and facilitating tourism development issues with Ipswich regional organisations. This unit is in addition to sport and recreation staff employed by the ICC who also have a responsibility for event planning and staging.

Ipswich Events Corporation

One such specific unit under the auspice of the ICC is the IEC. The IEC itself is a quasi-autonomous non-government organisation (quango) and has a separate legal existence. However, it remains accountable to government for its actions because the majority of its funding is obtained through government (Lynch &Veal, 1997). The

IEC was formed as a non-profit organisation in May 1992 with the mandate to promote and manage the Ipswich City Mall which forms the core of Ipswich's CBD (IEC, 2001). The early nineties saw the need for Ipswich to "shake off the dust and begin to realise its potential" (ICC, 1992) and the engagement of the IEC in 1992 apparently resulted in "a steady fight back by the Ipswich CBD" (ICC, 1992, p. 32) to regroup and re-image the area.

A second contract of the IEC is to promote and "initiate events and activities that will promote Ipswich and its lifestyle for the benefit of the community" (IEC, 2001, p. 1). Both of these contracts have been renewed for eight years from 2001 and during the next eight years, it is the charter of the IEC to continue to develop new policy pertaining to events and to oversee further incentives in this regard.

Methodology

An interpretive research design was employed for this study, drawing on the principles of both hermeneutic analysis and content analysis. For the purpose of this research, public policy is 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 & Weller, 1993). Fundamentally, public policy is "whatever governments choose to do or not to do" (Dye, 1992, p. 2).

Procedures For Selection Of Local Government Policies

A purposive method of selection was used to determine the policies included in this study (Whitford, Bell, Watkins, 2001). The sample selection consisted of local government documents that met the following criteria:

1. The policies were to be released by the ICC and or the IEC between 1990 and 2001.
2. The policies were to be published as plans, strategies, reports, discussion papers and policies.
3. The policies were to include direct or indirect reference to events. (The criterion would automatically embrace any or all policies developed specifically for events).

The final policy sample set consisted of 28 public policies that satisfied the selection criteria. The focus of public policy analysis in this study was underpinned by the policy community approach (Homeshaw, 1995) and the policy content approach (Hogwood & Gunn, 1984).

An Overview of the Policy Community Approach

The notion of examining the activities of governance by analysing policy communities and policy networks was born in the 1970's and is based on the concept that "government is the management of a complex environment through the operation of mediating institutions (Richardson & Jordan, 1979, p. 158). Further developments of the approach by Lowi (1972), Heclo (1978), Peters, (1982), Milward and Wamsley, (1985), Ripley and Franklin, (1986) and Freeman and Stevens, (1987) focused on the notion of sub government policy activity and on the influence of pressure groups on that activity. This by necessity, implies an underlying assumption that policy is made in not only the conventional institutions of governance and in closed business/parliament/government 'iron triangles' of interaction, but in a much more varied set of relationships (Homeshaw, 1995). Therefore, in essence, "a policy community consists of all actors or potential actors with a direct or indirect interest in a policy area or function who share a common policy focus" (Coleman & Skogstad, 1990, p. 26).

An Overview of the Policy Content Approach

Studies of policy content are primarily descriptive and focus on the origins, intentions and operations of specific policies (Hogwood & Gunn, 1984). Dye (1995) claimed that policy content analysis might be undertaken in order to improve our knowledge of society by identifying the internal and external influences that shape the content of policy or by identifying the impact public policy has on these environments. Hence, it is concerned with "understanding and explaining the substance of policy content and policy decisions and the way in which policy decisions are made" (Barrett & Fudge, 1981, p. 6).

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). The content analysis procedures used in this study followed the principles of Neuman's (1997) use of manifest and latent codes.

Method of Analysis

The following section describes the method of analysis utilised in this study. The matrix shown in Table 1, not only provided data for the ensuing content analysis but also provided visual clarity of relevant information pertaining to each event policy. The policies were chronologically arranged and inserted into the matrix. The policies were numbered 1-28, listed by publication date accordingly and each policy title was recorded alongside the allocated number. The policies were listed by the government source and author (i.e., ICC, Corporate Services Department), type (i.e., plan), length (i.e., number of pages in the policy), indirect/direct reference (i.e., number of references allocated to events then references expressed as a percentage) and focus of policy (i.e., socio-cultural). Each cell in the matrix, except the Publication Date and Policy Number and the Title, was subjected to content analysis utilising manifest and latent coding (Neuman, 1997).

The study interpreted the content of local government 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) pointed out that the contemporary consciousness of history could be fundamentally different from the apparent reality prevailing at the time. 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.

Additionally, the IEC policy community identified in this study is the outcome of stage one of the identification process. Further research employing interviews and focus groups will not only ensure all key actors and groups of actors have been identified, but will also facilitate further analysis pertaining to the "interactions between the groups and to hypothesise about the types of outcomes achieved" (Homeshaw, 1995, p. 520).

Discussion of Results

The IEC Policy Community and Policy Outcomes

The policy community of the IEC in respect to this paper refers to the organisations that generate and influence policy relating to events in ICC jurisdiction and is represented diagrammatically in Figure 1. The seven types of organisations represented in the policy community include 1) a State Government Department (i.e., Local Government and Planning), 2) a Local Authority (i.e., LGAQ), 3) Local Government Departments (i.e., six in number with nine sub branches, 4) Partnerships (i.e., private enterprise/government), 5) Peak Associations, 6) Interest Groups, and 7) a Quasi autonomous non-government organisation (Quango) (i.e., IEC).

Figure 1 reveals that policy-making pertaining to the IEC occurs within policy communities where the various actors interact to shape policy in relation to a variety of event issues. It also reveals there are a number of actors and authorities that appear to have some form of acknowledged and official responsibilities in the facilitation of event development within the jurisdiction of the ICC. Such an arrangement could result in either one or two scenarios occurring. On the one hand, there is the possibility that a diverse and fragmented event policy community may promote ad hoc policy development. This is a key concern as Hall, Jenkins and Kearsley (1997) warned that the process of creating tourism policy becomes more complex when there are struggles between various government actors in relation to roles and responsibilities. The same warning is also valid in relation to ICC and IEC event policy. For instance, it would appear fair to assume that the departmental focus and goals of the Economic Development Department would differ greatly to those of the Community and Cultural Services Department.

Furthermore, it appears feasible for potential conflict to arise in relation to event policy development as the Economic Development Department may focus purely on entrepreneurial concerns at the possible expense of traditional socio-cultural concerns (Hall & Jenkins, 1995). On the other hand, the ICC may be practising a ‘whole of government’ approach to policy development and encourage not only its various departments to work together, but also incorporate the IEC into decision making processes despite its semi-autonomous status with the ICC. Reynolds, (1988, p. 67) claimed “local governments and regional development organisations have the potential to integrate the sometimes disparate economic, social and environmental goals that sometimes exist in local communities in relation to tourism development” and it is possible that the ICC and IEC have attempted to facilitate similar integration into policy development in relation to regional event policy.

The policy community and consequently the policy development of the IEC was significantly influenced by the ICC, particularly in the earlier years of its operations. This conclusion is substantiated by the findings in Table 2, which provides an overview of the development of event policy of the ICC and IEC from 1990 to 2001.

Specifically, Table 2 reveals that until 2001, all policies pertaining to, or impinging upon, the facilitation of events in the Ipswich region were instigated by the ICC and written by an ICC department. This suggests that the operation of the IEC in relation to event policy development and implementation was not autonomous.

This finding is substantiated in Table 3, which provides a list of events staged by the IEC from 1993-2001. Table 3 reveals that up to and including 1997, the IEC itself staged very few regular events. Of those that were staged, the majority appeared to be largely dependent upon ICC funding and support. Additionally, a lack of productivity by the IEC may possibly have been exacerbated because ICC policy that was developed before 1997 was not event specific and did not provide opportunities for the IEC to act upon. That is, policy content predominantly consisted of indirect references to activities and events in the Ipswich region. For instance, the 1995 Ipswich City & Region Cultural Development Policy made 17 (90%) indirect references to events such as providing “an environment conducive to the enhancement and celebration of community and cultural aspirations”. This type of indirect reference may not have facilitated or inspired innovative action from the IEC.

However, from 1997 onwards, there is more evidence of direct references to the facilitation of events within the content of policies increased. For instance, policies including the 1998 Sporting Donation & Sponsorship Policy, the 2000 Major Events at Council Swim Centres and the 2001 Operational Plan were all written by the ICC and contained a high proportion of specific references to the development of various events and related issues in the region. Importantly, in 2001, the IEC started to develop its own event specific policies, and this may be because of either increased ICC confidence in the capacity of the IEC to develop and produce successful events and or a move toward less interventionist government (Oakley & Green, 2001).

Moreover, the increased ICC policy focus on developing the profile of events in the region may have been fruitful if one takes into account that from 1998, as shown in Table 3, the IEC appeared to be less dependent upon ICC financial support with the majority of funding being sourced from sponsors who were possibly now more aware of the potential benefits derived from event participation. Interestingly, Table 2 reveals from 1992- 1995, the focus of ICC policies was primarily concerned with planning and socio-cultural issues. From 1995 onwards, this focus appeared to be more economically orientated and indicative of either a move towards the entrepreneurial state (Eisinger, 1988) and or an ideological shift towards economic rationalism (Pusey, 1992). This assumption is further substantiated by what appears to be an increased tendency by the IEC to develop partnerships with private enterprise.

Although these partnerships may provide added funding resources for the development and implementation of events, there has been a concern among political scientists for many years that business occupies a privileged position in the public policy process (Lindblom, 1977). “Actors engage themselves in the event in order to further their own interests” (Larson & Wikstrom, 2001, p. 52) and arguably, government is often influenced by business in order to achieve certain public policy goals. Craik (1990, p. 29) warned “the fostering of the private sector by government inevitably leads to charges of clientelism, the coincidence between policy outcomes and the interests of key lobbyists”. Furthermore, Michaels (1992, p. 242) maintained a policy community in the form of various interest groups such as private enterprise operates with a professional agenda but seeks to have their issue placed on the governmental or public agenda either directly or by using a popular agenda as a means to get the attention of governmental decision makers. While this may appear alarmist, overzealous attempts at commercialisation may reflect the desire of a small elite to pursue its interests in the name of community development (Ritchie, 1984) and may impinge upon the desired development of socio-cultural values and traditions of a host destination.

Conclusions

The event industry in Australia continues to flourish and events are increasingly viewed as a vehicle for the promotion of economic and socio-cultural development within the host community. Accordingly, Australian Federal, State and Local governments are realising the potential benefits of staging events and are thus addressing, to varying degrees, the development of events in public policies. Although Local Government does not enjoy the resources or influence of State and to a greater extent, Federal Government, the public policies developed by a local government such as the ICC can impinge significantly upon the role and potential growth of events in their local jurisdiction.

The analysis of event public policy developed by the ICC and the IEC from 1990 to 2001 revealed that fundamentally, the ICC and the IEC are progressively developing more event specific policy that should facilitate the development of a successful event industry within the local region. However, this encouraging scenario may not be problem free and although the interpretive research to date is incomplete, there are several legitimate assertions that can be made pertaining to potential conflict that the ICC and IEC may encounter.

The policy community of the IEC may be overcrowded as the policy catalogue identifies numerous departments, with different functions, as being responsible for event policy. Thus the policy community consisting of a variety of actors that will undoubtedly focus on differing agendas with diverse goals and objectives may encourage ad hoc, rather than consistent policy formation. Additionally, diverse incompatible government objectives and a fragmented event agenda may result in the development of a disparate collection of event policy that ineffectively outlines the roles and responsibilities of participating actors.

However, a possible explanation for the finding of an ad hoc approach may be that the ICC adopted a ‘whole of government’ approach to the development of event policy. This approach might facilitate interaction and continuity between numerous government departments and may be responsible for what appears to be a more focused and autonomous IEC today compared to the earlier days of operations. For example, the policy catalogue suggests that until 2001, the ICC was responsible for writing all policy pertaining to events. Importantly, such policy overall, was far from event specific and arguably afforded the IEC little opportunity to promote and present innovative and progressive events. Today, it appears the IEC is gaining more independence, which may be due to the ICC taking on a less interventionist style of government based on the laissez faire principle that less government is better.

More importantly perhaps, is the change in the focus of policy written by the ICC. Early policy was primarily concerned with socio-cultural issues, compared to latter ICC and IEC policies, which demonstrated a strong economic agenda. Undoubtedly, events are proving to be a very effective means of generating positive economic activity and local governments looking for entrepreneurial opportunities with private enterprise should utilise events to facilitate economic development of a region. However, the degree to which governments, and in particular the IEC, focus on the economic benefits of events may need adjustment to ensure that events and activities initiated by the IEC in particular "…will promote Ipswich and its lifestyle for the benefit of the community" (IEC, 2001, p. 1). Thus the focus of policy development may not only need to deal with social factors but also strive to ensure that overzealous attempts at commercialisation do not destroy the desired development of socio-cultural values and traditions of a host destination.

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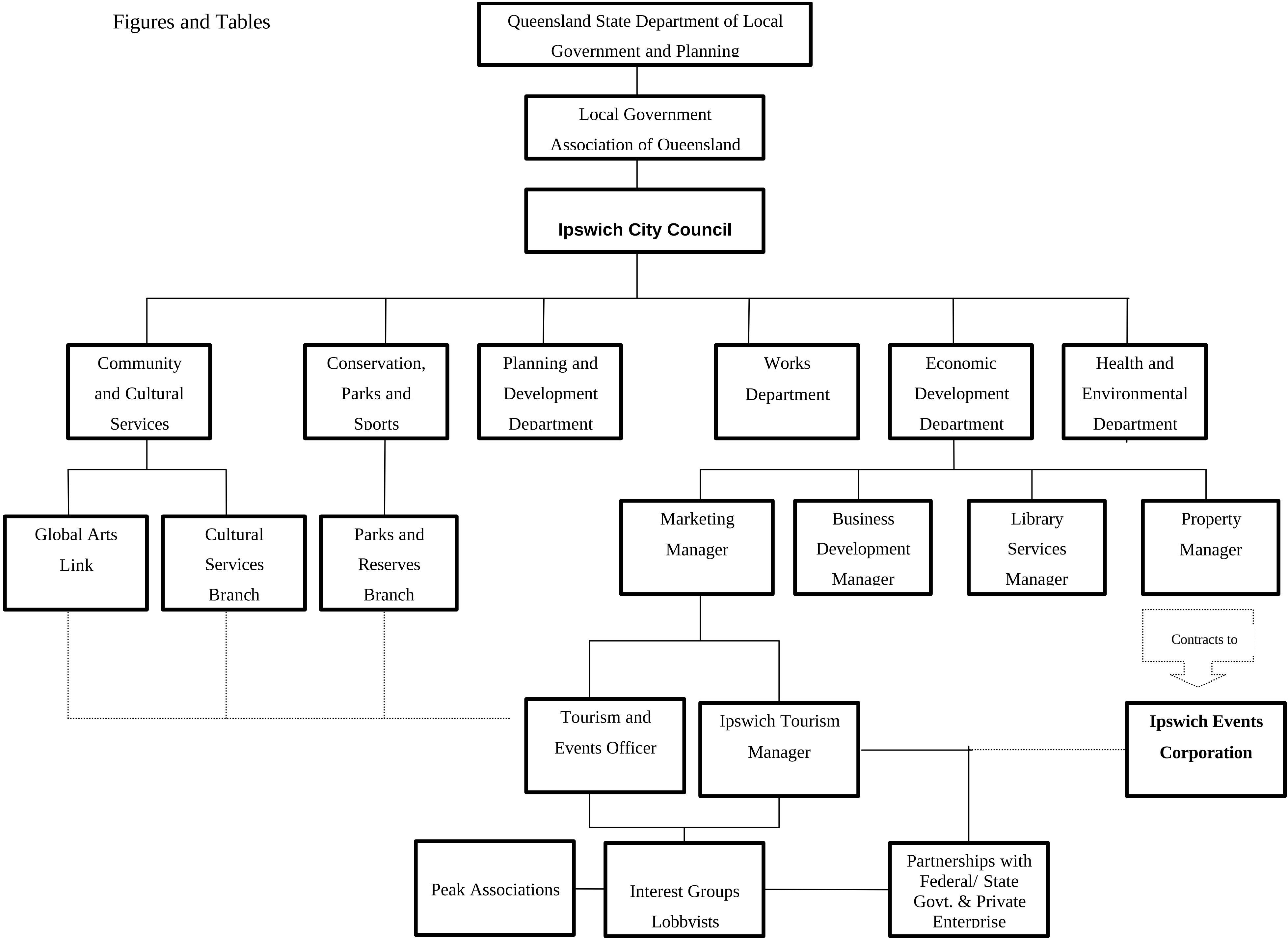
Queensland State Department of Local Government and Planning
Local Government Association of Queensland
Ipswich City Council
Community and Cultural Services
Conservation, Parks and Sports
Planning and Development Department
Works Department
Economic Development Department
Health and Environmental Department
Global Arts Link
Cultural Services Branch
Parks and Reserves Branch
Marketing Manager
Business Development Manager
Library Services Manager
Property Manager
Contracts to
Tourism and Events Officer
Ipswich Tourism Manager
Ipswich Events Corporation
Peak Associations
Interest Groups Lobbyists
Partnerships with Federal/ State Govt. & Private Enterprise

Figure 1 Schematic Representation of the Ipswich Event Corporation

Table 1 Event Policy Development of the ICC and IEC – 1990-2001

Publication Date & Policy No:	Title	Government Source and Author	Type & Length	% of Indirect/Direct References to Events in Policy	Focus of Policy Reference
Chronologically numbers policy for ease of identification	Systematically labels policy for ease of identification	Identifies government publisher	Identifies plan or strategy	Identifies amount of content allocated to events	Identifies the focus of policies

Table 2 Event Policy Development of the Ipswich City Council and IEC – 1990-2001

Publ. Date & Policy No:	Title	Government Source and Author	Type & Length	% of Indirect/Direct References to Events in Policy	Focus of Policy Reference
1. 1992	Development Funding Policy for Non-Profit Community Groups	ICC - PD&H Committee	Policy 6 pages	4 References 75% Indirect, 25% Direct	planning
2. 1992	Annual Report	ICC - Corporate Services Dept	Report	1 Reference 100% Direct	economic
3. 1993	Ipswich City & Region Cultural Development Policy	ICC - Community & Cultural Services Dept	Policy 5 Pages	10 References 90% Indirect, 10% Direct	socio-cultural
4. 1994	Statement of Affairs	ICC - Corporate Services Dept	Report 16 pages	5 References 100% Indirect	planning
5. 1994	Annual Report	ICC - Corporate Services Dept	Report 25 Pages	6 References 100% Indirect	cultural-economic
6. 1994	Interim Corporate Plan	ICC	Plan 27 Pages	3 References 100% Indirect	socio-economic
7. 1995	City Centre Planning Study	ICC – author unknown	Report 47 Pages	14 References 78% Indirect, 22% Direct	socio-planning
8. 1995	Ipswich City & Region Cultural Development Policy	ICC - Community & Cultural Services Dept	Policy 10 Pages	19 References 90% Indirect, 10% Direct	socio-cultural
9. 1995	Interim Corporate Plan	ICC – author unknown	Plan 26 Pages	5 References 100% Indirect	socio-planning
10. 1995	Tied Funding for Community & Cultural Groups & Events Policy	ICC - Community & Cultural Services Dept	Policy 1 Page	1 Reference 100% Direct	economic
11. 1996	Anzac Day Ceremonies & Celebrations	ICC - Corporate Services Dept	Policy 1 Page	2 References 100% Indirect	socio-cultural
12. 1997	Corporate Plan 1997-2002	ICC - Corporate Services Dept	Plan 33 Pages	12 References 75% Indirect, 25% Direct	economic
13. 1997	Global Arts Link - Fundraising Activities	ICC - Community & Cultural Services Dept	Policy 1 Page	1 Reference 100% Indirect	economic
14. 1997	Requests For Provision Of Portable Stage	ICC - Economic Development & Global Info Links Committee	Policy 1 Page	2 References 100% Direct	economic
15. 1997	Sponsorship Of Promotional Street Banners	ICC - Corporate Services Dept	Policy 1 Page	1 Reference 100% Direct	economic
16. 1997	Community Assistance Grants - Eligibility	ICC - Community & Cultural Services Dept	Policy 1 Page	1 Reference 100% Direct	economic
17. 1997	Multi-Use Facilities Policy Position	ICC - Corporate Services Dept	Policy 1 Page	1 Reference 100% Indirect	economic
18. 1998	Development Incentives Policy	ICC - Corporate Services Dept	Policy 2 Pages	2 References 100% Indirect	economic
19. 1998	Sporting Donation & Sponsorship Policy	ICC - Conservation Parks & Sport Dept	Policy 2 Pages	2 References 100% Direct	economic
20. 1998	Minor/Temporary Use Of Land	ICC - Planning & Development Committee	Policy 1 Page	1 Reference 100% Indirect	economic
21. 1999	Exhibition Policy	ICC - Economic Development & Global Info Links Committee	Policy 1 Page	2 References 50% Indirect, 50% Direct	socio-cultural
22. 1999	ICC Multicultural, Access & Equity Policy	ICC - Community & Cultural Services Dept	Policy 1 Page	2 References 100% Indirect	socio-cultural
23. 2000	Major Events at Council Swim Centres	ICC - Conservation Parks & Sport Dept	Policy 2 Pages	Specific Event Policy 100% Direct	economic
24. 2000	Temporary Entertainment Venues	LGA – author unknown	Local Law 10 Pages	Specific Event Policy 100% Direct References	economic
25. 2000	Economic Development Operational Plan	ICC - Economic Development Dept	Plan 16 Pages	14 References 30% Indirect, 70% Direct	economic
26. 2001	ICC 2001-2002 Operational Plan Finances	ICC - Economic Development Dept	Plan 108 Pages	16 References 13% Indirect, 87% Direct	economic
27. 2001	Operational Plan	ICC – Economic Development Dept	Plan 53 Pages	100% Direct	socio-economic
28. 2001	Annual Report	ICC – Corporate Services Department	Report 72	5 References 80% Indirect, 20% Direct	socio-economic

Table 3 IEC Policy Outcomes: 1993-2001

Year/Month	Event	Details	Attendance	Partnerships
1993-1997				
January	Australia Day	Redbank – outdoor concert and stalls on Australia Day	3,000	Joint venture with Redbank/Goodna Lions Club
March	Ipswich Festival	Limestone Park – parade and family fun activities	25,000	Organised by IEC on behalf of ICC who fund the project
1996-1998				
June	Post Cup Party	Evening event for race goers of the Ipswich Cup	2,500	Funding from ICC contracts
December	Carols	Queens Park	4,500	Sponsored by QLD Times & ICC & Star FM 106.9. Organised by IEC
1998-2001				
January	Australia Day	Redbank - Cancelled		
March/April	Ipswich Festival	10 day event including Centenary celebrations in 2001	100,000	ICC contributes small grant but primarily funded by sponsors. Channel 7 coverage of the event
June	Winternationals Carnival	Motorsports awards dinner & Billy Kart Bash – Home made/school entry karts with school age drivers. Prize money totalling $1000	Dinner – 250 Race – 38-60 entries Over 2,500 spectators	
September	River Festival	1998-2000 only – Cribb Park North Ipswich.	1,600	A Channel 7 initiative funded by ICC
December	Carols	Queens Park		Built up to a $30,000 event with sponsorship
One Off Events				
Opening of Touring Car track		Willowbank – Welcome to touring car drivers	1,200	IEC & ICC
Alfie Langer Tribute		CBD	1,800	IEC & ICC
Olympic Torch Relay		Limestone Park	2,300	IEC, ICC & Olympic Committee
NB: These events do not include the activities in the CBD e.g., Crazy Day Sales, Christmas Twilight Parade and Santa, School Holiday entertainment				

Source: Ipswich Events Corporation, (2001). Personal Communication.

Assessing the Social Impacts of Events: Scale Development

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Abstract

Tourism destination managers are increasingly looking at events as an important mechanism for enhancing tourism development in their regions (Jago & Shaw, 1998). Whilst it is clear that events have the potential to generate positive economic impacts, a balanced appraisal of the success of an event needs to consider the total cost/benefit package including social impacts. Unlike economic impacts, social impacts of events can be difficult to measure objectively as many of them cannot be quantified, and they often have a differential effect on different members of the community. For this reason, social impacts are frequently examined through investigation of residents' perceptions of the impacts (Fredline, 2000). Little research, however, has undertaken a systematic evaluation of these social impacts and the aim of this CRC for Sustainable Tourism study, is to provide a framework within which to assess these impacts.

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This paper documents the processes involved in developing a scale to be used in assessing the social impacts of three different events. The development process began with a review of literature to generate items. Items generated through focus groups supplemented this process. The overall aim of the studies is to test and validate an instrument that can be used to compare the social impacts of a variety of events and ultimately to inform knowledge in the area of social impact assessment in tourism more generally.

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 some of the variables that tend to be associated with positive and negative reactions. For example, there is extensive evidence to suggest that residents who perceive themselves to benefit personally from tourism will be more positively disposed towards it. However, not all tourism is equal; tourism is a nebulous concept that manifests its impact differently across, and even within, communities. Therefore, more information is required about the differential effects of alternative types of tourism on host communities and their sub groups. 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 the community. It is, therefore, logical that they will promote the type of tourism that maximises positive impacts and minimises negative impacts. The substantial body of research investigating economic impact assessment 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. However, the impacts of tourism go beyond just the economic and there is a need to develop measures that can deal with other types of impact. Additionally, any measure that seeks to compare alternative types of tourism, still needs to consider the variation between and within communities, because what is `best' for one community or sub group, may not be `best' for another.

Aims

This project aims to develop and test a scale to assess the social impacts of special events. It is hoped that this scale will enable:

1. Examination of how residents in the same community (Melbourne) perceive the impacts of different types of events
2. Comparison of the reactions of residents of a small regional community with those of a large urban community
3. Investigation of the ways in which the various sub groups that exist within communities react to different types of events

Ultimately, it is envisaged that the scale will be adapted to assess other forms of tourism beyond events.

Literature Review

Social Impacts of Tourism

Teo (1994: 126) defines social and cultural impacts of tourism as:

> ‘the ways in which tourism is contributing to changes in the value systems, morals and their conduct, individual behaviour, family relationships, collective lifestyles, creative expressions, traditional ceremonies and community organization’.

The issue of the social impacts of tourism has, more recently, attracted the attention of researchers and practitioners. The expanding literature on sustainable tourism development and ecotourism is testimony to this – for example, journals such as *The Journal of Sustainable Tourism* provide a platform for research and industry interest. There is a growing acceptance of the concept of “social responsibility”, of responsible tourism and alternative forms of tourism (Pearce, Morrison and Rutledge, 1998). At the same time there has been increasing community opposition to tourism developments that harm both the social and natural environment.

The social impacts of tourism provide a good example of “a double-edged sword”. Marcouiller (1997), in his study of tourism development in US rural communities, argues that the injection of tourists into a rural community can divide a previously homogenous community because the influx changes the dynamics of the community. Glasson’s (1994) study of the UK heritage city, Oxford, found that, although the overall effect of tourism on the city was positive, many of the local respondents stated that tourism increased overcrowding, noise, litter and crime. The costs of tourism have been documented under a number of themes. For example, King and Stewart (1996), among others, discuss the negative effects associated with the commodification of a destination's culture and the negative impact of tourist activities such as sex-tourism. Doxey's (1975) Irridex Model has been tested in a number of tourism environments to determine the level of resident irritation generated by tourism. Teo (1994), in using Doxey's instrument, for example, found a reasonably high level of intolerance for tourists in Singapore and residents associated tourism with higher levels of crime. Other negative social impacts such as the impact of the cultural and behavioural differences between tourists and residents and, the often, high inequality between the wealth of tourists and residents, are well documented (Weaver and Oppermann, 2000).

On the other hand, Marcouiller (1997: 351) argues that:

> 'Other important sociological effects of tourism development on rural communities include developing a local sense of place, community pride or image, and local quality of life'.

This sense of community pride, wellbeing and stability is an indicator of the social capital of a community. Onyx and Leonard (2000) argue that there is a growing recognition of the importance of social capital in maintaining a healthy and vibrant civil society. Tourism is often perceived as increasing the economic and, therefore, the social wellbeing of communities. Tourism also provides an incentive to preserve culture and heritage, although this does not necessarily add to the social capital of the community. Teo's (1994) study of Singapore found that the conservation projects of the city had preserved the cultural heritage but, unfortunately, local residents did not identify with the environment created by these projects and moved out. So the “double-edged sword” of tourism can both preserve cultural aspects but can also disperse the community in the process.

Definition of Events

Within the tourism field, the term ‘event’ is used to describe a wide range of event categories, many of which have quite different characteristics. Such events range from the Olympic Games at the mega-event end of the scale to small regional festivals. Even within these sub-groupings, there is substantial debate as to the definitions that should be adopted (see, for example, Getz 1991; Jago and Shaw 1998; Arcodia and Robb 2000). The definition that has been adopted here is that proposed by Jago and Shaw (1998: 29), namely, “a onetime or infrequently occurring event of limited duration that provides the consumer with a leisure and social opportunity beyond everyday experience”. This definition is taken as embracing the other subcategories of events, including community festivals and mega-events.

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 a reasonable amount of literature 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 and 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 the social benefits of community festivals.

Rogers and Ryan (2001) in their discussion of the triple bottom line concept, argue that there are nine basic, universal, human needs that require satisfaction if a healthy community is to be achieved. These include the need for sustenance, protection, affection, idleness, creativity, freedom, understanding, participation and identity. How well these needs can be evaluated through events is discussed in the following section.

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 the host community. 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 subsectors 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.

Methodological Considerations

Rationale For Resident Perception Approach

The resident perceptions approach to measuring tourism impacts is clearly subjective and, therefore, gives no verifiable indication of the quantification of costs and benefits accruing to the community under investigation. Therefore, the objective measurement of impacts, where possible, remains an important research ambition. Objective measurement, however, is not possible for some types of impacts and provides no indication of the effects on the quality of life of local residents. Thus, the resident perceptions approach provides useful additional data for understanding the costs and benefits of event tourism.

Theoretical Bases For Understanding Variation In Perceptions

Much of the research conducted in this area has been criticised for lacking a suitable theoretical base, although there have been two notable exceptions. Ap (1992) employed Social Exchange Theory as a tool for understanding variation in perception of impacts of tourism. Simply speaking, the theory suggests that residents are involved in a series of exchanges with regard to tourism and the outcome of these exchanges will determine their satisfaction. If they perceive themselves to have benefited from tourism exchanges they should have positive perceptions, but should have negative perceptions if they perceive tourism to be associated with negative impacts that outweigh any benefits. This theory could explain the relationship between economic dependency on tourism and positive perceptions of tourism impacts.

Another theoretical framework that has been employed in this area of research is Social Representation Theory (Moscovici,1982). Social representations are the ways in which people think and feel about phenomena in the world around them and are comprised of `bundles' of images, values and preconceived ideas. Pearce, Moscardo and Ross (1996) suggest that this is a better basis for understanding residents' perceptions because, unlike exchange theory, it does not assume that people can rationally assess the cost benefit ratio of an event on their lives, rather it assumes they will assess impacts using `gut instinct' based on the representations they hold about tourism and its various facets. Representations can be informed by direct experience, so the exchange process can be influential at this point. However, particularly where direct experience is limited, representations can also be informed through social interaction and other mechanisms for information transmission such as the media.

Questionnaire Development

In developing the instrument, there were a number of considerations to take into account. These included the need to use perceptions of the residents influenced by the event, and the various factors influencing these perceptions.

Independent Variables That Explain Variation In Perceptions

A small, but growing body of literature exists examining residents' perceptions of the impacts of events, (Delamere, 1997, 2001a, 2001b; Fredline & Faulkner, 1998, 2000, 2002a, 2002b; Turco, 1998) and this, in conjunction with the much larger quantity of material examining perceptions of the impacts of general tourism, illuminates many of the variables that contribute to the explanation of perceptions.

Economic Dependence on/Involvement in Event/Tourism

Numerous previous studies have investigated this relationship in regard to general tourism, and there is substantial evidence to suggest that working in or owning a business in tourism or a related industry, or one which is otherwise boosted by the event, is associated with more positive perceptions of tourism (Pizam,1978; Brougham & Butler,1981; Milman & Pizam,1988; Perdue, Long & Allen,1990; Madrigal,1993; King, Pizam & Milman;1993; Pizam, Milman & King,1994; Snaith & Haley,1994; Haralambopoulos & Pizam,1996). No doubt this is because of the economic benefits that these residents derive. In the context of events, Fredline and Faulkner (2002a) found that residents who worked in tourism were more likely to have highly positive perceptions of the impacts of the event.

Distance of Place of Residence From Event Area

Mixed results have been found in studies investigating residential proximity to tourism/event activity. Some studies have found that residents living closer to high activity areas are more negatively disposed to tourism (Pizam,1978; Brougham & Butler,1981), whereas others have found an opposite relationship with those living closer having more positive perceptions (Belisle & Hoy,1980; Sheldon & Var,1984; Keogh,1990). Perdue, Long and Allen (1990) suggest that perception of both positive and negative impacts increases as distance from tourist activity decreases. Thus residents who live close to tourist foci are more likely to have strong opinions, either positive or negative, while those far away are likely to be less concerned. It would seem logical that this is because many of the impacts of tourism are more concentrated where the tourist activity is highest. This relationship is supported by the results of Fredline and Faulkner (2002a) who found that residents with ambivalent perceptions of the impacts live further, on average, from the focal points of the events, while those with negative perceptions tend to be those living closer.

Level of Contact with Tourists

Whilst contact with tourism is likely to be closely related to residential proximity, the two concepts are not synonymous as residents can come into contact with tourists in many different situations. Some studies, therefore, have measured contact as a separate variable. Findings have varied similarly to those associated with proximity with Pizam's (1978) findings suggesting that higher levels of contact are associated with negative perceptions, while Rothman (1978) found that high contact was associated with positive perceptions.

Use of Affected Facilities

Another variable that is likely to be interrelated with these other dimensions of contact is the extent to which residents utilise facilities and attractions that are affected by events, as this provides another opportunity for interaction. However, there are other dimensions associated with facilities. In some situations, facilities will be developed or upgraded because of an event, and this can be of benefit to locals who wish to use them. In the tourism context, Fredline (2002) found that residents who utilise tourism facilities had more positive perceptions of the impacts of tourism on their quality of life. On the other hand, the use of facilities for an event may make them inaccessible to local users, at least for some period of time. Previous studies that have investigated the influence of facility use on perceptions of impacts have found mixed results depending on the types of facilities being considered (Keogh, 1990; Fredline and Faulkner, 2002a).

Identification with the theme

The investigation of identification with the theme has more relevance in the events context than in general tourism. In their study of motor sport events, Fredline and Faulkner (2002b) found this to be the most important variable differentiating between residents with positive and negative perceptions of the events. Those with higher levels of interest in motor sport were much more likely to be highly positive about the impacts of the event on their personal quality of life.

Participation in the event

Participation in the event is likely to be highly interrelated with identification with the theme, as evidenced by the observation that over 80% of residents who had the most positive perceptions of two motor sport events had participated in them directly (by attending the event – 41%) or indirectly (by watching it on television – 42%), (Fredline & Faulkner, 2002a).

Demographics

Few studies have found substantial differences between perceptions of tourism based on demographic variables. Where such relationships are found, it is likely due to interrelationships with other variables such as values and interests, rather than simply being associated with demographics.

Community Attachment

Community attachment has been operationalised in a variety of ways in different studies including place of birth (Davis, Allen & Cosenza,1988) or number of years of residence in the community (Brougham & Butler,1981). The former study found that people born in a community are more positive about tourism, while the latter similarly found that those who had lived in the community longer were more positive. However, while these measures are likely to correlate with attachment, they do not actually measure it. McCool and Martin (1994) used a scale specifically aimed at measuring the level of attachment felt by residents toward the community in which they lived. They found that residents with higher levels of attachment perceived both positive and negative impacts more strongly.

Social and Political Values

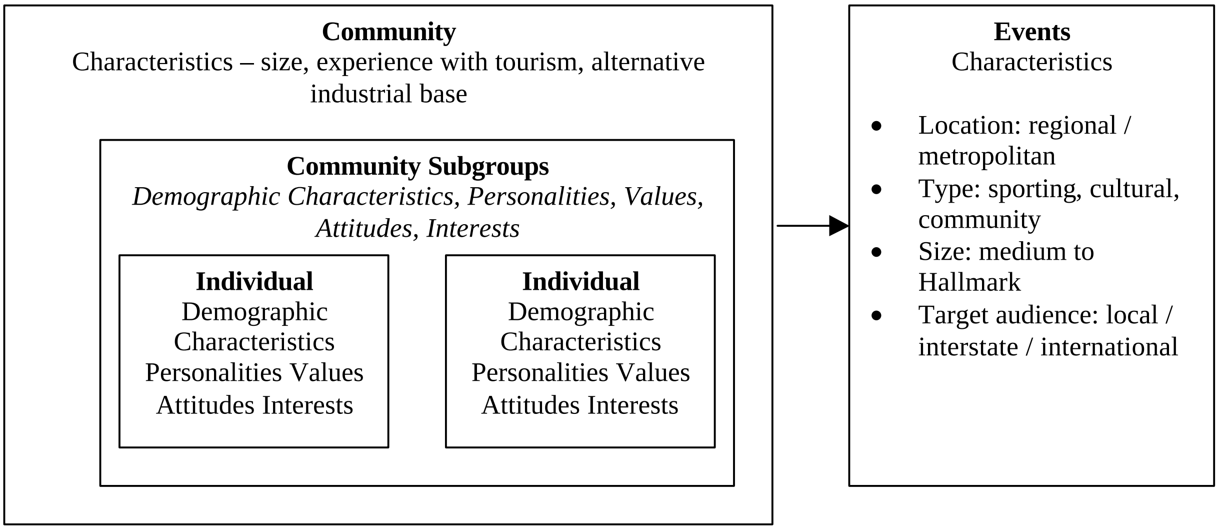
Tourism, like any other endeavour, operates with the social and political domains of a community, and it is, therefore, likely that residents with different social and political values would hold different representations of tourism. In the US, Snepenger and Johnson (1991) found that `conservatives' were more negatively disposed to tourism than `liberals'. Lindberg and Johnson (1997) found support for a model that suggests that resident values regarding economic gain are positively related to perceptions of tourism. Fredline and Faulkner (2002a) found that residents with ‘materialist’ values (Inglehart, 1971) were more likely to be positive about the impacts of events.

Perceptions of Justice

Although there are few examples of studies in which this variable has been tested, there is some evidence to suggest that perceptions of justice and equity are positively related to perceptions of the impacts of tourism (Fredline and Faulkner, 2002a).

Conceptual Framework

The instrument developed through the process discussed above requires both implementation and refinement. In operationalising the instrument, the following framework will be used.


Community
Characteristics – size, experience with tourism, alternative industrial base
Community Subgroups
Demographic Characteristics, Personalities, Values, Attitudes, Interests
Individual
Demographic Characteristics Personalities Values Attitudes Interests
Individual
Demographic Characteristics Personalities Values Attitudes Interests
Events
Characteristics
Location: regional / metropolitan
Type: sporting, cultural, community
Size: medium to Hallmark
Target audience: local / interstate / international

Case Studies

A case study approach will be used to implement and test the research instrument. The events to be used are representative of medium to large scale events and are located in both metropolitan and regional areas. They are taken from a variety of types of events namely sporting, cultural and community. The events chosen for this study are:

- The Australian 2002 Grand Prix

- The 2002 Melbourne Moomba Festival
- The 2002 Horsham Art Is….. Festival

In using case studies as the preferred methodology, the project is recognising the need to gain an in-depth understanding of community perceptions of specific types of events. However, the inclusion of a range of cases studies, investigated using similar methods, should enable a degree of generalisability to the extent that consistencies or rational differences are observed.

Methodology

Definition of population and Selection of Sampling Frame

The population of interest in each of the case studies is 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 obvious choices are the telephone directory and electoral rolls, but each of these has their disadvantages. The principal disadvantage with telephone directories is that, because the unit of analysis is individuals, and households vary in size, the chances of inclusion in the sample are not the same for all members of the population. Also, where the same telephone number represents more than one member of the population, an additional sampling stage is required to select which of those members should be included. This problem does not exist with electoral rolls, as they contain names and addresses of individuals. The major disadvantage of electoral rolls is that they represent only Australian citizens who have enrolled to vote, rather than all permanent residents. Additionally, they are only updated as required for electoral purposes, so depending on the timing of the survey, they may be quite out of date. It is likely, therefore, that this frame will under represent recent migrants from other countries, as well as those who have recently moved within Australia. Also, there is evidence to suggest that young people are not well represented on the electoral rolls. On balance, however, the relative simplicity of the electoral roll as opposed to the telephone directory, and its superiority in terms of ensuring equal probability of selection, makes the rolls appear to be the better option.

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.

Sampling methods

Given the decision to use the National Consumer File to provide the sampling frame, a variety of stratification options are possible. However, as the intention is to survey the general population rather than any specific sector of the community, a geographic segmentation (based on Census Collection Districts) is all that is required to ensure illumination of any spatial effects. Previous work in this area has employed disproportionate sampling 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). However, there is already substantial evidence of the relationship between proximity and impacts, and, therefore, in the proposed study this over-representation is not required. Therefore, proportionate sampling from each geographic stratum will be employed.

Administration method

The instrument will be 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 would suggest that response rates in the order of 30-40% are achievable. However, a non-response of 60% 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 associated with a lack of concern. In keeping with social representation theory as outlined in the literature review, the analytical techniques to be employed in this study aim to identify groups of residents with different social representations of the events rather than to calculate an overall effect on the population. Therefore, although the non-response bias may lead to a distortion in the relative sizes of the different groups identified, the basic knowledge of ‘who’ and ‘why’ should still be accurate. A modified Dillman (2000) approach, involving two reminders, will be used in conjunction with an incentive, in an effort to maximise response rates for this survey.

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 will be incorporated into this study.

Instrument Design

The instrument has been designed utilising statements from previous event impact research with the inclusion of additional items from the social capital literature. The basic format of the questionnaire is outlined in Table 1 below. Three slightly different versions of the instrument have been developed for the three different events. However, the first three sections are identical (with the exception of the name of the event and the city/town) and the final section only varies as necessary to allow for differences in the types of event and locations.

Table 1 Format of Instrument

Section A	Overall Impacts of the event including opportunities for open ended comment
Section B	Three-part scale measuring specific impacts of the event
Sections C- H	Measurement of Independent Variables 1. Contact 2. Participation 3. Identification with theme 4. Community attachment 5. Socio-political values 6. Demographics

Following the methods of Fredline (2000) the main dependant variables, residents' perceptions of the impacts of events, will be measured using a three part scale as shown in Table 2. The scale includes 45 impact statements, and residents are first asked to assess whether they believe the item has changed because of the event and to identify the direction of the change. If residents do perceive a change, they are subsequently asked to assess the affect on their personal quality of life, and also the affect on the community as a whole. These latter two assessments are measured on a seven point Likert type scale ranging from -3 (very negative impact) to +3 (very positive impact).

Table 2 Example of Section B Questions

1a. Because of the event, noise levels in and around the Grand Prix have….	☐	Decreased ®	1b. How has this affected your personal quality of life?	-3 –2 –1 0 +1 +2 +3
	☐	Increased ®		
	☐	No change↓ go to 2a	1c How has this affected the community as a whole?	-3 –2 –1 0 +1 +2 +3
	☐	Don't know ↓ go to 2a		

Sections C - H include the questions measuring the independent variables and demographic information. An example of this type of question is the measurement of socio-political values utilising Inglehart materialist / postmaterialist scale as shown in Table 3.

Table 3 Example of Section C-H Questions

From the four statements below, please select and mark those that you consider to be the most important and second most important:	
☐	Maintaining order in the nation
☐	Giving the people more say in government decisions
☐	Fighting rising prices
☐	Protecting freedom of speech

Given that the instrument being used here draws very heavily upon an instrument that was used successfully in previous research (Fredline, 2000; Fredline 2002), there is not the need to employ such an extensive pilot testing phase. However, prior to the data collection phase, the instrument will be tested with an appropriate group for comprehension and ease of completion. Although the questionnaire is long, an incentive will be offered to secure a better response rate.

Conclusion

Aligned with the increasing prominence given to events during the 1990s there has been an increased interest in assessing their impacts, although the vast majority of impact studies were entirely economic in focus. This can be attributed largely to the fact that government agencies supporting events were focussed on the economic benefits that flowed from attracting visitors to a host region to attend an event. There is now a greater recognition of the fact that specific events have a low likelihood of lasting more than a couple of years if they are not aligned to the social and environmental values of the local community. This move is related to the public sector's increased interest in the "triple bottom line", as opposed to simply an economic perspective.

Although many events attract a sizable number of tourists to the host region to attend the event, the overwhelming number of attendees at most events are members of the local community. Therefore, it is crucial that events are consistent with the needs of the local community, which provides most of the event attendees. Understanding the social impact of events on communities and being able to measure or monitor such impacts is vital to event viability. Advances in knowledge in this area will enable event organisers to develop or modify events to ensure that they are better aligned to the needs of the host community and at the same time enhance greatly the likely profitability for the event organiser.

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Events, Civic Pride and Attitude Change in a Post-Industrial Town: Evaluating the Effect of Local Authority Events on Residents' Attitudes to the Blackburn Region

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Introduction

The social benefits provided by events have been recognised in previous research, as has the need to measure these other than in economic terms (Gnoth & Anwar, 2000; Jones, 2001; Fredline & Faulkner, 2000). A variety of terms have been used to identify these social benefits such as, 'psychic benefits', 'community self worth', 'civic pride' and 'quality of life'. However, this research focuses on those aspects of social benefits, which can be defined in terms of the residents' attitudes to the local area. Although these are intangible benefits they can still be measured in a systematic and quantifiable way. Recognising these impacts as attitudinal constructs suggests the need to develop an objective method of measuring changes in those attitudes due to the hosting of the event. These attitude changes are likely to be longer term than the event itself and, therefore, any method used to measure civic pride, the chosen attitude

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construct, needs to be applied at regular intervals throughout the event organiser's, in this case the Local Authority's, planning cycle. Depending upon the frequency of the events this may need to be more often than before and after each event, in order to provide regular benchmarks for comparison.

This paper discusses the Blackburn Region, a post-industrial area in the North-West of England and the capital of the East Lancashire Region. Blackburn (with Darwen) Borough has a population of around 140,000 and includes the large town of Blackburn, Darwen, a small market town and a number of surrounding villages. Currently, the Blackburn region has higher proportions of young people and residents from Asian backgrounds than the rest of Great Britain. The general trend is that the economy of the Borough continues to rely on the manufacturing sector, aerospace, plastics, wall coverings and light engineering, as its principal source of employment, with the percentage of the population employed in manufacturing twice that of the national average. Unemployment is relatively high and there are a number of wards within the borough which feature in the top 10% of deprived wards in the country. A large amount of regeneration work is, therefore, being undertaken to tackle social exclusion, unemployment, poor housing and the low skills base.

The research undertaken with the Local Authority focused on the use of events within their marketing and regeneration strategy and used marketing research survey techniques to provide data which would complement the authority's standard event evaluation methods.

The full study was designed to evaluate the economic and social impacts of two of the authority's larger events taking place in Summer 2001. These were the 'Arts in the Park' festival which took place on the 28th and 29th of July and the "Fiesta" which ran from the 25th to the 28th of August. Both were largely non-ticketed free events taking place at outdoor locations in and around the town centre. This paper focuses on one of the social impacts through the development of an instrument to measure civic pride and its application in assessing the impact of these two events on civic pride levels within the Blackburn region.

As noted by Fredline & Faulkner (2000, p. 764) there is a 'considerable body of research on the social impact of tourism, but relatively little progress has been made on social impacts specifically associated with events. This research will add to this small but growing body of knowledge on the social impact of events and lead to the development of scientific, robust methods for measuring the effect of events on attitudes to the area.

Local Authorities And Events

The importance of 'place marketing' in post-industrial towns is well documented (Gold & Ward, 1994; Morgan, 1996; Getz,1997; Kotler, Asplund, Rein & Haider,1999) and the role of events within a place marketing strategy has also been recognised (Getz, 1997; Hughes 1999; Harcup, 2000). The use of events has also been suggested as one of the three main components, along with infrastructure and marketing images, of the local authorities' Unitary Development Plan (Dodds & Joppe, 2001).

Harcup (2000) discusses the loss of sense of community and sense of belonging which has occurred since cities/towns restructured over the last sixty years. During this period the emphasis tended to be on urban renewal, economic regeneration and development rather than social factors. However, this has been changing since the 1980s with a new focus on social cohesion, alongside wealth creation, which has undoubtedly fuelled the increase in the number of local authority events (Harcup, 2000).

In areas such as Blackburn, where unemployment has been a problem, economic regeneration is still one of the main local government objectives. However, economic difficulty is also likely to negatively affect levels of pride in the area and therefore attitude change (in terms of civic pride and sense of belonging), as a secondary objective, is nevertheless valuable and worthy of evaluation.

Harcup (2000) sees the role of events in the post-industrial areas as being to transform cities/towns from places of daily routine (work, school) into places of play and entertainment and although this transformation is temporary (i.e. for the duration of the event), the affect on those experiencing it may be longer lasting in terms of attitude change. In Blackburn Local Authority the events are seen as ‘a tremendous opportunity to bring large numbers of our citizens together in a ‘feelgood’ environment for two way communication with ourselves helping to develop closer relationships with them’ (Turner, 2001, p. 1). This suggests the additional benefit of improving attitudes to the local authority itself.

Hughes (1999, p. 119) suggests that the increase in ‘festive promotions’ by cities/towns is due to ‘an economic strategy to combat the deleterious impacts of globalization on local economies, and as a social strategy to combat the growing alienation and insecurity felt in public space’. A combination, therefore, of economic and social objectives.

These social objectives have become more acceptable since the 1980s when local government began to accept ‘marketing and the reconstruction of the notion of citizenship or belonging’ (Hughes, 1999, p. 121), and in the 1990s an ‘attitudinal change admitted the inclusion of pleasure as a formal objective of public sector intervention’ (Hughes, 1999, p. 123).

It remains, however, easier to justify expenditure on civic events through economic data, perhaps enhanced by quantifiable social benefits or hard facts. As Hughes (1999, p. 122) states, ‘Quality of life strategies also held out the promise of local popularity, although the disbursement of the public’s taxes on ‘partying’ has drawn its critics’.

De Bres and Davis (2001) suggest that certain events, which may primarily be aimed at attracting tourists, can also have a positive impact on self-identification of the local community and can, through this renewed group identity, enhance the place identity. For this to take place community members need to view the festival as an enjoyable community-based event rather than as a money making tourist attraction.

The event studied by De Bres & Davis (2001) was developed with the goal of promoting ‘a sense of community, kinship and place’ in the region. Despite there being no economic or tourism objectives the event was very successful in attracting new visitors to the area and generating income for the local community. This supports Fredline & Faulkner's (2000) suggestion that 'happy residents attract tourists'.

If the primary objective of the event is community involvement, entertainment and 'fun for fun's sake' then an additional positive outcome is likely to be increased economic activity and tourism. This focus on social benefits for local people may in fact be more successful in the long term than events designed to attract tourists which often have negative impacts on local communities.

Despite the growing interest in events as a place marketing tool, the provision of entertainment, culture and the arts has traditionally been a non-mandatory requirement for local authorities (Borrett, 1991) and, therefore, may be one of the first expenditure items to be cut in times of tight budgetary control. This implies that some civic events may only be used when there is 'spare cash' as a treat for the local people, rather than as part of a strategic plan designed to meet clear objectives. This is a missed opportunity to add an important component to urban regeneration and place marketing strategies (Nykiel & Jascolt, 1998; Hughes, 1999; Van Gessel, 2000).

The difficulty with obtaining funding has been a problem for the Blackburn events team in that, 'Ad hoc arrangements for funding over the last two years has made forward planning, marketing and attracting sponsorship for the events problematic', (Turner, 2001, p. 2). As the events had been funded from the Authority's core budget, which is under constant pressure to cut costs, expenditure on this type of activity is seen as a luxury. Therefore, real and tangible benefits needed to be shown and measured (Turner et al, 2001).

The non-strategic use of events also suggests that local authorities are unlikely to utilise marketing information systems to gather information on the effectiveness of their events (other than in basic economic and attendance terms) and therefore fail to justify the event programme in terms of the positive impact on civic pride and quality of life. This had been a problem at Blackburn as Turner et al (2001, p. 2) note, ‘Although this was the second year that a major programme of events was delivered, no research had been previously undertaken either to demonstrate demand or to measure impacts’. The staff, management and politicians involved in delivering events in the Blackburn area were convinced of the benefits, but did not have the data to convince other decision makers in the Local Authority.

Although the hosting of events by local authorities is discretionary they are required to evaluate all their services using the current ‘Best Value Review’ framework. The purpose of central government’s Best Value concept is to provide a framework to define value for money and quality of service delivery in UK local government. The process involves in depth analysis and comparison, diagnostic activity and an improvement plan. This is done through the application of the four Cs described by Liddle (1999) as: Challenge (need for the service, objectives & resource implications); Compare (application of performance indicators, research, analysis and improvement); Consult (with the community); and Compete (most efficient & effective means of delivering the service). Any evaluation of local authority events, therefore, needs to fit within this framework and in particular provide information for the ‘challenge’ and ‘compare’ stages of the process.

The importance of the Best Value process for event evaluation is supported by the Marketing, Events and Tourism Manager for Blackburn. She states that , ‘Although it can be argued that we are not supplying a statutory front line service, in some ways this made it more important that we built best value principles into the (*event impact*) research to give the most credibility to the findings from a local authority viewpoint’ (Turner et al, 2001, p. 2).

Evaluating The Impact Of Events

The necessity of measuring the impact of events for monitoring, control and evaluation purposes is agreed upon by the majority of authors (Getz, 1997; Dwyer et al, 2000a; Gnoth & Anwar, 2000; Jones, 2001; Bowdin, McDonnell, Allen, & O’Toole, 2001; Breen, Bull, & Walo, 2001) but a review of recent literature shows that the methods used and the aspects of the event being measured vary considerably,

The tendency to focus on economic impacts appears to be an extension of tourism impact research. Economic benefits have been the subject of much discussion and a variety of measurement frameworks have been devised. The measurement of simple visitor expenditure data has been extended by taking into account ‘destination switching’ (Jones, 2001), ‘net-economic-benefit analysis’ (Gnoth & Anwar, 2000), ‘inscope’ expenditure (Burns & Mules, 1986) and the effects of diary or interview recall on expenditure reporting (Faulkner & Raybould, 1995; Breen et al, 2001).

However, it is also recognised that economic measurement is not sufficient to evaluate the intangible benefits or impacts of an event (Dwyer et al, 2000a, Bowdin et al, 2001). Jones (2001) suggests that a focus on direct expenditure benefits will produce an incomplete picture, even if ‘switching’ and other negative effects are incorporated. A comprehensive list of the intangible costs and benefits of events are incorporated into the Dwyer et al framework (Table 1).

Once the impacts to be measured have been identified a research methodology is required, which will gather the information. There are a variety of methods available which need to be selected and combined to produce a complete picture. These range from surveys, focus groups and observation (Getz, 1997; Watt, 1998; Bowdin et al, 2001) to aerial photography to gain attendance figures (Raybould, Mules, Fredline & Tomljenovic, 2000). They also involve a number of stakeholder groups including non-attendees (Getz, 1997). In order to gain robust reliable data a sampling method, which ensures representation of all sub-groups and minimum bias, is required (Bearden, Netermeyer, & Mobley , 1993).

O’Neill, Getz, and Carlsen (1999) suggest that marketing research techniques can be effectively used to understand spectator perceptions of event quality and success and they suggest a combination of skilled participant observers using a systematic framework and more quantitative visitor surveys. Blackburn Local Authority already had in place a local resident research panel and observers at the event. It was necessary, therefore, to develop the quantitative survey instruments to complement these qualitative techniques.

Dwyer et al (2000b) highlight the essential role of survey instruments in event/convention assessment and forecasting and suggest that these methods have been neglected. However, Fredline and Faulkner (2000) successfully used a three-part survey instrument which included a multi-item attitude Likert scale. This measured the positive and negative impacts of the event being studied and was combined with further survey data to give a fuller picture of the local community's reactions to the event.

One of the most frequent applications of economic tools to arts, culture, and events has been economic impact analysis. The focus of such studies has been to convince policy makers and the general public that the arts should be supported not only for their artistic value but also for their economic contributions (McHone & Rungeling, 2000). Dwyer et al (2000b) also suggests that the evaluation 'framework' could be used to inform government of the 'deservedness' of different events in receiving public funding. These driving forces behind impact analysis, although worthy, understate the importance of social benefits. When evaluated objectively they are not only useful in justifying expenditure on the event, but also help in 'selling' the area and the event organiser (the Local Authority) to the community.

Impact studies undertaken by local authorities are usually carried out before the event and, as policy focus quickly moves on after the event, it is rare to find a thoroughgoing post hoc cost-benefit evaluation of an event's success (Jones, 2001). The importance of studying the longer-term effects of the events is recognised and that these effects will be felt by local people (whether or not they attended) and also community groups and local businesses (Ritchie & Smith, 1991). This would, therefore, require a system of ‘follow up’ research undertaken at set time intervals.

Although there has been significant research into the economic impact of events and some studies have developed frameworks for measuring more intangible effects (Fredline & Faulkner, 2000) there has been little published discussion of methods for measuring the intangible social constructs such as civic pride, quality of life and social belonging. In order to develop suitable techniques for evaluating these impacts an understanding of attitude measurement methods is required.

Attitude Measurement

Historically attitudes have been measured by observing behaviour by indirect questioning, the performance of objective tasks, and physiological reactions, although direct assessment by means of self-report devices has been the most common (Churchill, 1999).

Most constructs in marketing research are too complex to be measured effectively by a single-item scale and multi-item scales are necessary for appropriate reliability and validity assessment (Paul Peter, 1979). This is the case with a composite construct such as ‘civic pride’. The question could be asked as a single item ‘how proud are you of the local area?’ but this would not encompass all the facets of civic pride and would not allow for validity and reliability tests.

Bearden et al, (1993) compiled over one hundred multi-item measures for marketing research developed since 1964. Although their text covers a wide variety of constructs being measured none are similar enough to ‘civic pride’ to adapt for this research. However, the statement/question forms and scaling methods were studied, along with methods for development and testing, to learn from previous successful measures. This development of specific scales for each construct and/or situation is recognised as preferable to using general scales or relying on existing instruments (Crespi, 1977; DeVellis, 1991). Churchill (1979) expressed the importance of developing reliable and valid scales for measuring marketing constructs to avoid much of the criticism of marketing research (at that time). To do this a number of stages need to be followed (Figure 1).

In developing the multi-item instrument it is necessary to consider a number of factors. The choice of scale (rating, ranking, Likert etc) will depend on the development time, the respondent’s ability, the constructs being measured, and the administration method (McDaniel & Gates, 1998, Churchill, 1999). It is suggested that the response choices are balanced (positive and negative) unless prior research has shown more responses at one end of the spectrum. There is also a trade-off to consider in the number of response categories. Too few will not give a richness of response, whereas too many will affect the respondent’s ability to differentiate between them. Finally consideration needs to be given to the inclusion or not of a neutral and/or don’t know response (McDaniel & Gates, 1998).

In marketing research Likert scales are commonly used to distinguish strength of opinion as they are quick and easy to construct and easy to administer by self-completion, phone or face-to-face. In developing a Likert scale it is necessary to state the opinion, attitude, belief in clear terms but the items do not have to span the range of weak to strong, as they would in a Thurstone or Guttman scale. This range is achieved through the Likert response options, for example, ‘strongly agree’ to ‘strongly disagree’. Ideally the scale development process outlined by Churchill (1977) should be followed when developing Likert scales in order to add to the reliability and validity of the scale, however, in reality the scales are often developed jointly by the researcher and client making use of focus groups (McDaniel & Gates, 1998).

Development Of The Survey Instrument

The development of the impact evaluation tools for the Blackburn events incorporated Watt’s ‘15 Cs’ of event evaluation (Watt, 1998:76) adapted to fit with the requirements of the local government Best Value Review framework.

The objectives of the survey undertaken were to provide data, which could be combined with other information, to evaluate the two events in terms of net economic gain to the area and the effect, if any, on local people’s attitude to the Blackburn region. The Local Authority had processes in place to gather attendance figures, attendee perceptions of the event (face-to-face interviews) and focus group/resident panel qualitative data. However, these tended to be done in an ad hoc manner to provide anecdotal evidence for the success of the events. The Regeneration and Marketing Department, in control of the event programme, suspected that these free civic events did not produce sizable economic benefits to the region but were however of value for their social benefits. These benefits needed to be proven and if possible quantified in order to justify the continuation of the events budget and in order to satisfy the requirements of the Best Value Review framework.

It was determined that a number of survey instruments would be required in order to include all stakeholders and that, for ease of analysis, these should consist largely of closed questions, which could be numerically coded.

Six different questionnaires were developed:

1. Pre-event survey of attitudes to the Blackburn region
2. Survey of event attendees & participants (characteristics, expenditure, motivation, opinions on benefits and problems associated with the event).
3. Survey of non-attendees (characteristics, reasons for not attending, opinions on benefits and problems of the event)
4. Survey of local businesses (characteristics, effect of event on short and long-term turnover, opinions on benefits and problems of the event)
5. Survey of sponsors, community groups (characteristics, effect of event on future involvement, opinions on benefits and problems of the event).
6. Post-event survey of attitudes to the Blackburn region

These required minimal adaptation for each of the two events. The major difference being the duration of the event.

The development of the attitude measurement components of the survey instrument (questionnaires 1 and 6) is detailed below. The other areas are not discussed in this paper.

Attitudes to the Blackburn Region

Lee, Sandler, & Shani’s (1997) discussion of attitudes to event sponsorship can be adapted to reflect the relationship between the Local Authority definition of the event and consumer-related attitudinal constructs. This then helps to identify the areas of attitude, which need to be measured in order to assess the event’s impact. The three main constructs, which could be measured, are the attitudes towards the event itself, the attitudes to the Local Authority (L.A) as provider/sponsor of the event, and the effect of the event on attitudes towards the region (Figure 2).

The Local Authority were evaluating attitudes towards the event using the resident panel and qualitative interviews, therefore the survey only included a short section to provide quantitative data to enhance the other methods (Figure 3).

The second attitudinal construct, ‘attitude towards the Local Authority’, would only have been worthy of research if one of the main objectives had been to improve residents’ perceptions of the Local Authority and if they had therefore clearly branded the event. This was not the case and was therefore omitted from the survey.

From discussions with the Regeneration Department in the Local Authority it became clear that an important objective for local government generally, and therefore for the events, was improving local people’s (and the wider community’s) perceptions of the Blackburn region. From existing literature (Hughes, 1999; Harcup, 2000; De Bres & Davis, 2001) and further discussion with the Local Authority it was decided that these attitudes could best be measured by the construct of ‘civic pride’. As there is a clear link between perception and attitude, in that perceptions, experience and learning interact to create or change attitudes. It is possible, therefore, to measure underlying attitudes through items considering perceptions. The local residents' perceptions of the Blackburn area were taken to reflect their beliefs and feelings about the area and hence their attitude to Blackburn measured in terms of civic pride. In order to quantify civic pride a multi-item scale was developed following the stages outlined in Figure 1.

Once the construct of civic pride had been defined an item pool was generated using previous, mainly qualitative, research conducted by the Local Authority. The items were based on adjectives describing the Blackburn region and put in the form of a simple statement. A five point Likert scale was then selected for ease of response and analysis. This initial item pool consisted of twenty-nine statements which were evaluated by an expert panel (local authority personnel and academics) resulting in seven positive and seven negative statements (Figure 4).

As previous research had not identified a known correlated item with which to assess construct validity, an additional open question was included which asked the respondent 'how do you feel about the Blackburn region?'. This could then be used, after coding into positive and negative comments, to correlate with the results of the multi-item attitude scale score. It could also provide terminology that could be incorporated as new items in an improved scale.

The scale should then have been tested on a sample to check for validity and reliability before conducting the full-scale survey. However, this was not possible due to time and financial resource constraints dictated by the Local Authority. This research, therefore, can be seen as forming the last two stages of the scale development process (Figure 1), in that the survey results were used to evaluate the scale and to suggest improvement and modifications for future use.

Once a measure for civic pride had been developed it was decided that a study needed to be undertaken before and after each event in order to measure changes in the construct. Longitudinal studies for measuring the impact of events have also been used by Mihalik and Simonetta, (1998) and Ritchie and Smith, (1991).

There are many uncontrollable environmental and individual factors which could have an impact on a person’s level of civic pride (weather, mood, press coverage etc). In order to measure, as far as possible, the changes due to the events being studied, the survey measured civic pride levels several weeks before each event and then immediately afterwards. Local media was also monitored during these periods to identify some of the other potential influences on the findings.

Sampling Method And Survey Administration

Sample sizes for each part of the survey were determined by a number of factors. Initially it was hoped to undertake a probability sample using a 95% confidence level with a 5% margin of error calculated assuming a ‘worst case’ proportional split of P=0.5. This gave a total sample size of 384. However, as the survey was to be repeated on four occasions it was not possible within the given resources to conduct this many interviews.

The sample size for the attitude surveys were, therefore, set as large as possible given the resources available. These were 120 for each of the four surveys. As the resulting samples were no longer large enough to produce a representative sample if chosen at random, the sampling method was adapted to include quotas based on the age, gender and ethnicity characteristics of the Blackburn region. This was obtained from the Local Authority's demographic data. The total number of 480 completed surveys was more than sufficient to undertake the validity and reliability checks required to evaluate the multi-item scale.

The four attitude surveys were undertaken by telephone interview four to six weeks before and two to three days after each event. Numbers were randomly selected from telephone directories and the householder screened on the quota characteristics. The interviewers continued this process until the quota was filled.

These sample sizes and methods, although not ideal, were made as valid as possible within the given constraints and therefore provided a practicable process for the Local Authority to follow.

The response options on the questionnaires were all numerically pre-coded to allow for easier data entry onto pre-prepared spreadsheets. The few open questions were entered verbatim and coded by the researcher where necessary.

Results of the survey

The results of the data analysis from all the sets of questionnaires were presented to the Local Authority in tabular and graphical format with brief explanations. This information was then incorporated into the event evaluation report produced by the Marketing and Regeneration Department.

The attitude change component of the research used one questionnaire administered at four different times to gauge changes in attitudes to the Blackburn area. Although some of the reported changes can be accounted for by the two events, it is recognised that many other factors may also have affected the findings.

The responses on the multi-item scale were coded numerically (using reverse coding for negative statements) and summated for each respondent to give an overall score for civic pride level. These scores were then investigated and grouped into three categories determined by considering the minimum and maximum scores. A respondent who ticked ‘no opinion’ for every item would have scored 42, a respondent who had answered negatively on all items would have a total score of between 14 and 28 and a respondent answering positively on every item would score between 56 and 70. The three groupings were therefore chosen to represent ‘low civic pride’ with a score of 28 or less, ‘neutral’ requiring a score of between 29 and 55 and ‘high civic pride’ requiring a total score of 56 and above.

The frequency of response for each category was then plotted over the four time periods (Figure 5).

These findings suggest that Arts in the Park (AiP) may have had a marked effect on attitudes to the area as negative feelings decreased after the event and positive feelings increased. Unfortunately the strength of attitude change was not mirrored by the Fiesta.

In order to test the levels of civic pride before and after the events the differences between the sample means were investigated using t-tests. The results (Table 2) indicate that there was an increase in mean civic pride levels after the Arts in the Park festival as the null hypothesis of no difference between means can be rejected at the 99% confidence level. However, a difference between civic pride levels before and after the Fiesta was not proven at an acceptable level of confidence (p=0.21). The increase in civic pride levels from before Arts in the Park to after the Fiesta can be accepted at the 88% level of confidence.

There is, therefore, some evidence to suggest that the positive effect of the combined events may have prevented a return to the pre-event more negative attitudes. This could suggest that a sustained programme of events may maintain positive changes in attitude.

In order to check for validity in the civic pride measurement the survey also asked for open comments on feelings about the area. The comments were initially coded into the 6 categories shown in Table 3. It can be seen that 3% of respondents mentioned events positively in responding to this question. These unprompted references to council events support the link between a positive attitude to the region and the events programme. Events were not mentioned negatively, however, it is recognised that an unsuccessful event is just as likely to have a negative impact on attitude to the area.

In order to make the open statements more easily comparable with the multi-item scale findings they were then recoded into the 3 categories of ‘negative’ (combining worsening & negative), ‘neutral’, and ‘positive’ (combining improving, positive and positive events). Their frequency was then plotted over the four time periods (Figure 6).

These findings again show a positive change in attitude after each event and also suggest that the effect is short term. The difference between the effect of Arts in the Park and the Fiesta are minimal.

The two measures show similar patterns, of increased numbers of residents with positive attitudes and decreased numbers with negative attitudes, after each event. Unfortunately this tends to be reversed a month after the event. Although the overall trend does appear to be a positive change in attitude as the low levels before both events are not regained. The responses to feelings about Blackburn are generally more negative than those recorded using the civic pride scale, although the events swing these from an overriding negative majority to a slight positive majority.

Assessment Of The Civic Pride Scale

With the results of the civic pride measurement scale obtained from the sample of Blackburn residents, it was possible to evaluate the validity and reliability of the scale using the techniques discussed in Figure 1 stages 6 and 7. These checks were completed using the full sample from the four attitude surveys, giving a total of 480 responses.

Validity And Reliability

In order to test that the construct being measured is actually ‘civic pride’ a number of tests can be undertaken. The first was to check for face validity using a panel of experts to evaluate the items to see if they ‘looked’ like suitable measures. The second method was to use the coded answers to the open question on ‘feelings towards the Blackburn region and check for any correlation between this and the total multi-item scale score.

The correlation coefficient was calculated as 0.441. This shows a strong positive correlation without being too close as to suggest that the multi-item scale is superfluous (Churchill, 1979).

In order to assess how well the items in the scale measure the construct in question the inter-item correlations are investigated. The average of all the inter-item correlations is 0.27. This is acceptable and is close to the exemplary level of 0.3 for each item (Bearden et al, 1993).

The average inter-item correlation is also calculated for each item to ascertain which items, if any, do not represent the construct being measured. The results show that all but one item achieve an acceptable average of 0.2 or more (Table 4). The statement ‘Blackburn is ordinary’ (correlation average of 0.103) does not appear to adequately represent the construct civic pride.

A new average of all inter-item correlations was calculated with Item C removed giving the value of 0.295 and, therefore, showing a significant improvement in validity.

Removal of item M, the next lowest scoring item, however, did not significantly improve the all items average giving a new value of 0.305.

The correlations of each item score with the total score for that respondent show a similar pattern. Item C and M have the lowest correlations, however, item N may also be a candidate for removal (Table 5).

In order to test the predictive validity of the scale the questions need to be asked of a sample of people who are known to have high levels of civic pride or a closely related construct. It can then be ascertained whether or not the scale accurately predicts their civic pride category. This would require a known method of measuring civic pride or a closely correlated construct. As no suitable methods have been identified the test was not undertaken in this research, although the correlation with the scores from open statements indicates validity. Predictive validity is rarely the most important kind of validity as 'what the measure measures is more important than whether it predicts accurately (Churchill, 1999).

It is not suitable, in this case, to measure reliability through stability over time as the scale is designed to measure changes over time in the construct. Therefore, reliability is measured through equivalence (internal consistency of the set of items) using coefficient alpha.

$$\text{Coefficient alpha} = \left\{\frac{\text{No of items}}{\text{No of items-1}}\right\} \text{ x } \left\{1 - \frac{\text{total of item variances across subjects}}{\text{var of total scores across subjects}}\right\}$$

Coefficient alpha = 1.077 x 1 – (13.571 / 61.779)

= 0.840

The alpha coefficient of 0.84 shows very good internal consistency in the scale and is well within the range viewed as exemplary (0.6 and above is acceptable and 0.8 and above exemplary) (Bearden et al, 1993).

This internal consistency was not improved significantly by the removal of item C. Coefficient alpha increased to 0.86 only. This is due to the sensitivity of coefficient alpha to the number of items in the scale. It is, therefore, only possible to improve the reliability and validity of the scale by the removal of item C if it is replaced by one or more items with higher validity.

Principal component factor analysis with unrotated factor loadings was undertaken giving encouraging results, which suggested that the items measured only one factor of importance (Figure 7). The total amount of variance explained by factor 1 was 65%.

However, again item C was the exception with a low factor coefficient score of -0.049 (the other items were all above -0.1).

The scale is reliable and appears to be valid given the above tests however, further tests on criterion/construct validity should be undertaken to ensure that 'civic pride' is accurately represented by the items chosen.

The scale could be improved by the omission of item C, ‘Blackburn is ordinary’ and it is suggested that to increase reliability this is replaced by other items developed from the responses to the open question on feelings towards the Blackburn region. A content analysis of these statements suggests that the new items could be constructed using the terms ‘dirty/scruffy’, ‘going downhill’, ‘fun’, ‘rough’ and ‘safe’. The new scale would then need to be tested and reassessed.

Conclusions And Recommendations

Although the civic pride measurement scale was being piloted in this study the results are very encouraging. This is both in terms of validity and reliability of the scale and in its use for demonstrating the positive social impacts of civic events. However, in order to conclude that the events had a significant impact on levels of civic pride it would be necessary to conduct a larger survey and to consider in more detail those other factors affecting changes in the construct, which occur during the survey time period. During this research there was substantial negative media coverage of racial tension in surrounding areas which may have had an effect on the findings.

From the Local Authority’s point of view, the research was successful in providing quantitative data demonstrating a link between a sustained programme of events and levels of civic pride in the area.

The interim report on the events programme, using this evidence, concluded that;

> ‘the benefits of the events programme have been numerous and far reaching for the Borough, particularly in terms of improved image, capacity building in communities and encouraging civic pride. Based on this the report recommended that ‘the successful and established events programmes should continue to be supported’ and that ‘the Council can accrue the maximum economic and social benefits to the borough from a strong and diverse programme’ (Turner, 2001, p. 1).

When asked to summarise the benefits of the pilot research project the Marketing and Regeneration Department stated that;

> ‘The benefits are and will be numerous but essentially it gives us a starting point for future research and a good basis to support the events programme short term/long term. It has also made us analyse in greater depth the true reasons and benefits for delivering the programme and given them a validity. The research is also helpful for putting bids together for external finding’ (Turner & Grimshaw, 2001, p. 3).

The research has also helped to promote the importance of measuring event effectiveness while demonstrating that it does not need to be overly complex or expensive to undertake. Blackburn Local Authority are keen to use the methods again and are hoping to extend the research to the other events in their programme (Turner & Grimshaw, 2001).

It is, therefore, anticipated that the results will complement the quality control procedures laid down in the Best Value Framework and that the methods used will become part of a systematic and consistent procedure for ensuring the effectiveness of Council lead events in the future.

The Local Authority are already convinced that higher levels of civic pride translate into behavioural changes in the population. This manifests itself in terms of less litter, vandalism, and graffiti, a reduction in migration from the area and an increase in community involvement in a variety of activities (Turner, 2001).

Further research using a similar or adapted scale should compare levels of civic pride in event attendees with those of non-attendees. This would give a more focused measure of the effect of attending the event on attitudes. It should also be possible to develop a scale to measure attitude towards the local authority to determine whether branded events can have a positive impact on these feelings.

At a more general level the civic pride measurement scale can be adapted for use as a barometer of feelings about a region, not necessarily linked to events, and can be extended to measure domestic and international tourist perceptions.

To conclude, the study has shown that there is a relationship between positive changes in civic pride and the hosting of this type of event and that changes in civic pride can be measured satisfactorily using a multi-item attitude scale repeated at intervals before and after the event being evaluated.

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Table 1 Costs and benefits for event evaluation

Benefits	Costs
Social benefits: • Community development • Civic pride • Event product extension	*Social costs:* • Disruption to residents' lifestyles • Traffic congestion • Noise • Vandalism • Crowding • Crime • Property damage
Economic benefits: • Long term promotional benefits • Induced development and construction expenditures • Additional trade and business development • Increased property values	*Economic costs:* • Resident exodus • Interruption of normal business • Under-utilised infra-structure

Adapted from Dwyer, Mellor, Mistilis, & Mules, 2000a, p. 179

Figure 1 Stages in developing multi-item scales.

1. Clearly define what is to be measured (the latent variable or construct eg civic pride) using a review of theory, literature.
2. Generate an item pool (the statements, terms, questions which make up the multi-item scale). These all need to reflect the latent variable of interest and at this stage should consist of twice as many as will be needed in the final scale Avoid exceptionally lengthy items, double-barrelling and ambiguity. Include an even number positive and negative items to avoid acquiescence bias (but also avoid coding confusion)
3. Determine assessment format (type of scale).
4. Use an expert panel to review the item pool by rating the relevance of each item, evaluating clarity & conciseness and suggesting omitted items. Modify as appropriate and necessary
5. Decide whether to include any validation items to check for respondent bias (e.g. social desirability) or to assess construct validity through a known correlated item.
6. Test on a sample and evaluate items to check construct and criterion related validity and reliability. This can be done through inter-item correlations, variance, item means, and coefficient alpha. If all the items are measuring a single construct there should be high inter-item correlation. Item to total correlations will suggest any items which should be eliminated.
7. Optimise scale length using the results of item evaluation and bearing in mind the trade-off between reliability (larger number of items) and brevity for the respondent.

(adapted from Churchill, 1979; Churchill, 1999; Bearden et al, 1993; DeVellis, 1991)

Figure 2 Attitudinal constructs for local authority events.

Local Authority perspective		**Consumer Perspective**
Event	→	Attitude towards event
Local authority branding	→	Attitude towards L.A.
Local authority’s objectives	→	Attitude towards the region

Figure 3 Attitude towards the event

Have you enjoyed the ‘Arts in the Park’ festival ?
(please tick one box only)

Very much	5	To some extent	4	Don’t know	3	Not much	2	Not at all	1

Why ? Please give reasons for your answer to Q1.

Figure 4 Multi-item scale to measure civic pride

For each of the following statements about Blackburn please state whether you strongly agree, agree, have no opinion, disagree or strongly disagree.

(Tick one box only for each statement.)

Blackburn …..	I strongly agree	I agree	I'm not sure/ no opinion	I disagree	I strongly disagree
..is a good place to live	5	4	3	2	1
..is thriving	5	4	3	2	1
..is ordinary	1	2	3	4	5
..is poor	1	2	3	4	5
..is improving	5	4	3	2	1
..is prosperous	5	4	3	2	1
..is declining	1	2	3	4	5
..is exciting	5	4	3	2	1
..is unwelcoming	1	2	3	4	5
..is depressing	1	2	3	4	5
..has a strong sense of community	5	4	3	2	1
..is unattractive	1	2	3	4	5
..is supportive	5	4	3	2	1
..is unfriendly	1	2	3	4	5

Figure 5 Changes in civic pride levels

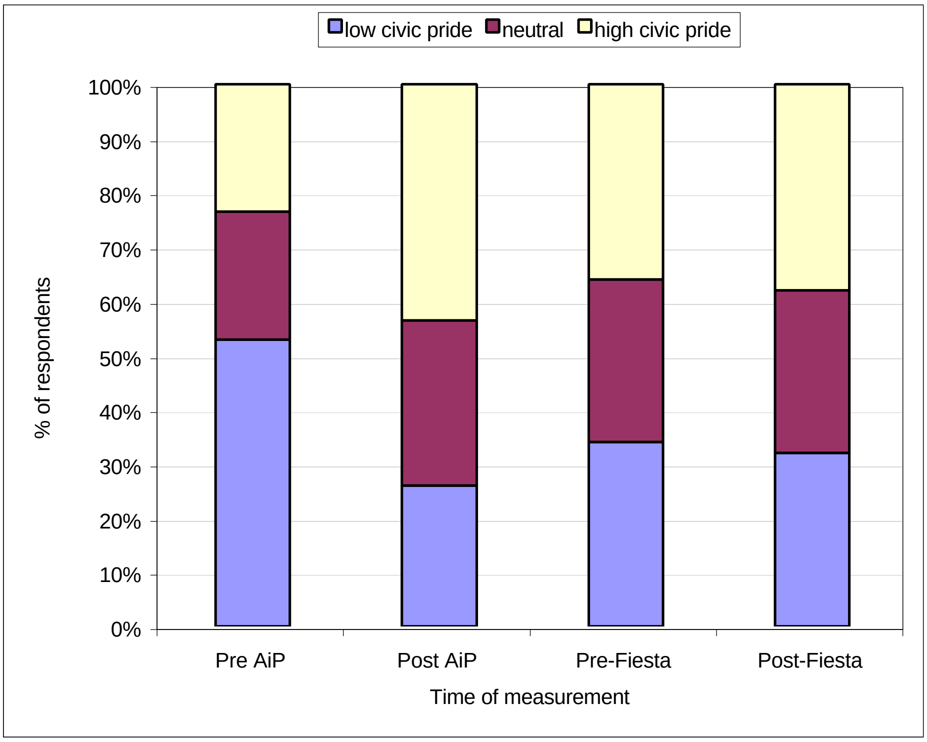

Table 2 T-test results.

H_o: Pre-event μ= Post-event μ; H_a: pre-event μ < post-event μ

	Pre AiP with Post Aip	Pre Fiesta with Post Fiesta	Pre Aip with Post Fiesta
T-statistic	-2.28	0.82	-0.95
P value (one-tail)	0.01	0.21	0.12

Table 3 Coding of open-ended statements on feelings towards Blackburn

Description of Blackburn	% Frequencies			
Coding and *example*	Pre Aip	Post AiP	Pre Fiesta	Post-Fiesta
Worsening *Eg 'shopping has declined, market has deteriorated'*	23.5	6.1	8.7	4.0
Negative comment *Eg 'run down, a lot of litter'*	23.5	24.4	38.0	31.0
Neutral/no opinion Eg 'some parts ok, some bad'	35.3	33.6	34.7	24.0
Improving Eg 'becoming better, improving'	0.0	6.9	2.0	8.0
Positive comment *Eg 'like everything, nice park, churches, good council'*	17.6	26.0	16.0	30.0
Events mentioned positively *Eg 'nice place, getting better, events a fabulous idea'*	0.0	3.1	0.7	3.0

Figure 6 Changes in feelings towards the Blackburn Region

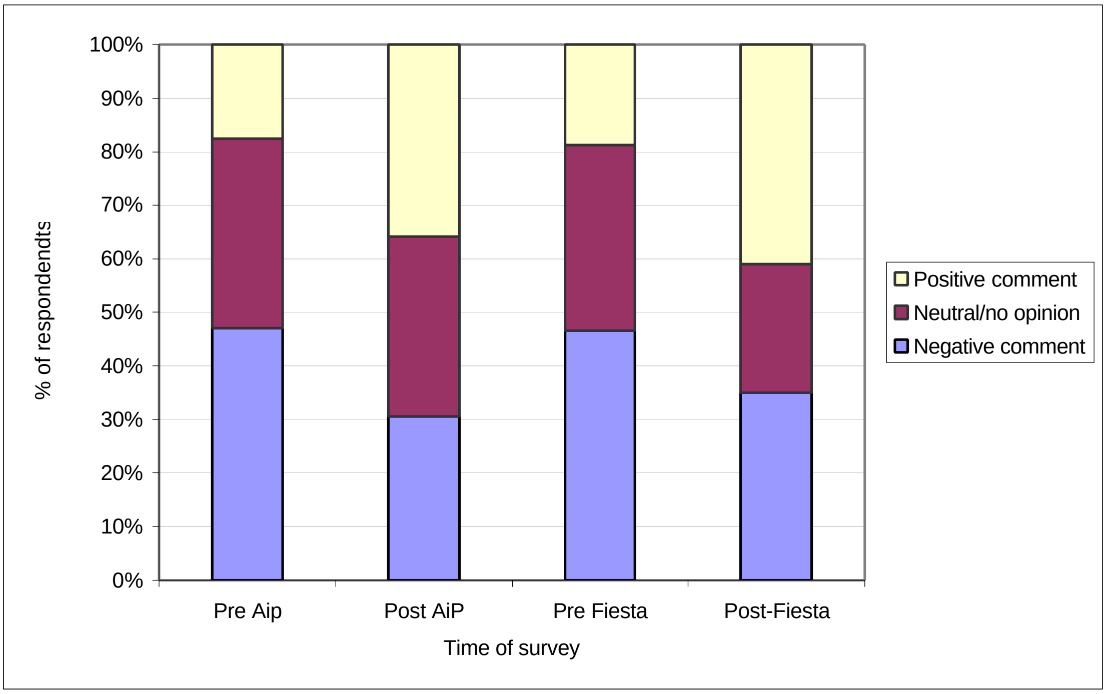

Table 4 Ordered inter-item correlations

Item	Statement	Average Inter-item Correlation
C	is ordinary	0.103
M	is supportive	0.220
N	is unfriendly	0.235
K	has a strong sense of community	0.258
I	is unwelcoming	0.261
D	is poor	0.263
H	is exciting	0.266
F	is prosperous	0.291
A	is a good place to live	0.296
B	is thriving	0.300
L	is unattractive	0.305
E	is improving	0.307
G	is declining	0.315
J	is depressing	0.327

Table 5 Correlation of each item to the total scale score.

Item	*A*	*B*	*C*	*D*	*E*	*F*	*G*	*H*	*I*	*J*	*K*	*L*	*M*	*N*
R	0.62	0.61	0.28	0.56	0.64	0.60	0.65	0.56	0.56	0.67	0.56	0.64	0.48	0.51

Figure 7 Factor analysis scree plot of all scale items.