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Inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategy making in Australian states and territories

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Abstract

This research examines the impact of inter-organisational relationships of public sector events agencies on events tourism strategy making within Australian state/territories. The global expansion of events tourism and sustained interest in networks and relationships as conduits to strategy underpin this topic. Although public sector institutional arrangements exist in many countries including Australia to develop events tourism, there is no known empirical research of inter-organisational relationships for strategy making in this domain. Against this background, the research problem of the thesis is:

How and why do inter-organisational relationships of public sector events agencies impact upon events tourism strategy making within Australian states and territories?

Based on a review of themes and issues within the two parent theories of tourism strategy and inter-organisational relationships, a theoretical framework and four research issues are developed. These issues are:

RI 1: *How does the public sector institutional **environment** impact upon events tourism strategies and the inter-organisational relationships that shape them, and why?*

RI 2: *How do events tourism **strategy forms and processes** reflect and influence events agencies' inter-organisational relationships, and why?*

RI 3: *What are the **forms and characteristics** of events agencies' inter-organisational relationships for shaping events tourism strategies, and why?*

RI 4: *What are the **incentives and disincentives** for events agencies to engage in inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategy making, and why?*

Because this research explores a new field within events tourism, it adopts a realism paradigm to uncover the 'realities' of events agencies' inter-organisational relationships and strategies. Two qualitative methodologies are adopted: the convergent interview technique (Carson, Gilmore, Perry, & Gronhaug 2001b; Dick 1990) and multiple case research (Perry 1998, 2001; Yin 1994). The convergent interviews serve to explore and refine the theoretical framework and the four

research issues investigated in the multiple case research. These cases are represented by the inter-organisational relationships of events agencies in six Australian states/territories.

Findings about the public sector institutional environment (research issue 1) show that events tourism strategies are influenced by different public sector policies and influences, the organisational arrangements for events tourism, the roles of events agencies and the lifecycle phase of events tourism in each state/territory. In relation to events tourism strategy forms (research issue 2), reactive/proactive strategies that respond to or address arising events or opportunities are common with a limited application of formal planning strategies. However, events agencies' strategy processes do reflect a range of strategic activities of importance. Inter-organisational relationships of events agencies (research issue 3) are typified by informal, government-led networks that influence, rather than develop, events tourism strategies. Finally, the importance of a number of incentives and disincentives for agencies to engage in inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategy making is established. The final conceptual model depicts the themes within all four research issues and links between them to address the research problem.

The conclusions of this research make a major contribution to events tourism theory and build upon theories in tourism strategy and inter-organisational relationships. Further research opportunities are presented by these conclusions and the conceptual model which may be explored using other methodologies or alternative research contexts. Practical implications of the research for policy makers and agency executives relate to policy-strategy linkages, public sector organisational arrangements for events tourism, strategy forms and processes and frameworks to engage stakeholders in inter-organisational relationships for strategy making. Knowledge of incentives and disincentives for these inter-organisational relationships also provides a platform for events agencies to reflect upon and revise their modes of governance for events tourism strategy making.

Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to the memory of my father, D'Arcy James Stokes whose love, respect and intelligence shaped my aspirations and to whom I promised that I would complete this doctorate. Dad's belief in me remains a great inspiration. It is also dedicated to my mother, Hazel, for her love and support and the willpower to succeed that she instilled in me.

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Statement of original authorship

This work has not previously been submitted for a degree or diploma at any university. To the best of my knowledge and belief, the thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the thesis itself.

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Signature of candidate   Date

Endorsements

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Signature of Principal Supervisor   Signature of Associate Supervisor

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Date   Date

1   Introduction

1.1   Background to the research

The global drawing power of events has prompted city, regional and national governments to establish policies and institutional structures to capitalise on events as tourism phenomena (Getz 1997a; Mules 1998). Indeed, the number of these events escalated during the 1990s to almost saturate the market (Lyon 2000). Yet there is sustained interest in their potential to enhance destination image and visitation (Carlsen & Williams 1999). In effect, the impacts of events are diverse and despite an emphasis on economic outcomes, socio-cultural and environmental impacts are also evident (for example, Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell, & Harris 2002; Faulkner 1993; Fredline & Faulkner 2000; Getz 1997a; Hall 1992). However, there has been little enquiry into the strategy processes for events tourism in Australia and elsewhere. The dynamics of how strategies or directions are formulated and who is involved in developing events tourism within destinations is not well understood.

Within Australia, institutional arrangements for events tourism development have existed for almost two decades. Public sector events development agencies exist in all states and territories to attract, acquire, promote and/or manage major events with tourism and economic potential (Jago & McArdle 1999; Mules 1998). While some of these agencies operate as state-owned corporations, others are housed within tourism authorities. Furthermore, in some states, the tourism authority and events agency each have responsibility for events of different size and scope. These public sector organisations combine with the private sector including independent event organisations to shape events tourism in each state. Consequently, there is a need for partnerships between all stakeholders in the events tourism domain.

These partnerships are cited by public sector events development agencies as central to the success of events tourism in Australia (Eventscorp 2001). To date, the nature of inter-organisational relationships and their contribution to events tourism strategies has not been investigated. However, an emphasis on relationships and networks as pathways to strategic success dominates the management and marketing literature (Bund Jackson 1985; Gronroos 1990, 1997; Gummesson 1987, 1996; Hakansson 1982; Hakansson & Johanson 2001). Similarly, there is an interest in

collaborative partnerships and alliances in tourism to advance the adoption of sustainable tourism strategies (Hall 1999; Jamal & Getz 1997; Reed 2000; Weaver 2000). Despite some emerging insights to the role of networks and relationships in organising individual events (Erickson & Kushner 1999; Larson 2002; Long 2000), scant knowledge exists of how these relationships shape events tourism. This research addresses that gap.

1.2 The research problem and research issues

This research of inter-organisational relationships in events tourism has two foundations: the expansion of events tourism (Section 1.1) and the sustained interest in relationships and networks as contributors to business and marketing strategies (Section 2.3.4). For this research, inter-organisational relationships may incorporate forms of dyadic relationships and/or sets of inter-connected relationships that underpin the directions of events tourism. Because there is little existing knowledge of this topic, the research problem is:

> *How and why do inter-organisational relationships of public sector events agencies impact upon events tourism strategy making within Australian states and territories?*

The examination of prior theory in Chapter 2 of this thesis covers the two parent theories (Perry 1998, 2002) of inter-organisational relationships and tourism strategy. A preface to that discussion is the examination of public sector institutional arrangements for events tourism strategy in Australia (Section 2.1.2). Here, the diversity of policy and organisational arrangements, including structural links between events and tourism agencies, provides an umbrella environment for the research. Within that environment, the nature of events agencies' relationships with other organisations and their influence on strategies for events tourism are investigated.

In turn, the theoretical research framework and research issues presented in Chapter 2 include three components. These are the public sector institutional framework for events tourism; the form of events tourism strategies and processes adopted for strategy making; and, finally, the nature of inter-organisational relationships and incentives and disincentives for these relationships.

Four research issues are investigated within the theoretical framework (Figure 2.10 in Chapter 2). The first research issue is broad and explores the influence of the public sector environment on events tourism.

> *RI 1: How does the public sector institutional **environment** impact upon events tourism strategies and the inter-organisational relationships that shape them, and why?*

Within this public sector environment, the purposes of events investment, government policies and organisational arrangements for events tourism, events agencies' roles and public sector influences on events tourism are the themes of interest. The lifecycle phase of events tourism in each state or territory is a further theme explored.

The second research issue within the theoretical framework (Section 2.5) focuses on how inter-organisational relationships are linked to different forms of events tourism strategy and processes for strategy making. Strategies are considered in a broad sense to account for both descriptive and prescriptive forms of strategy (for example, Mintzberg 1994b) at major event, city, regional and state levels. While the literature provides conceptual models for events tourism strategy (Getz 1991b, 1997a; Gnoth & Anwar 2000), no empirical studies of strategy in this tourism domain were identified. In addition, the ways in which these strategies and processes affect or are affected by events agencies' inter-organisational relationships is not understood. Thus the second research issue (Section 2.5) is:

> *RI 2: How do events tourism **strategy forms and processes** reflect and influence events agencies' inter-organisational relationships, and why?*

To better understand the relationships of public sector events agencies that represent the cases explored in this research, the third research issue reviews their forms and characteristics in the context of events tourism strategy making. The possibility of agencies drawing upon either dyadic relationships or networks of two or more connected business relationships (Anderson, Hakansson, & Johanson 1994) is embraced here by the term 'inter-organisational relationships'.

Hence this third research issue (Section 2.5) is:

> *RI 3: What are the **forms and characteristics** of events agencies' inter-organisational relationships for shaping events tourism strategies, and why?*

The fourth and final research issue looks at one aspect of these inter-organisational relationships that is especially relevant in understanding their contribution to events tourism strategies. This issue focuses upon those incentives and disincentives for relationships that are highlighted within both the network literature and the convergent interview data used to refine the investigation. Specifically, this fourth research issue (Section 2.5) is:

> *RI 4: What are the **incentives and disincentives** for events agencies to engage in inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategy making, and why?*

Together, these four research issues provide the platform for the data collection and analysis and the subsequent response to the research problem. This empirical work results in the range of contributions presented in Table 1.1 which are discussed in more depth in Chapter 5 of this thesis. Essentially, these contributions are: events tourism strategies are impacted by different public sector policies, organisational arrangements and influences; reactive/proactive strategies are most dominant for events tourism with a limited application of existing conceptual models for events tourism strategy; informal, co-operative networks dominated by government influence, rather than develop, events tourism strategies; and, a range of incentives and disincentives for inter-organisational relationships influence stakeholder input to strategy making.

Table 1.1   **Contributions on the impact of inter-organisational relationships on events tourism strategies in Australia**

Research Issue	Contributions for each of the four research issues
1	Within the public sector environment, events tourism strategies and the relationships that shape them are impacted by: • four different policy frameworks • separate, mixed and merged organisational arrangements of events and tourism agencies that impact on strategies • a range of public sector influences • the events tourism lifecycle within the state/territory
2	Forms of events tourism strategy and processes for strategy making show: • a dominance of reactive/proactive strategies, a secondary emphasis on formal strategic planning and some evidence of incremental and politically driven strategies. • some strategic activities for events tourism at state, regional, city and major event levels, but little integration of strategy across these levels • a limited application of conceptual models for events tourism strategy at state level • the impacts of events agencies' inter-organisational relationships
3	Forms and characteristics of inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategy making show: • a corporate government orientation in agency's relationships for strategy • soft, unstructured and informal networks dominated by government influence rather than develop strategy • some stability or permanency and at least one primary cluster led by agency executives. A climate of cooperation is dominant, with little or no evidence of collaborative strategy making.
4	Eight incentives and five disincentives for inter-organisational relationships in events tourism strategy making are influential.

Source: based on Table 5.1 in Chapter 5.

1.3   Justification for this research

This research is justified from theoretical and practical perspectives for both events tourism and the wider tourism sector. From a *theoretical perspective*, it responds to an identified opportunity to explore the theory of inter-organisational relationships in events tourism as an emergent research setting. Much attention is now focused on the events tourism phenomenon, yet empirical investigations of events tourism strategies (Getz 1991b, 1997a; Gnoth & Anwar 2000) and the relationships that shape them are not present within extant literature (Section 2.2). From the *practical perspective* of government and industry bodies, the research is justified because of the scope, growth, impacts and organisation of the events sector and the recognised importance of partnerships and networks as success factors in events tourism (Eventscorp 2001; Victorian Major Events Company 2001). These theoretical and practical justifications for the research are now discussed in more detail.

Theoretical justifications. Despite the growth of interest in events tourism (Jago & Shaw 1998), the overall body of empirical research within this sector remains limited (Formica 1998). Studies of events tourism increased with the advent of the *Festival Management and Event Tourism* journal (now *Events Management*) in 1993. Yet a limited range of research exists with little enquiry into environmental and socio-psychological issues impacting on events and few qualitative studies in this field (Formica 1998). Hence a quest for new understandings of issues and processes that shape events tourism is justified.

There are no known empirical investigations of public sector strategy making for events tourism and studies of networks or relationships in the events and festival domain are limited (Collin-Lachaud & Duyck 2002; Erickson & Kushner 1999; Larson 1998a, 1998b, 2002; Wolfe, Meenaghan, & O'Sullivan 1998). Moreover, strategy research in tourism is limited (Athiyaman 1995) and there is a need for more knowledge about inter-organisational relationships and networks in tourism(Pforr 2002; Selin 1993; Tremblay 1998, 2000a; Watkins & Bell 2002). Interpretations of strategy and models for strategy formulation in tourism are mostly prescriptive (Hall 2000) and there is a need for further empirical research about patterns and processes that accompany tourism strategies other than planning (Mintzberg 1994b).

A focus on prescriptive models for strategy making is also evident in events tourism literature (Getz 1991b, 1997a; Gnoth & Anwar 2000). These prescriptive models prevail despite a shift towards collaborative visioning in tourism through learning and incremental strategy processes (Faulkner 2003) and growing acknowledgement of the role of chaos in shaping tourism futures (Faulkner 2000; Faulkner & Russell 1997; McKercher 1999). In this context, an understanding of inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategies and the nature of these strategy processes can inform tourism and events tourism theories.

Practical justifications. From the perspective of industry practitioners and policy makers, there is continued interest in the expansion and organisation of events tourism (Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell, & Harris 2002). Therefore, this research is supported by the ability of events to generate tourism, the scope, growth and impacts of events and the levels of public and private sector investment in optimising links between events and tourism.

Events as tourism generators. This role of events and festivals as a tourism catalyst is widely studied (for example, Faulkner 1993; Getz 1991a, 1997a; Mules 1998; Ritchie 1984; Syme, Shaw, Fenton, & Mueller 1989). While tourism goals do not always provide the initial impetus for staging events and festivals at the community level (Yoon, Spencer, Holecek, & Kim 2000), these links often emerge over time. Special events may be staged for community, regional, national or international audiences with goals of tourism development, urban development, community and/or cultural celebration (Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell, & Harris 2002; Getz 1997a).

Similarly, many community festivals do not commence with a tourism charter, yet linkages between these festivals and tourism subsequently develop (Arnold 2001; Getz 1991b, 1997a; Hall 1992; Smith & Jenner 1998; Yoon, Spencer, Holecek, & Kim 2000). A range of patterns for festival tourism development have been identified at regional level (Arnold 2001). Finally, many large conferences and meetings are not designed to stimulate tourism, yet there is intense competition between destinations to stage these events where the tourism expenditure of delegates is substantial (Hiller 1995; Oppermann & Chon 1997). Thus links between events and tourism are well established.

Scope and growth of the sector. The global scope and growth of events tourism has accompanied its adoption as an international strategy for tourism development (for example, Gnoth & Anwar 2000; Mules 1998; Ritchie & Ju 1987; Robertson & Guerrier 1998). Together with the ability of events to stimulate visitation, their destination image building capabilities are widely documented (Carlsen & Williams 1999; Dimanche 2000; Getz 1991b, 1997a, 1999; Hall 1989a, 1992; Mossberg 1999). Recognition of the tourism potential of events and festivals (for example, Getz 1991b, 1997a; Hall 1992; Jago & Shaw 1994, 1998; Janiskee 1996) has also prompted increased academic interest in their characteristics, market potential and marketing processes; but most of all, their impacts (Formica 1998).

In particular, estimates indicate that the number, diversity and popularity of festivals and special events in the early 1990s grew over previous decades (Getz 1991b). As the decade progressed, more than 1,000 festivals were added each year in the United States (Janiskee 1996). There has been a similar growth of festivals in the United Kingdom and growing festival and event attendance in Canada (Getz 1997a). Indeed, the proliferation of events in all states of Australia has led to some concern about market saturation and individual revenues of events (Jago & Shaw 1994). In the city of Brisbane, during a three month period in 1998, there were six major arts festivals, one major community festival and 22 smaller community festivals (Lyon 2000). This growth of festivals combined with the increased incidence of special events, hallmark events and business tourism events demonstrates that this is a sector that has enjoyed a 'dramatic increase in popularity' (Jago & Shaw 1994, p. 2).

Impacts of events tourism. This increased frequency in the staging of events and related tourism creates impacts on all dimensions of the macro-environment. These impacts of events are physical, ecological, economic, social, cultural and political in nature. As tourist attractions, events are associated with specific impacts that include: enhancing a destination's profile and tourist numbers; serving as a development catalyst and/or animator of existing attractions; generating economic impacts based on event visitor expenditure; serving the political objectives of individuals, cities and governments; and, finally, creating socio-cultural and psychological impacts in host communities (for example, Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell, & Harris 2002; Faulkner 1993; Getz 1991a, 1991b, 1997a, 1999; Hall 1989a, 1992, 1993; Hiller 2000; Mules 1998; Ritchie 1984).

While interest in the social impacts of events is building (for example, Fredline & Faulkner 2000; Hall 1992; Hodges & Hall 1996), the economic impacts of events continue to dominate discussion in industry and academia (Formica 1998).

It is this ability of major events to serve as destination image makers and attract sufficient numbers of non-residents to generate substantial new revenues that has fuelled government interest in the events tourism partnership. The image making potential of events is enhanced by the worldwide media coverage that mega-events attract (Jago & McArdle 1999). Yet there is continued speculation among government, industry and academia about the methodologies employed to assess the economic impacts of events (Faulkner 1993; Mules 1998) and cynicism about the reported value of some events to the economy (for example, James & Kerr 1995; Wright 2000).

In effect, the proportions of tourists attending large, city based festivals and events (often sponsored by local government authorities) can still be small, sometimes ten percent or less of total visitation (Lyon 2000). Nevertheless, these visitors can still represent an important source of additional profits to a city's tourism sector. The potential use of events as a means of overcoming seasonality problems in destinations is also emphasised (Getz 1991b, 1997a; Hall 1992; Ritchie & Beliveau 1974). However, the impacts of events on tourism are complex (S Gregg [Tourism Queensland] 2002, pers. comm., 1 February) and care must be taken to understand both the benefits and costs of events to the tourism sector.

Organisation for events tourism. Links between events and tourism require careful planning. Apart from the range of impacts listed above, some practical implications of events also exist for tourism marketers. For example, if overseas travel wholesalers are continually advised of heavily booked accommodation due to major events in a destination, this may lead to other tourist destinations gaining wholesalers' preferences (S Gregg [Tourism Queensland] 2002, pers. comm., 1 February). Given the diversity of potential impacts, governments, their political leaders and appointed agencies often assume a leadership role in promoting events. Thus events are tourism policy instruments of the public sector in many countries.

Two primary drivers of government involvement are their economic goals and political objectives. Firstly, motivations behind the intense competition to win the right to stage events lies not just in their spill-over expenditure within the economy (Mules 1998), but also their ability to enhance the political agenda of the government of the day (Hall 1992, 1993, 1994). 'Events may change or legitimate political priorities in the short term and political ideologies and socio-cultural realities in the long term' (Hall 1989b, p.236). At the micro-political level, there is evidence of the impacts of events on the careers of political figures. For example, former Premier of Victoria, Jeff Kennett is said to have effectively used an events agenda that included the Australian Formula One Grand Prix and the Bledisloe Cup. He used events to 'create an image of himself as a winner - and his rival, New South Wales Premier Bob Carr, as the loser - in the race for events' (Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell, & Harris 2002, p.34).

With these diverse motivations, many nations, regions/states and cities have established events divisions within public sector tourism bodies or created independent events agencies (Jago & McArdle 1999) to acquire, develop and market events. Canada, New Zealand and Australia are just three examples of nations that have strongly pursued events tourism development with specific agencies, personnel and strategies (Getz 1997a; Gnoth & Anwar 2000; Mules 1998). While the majority of special events are operated by sport and cultural bodies and some are initiated by private promoters; public sector events agencies attract, promote, fund and/or manage major events with substantial economic potential.

In Australia, all states and territories have government departments and/or statutory authorities with an events development charter (Mules 1998). The roles of these event development agencies vary between states, but their primary aims are to attract and retain events with significant economic returns to the state/territory, to underwrite, sponsor or provide grants for events development, to stage or manage major events and to facilitate event management and marketing by the events sector (Department of State Development 2001; Eventscorp 2001; Queensland Events 2001). There is also a consistent reference by these agencies to building partnerships and networks to enact their charter (Eventscorp 2001; Territory Business Magazine 2001; Victorian Major Events Company 2001).

In brief, the events-tourism linkage and the scope, growth and impacts of events tourism underpin the involvement of the state in this sector. While economic and political impacts

of events tourism prompt governments to support events, the structures and approaches of the public sector to strategy making for events tourism deserve further investigation. In addition, the role of partnerships and networks between public sector events agencies and other stakeholders in shaping strategies is not well understood. As a result, *practitioners* in events agencies have little research on which to base future approaches to relationship formation for events tourism strategy.

This research in six Australian states/territories provides insights to government policies, organisational arrangements and agency roles in strategy making for events tourism. Moreover, it highlights events agencies' interpretations of strategy and the importance placed on different strategic activities in shaping events tourism. It offers government and industry leaders an understanding of the characteristics of agencies' inter-organisational relationships including their structure and membership, formality, leadership, climate and communication.

These insights lead to practical recommendations for policy makers and agency managers in Chapter 5. Finally, an identification of agencies' incentives and disincentives for engaging in inter-organisational relationships enables industry and community stakeholders to reflect on factors that affect their involvement in events tourism decisions. An overall outcome of this research is knowledge of how strategy processes and inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategy making can be refined in Australia. Thus this research is justified from both theoretical and practical perspectives.

1.4 Methodology

Because this research addresses new fields of enquiry in events tourism, it adopts a realism paradigm to uncover the 'realities' of inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategies (Easton 1998). As a consequence of this realism perspective, two qualitative methodologies have been chosen (Perry, Riege, & Brown 1998). The convergent interview technique (Carson, Gilmore, Perry, & Gronhaug 2001b; Dick 1990) constitutes the first phase of the methodology, followed by multiple case research (Yin 1994) that investigates the inter-organisational relationships of events agencies in six Australian states/territories. These methodologies are described in detail in Chapter 3 and merely introduced here.

Firstly, the convergent interviews among events tourism experts (Section 3.3) are used to explore and refine the four research issues and the theoretical framework for this research. Next, the multiple case research examines the relationships of the focal events development agencies in Queensland, New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia, Western Australia and the Northern Territory (Section 3.4). These cases were selected on the basis of replication logic (Perry 1998; Yin 1994) and the agencies' willingness to participate in the research. An interviewer's guide and rules and procedures for the conduct of the study were used by the researcher in implementing this case research (Perry 2001). Based on the data collected during late 2002, processes of data reduction, display and analysis were undertaken with the assistance of N-Vivo software devised for qualitative analysis.

The investigation adheres to established strategies for managing the reliability and validity of convergent interviews and case research (Healy & Perry 2000; Perry 1998). As a result, theories are built and analytic generalisations (Yin 1994) are made about the impact of inter-organisational relationships on public sector events tourism strategies in Australia.

1.5   Definitions

Because definitions of terms may vary, the definitions for concepts within this thesis are now provided. Only those terms contained within the statement of the research problem need to be considered here. Other definitions, including a discussion of different event types such as special and hallmark events, mega-events and festivals, are outlined in the literature review of Chapter 2.

Events. The term 'events' is used to encompass special events, hallmark events, mega-events and festivals in this thesis (Getz 1991b, 1997a; Hall 1992). Business tourism events such as conferences, exhibitions and meetings are usually developed by convention bureaux or centres that are generally membership based organisations with different sets of relationships to those of public sector events agencies in Australia with which this research is concerned. This distinction is made clear in the delimitations of Section 1.6 and the discussion of definitions in Section 2.1.1. For this reason, use of the term 'events' in this research does not encompass these business events. A more detailed discussion of the nature and scope of different event types can be found in the literature review of Chapter 5.

Events tourism. For the purposes of this thesis, 'events tourism' refers to the systematic planning, development and marketing of events as tourist attractions and the phenomena of tourists travelling to destinations to attend or participate in events as either primary or secondary attractions (Getz 1991b). While other purposes for events investment by governments are noted in this thesis, the research problem is concerned with strategy making to achieve the tourism purposes of events.

Inter-organisational relationships. Relationships between events agencies and other government and non-government organisations may be viewed as either dyadic relationships, interactions or networks (Gummesson 1994b). Therefore, the term 'inter-organisational relationships' is used to encompass all forms of relationships between these public sector events agencies and other organisations/groups with a stake in events tourism strategy making. These relationships move beyond dyadic relationships to networks when two or more inter-connected business relationships may be observed (Anderson, Hakansson, & Johanson 1994). In the data collection phase of the research, the researcher allowed for both dyadic and network relationships to be identified within agencies' inter-organisational relationships.

Strategy. To facilitate theory building in this research, no one definition of strategy was provided during the data collection phase. However, a flexible definition of strategy was adopted to allow for both descriptive and prescriptive forms of strategy to emerge in the findings. For this research, strategy is defined in Section 2.2.1 as 'the strategic positions and approaches of organisations or destinations that are derived from prescriptive or descriptive strategy processes or an amalgam of perspectives'. As a result, all schools of strategy identified by Mintzberg (1994b in Section 2.2.1) and amalgams of these schools are encompassed by this definition.

Events agencies. Those agencies within the public sector that have responsibility for developing, acquiring and/or managing major events are represented by the term 'events agencies'. No assumptions are made about the particular departmental or organisational location of these agencies in the adoption of this term. Some agencies operate within tourism authorities, others reside within Premiers' or Chief Ministers' departments and some are government owned corporations. More details on the nature of these agencies in Australia are provided in Section 2.1.2.

1.6   Delimitations of scope with justifications

This research has two delimitations of scope. Firstly, the research examines inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategies using public sector events development agencies and divisions within government as the focal organisations in each of six states/territories. In effect, the research is based on a view that these agencies usually assume a leadership role for the development of events tourism at state level. While this view is justified on the basis of tourism objectives of major events acquired by these agencies, the impetus for events tourism development can also come from other stakeholders in a destination. Other starting points for research of this nature might be city or local government authorities or marketing bodies, state tourism authorities or independent events organisations.

In this research, the decision was taken to examine the inter-organisational relationships of events agencies and to triangulate data on these relationships through interviews with tourism authorities and event organisations. Because the unit of analysis is 'inter-organisational relationships', knowledge of the role of other agencies in shaping events tourism strategies can be gleaned from this research.

A second delimitation of this research relates to the focus on events tourism strategy as a concept that is distinct from, but related to policy (Section 2.2.1). This research is not directly concerned with understanding or exploring public policy networks, that is, those networks that are functionally defined by policy formulation and implementation (Pforr 2002). While agencies' relationships for strategy making may also impact upon public policies related to events tourism, network members may be concerned with either policy or strategy or both of them.

This focus on strategy networks rather than policy networks meant that the parameters of events tourism strategy relative to policy had to be established during data collection. In turn, the existence of policies and strategies that affect events tourism were separately explored within the interviewer's guide. Hence this research addresses events agencies' relationships for events tourism strategies, but it does not identify membership of related policy networks or overlaps between networks engaged in policy and strategy making.

1.7 Outline of the thesis

The thesis adopts the five chapter structure originally advocated by Perry (1998; 2002). Chapter 1 includes: an introduction and background to the research, justification for the research, a brief discussion of the literature, the research issues and theoretical framework; the methodology; definitions; delimitations of scope; and, conclusions to the chapter. Chapter 2 highlights issues within the parent theories of tourism strategy and inter-organisational relationships. It concludes with the theoretical research framework and an explanation of each of the four research issues explored in this thesis.

Chapter 3 then explains the methodology of the research. Topics within the chapter are: a justification of the realism paradigm and qualitative methodologies, a discussion of the convergent interview process and its results, an overview of the case study methodology, approaches to managing the quality and credibility of the case method, and finally, an explanation of the multiple case research design, including processes for data collection and analysis.

Chapter 4 of the thesis categorises the data collected and analyses patterns and themes both within cases and across cases relative to prior theory drawn from the literature and the convergent interviews. Finally, Chapter 5 presents conclusions about the data and links the findings in Chapter 4 to the boundaries of knowledge and theory highlighted in Chapter 2 of the thesis (Perry 1994). The implications of findings and conclusions for both theory and practice are discussed. In this vein, recommendations for industry leaders are presented together with platforms for new research in events tourism. For the reader's reference, this thesis adopts the style conventions of the Australian Style Manual (Commonwealth Department of Finance and Administration 2002).

1.8 Conclusions

The foundations of this research have been presented in this first chapter. The introduction and background to the research indicate the growth and impacts of events tourism that has prompted public sector involvement in events tourism. The recognised value of partnerships by organisations in the events sector and the limited body of knowledge about inter-organisational relationships was highlighted. A

growth of interest in collaborative relationships in tourism was noted alongside the lack of research into the contribution of these relationships to events tourism strategies. From these observations, the research problem was articulated for this research. This chapter has also included a brief overview of the research methodology, justifications for the research, definitions of key terms, delimitations of scope and a brief outline of the content of the thesis. The stage is now set for the development of research issues from the literature in Chapter 2.

2   Literature review

Based on the foundations of the investigation established in Chapter 1, this next chapter aims to review and highlight issues within the literature that relate to the research problem. This review underpins the theoretical framework and research issues and provides the foci of subsequent data collection and analysis.

The chapter has six sections, as indicated in Figure 2.1. Firstly, Section 2.1 explores the forms and categories of special events and linkages between events and tourism. A review of Australian's public sector institutional framework for events tourism development and the involvement of public sector agencies in different types of event tourism provide the context for this research. Next, Section 2.2 discusses the existing schools of thought on tourism strategy, planning traditions and processes including the emphasis on collaborative strategic processes for sustainable tourism. This section also highlights the limited theory on events tourism strategy and issues that impact upon strategy processes in this domain.

Section 2.3 then outlines the theoretical foundations and forms of inter-organisational relationships (with an emphasis on relationship marketing and network theories), incentives and disincentives for these relationships and factors that may influence the relational environment. Section 2.4 explores these focal themes in the context of tourism and events literature. Finally, the theoretical framework and research issues for this research are presented and justified (Section 2.5) and followed by chapter conclusions (Section 2.6).

Figure 2.1   **Outline of Chapter 2 with section numbers and their linkages**

Introduction (2.1)

Context: Events and events tourism (2.1)

Defining events, festivals and events tourism (2.1.1)

Australia's institutional framework for
events tourism development (2.1.2)

Parent theory one:

Tourism strategy (2.2)

* Strategy concept in tourism

* Tourism strategy, planning models and
processes

* Stakeholder involvement in tourism and
events tourism strategy processes

* Models and contexts for events tourism
strategy processes

Parent theory two:

Inter-organisational relationships **(2.3)**

* Theories of inter-organisational
relationships

* Characteristics of relationships and
networks

* Incentives and disincentives for
relationship or network participation

* The nature and dynamics of the
relationship or network environment and
atmosphere

* Inter-organisational relationships
in *tourism* and *events tourism* (2.4)

Theoretical framework and research issues (2.5)

Conclusions (2.6)

2.1 Context: events and events tourism

In this section, the events sector and its linkages with the travel and tourism sector is profiled to establish the industrial context of this research. Firstly, definitions of specific types of events including special, hallmark and mega-events are offered together with definitions of related entities such as festivals and the meetings, incentives, conventions and exhibitions (MICE) sector. This section then further highlights the growth of the events tourism phenomenon in the context of Australia's institutional environment for planning, developing and marketing events. Finally, the major categories of events tourism and the relative involvement of public sector event agencies in developing these categories are explored.

2.1.1 Defining events, festivals and events tourism

In order to grasp the nature of events that underpin events tourism, definitions of various forms of events need to be considered. Different meanings have been attributed to terms like 'special events', hallmark events', 'mega-events' and 'festivals' within the literature (Getz 1989, 1997a; Hall 1992; Jago & Shaw 1998; Ritchie 1984). On occasion, the related sector of meetings, incentives, conventions and exhibitions (MICE) is also grouped under the events and events tourism banners. Getz (1989; 1991b; 1997a; 2000) discusses this definitional dilemma and concludes that it is not possible to arrive at one universal or standard definition that classifies which types of events are 'exceptional or special' (Getz 1997a, p. 24). However, there is some consensus on the defining characteristics of different events and so understandings of each event type can be established for this research.

Special events. In relation to special events, confounding factors in arriving at some definitional consensus include the different scale or significance of special events within communities and their tendency to change in meaning and significance over time (Getz 1997b; Goeldner & Long 1987; Hall 1992). This lack of an accepted definitional framework presents challenges for those involved in events planning, development and research (Jago & Shaw 1998).

The most widely cited definition of a special event (Getz 1991b, 1997a; Hall 1992; Jago & Shaw 1998; McDonnell, Allen, & O'Toole 1999) is that developed by Getz that emphasises the extraordinary nature of special events:

> A special event is a one time or infrequently occurring event outside the normal program or activities of the sponsoring or organising body. To the customer, a special event is an opportunity for a leisure, social, or cultural experience outside the normal range of choices or beyond everyday experience (Getz 1991b, p.44).

Although this definition embraces both supply-side and market perspectives, it fails to operationalise the term and articulate the relationship between a 'special event' and other terms (Jago & Shaw 1998) that are used interchangeably with it, that is, hallmark events, major events, mega-events and festivals. Nevertheless, there is a continued emphasis on event size or scale by authors seeking to define events, despite the absence of any commonly accepted measure for this purpose (Jago & Shaw 1994, 1998). Thus the Getz definition (Getz 1991b) cited above is considered to be most appropriate for this research.

Hallmark events. In comparison with special events, definitions of hallmark events usually refer to their timeliness or uniqueness and imply a scope or size that draws tourism to destinations and their host communities. In effect, they are special events of a distinctive nature within a community. For example, Ritchie (1984, p.2) referred to hallmark events as major events with a tourism impact:

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

Based on this definition, some celebrated, historical events are classified as hallmark events. In Australia, the bicentennial celebrations and major sports events such as the America's Cup and Commonwealth Games were hallmark events (Hall 1992). These events marked Australia's entry to the international events domain with inbound tourism serving as a natural adjunct to their staging. The 2001 Goodwill Games in Brisbane represents a more recent example. Yet hallmark events are not restricted to large scale events in urban centres (Hall 1992). For the purposes of this research, hallmark events

may be of local, regional or national significance and may include especially unique festivals at a community level.

Mega-events. In order to differentiate a mega-event from hallmark or other special events, three scales are used - volume (at least one million visits), psychology (a 'must see' event) and cost (more than 500 million Canadian dollars) (Marris 1987). Sport, sometimes with the support of the performing arts, is most often the focus of such events, for example, the Olympic Games. The commercial and political value of attracting these events underpins the level of government and private sector support provided (Mules 1998). This support can include decisions to underwrite the event, develop infrastructure and provide sponsorship.

As mega-events are generally of world importance and profile with a major impact on a host city's image (Law 1993), it is this event category that has been most commonly explored for its tourism impacts (Bramwell 1997a; Getz 1991b, 1997a, 1999; Goeldner & Long 1987; Hall 1992; Hiller 2000; Marris 1987; McManus 1999; Ritchie & Ju 1987; Roche 1992). Overall, mega-events should yield 'extraordinarily high levels of tourism' (Getz 1997a, p. 6). However, high levels of impact may be observed in one or more of the following outcomes within the host region: tourism volumes, visitor expenditure, media coverage leading to a heightened awareness or more positive image, infra-structural or organisational developments (Getz 1997a, 1999). This picture of mega-events as those events with unusually high impacts is adopted for the purpose of this research.

Festivals. When compared with other event types, festivals are usually viewed as celebrations with more diverse goals. Festivals may be referred to as community or cultural celebrations (Falassi 1987; Getz 1991b, 1997a; Goldblatt 1997) as well as tourist attractions (Getz 1991b, 1997a). This recognition of the potential for festivals to enhance cultural identity is longstanding (Mayfield & Crompton 1995).

> Festivals are about identity, whether personal or social, and they are the context and the process of creating links between people in the community, as well as between the community and the wider national and cultural environment (Farber 1983, p.34).

Within communities, festivals are often staged with some regularity (for example, annually or bi-annually) and feature community participation (Getz 1991b) as well as a

thematic celebration (Falassi 1987). Therefore, members of the public are participants in the festival experience, while at special events, the public are usually spectators, either as residents or tourists (Tourism South Australia 1990).

As tourist attractions, the potential of many themed, community festivals is limited by their size and drawing power. While many festivals attract tourists for a finite period, other types of events may leave tourism legacies long after their staging (Yoon, Spencer, Holecek, & Kim 2000). Festivals are directed towards a variety of target markets and range from local celebrations for indigenous people through to tourist attractions for mainstream populations (Walle 1993). Consequently, although festivals do contribute to events tourism, they are less frequently included in the activities of government funded, events agencies because of the larger economic returns of special events, hallmark and mega-events for a destination.

Business events. Another field related to events tourism that is not directly managed by events agencies is the meetings, incentives, conventions and exhibitions (MICE) sector. This is a separate, but related field to the events tourism domain. Because these activities represent the regular business of convention bureaux, many of them do not exhibit the characteristics of special events (Getz 1991b). Yet these events do draw significant visitor markets and so they are sometimes referred to as business tourism (Northern Territory Tourism Commission 2002). The role of visitor and convention bureaux in the acquisition of business events means that event development agencies are less involved in this domain.

Within business events, the terms 'conventions' and 'conferences' have some interchangeable use. However, conventions and congresses are larger assemblies of people drawn from academia, associations, political parties, clubs or religious groups. Conferences are smaller to allow people to confer or interact, while meetings are the smallest of events, serving as private business affairs (Getz 1997a). Essentially, conferences, congresses and conventions involve a form of travel where the meeting provides the travel motivation. Yet delegates also assess the characteristics of the destination in their decision-making (Hiller 1995). As a result, site selectors for business events assess all facets of competing destinations from both delegate and tourist perspectives.

Events tourism. Based on the established linkages between tourism and the event types explored in the preceding discussion, Getz (1997a, p. 16) has identified two related meanings of events tourism, based on its management and its tourist market segments:

(1) The systematic planning, development and marketing of events as tourist attractions, catalysts for other developments, image builders and animators of attractions and destination areas. Events tourism strategies should also cover the management of news and negative issues.

(2) A market segment consisting of those people who travel to attend events, or who can be motivated to attend events while away from home.

To facilitate the interaction of the supply and demand components in the above definition, there is a range of events that depend upon supporting elements of the tourism industry. Figure 2.2 profiles these events and their relationships with tourism including linkages between temporary, permanent and ambient tourist attractions (Getz 1991b) that shape an events tourism destination. This set of inter-relationships illustrates the broad industrial framework of events tourism. Note, however, that business events are not embraced by the events agencies studied within this research.

Major markets of events tourism are inferred within those categories of events shown in Figure 2.2. For example, events that are staged within destinations will attract sports enthusiasts, performing arts enthusiasts, business representatives, educational and religious groups, political figures, local communities and other stakeholders. These major categories of events tourism are explored further in Sections 2.1.3 and 2.1.4 of this chapter.

Figure 2.2   **The events tourism industrial framework**

Business, sport, cultural, community, arts/entertainment, educational, scientific, political events

Destination and events tourism marketing

Permanent attractions: theme and outdoor parks, heritage and cultural sites, fairs, civic space, venues, sacred sites

Elements of tourism industry

Special events

Festivals

Hallmark events

Mega-events

Ambient attractions: climate, scenery, environment, hospitality, culture

Elements of tourism industry
Infrastructure
Accommodation
Transport
Tourist attractions
Food and beverages
Retail Shopping
Recreation/Entertainment

Source: adapted for this research from Getz (1991b, p.45).

2.1.2 Australia's institutional environment for events tourism

With the key types of events identified, the next foundation of this chapter is a discussion of Australia's institutional environment for events tourism. The public sector has established institutional arrangements that facilitate the development and promotion of events tourism in Australia. Government funded events agencies or departmental divisions exist in all states to attract major events, each of which supplement those existing events and festivals with tourism potential. In effect, these government agencies combine with venue managers and the independent events sector to shape the events tourism portfolio in each state/territory. However, the role and nature of public sector involvement in events tourism exhibits some differences across Australian states and territories.

Within each state/territory, there are notable differences in the way governments have established structural linkages between events and tourism as well as the charters of public sector events agencies. A variation in emphasis on economic and tourism specific outcomes of events and their socio-cultural impacts can also be observed between states and within states over time. Therefore, an examination of the institutional environment for events tourism in each Australian state and territory provides insights to the role and influence of government in this domain. This analysis guides the later selection of cases from Australian states and territories outlined in Chapter 3.

Western Australia. The first Australian state to establish an events development agency was Western Australia with the creation of Eventscorp in 1986 inside the Western Australian Tourism Commission. An early mega-event for the state was the America's Cup held in 1987 which stimulated hotel development, the growth of international air arrivals and a platform for successful bids for other conventions and events (Getz 1997a). Eventscorp makes overt reference to its tourism orientation stating in its event evaluation criteria that to support and leverage events, 'it seeks information on the extent of the television broadcast into Western Australia's priority and developing tourist markets' (Eventscorp 2001). There is also direct integration of major events into the state's tourism marketing campaign entitled The Best on Earth in Perth. The campaign nomenclature highlights the corporation's emphasis on attracting inbound tourists to capital city events, with problems of isolation and access limiting the economic returns of events outside the state's south-west corner. However, there has been a recent attempt to increase the

agency's regional involvement in events with the opening of a branch of Eventscorp in the city of Bunbury to the south of Perth.

Queensland. With a similar charter and different institutional arrangements, the Queensland Events Corporation (QEC) was formed in 1989 close on the heels of Brisbane's staging of World Expo 88. In contrast to the location of Eventscorp within the Western Australian Tourism Commission, QEC is a government owned company within the portfolio of the Premier of Queensland. As a result, it operates separately to Tourism Queensland which is the statutory body responsible for state level tourism marketing.

In the mid-1990s, strong consideration was given to merging QEC into the state government tourism department (Metcalf 1996), but the organisation was maintained as a separate structure. QEC's charter is 'to create significant economic activity and lift the national and international profile of Queensland through securing and hosting major world class events' (Queensland Events 2001). However, the corporation has also initiated a regional development program that commits funds to local events with economic potential likely to enhance destination and visitor appeal (Queensland Events 2001). This regional initiative responded to longstanding criticism that the corporation, with a $6 million dollar annual budget (Wright 2000) was too focused on south-east Queensland and not enough on regional areas (Metcalf 1996). The call for increased regional events development was first made by the state's Tourism and Small Business Minister in the mid-1990s who pointed to the need for regional events development in order to remain competitive:

> Davidson said 'Queensland needed to take a bigger view of event tourism in light of competition from Victoria. One way to ensure that was to place government resources behind it. He had been concerned that regional Queensland deserved a larger share of QEC funding for hosting events' (Metcalf 1996, p. 2).

Since that time, some regional cities have established dedicated agencies to develop and/or manage and promote local events. For example, there is an events company that reports to the Premier's Department to manage the government's interest in the Gold Coast Indy Car event. Other regional cities such as Toowoomba and Ipswich have also had events agencies or steering committees. However, at state level, the agendas of economic development and tourism development appear to share dual importance in the

charter of Queensland Events Corporation. In effect, the attraction of new business to the state shares equal billing with the destination imaging and tourist visitation outcomes of major events based on the corporation's charter.

South Australia. The Australian Major Events (AME) Company in South Australia was initially established in 1995 as a separate entity to the state's tourism organisation. The statutory authority became an arm of the South Australian Tourism Commission at the end of 1996, following a state government decision to focus more intensively on tourism outcomes of events. AME was created following Victoria's controversial and successful bid to take the Formula One Grand Prix from South Australia where it had been staged for a decade (Mules 1998). The South Australian government estimates that $279 million in economic activity has occurred since AME's inception, with 74 events managed or sponsored by the company during 1999-2000 injecting $110 million to the economy (South Australian Government 2001).

Funding to establish a year-round calendar of major events and festivals was boosted in 2001-02 for South Australia to continue its 'aggressive strategy of actively pursuing, sponsoring and managing world class events' (Olsen 2001, p. 1). In 2001, the South Australian government, through its Australian Major Events Company owned eight events and sponsored a further ten events. These events were drawn from three categories: events that had the capacity to attract large numbers of visitors such as the Clipsal 500, events with large numbers of participants, for example, the Masters Games and, finally, events with inter-state and international media attention like Tasting Australia (Olsen 2001).

In line with the above categories, the outcomes of events emphasised by South Australia are tourism directed and inclusive of both imaging and visitation outcomes. When comparing the goals and objectives of public sector events agencies in different states, the use of the term 'aggressive' is common within their rhetoric and was evident in South Australia (Olsen 2001, p.1)

Victoria. The state of Victoria has also been described as 'aggressive' in its quest to position Melbourne as the sporting capital of Australia (Hamilton 1997; Mules 1998). A political agenda to attract major tourism events to Victoria continues to provide competitive pressure for South Australia and other Australian states. The goal of national

market leadership of the Melbourne Major Events Company (MMEC), created in 1991 by Premier Kennett, heightened the atmosphere of inter-state rivalry that was criticised for its national repercussions (Gans 1996; Mules 1998). Outcomes of this rivalry included overseas promoters receiving inflated fees for the right to host events.

> Attempts by national administrators to forge cooperative arrangements between the states have thus far foundered on the rocks of inter-state competition. This leaves the event bidding process in Australia still very open to exploitation by clever promoters (Mules 1998, p. 202)

The Victorian Major Events Company (VMEC), a successor of Melbourne Major Events Company, is an independent structure that works alongside the Major Events Unit housed within Tourism Victoria. The Victorian Major Events Company states that it 'actively targets and attracts events which provide substantial economic impact and/or international profile for Melbourne and Victoria' (Victorian Major Events Company 2001). The corporation emphasises that its competitive advantage over other agencies comes from its event network (an inner circle of relationships), public support for events and it's world class facilities (Victorian Major Events Company 2001).

In recent times, though, Victoria has been forced to contend with competition from New South Wales with the successful staging of the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games and the development of sports infrastructure in that city. However, there is also evidence of the seeds of inter-State cooperation between Victoria and Queensland via the Equitana (equestrian event) shared on a bi-annual basis with Queensland (M Denton [Queensland Events] 2002, pers. comm., 4 May).

New South Wales. In New South Wales, the institutional setting for events development has been subject to ongoing change over the past decade. Special Events NSW Ltd, which operated from 1993-1995, successfully attracted, supported or managed sixty events with limited staff and funding (Mules 1998). However, a change of government in 1995 led to its replacement by a special events operative within the tourism ministry. The original charter of this special events unit within Tourism New South Wales was more attuned to non-economic as well as economic benefits when compared with its inter-state counterparts. One of its objectives was 'to maximise the economic, social and cultural benefits of events to the government and the State of New South Wales (Mules 1998, p.

203). Between 1996 and 2000, this unit provided the early platforms for a strategic approach to events tourism development (J Allen [University of Technology Sydney] 2002, pers. comm., 26 March).

Following the staging of the Sydney 2000 Olympics, Tourism New South Wales revised its approach to events tourism. Events personnel within Tourism New South Wales and its subsidiary Tourism Sydney now manage, develop and market a portfolio of 'signature events' or recurrent events that 'capture the essence of Sydney and New South Wales' (Tourism New South Wales 2001, p. 44). The Major Events Board within the Premier's department assumes responsibility for sourcing and delivering major, one-off event opportunities for the State. At the level of business events, the Sydney Convention and Visitors Bureau bids for and delivers conferences, conventions and meetings. The newly formed Tourism Sydney assumed a leadership role in drawing together an events tourism strategy at metropolitan level in 2002. Consequently, events tourism planning and development in New South Wales are reliant on both intra and inter-organisational relationships across several government departments and departmental divisions.

Australian Capital Territory (ACT). Unlike other States/Territories, the ACT makes a direct connection between the management and marketing of tourism and events in the title of its agency, the Canberra Tourism and Events Corporation (CTEC). Established as recently as 1997, 'the management of major events with tourism outcomes became a significant part of the corporation's activity during 1999-2000 (Canberra Tourism and Events Corporation 2000a). The corporation delivers four major events in the ACT: Floriade, the Rally of Canberra, GMC 400 and the Canberra National Multicultural Festival. It also manages an events development fund that supports around seventy events in the ACT (Canberra Tourism and Events Corporation 2000a).

CTEC has an objective of maximising social, cultural and economic benefits to new and existing events for the ACT community (Canberra Tourism and Events Corporation 2000b). However, the corporation now concentrates on its small stable of events with a renewed emphasis on the economic viability of this managed portfolio.

Northern Territory. In the Northern Territory, the responsibility for events development has shifted in recent years from the NT Convention Bureau to the NT Major Events Company housed within the Chief Minister's department. Originally formed to manage the V8 Supercar event, NT Major Events is charged with the role of attracting and developing a range of events to the Territory. Like the ACT, the number of managed events is limited and includes the V8 Supercar Series, the Arafura Games, the Finke Desert Classic and the Hidden Valley Motor Races (Northern Territory Tourism Commission 2001). Event recommendations are made to the Chief Minister's Department based on economic benefit and tourism value - national and international, media exposure and social and cultural significance (Territory Business Magazine 2001). However, a community focus with selected events is more evident in the company's rhetoric than in other states/territories.

Support from Territorians or the local community and the Territory government are stated as pre-requisites for attracting events and entertaining citizens from Australia's defence forces is also a recognised responsibility of NT Major Events (Territory Business Magazine 2001). Further support for a limited number of smaller, regional events is provided by the Northern Territory Tourism Commission (NTTC) based on its ability to attract additional domestic and inbound tourists to the region (Northern Territory Tourism Commission 2001). In addition, the Northern Territory has the benefit of an active events development and support function inside the Department of Sport and Recreation that operates alongside NT Major Events and the NTTC to build the Territory's events portfolio. Similar to other states/territories, a shared responsibility for events underlines the need for inter-organisational relationships in this sector.

Tasmania. In Tasmania, the responsibility for events development lies within the Marketing and Major Events Unit of the Department of State Development. Aside from attracting major events that generate direct and indirect economic benefits to Tasmania, the department specifies the parameters of its event interests more specifically than other states/territories. It emphasises several issues: an interest in events occurring over a period of more than one day; a preference for events held in shoulder and winter periods; a preference for niche, special interest, participatory events in sport, arts, multiculturalism, education and recreation; and, finally, those events that attract a large number of participants or supporters to Tasmania (Department of State Development 2001).

Although the Marketing and Major Events Unit is not structurally aligned with Tourism Tasmania, the tourism authority promotes its advice on how to develop and market events that attract significant numbers of domestic and international visitors. The unit also aligns its events policy with the strategic directions of tourism sectors such as accommodation, hospitality and transport; sport, recreation and special interest groups; and, the allied meetings and conventions sector (Department of State Development 2001).

2.1.3 The role of the independent events sector in events tourism

Alongside the development of institutional mechanisms for events development in all Australian states/territories, there is a focus on enhanced governance for organisations managing and marketing major events and festivals. For example, the Adelaide Arts Festival, Brisbane's Riverfestival and Sydney's New MardiGras have boards of directors and executives appointed to oversee the management and marketing of these events to both residents and tourists. More organised structures and approaches for strategic events management have accompanied the private sector's demand for proof of events marketing results including empirical evidence of improved brand equity arising from their sponsorships (Crompton 1993).

In this environment, the events sector is also beginning to recognise the need for increased information sharing between event organisations (Getz 1998) to further their management and marketing skills. In support of this industry interaction, event industry associations exist in some Australian states. The International Special Events Society (ISES) and the International Festival and Events Association (IFEA) have expanded their global membership to include several Australian states, for example, New South Wales, Victoria and the ACT. While these associations demonstrate the industry's recognition of the need for relationships among events organisations, current industry linkages and relationships are not designed to capitalise on the tourism potential of events, especially within sport and the performing arts (Bull & Weed 1998; Craik 2001; Delpy 1998; Department of Industry Science and Resources 2000; Standeven 1998; Stevens & van den Broek 1997). Consequently, the need for inter-organisational relationships between these events organisations, public sector events agencies and tourism bodies is emphasised.

In brief, all Australian states/territories demonstrate a commitment to events tourism development with institutionalised agencies that seek to acquire and promote major events. While tourism expenditure and the economic imperatives of increased business and employment dominate the goals of events agencies, the enhancement of political profile, destination image and cultural growth represent other agency goals. In most states, the responsibility for events development rests with state funded corporations that report to the Premiers department. However, in some states, events development resides within the tourism authority while in others, different types of events are managed by the events agency and the tourism authority. This complexity of public sector arrangements and the contribution of the independent events and festival sector to events tourism underpin the need to recognise the roles of all parties and their intra-sectoral relationships.

2.1.4 Events agencies' involvement in different events tourism categories

Having established the definitions of events and events tourism and the organisational infrastructure for events tourism in each Australian state, this section now focuses upon the involvement of events agencies in *different events tourism categories*. While a range of thematic event categories with tourism potential is considered in this section, the involvement of these agencies is dominant within the two broadly defined events tourism categories of sports tourism and arts or cultural events tourism. These events agencies have a minor role in business events which represent the core business of convention and visitor bureaux.

Thematic event categories and agency support. Although there has been little empirical analysis of the supply of special events (Jago & McArdle 1999), a number of thematic categories for events have been identified. These include cultural/religious events, community celebrations or festivals, food and beverage festivals; arts/entertainment events, sports competitions, business events, educational and scientific gatherings, recreation /amusement events, political/State organised events and private events (Getz 1997a; Jago & McArdle 1999). However, it is logical that not all of these events will attract tourists or a sufficient level of tourist visitation to a destination to warrant the attention of events development agencies.

Events tend to be driven by diverse stakeholders within a community or region and no thematic event category is overtly stated as a priority target by events development

agencies. Although there is a need to withhold strategic information from competing events agencies, the criteria for attracting financial support for events represents the only published evidence of the strategic processes that determine each state's portfolio of events. However, events that actively seek government support represent just a portion of the events within these agencies' portfolios and the agencies do not represent or support all events with tourism potential.

Research conducted among events divisions of Australian tourism authorities in the mid-1990s found that there was little strategic direction for the introduction of special events and many were introduced in an ad hoc fashion by stakeholders within a region (Jago & Shaw 1995). A conclusion was that longitudinal studies of supply-side calendars of events, event timing, location and themes would contribute to a better use of infrastructure and match between event offerings and event demand (Jago & McArdle 1999). In the absence of these data within each Australian state, the event calendars and lists of supported and managed events produced by events agencies give some indication of events within themed categories and the agencies' involvement in each category.

Dominant event categories for events agency support. The above information sources show that sport is the central theme of a large number of events supported, managed or acquired by events development agencies (Eventscorp 2001; Queensland Events 2001; Victorian Major Events Company 2001). Conventions and conferences of an educational, industrial or political nature are also featured in the calendars of each state. Although festivals are the most common type of event globally (Jago & McArdle 1999; Janiskee 1994), cultural celebrations and festivals are fewer in number within the product portfolios of events agencies. This could be attributed to the small size and limited tourism impacts of many festivals discussed earlier. Festivals tend to emerge from the grassroots of the community supported by festival grant schemes of local government, arts ministries or arts development bodies. In the case of entertainment events, the more limited role of public sector events agencies can be explained by the dominant role played by private sector promoters.

Despite this limited role of events agencies in arts events, some of these events do achieve major event status and are managed or supported by events and/or tourism organisations in order to draw tourists from source markets of the destination (for example, Floriade in the ACT and the Adelaide Festival in South Australia). In addition, some cultural events

are initially designed to achieve an international profile or they achieve sufficient stature over time to be toured to other regions or countries. Event promoters play a primary role in organising these international tours (for example, The Edinburgh Tattoo and The Moscow Circus), but public sector events agencies forge relationships with promoters of these events when a substantial tourism impact is envisaged. Examples of such events include major musicals like Cats and Shout that have been staged in Australia's metropolitan cities and promoted in intra-state and inter-state tourist markets.

Linkages between different event categories and tourism. Based on the previous discussion, some broad categories of events are sports events, arts or cultural events and business events of an educational/scientific, industrial or political nature. Because business events are often the primary focus of visitor and convention bureaux (Getz 1997a), it is sports tourism and to a lesser extent, major cultural events that represent the core business of events agencies. Within each category, events must fulfil the criteria of events agencies and tourism bodies in their size and potential impacts to warrant financial or other support.

In each events category, increased levels of interest have been demonstrated in fostering improved linkages with the tourism sector (for example, Bull & Weed 1998; Delpy 1998; Department of Industry Science and Resources 2000; Getz 1997b; Gilbert & Lizotte 1998; Higham 1999; Hiller 1995; Standeven 1998; Stevens & van den Broek 1997). Because sport and the arts represent the majority of the business of events agencies, each of these two events categories is now explored.

Sports tourism. To begin, *sports tourism* or travel to participate in a sports activity, to observe sport or visit a sports attraction (Delpy 1998) has dominated discussions about the need for improved policies and inter-sectoral partnerships since the mid 1990s. The tourism industry now sees sport as an important tourism generator, that is, it is 'a major element in promoting destinations, with over a quarter of holidays now having sports as a prime purpose of the trip' (Bull & Weed 1998, p. 277). In terms of audience size, potential revenue generation and image, sports events are incomparable with other events.

> International sport has become one of the most powerful and effective vehicles for the showcasing of place and for the creation of what the industry calls 'destination image' (Whitson & Macintosh 1996, p. 279).

Such events are larger in terms of actual attendance figures than other event types (Smith & Jenner 1998) and the destination image making potential of sports events is further enhanced by television coverage. For example, the Football World Cup attracted a quarter of the world's population as a viewing audience in 1998, while a television audience of 5.5 billion was noted for Formula One motor racing in 1997 (Smith & Jenner 1998).

Within sports tourism, the events agency's primary concern is with staging and drawing tourist audiences to large scale, televised sports events rather than all incidences of sports tourism. That is, many visitors who play a sport while on vacation do not participate in the context of a public event. Multivariate approaches to investigating sport event tourism have been suggested to identify links between large events and tourism (Getz 1997b). Yet models that link the demand and supply of sport and tourism are new conceptions. Hence there is a need for industrial coordination to develop an integrated policy structure and approach (Gibson 1998). In Australia, this mandate underpins the draft National Tourism Sports Strategy (Department of Industry Science and Resources 2000). While there is no known research of industry coordination for sports event tourism in Australia, this strategy refers to the need for networks at many levels to maximise the tourism outcomes of sports events.

> At the state/territory level, state departments and events corporations take on much of the responsibility for building these links. At the local level, there may be a greater need for development of networks or 'clusters' focussing on sports tourism development. At the national level, there may also be a need for better coordination (Department of Industry Science and Resources 2000, p. 8).

In contrast, there are networks and partnerships that are formed to plan, promote and execute major sports events at the micro-level, that is, at the level of individual events. The Sydney 2000 Olympics and Brisbane's Goodwill Games are examples where short term relationships have formed around single major events. Therefore, it appears that enhanced linkages are mostly needed at the sectoral level to implement strategies for sports tourism.

Arts or cultural events tourism. Increased linkages have also been sought between the *art or cultural events sector* and tourism (Gilbert & Lizotte 1998). In particular, the cultural tourism phenomenon has been recognised for its market growth potential

(Brokensha & Guldberg 1992; Bureau of Tourism Research 1999). This phenomenon embraces visitors' attendance at festivals or fairs, performing arts events and concerts as well as permanent or static arts attractions outside the events domain (Craik 2001). The shift towards legitimising the arts in economic terms and developing cultural industries (Cauth 1999) has focused attention on arts tourism linkages. However, these commercial linkages have not been well accepted by the entire arts community due to the tourism industry being perceived by some arts representatives as 'crass and profit driven' (Craik 2001, p. 129). However, an emphasis on the audience potential of arts tourism has stimulated the growth of many new arts/cultural events seeking to capitalise on this new source of revenue.

The 'blockbuster' events strategy being adopted by both cities and cultural institutions (Craik 2001) has resulted in major shows such as Phantom of the Opera and art exhibitions like the Asia Pacific Triennial. More institutions are recognising that they cannot dismiss tourism in seeking to build their audiences (Craik 2001). Nevertheless, cultural tourism is still in an embryonic phase in many nations including Australia. Further cooperation is required between the cultural and tourism sectors to build events tourism because they have different approaches to policy and different project goals (Mommaas 1999).

In brief, events agencies are more heavily involved in sports tourism than other event categories, although cultural events and major conventions feature to some extent in the business of state/territory events agencies. Overall, intra and inter-sectoral relationships are needed to execute strategic planning activities within all event tourism categories in which events agencies are involved.

2.1.5   Summary of Section 2.1

An array of different event types and categories with varying degrees of tourism potential may be observed. Yet it is the prevalence of hallmark and mega-events in the national agendas of governments in Australia and their related economic returns and other impacts (political, social, cultural and physical) that stimulates interest in events tourism and its research. There is a diversity of institutional structures and approaches to events planning and development in Australia, with some accompanying variation in links between the events and tourism sectors in each state or territory.

An analysis of the events tourism concept indicates that it can be studied in this research as both a deliberately planned phenomenon and as a tourist market. Because there is little evidence of empirical studies of events tourism strategy making, this is an emergent area of research. Similar gaps in the extant literature are demonstrated for categories of events tourism such as sports tourism and cultural tourism. It is against this background that tourism strategy is introduced as the first parent theory of this research in the next section. The concept of tourism strategy, models of tourism planning and their relative stakeholder involvement, evidence of a strategic approach within existing models of events tourism and different contexts for strategy formation are explored. Public and private sector engagement with these strategic processes for events tourism is also reviewed.

2.2　Parent theory one: tourism strategy

The public sector and events tourism contexts for this research have now been explained. Hence it is now appropriate to look at the first parent theory (Perry 2002) of tourism strategy. While there is a body of knowledge on tourism planning models and processes including the strategic planning paradigm (Getz 1986; Gunn 1979, 1994; Hall 1998a, 2000; Heath & Wall 1992; Inskeep 1991; Jamal & Getz 1995b; Murphy 1985; Soteriou & Roberts 1998; World Tourism Organisation 1994b), there is little attention paid to the question of 'what is tourism strategy?'

In this section, the articulation of the strategy concept and interpretations of tourism strategy within the literature are initially discussed. Secondly, tourism strategy is analysed with reference to its *forms* (development, infrastructure, corporate, business and marketing); *structures* (public and private sector organisations); *scale or scope* (local and sectoral through to international) and *timeframes* (for development, implementation and evaluation) (Hall 1998a). Thirdly, tourism strategy is positioned as a concept within alternative tourism planning traditions. Here, contrasts are drawn between prescriptive and descriptive approaches to strategy making in tourism. Fourthly, processes of tourism strategy that embrace stakeholder involvement are explored. In this context, linkages are made between collaborative planning approaches and notions of sustainable tourism (for example, Bramwell & Lane 2000b; Cooper 1997; Hall 2000; Inskeep 1991; Jamal & Getz 1997; Pearce 1995).

Finally, some observations about models for developing events tourism strategy in destinations (Getz 1991b, 1997a; Gnoth & Anwar 2000) and strategic processes used for major events are made (Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell, & Harris 2002; Bramwell 1997b; Catherwood & Van Kirk 1992; Evans 1996; Getz 1991b, 1997a; Hall 1992). These models are briefly examined with reference to strategic and marketing planning theory and the degree to which they reflect the multiple stakeholder orientation required for sustainable tourism. Comparisons are drawn between three models of organisational arrangements for strategy making: the corporate, market-led model, the synergistic model and the community, destination-led model of tourism strategy making and their stakeholder orientations (based on Flagestad & Hope 2001; Hall 2000; Weaver 2000). In concluding, the section summarises the forms, scale, structures and temporal contexts that may apply in this investigation of events tourism strategies.

2.2.1   The strategy concept within tourism

Although the extant literature on tourism planning encompasses the strategic planning process, there is little reference to the concept of strategy itself and tourism researchers tend to use the word 'strategy' rather casually' (Athiyaman 1995, p. 447). A limited range of studies has addressed strategic management or strategy making processes of tourism firms (Athiyaman 1995; Athiyaman & Robertson 1995; Chon & Olsen 1990; Cooper 1997; Hall 2000; Heath & Wall 1992; Jamal & Getz 1995b; Papadopoulos 1989; Soteriou & Roberts 1998; Tremblay 2000b).

These references by tourism authors to the term 'strategy' draw on seminal authors in the strategic management field to provide meaning to the notion of strategy within tourism (for example, Chafee 1985; Mintzberg 1978, 1987, 1994a; Mintzberg & Waters 1985; Ohmae 1983; Porter 1980, 1996). Traditional planning theories, contingency planning theories, incremental and other emergent approaches to strategic planning are each acknowledged (Jamal & Getz 1995b). However, applications of traditional strategic planning in which business strategy is presented as an antidote for turbulence in the competitive environment dominate the tourism literature through to the mid-1990s (Tremblay 2000b).

Strategy interpretations in tourism. Due to this adoption of a traditional perspective, strategy is seen as 'a means of achieving a desired end, that is, the objectives identified for the management of tourism resources' (Chafee 1985 cited in Hall 2000, p.37). This interpretation of strategy is rooted in the belief that an organisation has the role of converting resources into products, with its strategy being a formal means of positioning the organisation within its industry and marketplace (Lowendahl & Revang 1998).

This formal strategy perspective typifies the approaches of early tourism authors on strategy (for example, Heath & Wall 1992; Papadopoulos 1989). However, the contingency view that strategic planning by tourism firms is dependent on environmental, organisational and/or managerial characteristics is featured in more recent literature (Hall 1998a; Soteriou & Roberts 1998). These models of strategic planning are based on a systemic or contingency approach that imply that there is no one best way for tourism firms to plan strategically (Soteriou & Roberts 1998). Moreover, it is acknowledged that much of the decision making of tourism authorities is influenced by stakeholders outside

these organisations. Consequently, there is an expanding body of knowledge about collaborative and adaptive approaches to planning that optimise an organisation's response to complex or emerging tourism settings (for example, Bramwell & Lane 2000b; Reed 1997, 2000).

Arguments for iterative, collaborative planning processes to achieve sustainable tourism strategies now pervade the tourism literature (for example, Bramwell & Lane 2000b; Bramwell & Sharman 1999; Hall 2000; Selin 1993, 2000). However, the inseparability of discussions about strategy and planning processes in most tourism studies suggests a need for researchers to consider two sub-fields of strategy. These components of strategy are the *content* or the strategic positions that an organisation adopts and the *process* or how a firm's systems and decision making influence its strategic position (Athiyaman 1995).

The limited separation of the concept of strategy itself from the notion of planning within the extant literature may indicate a preoccupation with the planning process itself or a tendency to confuse strategy with planning (Campbell & Alexander 1997; Hamel 1996). Where strategy involves intellectual and creative insights, planning processes may reflect a structure that is not compatible with achieving those kinds of outcomes:

> Planning processes are not designed to accommodate the messy process of generating insights and moulding them into a winning strategy. A well structured planning process is therefore likely to be ill-suited to strategy formation (Campbell & Alexander 1997, p. 2).

Much of the treatment of strategy within the tourism domain suggests that planning is the primary process for the emergence of strategy. Yet revolution or chaos theories of change in tourism destinations (Faulkner 2000; Faulkner & Russell 1997; McKercher 1999; Russell & Faulkner 1999) show that traditional planning approaches and lifecycle theories of destination development (Butler 1980, 1997) are being questioned. These chaos theories suggest that conventional strategic planning approaches (for example, Porter 1980, 1996) do not provide models of change or pathways to innovation for firms operating within the volatility and unpredictability of the tourism system (Tremblay 2000b). A comparison of conventional or prescriptive schools of strategy and descriptive strategy schools will now preface a deeper exploration of how these strategy perspectives have been applied by tourism authors.

Prescriptive versus descriptive views of strategy. Both prescriptive and descriptive strategy perspectives are evident within the management literature (for example, Bourgeois & Brodwin 1984; Campbell & Alexander 1997; Chafee 1985; Chakravarthy 1997; Courtney & Kirkland 1997; Evans 2001; Hamel 1996; Lovas & Ghoshal 2000; Mintzberg 1994a, 1994b; Porter 1996; van der Heiden 1997). At least ten different schools of thought on strategy have been identified and the planning school is one of just a few schools that advocate prescriptive approaches to strategy making (Mintzberg 1994b).

In contrast to these prescriptive approaches, the descriptive or behavioural strategy schools include: cognitive (mental); entrepreneurial (leader's visioning); learning (collective learning); political (conflict and power); cultural (collective, cooperative dimensions); environmental (passive response to externalities); and, configurational (dependent on episodes) models (Mintzberg 1994b). Other models that also stress the *emergence* of strategy rather than formal planning include crescive and collaborative schools (for example, Bourgeois & Brodwin 1984; Evans 2001). Evidence of some of these influences on strategy is implied within tourism literature, but few researchers have harnessed these perspectives to create alternative models for tourism strategy.

Prescriptive and descriptive strategy research in tourism. In line with the above observations, those rational or prescriptive perspectives that equate strategy with planning have overshadowed explorations of other strategy perspectives in tourism. Given the complexity and scope of the tourism system, there is scant exploration of alternative conceptualisations of strategy outside the planning paradigm. Instead, there has been a focus on techniques of planning in tourism with little regard for the processes that are occurring (Hall 2000). A preoccupation with rational strategy models has continued despite challenges from incrementalists who advocate emergent strategies and processionalists who advocate processes of strategic conversion that do not reflect formal planning (van der Heiden 1997). Nevertheless, within tourism literature, a number of Mintzberg's descriptive strategy schools (1994b) may be identified.

Mintzberg's (1994b) entrepreneurial perspective of strategy is implied in discussions of chaos theories of tourism development (Faulkner & Russell 1997; McKercher 1999; Russell & Faulkner 1999). The cultural perspective could also be seen as a central focus in community models for tourism development (Jamal & Getz 1995a, 1997, 2000;

Murphy 1985; Reed 1997, 2000). In addition, the influence of power, institutional arrangements and values as elements of tourism planning and decision-making is acknowledged (Hall 1999, 2000; Reed 1997). Although these perspectives and influences are sometimes used to explain what happens during planning and decision-making, most strategic approaches proposed for sustainable tourism are still prescriptive in nature (Hall 2000).

Strategy perspectives that refer to a pattern or approach from which tactics emerge or a firm's perspective or way of doing things (Mintzberg 1994b) have received little attention in tourism. Scant attention has also been paid by tourism authors to learning and knowledge-based views of strategy and network perspectives of building inter-firm relationships for strategy that now dominate strategic management research (Araujo 1990; Axelsson 1992, 1995; Beeby & Booth 2000; Christenson 1997; Grant 1996; Jarillo 1993; Khanna, Gulati, & Nohria 1998; Lincoln 1982; Lowendahl & Revang 1998; Miles, Snow, & Miles 2000; Miles & Snow 1986; Todtling 1999). In this regard, a limited number of authors (Halme 2001; Tremblay 1998, 2000a) examine the role of stakeholder networks in organisational learning to facilitate sustainable tourism. However, a growing body of research on tourism collaboration and partnerships demonstrates the value of relational perspectives of strategy and strategic management in tourism (for example, Bramwell & Lane 2000b; Jamal & Getz 1995a; Selin 1993, 2000; Selin & Beason 1991).

While few of these tourism authors contextualise their research within theories of strategy or strategic management, Jamal and Getz (1995b) propose a tourist destination planning framework based on collaborative and crescive models of strategy identified by Bourgeois (1984). This framework includes aspects of inter-organisational collaboration and corporate strategic planning in which strategies may be developed and implemented incrementally (Jamal & Getz 1995b). This growth of interest in inter-organisational collaboration for tourism planning and development is the focus of further discussion in Section 2.4.

The strategy concept in this research. Because strategy perspectives go beyond formal planning, it is necessary in this research to also broaden the interpretation of the strategy concept. Indeed, strategy can emerge in many ways and not just from formal planning, as noted earlier. An expanded definition of strategy would account for the use of descriptive and/or prescriptive strategies by public sector agencies engaged in events tourism strategy

making. Thus strategy is defined by the researcher as the 'strategic positions or approaches of organisations or destinations derived from prescriptive or descriptive strategy processes or an amalgam of these perspectives'. Strategy formulation, implementation and evaluation are sometimes referred to as sequential, but inter-related aspects of the strategy process (for example, Athiyaman 1995). However, the existence of sequential strategy processes is not assumed in this research.

Instead, the potential for these steps to merge in an iterative strategy process is acknowledged. The strategy formulation phase may precede, accompany or follow strategy implementation (Cespedes 1991). For example, in Tremblay's model of the 'learning firm' where strategies of tourism bodies depend upon knowledge creation and experimentation (Tremblay 2000b), an iterative process of strategy formulation and implementation might be expected. Notably, Tremblay's (2000b) argument that choices about flexibility and experimentation should be essential elements in tourism strategy represents one of few, direct references to the phrase 'tourism strategy' within the extant literature.

Meanings of tourism strategy. Just as the term 'strategy' is submerged within discussions of tourism planning, the phrase 'tourism strategy' (Tremblay 2000b; Wahab & Pigram 1997) is rarely mentioned by tourism authors. One interpretation of tourism strategies is that they serve to fulfil the goals of public sector tourism policies.

> Having established the tourism policy (in one form or other, eg. as a set of basic tourism laws), various tourism strategies and programmes are needed to achieve the policy's goals and objectives (Wahab 1997, p. 134).

Some confusion is inherent in the literature with respect to the separation of or interdependence of tourism policy and strategy. For example, Brent-Ritchie and Crouch's (2000) model of destination competitiveness includes strategy within the concept of tourism policy. In this model, tourism policy embraces regulations, rules, guidelines and directives as well as the tourism objectives and strategies that guide decision-making and daily activities within tourism destinations (Brent-Ritchie & Crouch 2000). In the public policy domain, policy is defined as 'a course of action or inaction chosen by public authorities to address a given problem or interrelated set of problems' (Pal 1992). However, tourism policy making and tourism strategy making are not always engaged in

by precisely the same sets of stakeholders and there is not always a sequential relationship between tourism policy and strategy. For example, a tourism strategy existed in South Australia without a tourism policy in late 2002. In the events tourism domain, policy formulation is recommended to implement chosen strategies (Getz 1997a). Yet a link between government tourism policy and events development strategies within destinations is not always observed. Links between events tourism strategies and events and/or tourism policies may exist.

Consequently, for this research, it is practical to interpret tourism strategies as being an inter-related, but separate concept to tourism policy (Wahab & Pigram 1997). Likewise, events tourism strategies may be identified as discrete entities that may or may not link with tourism and/or events policies of government. Figure 2.3 illustrates potential relationships between policies and strategies in this research.

Figure 2.3   **Potential relationships between policy and strategy**
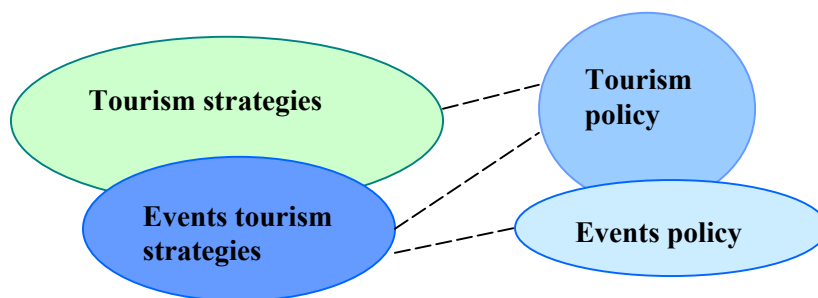
Notes: _ _ _ _ _   The dotted lines represent potential linkages.

Source: developed for this research.

Despite its limited academic treatment, the term 'tourism strategy' is commonly adopted by public sector bodies as nomenclature to describe their tourism development and/or marketing plans for destinations, regions or nations. For example, the tourism strategy for the state of Queensland refers to strategies for infrastructure, the environment, tourism market monitoring, destination marketing and government leadership and coordination activities (Tourism Queensland 2002). Thus it can be seen that strategy may encompass both destination development and marketing activities.

Content and contexts of tourism strategy. The content of tourism strategy may be derived from destination development and/or marketing as already indicated. However, strategy can also be observed at the micro level context of tourism organisations or the

macro level context of tourist destinations (Jamal & Getz 1995b). Corporate, business and functional strategies also represent different levels and forms of guidance for tourism bodies in national, state and regional contexts. Both contrasts and overlaps exist in the nature of strategy making for destinations and those strategic processes adopted by tourist organisations (Hall 2000; Soteriou & Roberts 1998). Some caution is advocated in applying corporate strategic planning principles to destinations because they represent an array of multi-sectoral organisations and individuals (Jamal & Getz 1995b). However, organisations formulating tourism strategies for destinations can and do employ these strategic planning theories. As a result, the dimensions of tourism strategy and the processes through which strategy is shaped deserve further clarification.

2.2.2   Dimensions of tourism strategy: Form, scope, structure and timing

Tourism strategy may be analysed with reference to dimensions that include its form, the structures in which it occurs, its scope and timeframe. In tourism, due to the emphasis on the planning model of strategy, these dimensions are often used to classify the nature of *plans*, the planning roles of government, quasi-government and private sector agencies, the geographic scope of plans and their time scales (Hall 2000).

Forms of tourism strategy. Based on the definition of strategy adopted for this study, forms of tourism strategy may be devised or will emerge for: tourism development; infrastructure and land use planning; the marketing of destinations, attractions, accommodation and transport; and, for managing corporate, business and functional levels of tourism agencies. On this basis, strategies may relate to destinations or 'travel market areas' (Gunn 1994, p. 107), industries within tourism, products or services and, those that are related to managing public and private sector tourism bodies. In this research, events tourism strategies are of interest that are devised or emerge for tourist destinations, that is, Australian states/territories. In turn, strategies that are devised for tourism destinations or its sub-sectors, for example, transport and accommodation and strategies for particular product markets like events tourism are now briefly discussed.

At the level of *destinations*, tourism strategies are multi-dimensional in nature to account for the complexities of private and public sector input to tourism supply and the need to attract diverse tourist markets. In content, they broadly embrace development, infrastructure and marketing (Hall 1998a). The systemic links between tourism demand

and supply and various forms of strategy are shown in Figure 2.4. Interactions are demonstrated between destination level tourism bodies, travel organisers, transport firms and producers of product or service experiences including major events. Strategies are devised or emerge from networks between or among participants in the figure's framework so that experiences sought by travellers, such as those provided by major events, are delivered. Thus the linkages in Figure 2.4 represent two-way relationships.

Figure 2.4   **Tourism strategy forms within a tourism destination**
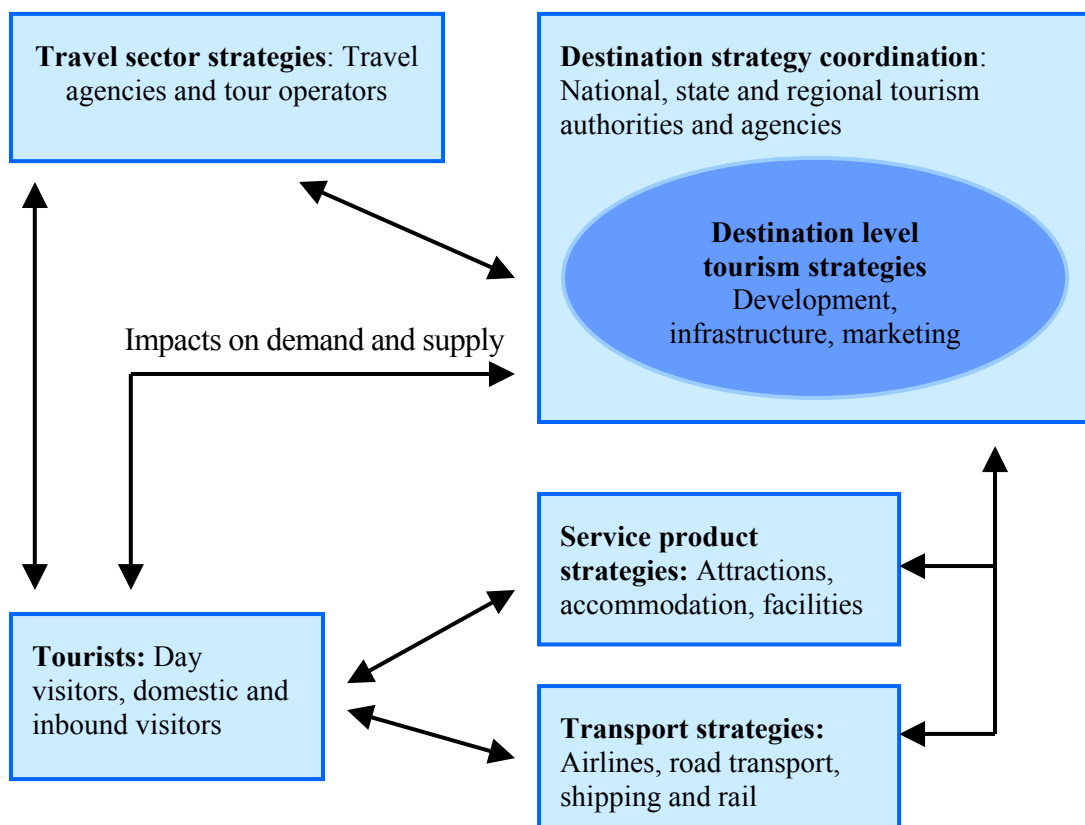
Source: adapted from Middleton (2001 , p.12).

Participants within a tourism destination may also contribute through formal networks to creating destination wide strategies, for example, Queensland's Growing Tourism Strategy (Tourism Queensland 2002). The nature of initiatives and priorities within tourism strategies is influenced by stakeholders' interpretations of strategy, issues of sustainability, the destination's lifecycle phase (Cooper 1997) and the degree of stakeholder representation in the strategy process. While early strategies for destinations were sometimes housed in tourism master plans (Hall 1998a, 2000), there is now a call for stakeholder inclusive approaches to tourism development that balance economic,

environmental and social criteria (Marien & Pizam 1997). Issues associated with tourism strategy processes of this nature are explored in Section 2.4 of this chapter.

In addition to destination-wide tourism strategies, other forms of strategy are those directed towards industrial contexts in which *product markets*, instead of travel market areas, are a focus. Some examples of special interest product markets are rural tourism, adventure tourism and heritage tourism (for example, Douglas, Douglas, & Derrett 2001). In this context, events tourism may also be described as a product market domain for strategy making. Within these product markets, strategy responds to market demand by mapping supply-side products and relationships, establishing goals and advocating new or revised directions with supporting research, development and marketing. Within Australia, ecotourism strategies at state level (Nature Based Tourism Advisory Committee 1997), the national rural tourism strategy (Commonwealth Department of Tourism 1994) and the draft sports tourism strategy (Department of Industry Science and Resources 2000) each illustrate this format.

In relation to events tourism, there are some state level events policies, for example, in Queensland (Department of Premier and Cabinet 2003) and some state/territory events tourism strategies as shown in the ACT (Canberra Tourism and Events Corporation 2000b). However, there is no national events tourism strategy in Australia and some state level events tourism strategies are emergent and/or not presented in strategy documents. In light of these observations about forms of strategy within events tourism, theories about events tourism strategy and its strategic processes are addressed later in this chapter.

Scope of tourism strategies. Strategy forms for tourism such as those discussed above may be local, regional, sectoral, national or international in scope (Hall 2000). However, the scope of tourism strategies is also influenced by political, legislative and competitive factors that dictate and influence the organisational structures in which strategies are formulated. Such factors suggest that Australia has not developed a national events tourism strategy because state level policies, organisational structures and inter-state competition for major events acquisition preclude national strategy formation. Furthermore, a relationship could be expected between tourism strategy, the nature of public sector organisational structures for tourism and ways in which public sector governance shapes the direction of tourism, including events tourism. Some basic insights

as to how the public sector institutional framework interacts with the private sector for tourism strategy formation are therefore useful within this research.

Structures for the governance of tourism strategy processes. A transition from passivity to interventionism and finally, shared responsibility can be observed in the role of the state and its governance structures for tourism. Initially, the role of the state was one of promoting, stimulating and offering incentives for development (World Tourism Organisation 1993). However, this role shifted to one of intervention to protect the international markets and marketing positions of nations. Later, governments moved to coordinate and share more responsibilities with the private sector and non-governmental organisations (Goymen 2000). Corporatism, in which governments have privatised and commercialised functions once performed by government, has affected the involvement of national governments in the tourism sector (Hall 1999). Sometimes referred to as the 'hollowing out of the state' (Milward 1996), corporatisation of the public sector including tourism agencies has led to a growing emphasis on partnership arrangements with the private sector (Hall 1999, 2000).

In concert with this shift in the role of the state, a number of other factors prompt new types of public and private sector cooperation in tourism (for example, Bramwell & Lane 2000b; Goymen 2000; Hall 1999, 2000). Such factors include a growth in consumer knowledge of tourism options, an expansion and variation in private sector product development and refined market segmentation. Advances in technology have extended consumer choice, allowed direct access to suppliers and influenced marketing strategies (World Tourism Organisation 1994a). Each of these factors has focused attention on trans-national policies and structural arrangements for tourism development and marketing. However, it has also focused attention on mechanisms for cross-sectoral cooperation at the national level.

Within Australia, the Commonwealth continues to assume a national policy and strategic function for tourism and it engages in inbound tourist market development and promotion through the Australian Tourist Commission. Yet state and territory governments retain much of the responsibility for sectoral planning and marketing. Both domestic and inbound tourism marketing as well as infrastructure and facility development are undertaken by state departments or agencies (Hall 1998a). Notably, there has been a

fragmentation of tourism development and marketing communication activities into different organisational structures in many Australian states/territories.

These structural arrangements combine with the indirect influences of other government departments on tourism and the direct role of the private sector in tourism product development and delivery to create some coordination problems within the sector (Hall 2000). Consequently, the need to enhance inter-organisational structures for tourism strategy making is emphasised (Bramwell & Lane 2000b; Garnham 1996; Goymen 2000; Hall 1999; Jamal & Getz 1995a, 1997; Long 1997; Palmer & Bejou 1995; Selin 1993; Selin & Beason 1991; Selin & Chavez 1995; Tremblay 2000a; Truly Sautter & Leisen 1999).

Timeframes for tourism strategy formation. In addition to the forms, scales and structures for strategy making in tourism, the timeframe for strategy making may also be examined. Although tourism should be developed in conjunction with long range policies and plans (Cooper 1997), the five year time spans or less that characterise many strategic plans (World Tourism Organisation 1994b) is more suited to the dynamism of tourism markets. Long term strategy formulation for tourism is hampered by election cycles, the short term planning horizons of stakeholders concerned with public sector annual budgeting cycles and the tactical operating horizons of small business (Cooper 1997). However, the acceptability of different timelines for planning and strategy making varies over the lifecycle of a tourist destination.

At the outset of a destination's lifecycle, 'success often obscures the long term view, whilst in the later stages, particularly when a destination is in decline, opposition to long term planning exercises may be rationalised on the basis of cost' (Cooper 1997, p. 83). Nevertheless, much of the debate about timeframe for strategy making depends on the notion of strategy itself and whether strategy is linked to a formal, strategic planning process or it is emergent in nature. The degree of adoption of a strategic approach within the different traditions of tourism planning is examined in the next section.

2.2.3 Five tourism planning traditions

The adoption of strategy processes and a strategic planning approach may be analysed in the context of five traditions in tourism planning. These traditions are physical or spatial tourism planning, community tourism planning, the economic tradition, boosterism and finally, sustainable tourism planning (Getz 1987; Hall 2000).

Initially, tourism planning theory was dominated by an emphasis on *physical or spatial* planning dimensions (Gunn 1979, 1988). Geographic and urban planning and design principles provided a foundation for Gunn's (1979; 1988) pioneering works in tourism planning and drew attention to the physical and cognitive carrying capacity of the environment However, concerns about the environmental thresholds of tourism in social and community contexts gathered momentum at this time (for example, Craik 1988; Mathieson & Wall 1982; Smith 1989).

The *community tourism* planning tradition emerged as a response to these environmental concerns (Murphy 1985). In this tradition, tourism is viewed as an ecological community in which visitors interact with residents. The success of tourism planning is reliant on community participation and decision-making (Murphy 1985). Advocates of community tourism planning stress the need for tourism plans to be not just reflective of community viewpoints, but to be developed by the community itself (Blank 1989; Murphy 1985; Simmons 1994). Preceding these two models for tourism planning and operating concurrently with them was the economic planning tradition (Hall 1998a, 2000).

The *economic tradition* conforms to the growth agendas of governments and is supported by econometric techniques for forecasting and impact analysis, some of which have been questioned over time (for example, Faulkner 1993). Policy imperatives that drive this tradition focus on the economic outcomes of tourism such as employment, investment in infrastructure and export growth. Regardless of the strategy processes adopted by events agencies, a reflection of economic goals in their organisational charters demonstrates the currency of this tradition within the events sector.

Further evidence of the economic tradition exists in those Australian states where there is no government policy for events development, but instead, the economic platform of government justifies major events acquisition (J Rose [Tourism New South Wales] 2002, pers. comm., 26 March). Although social and environmental outcomes of tourism are not

dominant in this tradition, the five planning traditions are not mutually exclusive (Getz 1987). Hence stakeholder inclusion is possible within the boundaries of the economic planning tradition.

Another related tradition in tourism is the practice of *boosterism* (Getz 1987). In this tradition, governments and/or entrepreneurs are pre-occupied with economic gain regardless of any other outcomes of tourist development. With little or no stakeholder involvement and an absence of a planning process, the physical, cultural and environmental outcomes for some destinations are marked by adversity (Hall 2000). The negative environmental consequences of this boosterist approach to tourism development prompted the emergence of the sustainable tourism concept that is now central to discussions of tourism planning.

This *sustainable tourism* planning tradition has become the dominant tourism planning model proposed for destinations and tourism firms within the extant literature (Burr 1995; Cooper 1997; Font & Ahjern 1999; Hall 1998a, 2000; Inskeep 1991; Jamal & Getz 1997; Weaver 2000). Sustainable tourism is 'almost universally embraced, at least in principle, as the universal imperative of the tourism sector' (Weaver 2000, p. 300). Notions of sustainability in tourism are based on the premise of the Brundtland Report that tourism should 'meet the needs of the current generation without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs' (World Commission on Environment and Development 1987, p. 49).

The sustainable tourism model seeks to balance socio-cultural, economic and environmental goals of destinations. However, there are both market-led and product-led perspectives of sustainable tourism, with the former being concerned with sustaining market demand and the latter being focused upon destination sustainability (Weaver 2000). As a result, there is definitional debate about tourism sustainability and this conflict does influence tourism strategy processes at destination level.

Strategic planning in sustainable tourism and earlier traditions. It has been implied that the strategic planning approach is more conducive to sustainable tourism (Hall 2000). Yet much of the debate about whether different planning approaches in tourism do reflect a strategic approach depends on how a strategic approach is defined. For example, it may be viewed as an integrated plan of action with goals and objectives that provide focus for

those actions and the systems to monitor progress (Faulkner 1994). The strategy process for corporate, strategic and marketing planning has also been said to consist of a series of steps, these being formulation, implementation and evaluation (Varadarajan & Jayachandran 1999). Based on the notion of strategy adopted for this study that recognises that strategy may be iterative in nature (Cespedes 1991), there is some evidence of a strategic approach in earlier tourism planning traditions.

Early models for tourism planning were characterised by a structured, sequence of steps. However, they focused upon natural resource utilisation and land use and did not integrate economic, social, political and other concerns that underpin sustainable tourism (for example, Gunn 1979). In a similar vein, some of the early literature on corporate and strategic marketing planning for tourism destinations made little reference to notions of sustainability (Heath & Wall 1992; Papadopoulos 1989), but their prescribed processes were of a strategic nature. Likewise, the economic tradition in tourism planning (Hall 2000) does not concern itself with the multiple goals of sustainable development, but it can adopt a strategic perspective. The sequential conduct of supply-demand analysis, market segmentation, product-market matching and promotion of economic incentives for tourism development may reflect a strategic approach, even though an economic imperative dominates.

By comparison, the strategic approaches needed to address the complexities of sustainable tourism planning (Cooper 1997; Hall 2000) go beyond the prescriptive, formal steps of the early strategic planning models. These complexities are a consequence of the values and principles that provide the foundations for the sustainable tourism model. These values include a concern for equity and the needs of marginalised groups and the minimisation of resource depletion, environmental degradation, cultural disruption and social instability (Hall 2000). In this context, the achievement of sustainable tourism outcomes for a destination entails an integrated analysis and synthesis of economic, environmental and social factors and community involvement in the planning and decision making process (Inskeep 1991).

Within the sustainable tourism model, strategies will encompass approaches to visitor marketing, management and planning practices that reflect the primary objectives of sustainability. These objectives are conserving the value of tourism resources, enhancing the experiences of tourists that interact with these resources and maximising the

economic, social and environmental outcomes for stakeholders in host communities (Hall 2000).

Although the emphasis on a strategic approach is more evident in sustainable tourism than in previous planning models, there is no evidence that this tradition has supplanted all other traditions that have preceded it. In addition, a range of challenges impact upon the formulation, implementation and evaluation of strategies for sustainable tourism (Cooper 1997). Such challenges reflect the complexity of the tourism industry and its intra-sectoral linkages. Tourism destinations tend to reflect hierarchies of dominant and subservient players and complex inter-relationships (McKercher 1999). Challenges occur in relation to the adequacy of industry relationships and coordination, the adequacy of structures to facilitate stakeholder cooperation and, consumer and supply-side understandings of sustainability (Hall 2000). Issues associated with this stakeholder participation in tourism strategy processes are now explored in more depth.

2.2.4 Stakeholder participation in tourism planning traditions

Stakeholder participation is a potential component of most of the tourism planning traditions except the 'boosterist' approach to tourism development. However, it is the community approach to tourism planning (Blank 1989; Murphy 1985; Simmons 1994) and the sustainable tourism model (Burr 1995; Cooper 1997; Hall 1998a, 1998b, 2000; Inskeep 1991; Jamal & Getz 1997) that depend on multiple stakeholder representation in their processes. Because participative tourism planning models are now espoused for tourism (for example, Bramwell & Lane 2000b), it is relevant to explore the nature of potential stakeholders in the tourism strategy process, their degree of representation and issues that impact upon their inclusion in strategy processes. In this regard, there is some variation between the stakeholder orientation of the community-based tourism planning model and the sustainable tourism model.

Stakeholder orientation of the community planning tradition. Although the community-oriented tourism planning tradition advocates that the public should exert control over tourism decision-making, strategy processes that involve and benefit citizens and tourists do not account for all aspects of sustainable tourism (Hall 1998b). For example, the management of economic, social, cultural and environmental impacts of tourism in destinations will involve a diversity of individuals, businesses, government

bodies and community groups. In addition, the ability for citizens of a host community to exercise control over the tourism strategy process is challenged by a number of factors. These factors include the complexities of the tourism policy and planning framework in which community-based tourism decisions may be at odds with or overturned by policies or plans at regional, state or national levels (Hall 1998b).

A range of other issues also impede the host community's participation in tourism planning such as public apathy, the public's comprehension of planning issues, their understanding of the decision-making process, difficulties in achieving representative views, added costs and possible inefficiencies of the planning process and longer timeframes for decision-making (Hall 1998b; Jenkins 1993). As a result, the need to enhance public understanding of the wider dimensions of sustainable tourism is emphasised by tourism authors together with the need to educate and better coordinate supply-side stakeholders (Cooper 1997; Hall 2000). To achieve success with sustainable tourism, the management of networks of stakeholders is a priority. In effect, 'no single organisation or individual can exert direct control over the destination's development process' (Jamal & Getz 1995a, p. 193).

Stakeholder orientation and sustainable tourism. Although the methods of delivery and indicators of the success of sustainable tourism are yet to be empirically determined (Manning 1999; Twining-Ward 1999; Weaver 2000), stakeholder management is an advocated framework to achieve sustainability (Robson & Robson 1996). The nature and number of stakeholders who become involved in tourism strategy processes may depend on whether a political economy view or functionalist view is adopted of how tourism is developed (Truly Sautter & Leisen 1999). While the former perspective suggests that planning bodies and/or outside groups will impose decisions on local populations, the latter perspective argues that all interested stakeholders can and should contribute to the management of tourism (Truly Sautter & Leisen 1999). In this functionalist perspective, destination competitiveness relies upon 'formulating a vision through a publicly driven process based on stakeholder values and consensus, rather than through a more private 'expert-driven' process based solely on market forces' (Brent-Ritchie & Crouch 2000)

The functionalist view of the strategy process is proposed for both the sustainability and competitiveness of destinations (Brent-Ritchie & Crouch 2000). The multiple stakeholders sought for inclusion in tourism strategy processes are those who either have the power to affect these processes or their outcomes or have a stake in the performance or sustainability of the tourism sector (Freeman, 1984 in Truly Sautter & Leisen 1999). These stakeholders are identified in Figure 2.5. Here, internal stakeholders of the facilitating agency, other government stakeholders, local industry, national/international businesses, tourists, interest groups, residents and competitors can each affect or be affected by the strategy process for a destination or a product market such as events tourism.

Figure 2.5   **Stakeholders in the tourism strategy process**
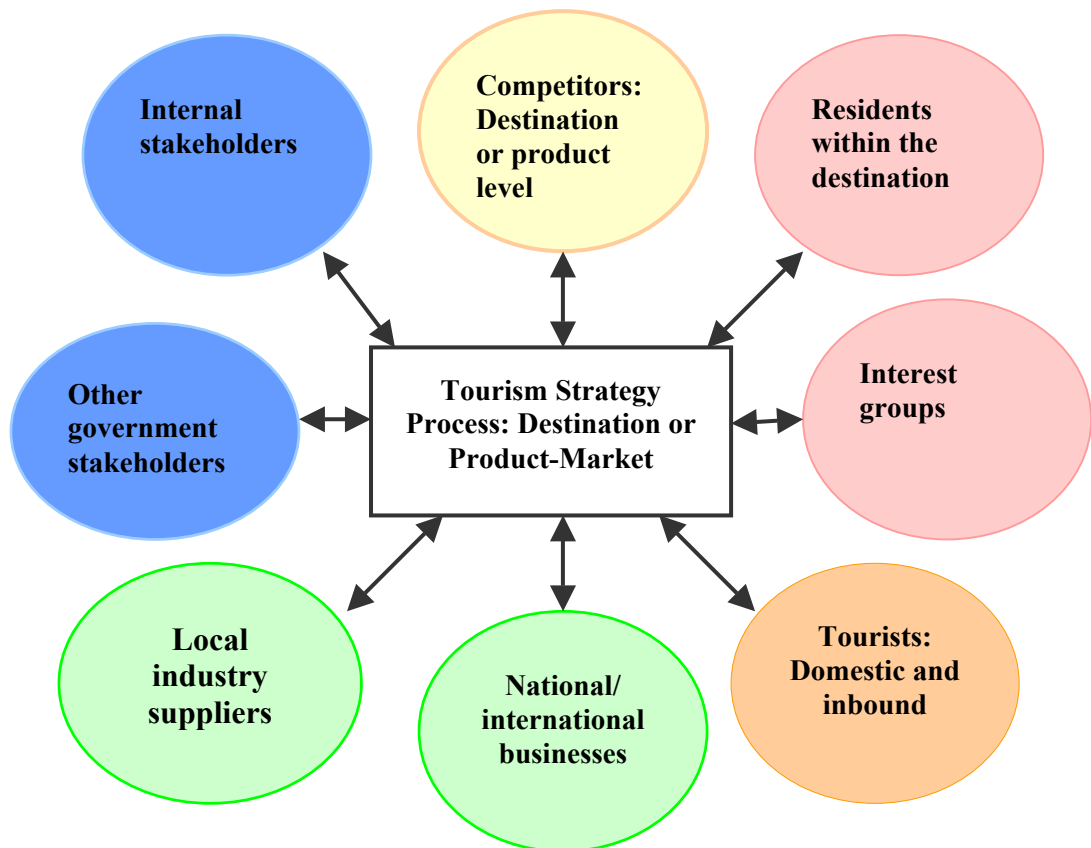
Note: Shading is used to show potential complementarity or differences between the stakeholder groups.
Source: adapted from Truly Sautter et al. (1999, p.315).

Stakeholders in Figure 2.5 are seen from the perspective of a state or national tourism agency that provides leadership with destination development and marketing or product market strategies, such as those for events tourism. Internal stakeholders would be those tourism agency employees who play an active role in coordinating the strategy process. Examples of other government stakeholders include departments and individuals responsible for community infrastructure and services, economic development and the environment.

Private sector input to the tourism strategy process could incorporate both local industry suppliers and national and international businesses with a stake in the destination or product market. For example, in the case of events tourism strategy making, these organisations may be international or national events promoters as well as local event production companies and the range of sports, arts and other organisations who are suppliers of events. Interest groups may be sports or cultural associations, business or community associations and environmental bodies. At any stage, interest groups may assume an activist role relative to the content or outcome of a tourism strategy process. In events tourism, residents represent the host community's ratepayers and others who experience socio-cultural and economic impacts of events in a destination.

Each stakeholder may be viewed in relation to their role or function in the events tourism domain. However, stakeholders can also be classified according to their stake or interest in the strategy process that reflects their perspectives outside of their events tourism role (Truly Sautter & Leisen 1999). For example, a local government authority may serve as a sponsor of destination events that enrich the social fabric of the community. Yet local government also promotes local economic growth, regulates urban planning and seeks to enhance the profile of the authority and its politicians through special event sponsorship. Accordingly, stakeholder theorists (for example, Donaldson & Preston 1995; Freeman 1984) recognise that there is a diversity of bases upon which stakeholders exert influence on a strategy process and, that there is no single source or level of stake that prioritises the interests of the different stakeholder groups (Truly Sautter & Leisen 1999).

2.2.5 Stakeholder orientations of different organisational approaches to tourism strategy making

The nature and degree of representation of different stakeholders in tourism strategies can be affected by the stakeholder perceptions of those agencies coordinating these strategies. Depending on these agencies' perceptions, the organisational approach to strategy may reflect more of a corporate or a community orientation. This approach may include a range of potential relationships and networks to be explored further in Section 2.4. However, this section examines these approaches to strategy making in terms of their stakeholder orientation. Flagestad et al. (2001) have positioned tourism strategy making on a continuum in which community-led and corporate-led models represent two extremes on a continuum of stakeholder orientations.

Within the community-led model, ecological notions of a community (Murphy 1985) and the values of sustainable tourism are upheld (Cooper 1997; Hall 1998a, 1998b, 2000; Inskeep 1991; Jamal & Getz 1997). Stakeholder oriented management is adopted and no stakeholder assumes dominance within the strategy process. In contrast, the corporate-led model reflects the presence of a dominant business corporation that profits from ownership or contracts with service providers (Flagestad & Hope 2001). Within events tourism, there is potential for either one of these models or hybrids to typify the stakeholder orientations of agencies involved in the events tourism strategy process.

A continuum of stakeholder orientations for events tourism strategies

In the events tourism domain, a corporate-led model would exist in destinations where strategies are dominated by a tourism body or a public sector events agency that acts as a controlling stakeholder. However, it is likely that this level of corporate or government control over events tourism strategy would be impeded by the diversity of organisations that stage events within a community. As well as those major events acquired by events agencies, a range of events is initiated by the community without public sector intervention. Sometimes these independent events may formulate their own events tourism strategies. Nevertheless, the power of state agencies is evident in their resource allocation to the events sector including their local and regional support for event and festival development.

Because the public, private and independent events sectors are involved in events tourism, it may be possible to position events tourism strategy processes on a continuum of stakeholder orientations between these community and corporate-led models (Flagestad & Hope 2001). Strategy processes in different states/territories might be plotted along the continuum based on the relative dominance of public sector events agencies relative to other stakeholders in the process. An adaptation of Flagestad et al. (2001) model underpins the continuum of stakeholder orientations for events tourism strategy making shown in Figure 2.6. The likely dominance of four different stakeholders and links between them for both the community and corporate models is now discussed relative to events tourism strategy processes.

Figure 2.6   **A community-corporate continuum of stakeholder orientations in events tourism strategy making**
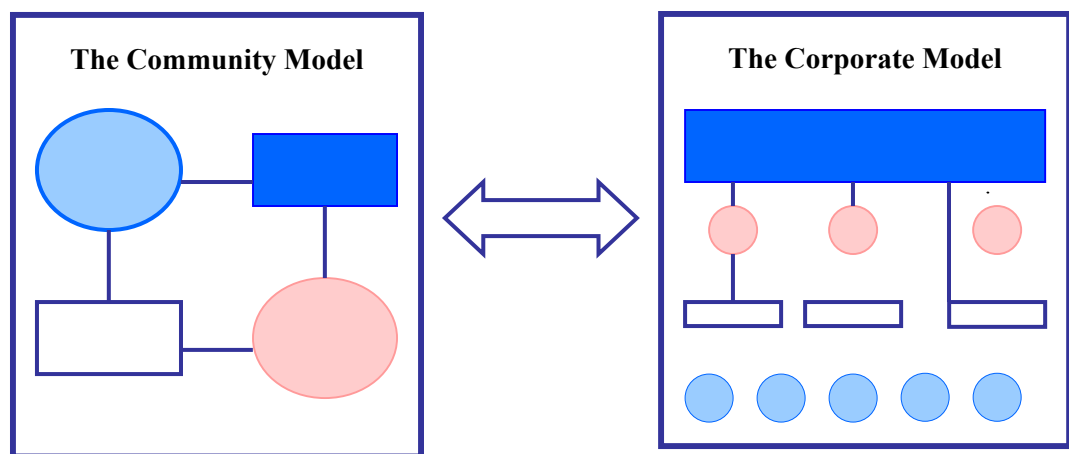
Note: Events/tourism agencies Independent Events Community Private sector Links

Source: adapted from Flagestad and Hope (2001, p. 452).

In the *community-led model* for strategy making, any one or more of these stakeholders could initiate the strategy process for events tourism. However, collaboration or autonomous decision-making between stakeholders would be used to achieve consensus about strategy among the stakeholders. Collaboration results 'when a group of autonomous stakeholders of a problem domain engage in an interactive process, using shared rules, norms and structures to act on issues related to that domain' (Wood & Gray 1991, p. 146). Alternatively, coordination refers to formal, institutionalised arrangements

among existing networks, while cooperation reflects informal trade-offs and attempts to establish reciprocity (Hall 1999). A further exploration of these processes in the context of inter-organisational relationships in tourism is provided in Section 2.3 of this chapter. While collaboration is not inherent within the corporate model depicted in Figure 2.6, coordinating mechanisms and cooperation might be expected to occur.

Within the *corporate-led model*, those events and/or tourism bodies with a legislated events charter might assume dominance in the destination's events tourism strategy processes. There would be some organised linkages between the private sector and the events/tourism body; some organised linkages between the independent events sector and the events/tourism body and the potential for organised linkages between all three stakeholder groups. The private sector may form partnerships with the events/tourism bodies to facilitate the staging of major events, while the relationships between independent events and these bodies will be based on the need for those events to obtain funding or other support (for example, Eventscorp 2001; Queensland Events 2001).

Notably, within this corporate model of stakeholder orientations for strategy (Flagestad & Hope 2001), there might be few direct linkages or inputs from the host community to strategy processes of an events agency or tourism body. Some indirect linkages for community input to the strategy process that are not depicted in Figure 2.6 could exist through other stakeholders with whom the agency maintains relationships. However, in this model, it is assumed that the community would not be a direct participant in the strategy process. Destinations may be positioned at any point between the two extremes of this continuum based on variations in stakeholder involvement and input to the strategy process and their levels of representation (Flagestad & Hope 2001).

Influences on a destination's position on the continuum. Because multiple stakeholders contribute to a sustainable tourism strategy process, it could be expected that the public sector might favour the community-led model. However, within events tourism, there is a range of different strategy processes that need to be identified to understand the likely adoption of these community and corporate models. For example, events tourism strategies can encompass major events acquisition, the marketing of existing community events and the development of new events that have the potential to evolve into tourist attractions over time. While most events have tourism and community

value; from the perspective of events agencies, only some may generate major tourism demand (Getz 1997a).

Both government policy and the charters of events agencies could affect the nature and degree of their involvement in these different strategic processes for events tourism. For example, events agency managers could perceive that government policy or the agency's organisational charter restricts it to strategies related to major events acquisition. In turn, this perception could affect managerial views about the nature of relationships that the agency can or should develop with the community. Alternatively, if an events agency perceives that it has a role to play in maximising the tourism potential of events that emerge from the community itself, this may lead to a different perception of community representation in strategy processes. Where an events agency has no involvement in existing or new events developed by community stakeholders, strategy processes for events tourism may not have the direct involvement of the agency. In these circumstances, the corporate or government led model of stakeholder relationships for strategy would not apply.

In light of the complexity of the public sector institutional environment (discussed in Section 2.1), further research is needed to understand where strategy making in each state/territory might sit within this community-corporate continuum. It could be expected that the institutional context in each state and the location of strategy processes on the community-corporate continuum will impact upon the inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategy to be explored in this research.

2.2.6 Models of events tourism strategy processes

The discussion will now examine existing models for events tourism strategy processes, given the focus of this research on these processes within Australian states and territories. Destination-based models for events tourism strategy (Getz 1991b, 1997a; Gnoth & Anwar 2000) and major event planning models are few in number (Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell, & Harris 2002; Getz 1991b, 1997a; Goldblatt 1997; Hall 1992). That these theoretical models for both macro level and micro level events tourism strategies are not numerous and have not been empirically tested reflects the developmental nature of this field of research. While the discussion of the strategy concept in Section 2.2.1 revealed both prescriptive and descriptive perspectives of strategy, these events tourism and major

events development models reveal only prescriptive, planning processes. These strategy models for events tourism in destinations and models for major event management are now discussed.

Macro level strategy processes for events tourism. Two theoretical models or frameworks for events tourism strategy at destination level exist. Seminal models are provided by Getz (1991b; 1997a) that link the strategic and marketing plans for a destination with events tourism development. While Getz's processes for events tourism planning in destinations and the strategic marketing and management of individual events are considered separately, an adaptation of these strategic processes for events tourism is intended (Getz 1997a). However, other than case descriptions, there is no known research that empirically tests the elements or relevance of Getz's (1991b; 1997a) conceptual models for events tourism strategy in different destinations.

Another framework for events tourism strategy is proposed by Gnoth and Anwar (2000) who present a strategic approach for developing events tourism in New Zealand. Gnoth and Anwar's (2000) framework is also conceptual in nature and includes a reduced set of generic steps for creating strategy when compared with Getz's model. Both approaches to macro level events tourism planning provide dimensions that can be included in this research and so, the nature and sequence of activities in each model deserve discussion.

Getz's model for events tourism development. Once events tourism is recognised as a component of a destination's tourism directions, Getz (1997a) advocates at least nine categories of strategic activities for events tourism planning and development. These include setting the events tourism vision, goals and objectives; market research; undertaking a resource and supply appraisal; evaluating the destination's capacity to stage events; an analysis of strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats (SWOT); marketing strategy formulation; establishing management systems; evaluating outcomes; and, developing events tourism policies (Getz 1997a). The sequence of these strategic activities is unclear because some are advocated as elements of events tourism planning in destinations, but are subsequently not depicted in Getz's strategic planning model for individual events and events tourism (1997a p. 94). For example, a policy development

phase is not depicted, but the integration of both policy and plans is highlighted in Getz's own definition of strategy:

> A strategy is an integrated set of policies and programs intended to achieve the vision and goals of the organisation or destination (Getz 1997a , p.93).

Government policies and programs that provide regulation and support for events are emphasised as requirements to implement strategy choices. Five types of policy support are suggested, these being financial, advisory, material, marketing and moral support (Getz 1997a p. 116). Stakeholder input to the resource appraisal stage as well as strategy and policy formation is maximised in this model.

In its conformity to a prescriptive, planning model of strategy, this approach to events tourism development and marketing exhibits most of the components of formal strategy models proposed by management and marketing theorists. However, strategy formulation, implementation and evaluation (Varadarajan & Jayachandran 1999) are not all embraced by this model. Firstly, while strategy formulation and planning activities are evident, there is no direct reference to the implementation phase, although evaluation and revisions to strategy are proposed. Secondly, marketing theorists (Aaker 1998; Czepiel 1992) suggest a range of generic strategies that include new market expansion, penetration or development as well as product development and diversification. These generic strategies are incorporated in Getz's marketing mix strategies for events (Getz 1997a), but only product development strategies are specified in his events tourism strategy model (Getz 1991b).

Finally, each of the strategic elements of service product development, pricing, physical setting, packaging and distribution, processes and people are discrete, but inter-related considerations in services marketing theory (for example, Lovelock, Patterson, & Walker 2001; Zeithaml & Bitner 2000). All elements of marketing strategy were not embraced by the term 'product development' as proposed in Getz's early model (1991b). Nevertheless, an expanded marketing mix of product, place, programming, people, partnerships, packaging, communication and price is included in Getz's later work (1997a). Thus, there are some minor inconsistencies between Getz's models for planning individual events and events tourism, although the use of strategic marketing principles is acknowledged in

both models. That few destinations have events tourism strategies and policies and that Australia is one of the leaders in this field is highlighted by Getz (1997a p. 115).

> Surprisingly few communities and destinations have events tourism strategies or models…. Probably the most progressive country in this regard is Australia, with event development corporations or units in every state.

Despite this observation, the application of strategic activities depicted in Getz's model for events tourism and the shape and existence of events tourism policies have not been *empirically* examined in the Australian context prior to this research. Hence, an insight to the application of Getz's theories (1991b; 1997a) is also sought from this research (although there is no intention to actually test the whole model advocated by this author).

Gnoth and Anwar's conceptual framework for events tourism strategy. Similar to Getz's model (1991b), Gnoth and Anwar's conceptual framework (2000) commences with an examination of the destination's tourism mission, brand and events tourism focus. This framework also emphasises the competitive advantages sought from events tourism and recognises the influence of management attitudes on the style of strategy adopted. Together, these factors provide a backdrop for the development of corporate and business strategies that guide events tourism. These factors also preface the analysis of strengths and weaknesses, goal and objective setting and the creation of an event marketing strategy. Event measurement mechanisms are a final element in this framework (Gnoth & Anwar 2000).

While the framework itself does not refer to stakeholder inclusion in strategy process, Gnoth and Anwar (2000) explain the need for intra-sectoral collaboration and coordination to achieve synergies between events and tourism. The need for policy makers to give direction to the events tourism strategy process is also emphasised. 'This need for a sense of direction means that policy makers must focus on the nature of their event and explain the competitive advantages of their destination' (Gnoth & Anwar 2000, p.78). Although Gnoth and Anwar (2000) provide this conceptual framework for events tourism strategists, the activities involved in formulating, implementing or measuring a destination's events tourism strategy are not specified. Consequently, Getz's theories (1991b; 1997a) make a more specific contribution to this research.

Portfolio analysis within events tourism strategy processes. One element included in strategic marketing approaches for tourism (Heath & Wall 1992) that was not embraced in either Getz's (1991b) early model or Gnoth and Anwar's (2000) framework is event portfolio analysis. However, Getz's later work (1997a) proposes that a destination's events portfolio should be based on market growth and attractiveness, competitive positions and resource competencies. In this context, a destination's portfolio of events may include local and regional events, periodic hallmark events and occasional mega-events. Whereas local and regional events may have low to medium tourism demand and value, it is emphasised that periodic hallmark events and occasional mega-events are those that attract high tourism demand and value (Getz 1997a). Getz's conceptual work on event portfolios has not been studied for its perceived relevance or adoption by public sector events agencies in Australia. Yet portfolio analysis is often emphasised for its importance in tourism and events tourism planning and, therefore, it is a strategic activity of interest in this research.

Despite the expanded interpretations of the tourism strategy process (for example, Tremblay 2000b), portfolio development tools (Segev 1995) and related strategies of differentiation, specialisation or cost leadership (Porter 1996) that accompany formal planning are still advocated (Heath & Wall 1992; Tremblay 2000b). However, instead of restricting these portfolios to product or service developments, innovations in process technologies as well as product innovations are now embraced by service industries including tourism (Lovelock, Patterson, & Walker 2001; Tremblay 2000b). In addition, some portfolio models proposed for tourism imply that decision making about events and other tourist attractions should be based on multiple factors and not just market forces (Heath & Wall 1992; Heywood 1993; Stokes 1996). An examination of this wider set of criteria for portfolio creation demonstrates potential synergies between tourism and events tourism portfolio models. Multiple criteria for determining either a tourism or events tourism portfolio satisfies the objectives of sustainable tourism.

Within tourism, decision-making criteria for portfolios of attractions can include market viability, destination values, cultures, institutions and history (Heywood 1993) as well as the quality of an attraction and its fit with a destination's tourism strategy (Heath & Wall 1992). Other criteria that may also be used in assessing an events tourism portfolio are community support, environmental value, growth potential, appropriateness and

sustainability (Getz 1997a). These considerations in shaping an events tourism portfolio recognise both profit and non-profit orientations of events and their multi-dimensional impacts that need to be managed to sustain the events tourism sector. Therefore, the adoption of sustainable tourism principles through the use of these portfolio tools could enhance events tourism strategy processes. However, just how the tenets of sustainable tourism can impact on events tourism strategy processes depends on one's view of whether a formal planning model of strategy formation must serve as a precursor to sustainability.

Tourism sustainability and events tourism strategy processes. The reference to integrative strategic planning as a prerequisite to sustainable tourism is widespread (Hall 1998b, 1999, 2000; Inskeep 1991; Jamal & Getz 1995b; Marien & Pizam 1997; Pearce 1995; Truly Sautter & Leisen 1999). Nevertheless, as suggested earlier in this section, existing events tourism strategy models reflect prescriptive strategy approaches. Yet neither 'top down' or 'bottom up' approaches to planning are seen to be appropriate for sustainable tourism (Hall 1999).

If more collaborative strategy processes are required for the sustainability of tourism and its product markets, then this would also apply to events tourism strategy processes. This approach would involve interaction between all levels of organisations responsible for events tourism and between those organisations and other stakeholders in the planning process (Hall 1999). In this scenario, both horizontal (at the same level) and vertical partnerships (at different levels in the industry supply chain) would exist within the planning process. However, in working towards sustainable tourism outcomes, the effectiveness of stakeholder collaboration alone has been questioned (Reed 2000). Some additional characteristics that are proposed for sustainable tourism strategies are a focus on organisational learning and an adaptive management style (Reed 2000). Consequently, events tourism strategy processes that promote the sustainability of both a destination and its tourist markets might be identified in organisational settings that embrace these practices. In a similar vein, the perspectives of managers within these organisations may be influential.

Organisations and their executives who assume a leadership role in events tourism strategy may adopt either a market-led or product-led perspective of sustainability (Weaver 2000). If executives adopt a market-led mindset in which sustainability of

market demand dominates, then this perspective will be reflected in the strategy process. Leaders of the strategic planning processes will integrate those issues and collaborate with those stakeholders that serve to foster this market-led perspective. In contrast, the destination or product-led perspective focuses upon the sustainability of the destination on economic, social, cultural and environmental criteria (Weaver 2000). Although an amalgam of the two viewpoints may be desirable, proponents of each view argue that their particular focus, be it market or product-led, will lead to the achievement of the goals of the other perspective (Weaver 2000). 'That is, a strong quality of life will result from a robust tourism industry, or, conversely, a robust tourism industry will result from maintaining the overall integrity of the destination' (Weaver 2000, p. 303).

In the context of the community and corporate stakeholder orientations for strategy (Flagestad & Hope 2001) discussed in Section 2.2.4, agencies involved in events tourism strategies that assume a market-led focus would veer towards the corporate model on the continuum. Events or tourism agencies with a destination-led focus would be positioned closer to the community model. The potential for conflict emerges as the different perspectives attempt to converge at a middle point on the continuum or achieve some balance between market-led and product-led perspectives of sustainability. Based on the community-corporate continuum of stakeholder orientations for events tourism (shown in Figure 2.6) and the market-led and product-led perspectives of sustainable tourism (Weaver 2000), three possible models for events tourism strategy processes within destinations are proposed in Table 2.1 to better understand the stakeholder orientations of public sector events agencies. These are the corporate, market-led model, the synergistic model and finally, the community, destination-led model of strategy processes. The first and last models are based on the literature (Flagestad & Hope 2001; Hall 2000; Weaver 2000), while the synergistic model is developed for this research to reflect the middle ground between the extremes of the other two models.

A corporate, market-led model. The corporate, market-led model is typified by event tourism strategies that focus on major event bidding and marketing strategies, the assessment of economic impacts and strategic tourism marketing efforts (column 1 of Table 2.1). This organisational approach to strategy is one in which one or two agencies (corporate or government) play a leadership role. These agencies establish linkages that

Table 2.1   **Corporate, community and synergistic models for events tourism strategy processes**

Corporate/market-led model	Synergistic model	Community, destination-led model
Focus: Event bidding and event tourism marketing strategies	*Focus:* Integrated strategies for major events, existing events with tourism markets and new events with tourism potential	*Focus:* Strategies that emphasise the management of the social, cultural and environmental implications of events tourism
Organisational approach: Corporate model with one or two agencies assuming control of events tourism strategy processes. Coordination and cooperation among an inner circle. Limited community input to strategy processes.	*Organisational approach:* State level agencies may assume leadership. However, a mix of collaboration, coordination and cooperation transpire based on stakeholder interest in specific problem domains.	*Organisational approach:* Community model. An emphasis on collaborative relationships among all stakeholders to achieve consensus about strategies.
Decision making criteria: Market driven. Portfolios, either planned or emergent, are based on market attractiveness, market growth and resource competencies. *Research* related to markets and economic impacts.	*Decision-making criteria*: Market driven and resource driven. Use of a multi-dimensional portfolio model based on economic, social, cultural, environmental criteria. *Research* embraces markets and all impacts.	*Decision-making criteria*: Destination or resource driven. Emphasis on social, cultural and environmental criteria. Economic criteria are secondary. *Research* favours community consultation and impacts assessment.
Timing of stakeholder input: Apart from participation of the inner circle of stakeholders, any limited, external consultation occurs later in strategy processes.	*Timing of stakeholder input:* Dependent on the interest of stakeholders in particular domains of the events tourism strategy process. Input throughout the process or relative to issues under consideration.	*Timing of stakeholder input:* Maximum involvement of stakeholders in strategy processes. Continued consultation on events tourism directions.

Source: developed for this research synthesising concepts from Hall (2000), Flagested et al. (2001) and Weaver (2000)

support the acquisition, production and staging of major events; the maximisation of their tourism potential and their measurement on economic and market related criteria. Portfolio analysis would be based on traditional criteria of market attractiveness, market growth and resource competencies. Politicians, government officials, private sector corporations and venue managers have a powerful stake in this corporatist agenda for events tourism. The minimal involvement of parties outside the immediate stakeholder circle may occur at later stages in the events tourism strategy process or on an 'as needed' basis. Rather than adopting a collaborative process for decision-making, coordinating mechanisms and forms of co-operation between stakeholders feature in this model (Hall 1999). Research underpinning the events tourism strategy is directed towards market behaviour, financial and operational feasibility and economic impacts.

A community, destination-led model. At the other extreme, the community, destination-led model focuses on the community, cultural and environmental implications of events tourism (column 3 of Table 2.1). It involves a consensus-based planning approach that may include community round tables and other mechanisms to maximise citizen involvement. (Jamal & Getz 1997, 2000; Reed 1997, 2000). Decision-making about the events tourism portfolio would be based on social, cultural and environmental criteria that take precedence over economic criteria. Critics of this model might disagree that this could ever be so in events tourism. In this model, stakeholder consultation would drive the events tourism strategy process from the outset and involve local citizens, interest groups, local government, not for profit organisations, special event organisations, the private sector, major event organisations, venue organisers and state government agencies. Due to the focus of this model, community consultation processes and event impacts assessment may be dominant forms of research that underpin events tourism decisions.

A synergistic model. Between the two extremes, the potential exists for a new synergistic model that draws together the corporate, market-led and the community, destination-led models (column 2 of Table 2.1). Based on guidelines proposed for synergistic tourism strategy processes (Hall 1998a), characteristics of this model would be the integration of different agendas and goals for events tourism, a combination of market and resource driven criteria for events selection and consultative and systematic strategy processes.

Synergies might be derived from integrating strategies for major events acquisition with the tourism marketing of existing and new events. A multi-dimensional approach to portfolio analysis would be employed with an emphasis on social, cultural, environmental and economic criteria. A mix of collaboration, coordination and cooperation could occur as different aspects and stages of the strategy process attract different levels and forms of stakeholder involvement. For example, coordinating mechanisms between government departments could facilitate essential services such as transport, street closure, waste management and safety associated with a major event. However, the local community might seek involvement in a collaborative process to minimise the impacts of an event on a local residential precinct. Forms of cooperation between different stakeholder groups to share information and research could also aid the events tourism strategy process. While an integrated events tourism strategy process based solely on collaboration may create time inefficiencies, some time efficiencies would be gained through a mix of collaboration, coordination and cooperation. Research that underpins this integrated strategy will be both market and resource directed. In order to fit with the objectives of sustainability, research would include a review of the strategic processes for events tourism in other locations, travel trends and tourist behaviour and impact assessments of those events within the destination's portfolio.

Summary. In brief, aspects of the macro level events tourism models of Getz (1991b; 1997a) and Gnoth and Anwar (2000) provide planning processes and dimensions to consider in studying events tourism strategy within Australian states/territories. However, in line with the definition of strategy adopted for this study in Section 2.2.1, both descriptive and/or prescriptive strategy processes are of interest within this research. The sustainability of tourism domains, including events tourism, relies on integrative, collaborative approaches to strategy. However, the stakeholder orientation of agencies involved in events tourism strategy making may vary between states/territories. In this regard, the corporate, market-led, community, destination-led and synergistic models in this section provide a theoretical basis for studying inter-organisational relationships in the events tourism strategy context.

Major events planning models or micro level events tourism strategies. Models for planning major events or micro level events tourism development also exist (Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell, & Harris 2002; Bramwell 1997b; Catherwood & Van Kirk 1992;

Evans 1996; Getz 1991b, 1997a; Goldblatt 1997; Hall 1992). Events sought or attracted to a destination through a bidding process and those existing events with tourism potential are each acknowledged. Event management models range from a five step process of research, design, planning, coordination and evaluation (Goldblatt 1997) to those that include the structures and activities that occur at each stage of a major event from its inception to post-event evaluation (Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell, & Harris 2002; Catherwood & Van Kirk 1992; Getz 1991b, 1997a; Hall 1992). These events management models are examined in this section for their reflection of strategic processes, stakeholder orientation and tourism linkages.

Strategic processes in events management models. Research of major events strategies refers to the strategy perspective adopted and their organisational arrangements (Bramwell 1997b; Larson 1998a; Long 2000), event product lifecycles (Hall 1992), competitive strategies (Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell, & Harris 2002; Hall 1992) and visitor forecasting (Evans 1996). Classical, processual and systemic perspectives (Bramwell 1997b) are each discussed.

Classical perspectives on events strategy processes (Bramwell 1997b) that emphasise strategy as a precursor to tactics/actions characterise various models (Getz 1991b; Hall 1992). These prescriptive approaches to event strategy tend to reflect the five step process noted above, although planning is sometimes separated from other elements such as organising, leading and controlling (Hall 1992). Yet this treatment of events planning as an independent function can overlook the need for iteration between strategy formulation, implementation and evaluation highlighted in Section 2.2.1. For a major event held in consecutive years, an iterative process of moving between phases of the strategy process could improve the tourism outcomes of destination and event marketing efforts over time. In contrast to the classical strategy process, this research proposes an events strategy process that is iterative that includes an event analysis that establishes awareness of an event's strategic options, its implementation and evaluation (Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell, & Harris 2002).

Alternative strategy perspectives within major events. In addition to the classical perspective of strategy for major events, Bramwell (1997b) examines *processual* and *systemic* perspectives of strategy. All three perspectives were observed in his evaluation of the 1991 World Student Games, although a processual perspective and a lack of

conventional planning was prominent. A conclusion of Bramwell's (1997b) research was that events need to be linked with destination plans. Furthermore, research and planning can facilitate the adoption of both classical and processual strategy perspectives.

In the case of Sheffield's World Student Games, a lack of structure and limited formality in planning hindered decision-making and led to event crises. The political legitimacy of the event was also weakened by a lack of stakeholder participation. However, Bramwell (1997b) noted some advantages of a processual perspective based on learning over time and systemic perspectives that account for the influence of politics and partnerships. For example, although the events tourism marketing strategy for the World Student Games was not developed until just before the event, the three year delay meant that the strategy reflected several additional years of management experience in events tourism (Bramwell 1997b).

Based on these observations, the nature of these strategic orientations for events can be linked with the event's lifecycle phase. A strategic orientation with events that is characterised by long term strategies might only occur at the mature phase of the event lifecycle when there is functional differentiation among staff in an established events organisation that has a marketing function (Hall 1992). This view is aligned with the shift from a processual to a classical perspective of strategy suggested by Bramwell (1997b) However, a later adoption of strategic processes may be atypical for major events where government agencies and sponsors demand business and marketing strategies and quantified returns on their sponsorship or support. In this vein, 'there are now quantifiable ways to see if sponsorship brings a return. If the return on investment is not there, the sponsorship will be cut' (Colman 2001, p. 31).

Among those strategies for competitive positioning of an event in its different lifecycle phases, Allen et al. (2002) advocate the use of growth, consolidation, retrenchment and combination strategies. The choice of strategy is tied to stakeholder perceptions of their appropriateness, acceptability and feasibility. The need to plan this involvement of stakeholders in strategy is emphasised by various authors (Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell, & Harris 2002; Getz 1991b, 1997a; Hall 1992). The notion of events becoming learning organisations to understand stakeholders and markets in order to incorporate their views in strategy is also highlighted (Hall 1992).

Stakeholder inclusion in major events strategies. Potential stakeholders in strategies for major events are the community, residents and tourists, participants, sponsors, media, event employees, volunteers, government and tourism authorities, event organising or governing bodies and promoters (Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell, & Harris 2002; Catherwood & Van Kirk 1992; Hall 1992). The degree of emphasis on one or more of these stakeholders depends on the geographic reach of event markets, whether the event is created within a community or acquired and, the nature of resources needed. Strategy processes for a major event sought by an events agency may involve stakeholders in a range of activities from the event feasibility assessment through to event impacts assessment.

Between inception and completion, stakeholders may be involved in the decision to bid, the bidding process, host destination imaging, the development of the event theme, infrastructure and facilities, event program development, event concept testing and the promotion and staging of the event (Carlsen & Williams 1999; Catherwood & Van Kirk 1992; Getz 1999). Although governments are conscious of the need to monitor community attitudes towards the hosting of hallmark events, a government's perceptions of an event's prestige can mean that the community's role is marginalised (Hall 1992).

Consequently, the community may not be a dominant stakeholder in the strategy process for a major event, as evidenced by the response of social and environmental groups to the staging of the Formula One Grand Prix in central Melbourne (Hamilton 1997). Stakeholder alliances that are formed in the bidding process for a major event tend to include events development agencies, political groups, government departments and other agencies who fund the event including industry players and business associations (Carlsen & Williams 1999). Depending on the organisational arrangements in which strategic processes for events tourism occur (Section 2.2.4), tourism bodies may be included from the outset or after the event is secured to engage in tourism marketing.

Linkages between major events strategies and tourism. Strategies to maximise the tourism potential of major events are evident with *acquired* events, for example, the Goodwill Games, as well as existing events such as Sydney's New Mardigras. In acquiring events, promotion of the event to tourist markets occurs during the initial bid through to event planning and policy making, theming, programming and promotion (Carlsen & Williams 1999). When an events agency is housed within a tourism authority,

some preliminary research and strategic thinking to maximise the tourism potential of major events is apparent. This situation is illustrated in Western Australia where the events tourism marketing campaign, *Best on Earth in Perth* has positioned the state's major events within the destination brand for the state (Carlsen & Williams 1999).

The use of inter and intra-organisational relationships and networks in these strategies to maximise tourism outcomes of major events is recognised (Erickson & Kushner 1999; Larson 1998b; Long 2000). The nature of these inter-organisational relationships is discussed in more depth in Section 2.3. However, there is no empirical evidence that suggests the stage within strategy processes when alliance building commences between events agencies and tourism authorities, where these are separate entities. Yet these partnerships should provide the foundations of planning for events tourism within destinations (Getz 1997a) and events agencies within Australian states do refer to linkages with the state level tourism authority (for example, Department of State Development 2001; Queensland Events 2001).

Early alliances between event organising bodies and tourism authorities are more evident in strategy processes for mega-events that are characterised by five to ten year planning periods. For example, destination imaging campaigns to maximise inbound visitation to the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games were underpinned by the partnership between the Sydney Organising Committee for the Olympic Games (SOCOG) and the Australian Tourist Commission. In addition, where a major event has been staged repeatedly in a destination, as is the case with the Formula One Grand Prix in Victoria, cooperative partnerships between the event and the state tourism authority appear to strengthen over time (J Rose [Tourism New South Wales] 2002, pers. comm., 26 March).

For other events staged by the community that have tourism potential, there are no studies of relationships between these events and the tourism authorities that assist with the event's positioning in domestic and international markets. However, industry commentary suggests that many hallmark events in destinations that have not been acquired by events agencies engage in tourism marketing on an ad hoc basis (J Aitken, 2002, pers. comm., 26 March). Moreover, obtaining support for event promotions may assume dominance over package sales as a reason for event organisers to establish links with tourism marketing bodies. The nature of event markets and their decision-making can also complicate an event's tourism packaging potential.

In brief, while there is limited evidence of the relationships between events and tourism organisations, the need for partnerships and networks to achieve events tourism strategy outcomes is cited by both theorists and practitioners (Bramwell 1997b; Erickson & Kushner 1999; Eventscorp 2001; Getz 1991b, 1997a; Hall 1992; Larson 1998b; Long 2000; Victorian Major Events Company 2001).

2.2.7 Summary of parent discipline one

The use of the terms 'strategy' and 'tourism strategy' is scant within extant literature. However, interpretations of strategy in tourism literature reflect the prescriptive schools of strategy, with less focus on descriptive strategy perspectives. Analyses of tourism strategy may refer to the structures in which strategy occurs, forms of strategy within the tourism system, its scale and timeframe. A change in the role of the state and its intervention in tourism strategies and a shift towards inter-organisational structures that involve private and public sector tourism bodies is evident. While strategic processes can exist in a range of planning traditions within tourism, strategy processes with a stakeholder orientation are lauded as the path to sustainable tourism. This quest for sustainability can occur at destination or event level and both levels provide a context for the study of events tourism strategy processes.

Few models for developing events tourism strategies at destination level are evident. Existing macro level models for events tourism strategy do not account for strategy interpretations beyond the traditional planning perspective and are yet to be empirically tested. Thus strategy makers can benefit from a better understanding of the organisational frameworks in which these processes occur. In this regard, there is no research of organisational frameworks for events tourism strategy or stakeholder relationships within those frameworks.

For individual events, classical, evolutionary and systemic strategy perspectives are acknowledged. A stakeholder orientation in strategy processes for major events is also emphasised in network and partnership models for events planning. Yet there is limited knowledge of relationships between public sector events and tourism agencies or their relationships with event organisers. Thus the next section explores the second parent theory of inter-organisational relationships including issues that affect relationships and how they can contribute to tourism and events tourism strategy processes.

2.3   Parent theory two: inter-organisational relationships

Inter-organisational relationships represent the second parent theory of this research. This section examines the various theoretical foundations of inter-organisational relationships. These theories embrace early research in institutional economics, organisational theories and the later interaction network and relationship marketing paradigms. Differences between relationship marketing, neo-relationship marketing and the network model are also noted. Based on these theories, this section then discusses several perspectives on relationships and networks, a range of environmental influences on inter-organisational relationships and some incentives and disincentives for their formation. The emerging research on tourism collaboration and partnerships then sets the scene for exploring inter-organisational relationships in the context of events tourism strategy.

2.3.1   Theoretical foundations of inter-organisational relationships

The notion of organisations being embedded in inter-organisational relationships is not new (Evan 1976). Early theories that underpin this discipline include institutional economics such as agency theory (Jensen & Meckling 1976; Williamson 1979, 1985) and organisation theories (Aldrich 1979; Cook & Emerson 1978; Emerson 1962; Emory & Trist 1965; Johanson & Mattson 1987; Pfeffer & Salancik 1978). The latter theories encompass theories of social exchange, resource and power dependence and organisational ecology (Dwyer, Dahlstrom, & DiNovo 1995).

Later, the interaction network perspective (Ford 1980; Hakansson 1982) and network models of inter-firm relationships developed by the Industrial and Marketing Purchasing Group propelled a new stream of network research (Ford 1990; Hakansson 1992; Hakansson & Johanson 1993; Hakansson & Snehota 1989). However, the relationship marketing paradigm seeded in the 1970s to address deficiencies of the dyadic exchange model of marketing also achieved prominence at this time (Berry 1983, 1995; Christopher, Payne, & Ballantyne 1991; Gronroos 1990, 1994a; Gummesson 1987, 1994b, 1996). The synergies between relationship marketing and network theories (Owusu 1997) led to the body of knowledge that now dominates research of inter-organisational relationships in strategic management and marketing literature.

The framework for discussing theoretical domains that contribute to the parent theory of inter-organisational relationships is depicted in Figure 2.7. Shaded boxes represent the primary theoretical contexts for this research.

Figure 2.7 **Framework of inter-organisational relationship theories with shade on primary theories for this research**

Institutional economics (2.3.2)

* Transaction cost economics

* Agency theory

Organisational theories (2.3.3)

* Organisational environment

* Social exchange, power and resource dependency

Strategic management theories (2.3.4)

* Resource based theory of firm

* Knowledge-based view of firm

* Strategy-structure theory

Interaction network approach (2.3.5)

➤ The network model

Relationship marketing (2.3.6)

➤ Neo-relationship marketing

Parent theory two: inter-organisational relationships

2.3.2 Economic theories of relationship formation

Economic bases of relationships have been studied by classical and neoclassical economists who focus on the efficiencies of exchange relationships between buyers and sellers (Dwyer, Dahlstrom, & DiNovo 1995). Proponents of transaction cost economics (for example, Hennart 1988; Williamson 1979, 1985, 1991) and agency theory (Anderson 1985; Jensen & Meckling 1976) focus on comparing the degree of efficiency or cost reduction made possible by different governance structures and forms of control. These theorists suggest that transactions should be removed from the market and absorbed within the hierarchy when conditions of asset specificity, uncertainty and transactional frequency are dominant. Complementing the transaction cost perspective are agency theorists (Anderson 1985; Jensen & Meckling 1976) who focus on contractual arrangements to manage the risk that results from the use of agents to achieve business transactions.

Criticisms of transaction cost economics (TCE). As a foundation of inter-firm relationships, TCE is criticised for its emphasis on reducing risk and uncertainty via the hierarchy, as research suggests that organisations increase their reliance on external partners in conditions of uncertainty (Lorenzoni & Lipparini 1999). In addition, TCE concentrates on single party cost optimisation and does not recognise all of the costs and benefits of inter-firm relationships (Lorenzoni & Lipparini 1999) such as learning and coordination (Ring 1996).

Research in TCE has also referred to plural forms of controls such as price, authority and trust which imply that complex inter-firm structures are not explained by transaction costs alone (Bradach & Eccles 1989). However, where early TCE theorists pointed to choices between markets, hierarchies and hybrid forms of governance, for example, joint ventures, that straddle markets and networks (Thorelli 1986; Williamson 1991), the capabilities of a range of alliances are now acknowledged (Osborn & Hagedoorn 1997) Thus the contribution of institutional economics to theories of relationship and network formation is a starting point for this research (for example, Axelsson & Easton 1992; Gemunden, Ritter, & Walter 1997; Moller & Wilson 1995a).

2.3.3 Organisational theories of relationship formation

In contrast to the economic focus on transaction efficiencies achieved through relationships, organisational theorists have focused on collective patterns of survival, growth and sustainability (Osborn & Hagedoorn 1997). Concepts of collective action as well as participatory democracy within organisations were stressed in early organisational research (Astley & Van de Ven 1983; Matejko 1986). The position or linkages of the organisation in its external environment was also emphasised (Osborn & Hagedoorn 1997). In addition, behavioural theorists analysed issues of power and resource dependency in the context of social exchange. The foci of these organisational theories of relationship formation are now explored.

Firstly, some theorists have interpreted the inter-organisational setting as a characteristic of the *organisational environment* (for example, Emory & Trist 1965). Here, inter-organisational relationships are among a number of externalities that impact upon the organisation. Among the organisational theorists, population ecologists (for example, Aldrich 1979) have concentrated upon the processes by which the environment influences organisational change. In this perspective, environments are described in terms of the information and resources that are accessible to organisations (Dwyer, Dahlstrom, & DiNovo 1995)

Secondly, organisational theorists with an interest in *social exchange, power and resource dependency* have also contributed to studies of inter-organisational relationships (Heide 1994; Heide & John 1988). The aim of social exchange theory is to examine the conditions that lead to the emergence of various social structures. As a result, theorists (Cook & Emerson 1984) have been interested in connections that link different members of organisational groupings (Easton 1992). Theories of power dependence (for example, Emerson 1962) are also used to explain linkages between organisations and their environments. Dynamics of power and dependency are central within inter-organisational relationships because the power of each party can be tied to the interdependence of the partners and their relative access to scarce resources (Hogarth Scott 1999).

Resources of all forms represent a further source of dependence or interdependence among firms. This basis for relationship formation is incorporated in the discussion of strategic management perspectives of inter-organisational relationships. Based on earlier social exchange theories, the resource dependence model (Johanson & Mattson 1987; Pfeffer & Salancik 1978) asserts that inter-organisational relationships can be a strategic response to uncertainty and dependence (Heide 1994). However, early studies of resource dependence examined the way firms handled individual relationships for the purpose of gaining access to resources (Easton 1992). In contrast, the contemporary resource based theory of the firm (Peteraf 1990) discussed in the next section is more concerned with multiple relationships and the role of resources in influencing inter-organisational behaviour.

2.3.4 Strategic management perspectives on relationship formation

Based on the assumption that organisations choose to select or emphasise different forms of inter-organisational relationships to capitalise upon or realise their strategy (Osborn & Hagedoorn 1997), a range of theories have emerged within strategic management. A selection of these theories includes the resource based theory of the firm, the knowledge-based view of the firm and strategy-structure perspectives of supply chain relationships. Perspectives on organisational learning and the learning organisation have also been a focus within organisational behaviour and strategic management. As a result, these theories deserve consideration in this research.

Resource based theory of the firm. Related to resource dependence and the sharing of social, technical and economic assets is the resource based theory of the firm (Peteraf 1990; Wernerfelt 1984). Whereas classical economists emphasise authoritative governance to achieve efficiencies in buyer-seller exchanges, resource based theorists focus on acquiring sustainable competitive advantage which serves as an inducement for relationship formation (Ahuja 2000). An assumption of resource based theories is that organisations may form inter-firm alliances when they are in a vulnerable strategic position and need resources or when they are in a strong social position to know, attract and engage partners (Lorenzoni & Lipparini 1999).

Forms of organisational resources that may underpin relationships include technical capital or the capabilities to create new technology, products and processes; commercial

capital or complementary assets needed to commercialise new technologies; and social capital, or the firm's prior relationships with other organisations that give it information and status (Ahuja 2000). Attention to social capital or the value derived from a shared context for social interactions that is afforded by inter-firm relationships is growing (Tsai 2000). A growing subset of research within the resource based view of the firm concerns the knowledge capabilities of organisations.

Knowledge-based theory of the firm. While the organisation's need for different resources will vary, a resource that may be of constant value to all firms is that of knowledge. The knowledge-based theory of the firm represents a new theoretical perspective on the formation of inter-organisational relationships (Grant 1996; Shariq 1997). As a result, the learning capacities of inter-organisational alliances dominate a stream of literature within strategic management (Andersson & Dahlqvist 2001; Dyer & Nobeoka 2000; Dyer & Singh 1998; Grant 1996; Hakansson & Johanson 2001; Holmqvist 1999; Morrison & Mezentseff 1996; Shariq 1997; Tell 2000).

The assumption of the knowledge-based theory of the firm is that the organisation's ability to integrate knowledge and harness both tacit or implicit knowledge and explicit competencies is a strategic capability (Lorenzoni & Lipparini 1999). The use of inter-organisational relationships may serve to transfer or access knowledge that enhances an organisation's competitive advantage. Some authors have elevated this knowledge perspective to the point where its importance overtakes that of all other resources of the firm. For example, Grant (1996) argues that the primary role of the firm is the integration of knowledge. Three possible arrangements are proposed for knowledge transactions, these being internalisation through the hierarchy, externalisation through market contracts and the intermediate mode of relational contracts or alliances and networks (Grant 1996). The latter arrangement is of most interest within this research.

Strategy-structure theory. A further body of theorists within strategic management support the need for a dynamic view of supply chains or the use of horizontal structures for information transfer (Handfield & Nichols 1999). Cooperative relationships based on trust means that communication of technical and market information between suppliers is unrestricted and suppliers can jointly leverage their core competencies (Hoyt & Huq 2000). This focus on inter-organisational relationships among two or more partner firms defines the supply chain alliance (Teece 1992) within industrial marketing theories of

inter-firm relationships. In this way, this theory demonstrates synergies with the interaction network model of relationships. Because interactions between stakeholders in major events may be described as supply networks, this theory is revisited in the next section.

2.3.5   The interaction network approach

The interaction model of the IMP group in Sweden (Hakansson 1982) emerged from a European study of industrial suppliers and customers that showed how long term, collaborative interactions with industrial partners is linked to stability and success (Owusu 1997). Within industrial markets, the interaction network approach abandoned the notion of buyer induced transactions in favour of a business interaction model with the buyer-seller relationship as the unit of analysis (Ford 1980, 1990; Hakansson 1982). This meant that the process of selling and buying in business markets was no longer seen to be one of action and reaction, but one of interaction (Ford 1998).

Nevertheless, the interaction network approach focused on interaction processes for the exchange of resources within dyadic relationships (Moller & Wilson 1995b). Influences on these dyadic interaction processes that encompass exchange, adaptation and coordination are the environment, atmosphere, supplier and buyer characteristics, and task characteristics (Moller & Wilson 1995b). While the environment included macro level variables, the atmosphere was described in terms of power dependence relationships between organisations, the state of conflict or cooperation, the degree of closeness or distance between partners and their mutual expectations (Hakansson 1982).

Within the interaction network approach, an emphasis on trust, cooperation and personal contacts to understand the way interaction processes occur showed similarities between this theory and relationship marketing (Owusu 1997). However, the interaction network approach became the platform for the development of the network model, moving beyond dyadic relationships to encompass sets of inter-connected business relationships or networks. Elements of this comprehensive model are incorporated into the theoretical framework of this research. Before examining the nature and characteristics of these networks, the parallel development of relationship marketing theory is explored.

2.3.6 Relationship marketing theory

Relationship marketing theories have developed in tandem with network theory to influence the body of marketing knowledge over the past two decades. Factors that prompted interest in relationships were reservations about the validity of the 4Ps marketing mix and the limitations of unilateral transactions in industrial markets (Healy & Hastings 2001; Owusu 1997). Internationalisation, global competition, new technologies and the complexity of products, services and supply chains also led relationship marketing researchers to focus on the reciprocity and mutuality of exchange relationships (Moller & Wilson 1995a). However, the basic premise of relationship marketing theory was the need to build and maintain dyadic, customer relationships in order to minimise the costs of seeking new customers. Therefore, a line was drawn between discrete transactions and dyadic, business relationships (Dwyer, Schurr, & Oh 1987).

Nature of relationship marketing research. Both conceptual and definitional research of relationship marketing was generated by Scandinavian theorists (Gronroos 1994a, 1994b, 1997; Gummesson 1994a, 1994b, 1996) as well as researchers in North America and the United Kingdom (Berry 1983, 1995; Christopher, Payne, & Ballantyne 1991). Dimensions of importance in relationship management were identified as trust, commitment, customer satisfaction and value, communication and a longevity of ties (Lovelock, Patterson, & Walker 2001). Relationship strength, or the belief in a spirit of cooperation and trust versus maintaining distance and minimum interaction, also underpins relationship marketing (Donaldson & O'Toole 2000).

Relationship management strategies include the development of social, financial, structural and other bonds (Holmlund & Tomroos 1997; Turnbell, Ford, & Cunningham 1996; Zeithaml & Bitner 2000) and the use of relationship portfolios based on customers' lifetime value (Lovelock, Patterson, & Walker 2001). Hence a commonality of interest in trust, cooperation, social interaction and other bonds can be observed among interaction network and relationship marketing researchers.

Neo-relationship marketing. Commonalities between later definitions of relationship marketing and interaction network theory led Healy et al. (2001, p.187) to coin the term 'neo-relationship marketing'. Where early definitions of relationship marketing

emphasised buyer-seller relationships (Berry 1983; Bund Jackson 1985; Dwyer, Schurr, & Oh 1987; Ford 1980), later authors embraced customers as well as other stakeholders (Christopher, Payne, & Ballantyne 1991; Gronroos 1994a, 1994b; Gummesson 1994a, 1994b; Hunt & Morgan 1994; Morgan & Hunt 1994). Consequently, neo-relationship marketing sits between buyer-seller definitions of relationship marketing and the network model discussed next. Because this research is concerned with relationships and networks that involve a range of stakeholders, the neo-relationship marketing perspective is relevant. Relationship marketing can embrace relationships, networks and interactions and this defines inter-organisational relationships for the purposes of this research (Gummesson 1994a).

2.3.7   The network model and perspectives on networks

Having discussed the interaction network approach and relationship marketing paradigms, this section explains the network model and the perspectives that are used to investigate networks. These perspectives refer to networks as relationships, as actors with network positions and as structures with membership and processes. Characteristics that define different types of networks are then explored. Illustrations of the network model in this section are drawn from the events tourism context of this research.

Interest in the networks of relationships in which organisations are embedded grew out of the interaction network approach discussed earlier (Axelsson 1995; Ford 1990; Hakansson 1992; Hakansson & Johanson 1993). Network models emerged to describe, explain or analyse inter-organisational relationships that involve more parties than the buyer and seller (Owusu 1997). While this network concept had its roots in industrial markets, it was soon applied to services marketing contexts. Thus it is a relevant concept to explore in events tourism as a service context.

Network researchers adopt different perspectives for their investigations that lead to different ways of describing and characterising networks (Axelsson 1995; Moller 1992). Three broad perspectives are those which view networks as relationships, those that study actors and their network positions, and finally, research that examines network structures, membership and processes including change (Axelsson 1995; Easton 1992). Because all of these perspectives contribute to this research, they are now discussed and illustrated in the events tourism context.

Perspective one: networks as relationships

This discussion of networks as relationships, their inclusion of exchange and non-exchange relationships and differences between partnerships and networks further defines those inter-organisational relationships of interest in this research. Although most definitions of networks refer to sets of inter-connected relationships, a comparison of several definitions highlights some points of difference. For example, where some definitions refer to two or more actors, others indicate the need for three or more actors. In this vein, Perry et al. (1995, p. 2-48) refer to networks as 'two or more businesses and/or their customers and/or their suppliers (and their customers and/or suppliers) involved in goal-congruent multiple transaction exchanges in some or all parts of their relationships'. Other perspectives refer to micro networks or *nets* of three or more interdependent, focal organisations (Moller & Wilson 1995a). These nets are different to the view of *markets* as networks of longer term, inter-organisational relationships involving multiple exchanges (for example, Johanson & Mattsson 1994; Moller & Wilson 1995a).

The presence of economic exchange is implied in these relationship-based definitions of networks. Yet Healy (2000) suggests that an emphasis on exchange within definitions does not account for relationships with people other than those with whom owners/managers buy and sell. On this basis, network research in events tourism that focuses only on exchange relationships would not consider an events agency's relationships with its inter-state competitors. Similarly, representatives of host community organisations affected by a major event would not be part of network research if direct participation in a marketing exchange is essential. Given the multiplicity of stakeholders who are potential actors in a network for events tourism strategy, a view of networks as sets of relationships between actors that control business activities (Cook & Emerson 1984) is also inappropriate. This aspect of control suggests a contractual arrangement that is more common in other partnership structures.

Given that the terms 'partnership' and 'network' are sometimes referred to as the same type of structure (Lowndes, Nanton, McCabe, & Skelcher 1997), differences between the two concepts deserve clarification. Partnerships involve organisational relationships, but they can also be defined by formal agreements, rather than by the actors themselves or other actors (Lowndes, Nanton, McCabe, & Skelcher 1997). In this vein, Waddock (1989;

1991) distinguishes between programmatic, federational and systemic partnerships. Where programmatic partnerships may be contractual between a few partners focused upon a specific outcome, federational partnerships involve industry groups working on issues and related coalition building. In turn, the systemic model is concerned with wider policy issues and processes that achieve systemic rather than individual benefits for participants (Waddock 1991). Consequently, partnerships may be voluntary or imposed, but their boundaries are distinct when compared with networks where boundaries are indistinct and membership is voluntary, but fluid (Lowndes, Nanton, McCabe, & Skelcher 1997).

Because of the institutional setting that typifies events tourism, the growth of the public-private sector (Carroll 2000) is relevant to this research. For example, public-private sector partnerships were forged between Queensland's state government, the CNN media organisation and Goodwill Games Inc. to stage that event in 2001. Therefore, the incidence of these partnerships relative to other relationships and networks is of interest to understand how they contribute to events tourism strategies.

The primary emphasis in this research is on understanding those inter-organisational relationships that involve both economic and non-economic exchange and are not formalised by rules and procedures. A broad perspective of networks as two or more connected business relationships (Anderson, Hakansson, & Johanson 1994) enables this research to account for all potential actors in networks of inter-organisational relationships concerned with events tourism. Focal organisations in this research may engage in buyer seller relationships or be embedded in networks of social, professional and exchange relationships (Gulati, Nohria, & Zaheer 2000). Inter-organisational ties could include vertical relationships between suppliers and end users, horizontal relationships among competitors (Cravens, Piercy, & Shipp 1996) or relationships between actors engaged in non-economic exchange (Easton & Araujo 1992). How other perspectives of networks highlight issues of interest in this research is now examined.

Perspective two: networks as actors with positions

In comparison with the view of networks as relationships, another way of describing networks puts the focus on the actors and the positions maintained by them in the network (Easton 1992). In this way, a schematic picture of the network shows actors, their position

in the network and their relationships. Figure 2.8 illustrates a hypothetical network for a major event in which a public sector events agency is involved in relationships with a government department, a sports association, an event producer, sponsors, venue owners and the media.

Figure 2.8 **Actors in an events agency's network and their relationships for a major sports event**
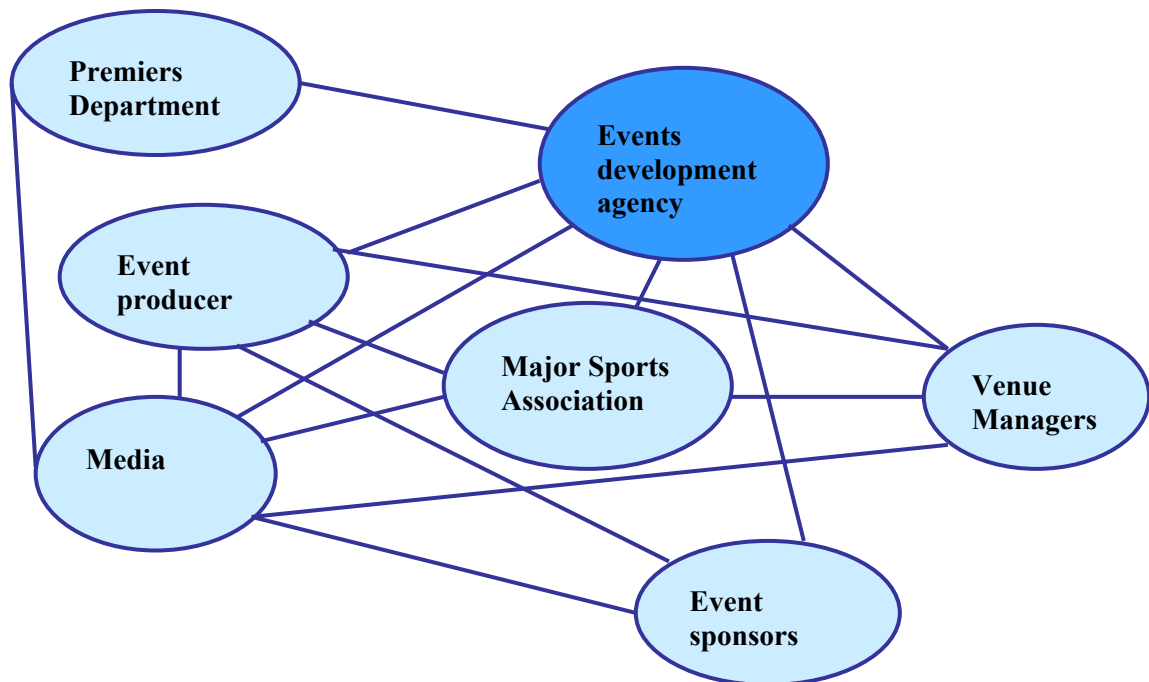
Source: developed for this research based on Axelsson (1995, p.114)

Among actors in this network, we can identify firm or organisational actors, resource actors and human actors, each of which participate in different, but related layers of the network (Holmlund & Tomroos 1997). For example, for this major sports event with tourism potential, the events agency could be a focal organisation within a network of *resource actors*. As a resource actor, the agency has a relationship with the Premier's department to underwrite the event and it may be embedded in a network of other government relationships for essential service provision and the tourism marketing of the event.

Firm actors are those engaged in production activities performed by the network of relationships between venue managers, the event producer and the sports association. Each of these network participants are also *human actors* in that they act as individuals

who have social relationships with representatives of other firms in the network. This network of social interactions represents another layer in a major event network.

These interactions between the human, resource and organisational layers in networks can be likened to those bonds that link actors in networks. As well as economic, legal and administrative bonds (Axelsson 1995), researchers have explored social and structural bonds (Healy 2000; Holmlund & Tomroos 1997; Hoyt & Huq 2000; Tsai 2000; Turnbell, Ford, & Cunningham 1996) and technical bonds (Hakansson & Snehota 1995). In addition, Proenca et al. (1998) refer to informational and knowledge related bonds which reflect the knowledge-based theory of the firm discussed in Section 2.3.4. Many of these bonds are also highlighted in relationship marketing research. Where these bonds are deliberately created by network actors, this represents recognition of those incentives that stimulate actors to join networks. These incentives will be discussed in Section 2.4.

In these analyses of actors and their positions within networks, other issues explored are the actors' direct and/or indirect connections, the density or number of relationships between actors relative to the overall number of actors and, the degree to which network clustering or spread is observed (Axelsson 1995). There is also a need to understand an organisation's network position that is defined by relationships that other actors have with it (Johanson & Mattson 1992; Mattson 1985). Power and interdependency of actors are related to network position and affect the actors' degree of access to resources and their engagement in network activities (Easton 1992; Low 1996). Hence a three way relationship exists between the actors, resources and activities of the network (Hakansson & Johanson 1992). As with other characteristics of networks, understanding the actors' positions is complicated by the participants' ability to articulate the structure of a network (Low 1996).

Perspective three: networks as structures, membership and processes

The extent to which interdependence is tight or loose among network participants tends to characterise its *structure* and can impact upon the ease with which new organisations enter a network (Easton 1992; Moller & Wilson 1995a). However, nets or local concentrations within networks should be distinguished from the larger, industrial network (Mattson 1988). For example, if a net of actors was engaged in strategy processes for events tourism, other nets of event organisations, producers and industry

associations within the wider events sector might not be represented in this strategy making net. In this regard, Easton (1992) suggests that network structures can be explained by their exclusivity, their level of interdependence and their homogeneity relative to actors' social, financial or structural bonds. Different types of industry events may also loosen or reinforce the network structure (Madhavan, Koka, & Prescott 1998). Such events could also include mega-events such as the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games that may have reshaped events tourism networks in that city.

Within network structures, the composition or *membership* refers to actors' identities, status, access, resources and other characteristics (Gulati, Nohria, & Zaheer 2000). Inclusion of all affected stakeholders and the presence of stakeholder incentives is said to affect the success of collaboration (Gray 1989). In effect, network identity is derived from the micro-network of connections and knowledge that members bring to the network (Hakansson & Snehota 1989). In discussing membership of collaborative structures, Huxham et al. (2000) point to the need to understand ambiguity, complexity and dynamics. Confusion about who is involved and their representation, the membership hierarchy and the dynamism of membership are highlighted as issues for research (Huxham & Vangen 2000). These membership issues can also be related to network leadership which sets the direction and tone of alliance relationships (Achrol, Scheer, & Stern 1990)

Where relationships between members exhibit strength, *network processes* for controlling activities and resources may also develop (Easton 1992). Network processes can include the ways that actors organise activities and resources as well as ways in which they try to control activities and resources (Hakansson 1992). Strategy making is one activity that does occur in inter-organisational relationships. Where this takes the form of a planning process, Heide (1994) argues that plans provide the framework for network adaptations and that planning should be a decentralised and collaborative process.

Classifying networks

Categories or *forms* of networks are extensive. At least five forms of networks have been identified which include supply networks (Harland & Knight 2001; Hoyt & Huq 2000; Johnsen, Wynstra, Zheng, Harland, & Lamming 2000; Lamming, Johnsen, Zheng, & Harland 2000); learning networks (Tell 2000); innovation networks (Arias 1995; Todtling

1999); dynamic networks (Miles, Snow, & Miles 2000; Miles & Snow 1986; Snow & Miles 1992) and strategic networks (Gulati, Nohria, & Zaheer 2000; Jarillo 1988, 1993; New & Mitropoulos 1995). These network classifications may overlap, given that networks are described in terms of their function or purpose as well as their degree of dynamism.

Supply networks are referred to as sets of supply chains (Harland & Knight 2001) comprising activities involved in service or product delivery and production. Such a network might describe the major event network previously described. In contrast, *learning and innovation networks* are labelled according to their purpose. *Strategic* networks are defined in terms of their strategic significance to network participants (Gulati, Nohria, & Zaheer 2000; Jarillo 1988, 1993; New & Mitropoulos 1995). Notably, this classification could apply to a range of networks.

Two other dimensions for categorising networks have been employed to identify networks. These dimensions are the *volatility of environmental change* and the extent to which relationships are *collaborative or transactional* in nature (Cravens & Piercy 1994; Cravens, Piercy, & Shipp 1996). Based on these dimensions, Cravens et al. (1996) identify hollow, flexible, virtual and value added networks. Figure 2.9 provides a summary of the key characteristics of these network forms. Among the four types of networks, the hollow network illustrates a possible network coordinated by an events producer who collaborates with an event owner or organisation, but transacts with a resource network to produce and market the event. Each end user or event would have needs that are highly specialised to that event and each network member provides capabilities that contribute to satisfying those needs, for example, pyrotechnics expertise or talent for event entertainment.

Figure 2.9   **Characteristics of four potential network forms with shading to indicate a potential network form for a major event**

Network member relationships

Collaborative

Virtual network	Flexible network
Virtual network	*Flexible network*
* Long term environmental fluctuations	* Short term environmental fluctuations
* End user relationships are collaborative/transactional.	* End user relationships are transactional
* Complex, segmented, dynamic market structure	* Diverse, end user needs and wants
* High level of technology	* Complex production and distribution processes
* Coordinators competence is product innovation/production	* Coordinators competence is market knowledge, process design leveraging with specialists
* Members' competence is market access, technology capabilities	* Members' competence is specialisation

Low environmental volatility   **High environmental volatility**

Value added network	Hollow network (a major event)
Value added network	*Hollow network (a major event)*
* Long term environmental fluctuations	* Short term environmental fluctuations
* End user relationships are transactional	* End user relationships are collaborative
* Diffused market preferences, difficult to segment	* Highly segmented end user focus
* Technology is product innovation	* Technology centred with members
* Coordinators competence is design, production and marketing	* Coordinators competence is marketing function/focus
*Members capabilities in narrowly defined functions with major cost advantages	Members' capabilities matched to end user needs

Transactional

Source: Adapted from Cravens et al. (1996, p. 209) based on concepts from Cravens et al. (1994, p. 213) with shading added to illustrate the potential network form for a major event.

Given the network perspectives and categories highlighted in this section, a range of issues may be investigated that relate to network structure, membership, processes and form. In particular, characteristics of inter-organisational relationships that can be explored in the events tourism context include their form, purpose and environment, the nature of actor or member relations, the network's permanency, formality and hierarchy, its degree of clustering or spread and communication.

2.3.8 Macro-environmental influences on relationships and networks

This volatility or stability of the environment (Cravens, Piercy, & Shipp 1996) is one of a number of macro-environmental influences on inter-organisational relationships. Within events tourism, public sector policies and organisational arrangements for events tourism have already been recognised for their potential influence on strategy making in Section 2.1.2. Other environmental influences are economic and business conditions, socio-political conditions, the blurring of public and private sector boundaries, globalisation, new technology, industry and market changes as well as industry events (Cheung & Turnbell 1998; Gray 1989; Rura-Polley & Palmer 1998; Snow & Miles 1992). Because collaborative relationships between organisations are embedded in this environment, they may be affected by each of these influences.

Those conditions that favour network formation reflect rapid changes in technology, short product or service lifecycles and highly segmented markets that extend beyond national boundaries (Cravens & Shipp 1994). Within events tourism, short lifecycles and rapid technological or process changes tend to characterise the environment of one-off events. The environment of events tourism strategy processes is typified by volatility of state and national competition and a need for time efficiencies in responding to event opportunities.

The tourism market is segmented and dynamic in its behaviour and preferences (Seaton & Bennett 1996) and events agencies in the business of securing events must cross national boundaries. The presence of contractual norms is another influence on network formation (Cheung & Turnbell 1998). Because of the public sector context of events agencies, contractual partnerships for financing and organising major events are common with suppliers being selected via tender processes (J Carlsen [Edith Cowan University] 2002, pers. comm., 13 Feb). However, there is no understanding of these or other norms

for relationship or network involvement in the strategy processes for events tourism within Australia's states and territories.

2.3.9   Characteristics of the relationship or network atmosphere

Based on the preceding discussion of environmental factors, a picture of those conditions that create the relationship or network atmosphere begins to emerge. Networks between events agencies, tourism authorities, the tourism industry and events industry represent both horizontal and vertical relationships in which these atmospheric variables are of interest in this research. Within Australia, these inter-organisational networks and relationships may be intra-state, inter-state and international in scope. However, once these networks and relationships are formed or emerge, both general conditions and specific characteristics of the relational atmosphere can be studied.

The atmospheric conditions of the network may include the extent of conflict, cooperation, coordination and collaboration between actors and the closeness or distance of actors based on these relationships (Brennan & Turnbell 1997; Easton & Araujo 1992; Hakansson 1982). Yet in any analysis of network or relationship atmosphere, more specific characteristics such as trust, power and communication are also relevant (Araujo & Mouzas 1997; Bengtsson & Kock 1999; Brennan & Turnbell 1997; Hakansson 1992, 1982; Hogarth Scott 1999). Hence this section will firstly examine and illustrate atmospheric conditions in the context of events tourism and then, discuss specific characteristics of the network atmosphere.

Atmospheric conditions of networks and relationships. Relationships and networks may be characterised by conflict (tacit or explicit), coordination, cooperation, collaboration and competition (Araujo & Mouzas 1997; Bengtsson & Kock 1999; Gummesson 1997; Teece 1992). The characteristics of consensus based collaboration, in which all stakeholders with an interest or stake participate (Genefke & McDonald 2001; Gray 1989) was established in Section 2.2.4. By comparison, coordination consists of formal, institutionalised arrangements and cooperation is based on informal trade-offs and attempts to establish reciprocity (Hall 1999). The degree to which these processes exist alongside competition and conflict in relationships or networks shape their atmosphere and outcomes. In effect, both vertical and horizontal relationships between organisations

can reflect competition/conflict and cooperation/harmony, but one or other of these conditions can be tacit rather than explicit (Bengtsson & Kock 1999).

At the intra-state level, the atmospheric conditions of networks of events and tourism organisations and their stakeholders may be examined with reference to collaboration, cooperation, competition and/or conflict. In examining a schema of actors and linkages as shown earlier for a major sports event (see Figure 2.8), each linkage as well as sets of linkages can be analysed for the presence of competitive/cooperative/collaborative characteristics. In addition, the relative distance and power between actors can be examined along with actors' perceptions of trust in these relationships. Institutional arrangements for events tourism in different states may influence the network atmosphere. For example, the relational atmosphere between events agencies and tourism marketing bodies might be expected to differ based on whether the events agency is integral or separate to the tourism authority/commission. It is also feasible that tacit conflict related to territorial issues or a level of competition for funds could exist where agencies are separate entities.

At the inter-state level, a tradition of competition and conflict has been observed among events agencies in Australia (Mules 1998). Yet while these agencies compete, they also cooperate to a limited degree (M Rees [Eventscorp] 2002, pers. comm., 11 Feb). Although this inter-agency network might be found to be latent or active over time, evidence of transactional and/or relational exchanges can be observed in different situations and timeframes. For example, there is evidence of co-operation between Queensland and Victoria with the shared staging of the Equitana event. Events agencies also acknowledge the benefits of seeking and sharing information with each other when they are not direct competitors for an event (M Rees [Eventscorp] 2002, pers. comm., 11 Feb). Although alliances are seen to be possible between these agencies, the development of trust is perceived to be difficult in the face of competing interests (M Denton [Queensland Events] 2002, pers. comm., 8 March). Nevertheless, a mutual understanding may be found in relationships between competitors, even if there is little recognition of a mutual interest to interact or trust (Bengtsson & Kock 1999)

Five types of potential relationships between network actors who compete with each other influence the network atmosphere (Bengtsson & Kock 1999; Easton & Araujo 1992). These relationships are described as coexistence, cooperation, competition, co-

opetition and collusion. With *coexistence,* relationships are based on distant, non-economic exchanges used for information sharing and social exchange (Bengtsson & Kock 1999; Easton & Araujo 1992). This situation may describe the relationship between major event organisers or public sector events agencies in different states or territories that have infrequent interaction. In Canada, Getz (1998) found that ad hoc and informal mechanisms are used to exchange ideas among festival managers. Managers were interested in information sharing with other festivals, but were reluctant to discuss their sponsorship or funding sources (Getz 1998).

By comparison, *cooperation* may be built on formal or informal agreements and where this exists among competitors, there are common goals as well as functional and psychological factors that bind the relationships (Bengtsson & Kock 1999). This situation would typify the relationship between events that choose to cooperate due to an overlap in their scheduled timing or complementarity between the markets of each event. For example, at the inception of Brisbane's Riverfestival, a network of actors from the events sector discussed potential integration of entertainment offerings. In 2001, cooperation between the Riverfestival and Goodwill Games resulted in program integration. Conflicts are rare in this form of cooperative arrangement where there are formal agreements and norms of behaviour that guide participants. However, cooperation may also exist alongside competition and trust is not always high (Bengtsson & Kock 1999).

Between cooperation and competition, a system of *co-opetition* may exist in which both economic and non-economic exchanges occur. Within cooperative activities, dependence is based on trust or formal agreements, while dependence in competitive situations is derived from the actor's strength and position in the network (Bengtsson & Kock 1999). Co-opetition would typify a situation where events or festivals compete for funds from events development agencies, yet cooperate to share technology or logistical expertise needed to stage their events.

In contrast, competition is characterised by actors' constant attempts to develop, maintain or increase their advantage over other actors (Araujo & Mouzas 1997). Intense competition exists when actors attempt to structure the market according to their own preferences (Alderson 1965). Conflict or opponent centred strategies occur when competitors are forced to exit some important relationships (Easton & Araujo 1992). The state of Victoria is said to have established a system of rivalry of this nature when it

secured the Formula One Grand Prix away from Adelaide in South Australia (Mules 1998). A further situation is that of collusion, in which network actors cooperate to achieve an outcome that would not be possible through their own independent actions (Easton & Araujo 1992). For example, a form of collusion may exist if states and territories cooperate to jointly acquire lead-up events to a major event such as the 2003 Rugby World Cup. Thus, it can be seen that the atmosphere of relationships or networks between events development agencies at the inter-state level may be viewed differently over time and within different functional contexts.

Atmospheric characteristics. Based on the overall conditions of collaboration, cooperation or competition discussed previously, more specific atmospheric variables of interest are trust, power, communication, mutual expectations (Church & Reid 1996; Crotts & Turner 1999; Emerson 1962; Lovelock, Patterson, & Walker 2001; Morgan & Hunt 1994; Zeithaml & Bitner 2000) and finally, the network's flexibility or adaptability (Brennan & Turnbell 1997; Heide 1994).

To begin, *trust* in relationships may be described as reliance or confidence in events, processes or persons within the network (Lovelock, Patterson, & Walker 2001). For example, trust in other actors' abilities, expertise, knowledge and their motives and intentions might be essential for network participation (Lovelock, Patterson, & Walker 2001). Furthermore, research has shown that trust is a determinant of intentions to continue business relationships (Hart & Johnson 1999). A *commitment* to a network or relationship might be expected to be associated with the nature of trust between actors (Morgan & Hunt 1994).

As a separate construct, *power* is related to dependency between actors and an actor's ability to make others act in ways that suit that actor (Emerson 1962; Hogarth Scott 1999). Therefore, the bases of power that actors bring to a relationship such as political influence, access to capital or other resources may influence other actors' perceptions of their dependency. In this vein, the public sector events agency at the state or territory level may be perceived to be an actor with power within the events tourism sector due to its direct links to the Premier. Alternatively, the events agency may be a dependent actor in an international network that includes sports federations who determine the locations for major events.

The nature and extent of *communication* among actors in relationships or networks may also be associated with the development of trust and commitment and the influence of power in relationships and networks (Hogarth Scott 1999; Janiskee 1996; Lovelock, Patterson, & Walker 2001; Morgan & Hunt 1994). Communication may include formal or informal ways in which information and ideas are shared within relationships (Lovelock, Patterson, & Walker 2001; Oikkonen, Tikkanen, & Alajoutsijarvl 2000). This communication also has a direct impact on the degree to which *mutual expectations* are clarified among participants in these relationships. Discrepancies between actors' expectations of the network experience and what actually occurs are not unlike buyer-seller experiences in which gaps between perceptions and expectations cause dissatisfaction and a loss of business relationships (Zeithaml & Bitner 2000). In effect, cooperative and collaborative efforts by an actor in a relationship may only occur when promises made by the other actor(s) are fulfilled (Gronroos 1994a). Thus there are observed linkages between these various characteristics of network atmosphere.

The *adaptability* of a network or its processes of mutual adjustment, including the willingness of network actors to be flexible and negotiate changes as the activities of the network unfold are also related to these atmospheric variables (Brennan & Turnbell 1997; Heide 1994). These inter-firm adaptations (Hakansson 1982), for this research, can be described as behavioural or structural changes (Brennan & Turnbell 1997) within relationships or networks that occur as a result of conditions and activities in those relationships or networks. In the context of a network considering the tourism potential of a major event, non-collaborative adaptations might include a unilateral decision by a state government's Premier to stage an event, a sudden withdrawal of sponsor resources or a reactive approach to managing a community's concerns about event impacts.

In brief, these characteristics of network atmosphere just discussed and the broader conditions of competition, collaboration or cooperation may influence the nature and degree to which inter-organisational relationships contribute to events tourism strategies. Whether these networks are tight (cooperative or collaborative in nature) or loosely formed for events tourism strategies may be associated with this network atmosphere.

2.3.10 Inducements or incentives for inter-organisational collaboration

As well as the broad environmental influences on relationships and networks, other factors that may affect relationship formation are the degree of domain overlap between organisations (Buttery & Buttery 1994; Thorelli 1986), and their pre-existing relationships (Ring & Van de Ven 1994). In addition, a number of incentives of an economic and non-economic nature stimulate inter-organisational collaboration (Achrol, Scheer, & Stern 1990; Biong, Wathne, & Parvatiyar 1998; Hoyt & Huq 2000; Johnsen, Wynstra, Zheng, Harland, & Lamming 2000; Park 1996; Spekman & Celly 1995). Firstly, both commonality and differences in the domains of organisations affect their decisions about relationship formation (Buttery & Buttery 1994).

Five areas of *domain overlap* that influence network participation and choice of partners are product or service similarities, client similarities, mode of operation, territory and time considerations relative to opportunities (Buttery & Buttery 1994; Thorelli 1986). For example, because event development agencies and tourism authorities could each see an event as a tourist attraction with viable tourist markets, domain overlap would be evident on both product and market criteria. Territorial overlaps and shared time considerations would also exist for these agencies. However, each agency has its own mode of operating which ensures that they are potential network partners and not a 'vertical quasi-integration' (Cravens & Piercy 1994, p. 44).

Secondly, *pre-existing relationships* between network actors can also influence their network involvement (Ahuja 2000; Ring & Van de Ven 1994; Tsai 2000) given that the early formation of networks is often based on social identification among actors, with a calculated network emerging later (Hite & Hesterly 2001). In this regard, the identity of network members and their links may matter more than economic or other incentives for participation in the early stages of a network (Hite & Hesterly 2001). However, while a necessity to understand actors' identities relative to others in the network is recognised, it is not seen to be an adequate basis for engaging in inter-organisational relationships (Ring & Van de Ven 1994). Other benefit-related incentives are also involved in organisational decisions to engage in these relationships.

These incentives may be traced to those theoretical bases of inter-organisational relationships discussed in Sections 2.3.1 to 2.3.6. Based on those theories, incentives for

collaboration may encompass economic, social, technical, structural, competitive and strategic factors. Among the strategic incentives to collaborate are the ability to reduce or share risk and benefits, acquire knowledge, innovate, achieve access to new markets and obtain brand synergies (Buttery & Buttery 1994). However, the theory of collaboration itself also provides insights to why this process is used for problem resolution or to harness opportunities (Gray 1989). Collaboration is a collective process of exploring differences among organisations to arrive at a solution through consensus (Wood & Gray 1991) as indicated in Section 2.2.4. Hence the incentives to engage in the process may be the diversity of inputs and responses to an issue, the ability to consider all stakeholders' interests, enhanced potential for innovation, improvements in current and future relationships and ownership of solutions (Gray 1989). As a consequence of the preceding discussion, nine categories of *incentives* for inter-organisational relationships are shown in Table 2.2.

These categories of incentives encompass resource acquisition, integration and efficiencies; learning and knowledge management; shared risks and benefits; shared decision-making; competitive and marketing leverage; social capital and professional links; innovation advantages; and, political or institutional legitimisation or enhancement. Depending on the individual and shared competencies of organisations in an industrial context, any one or more of these incentives may provide the impetus for inter-organisational relationships. For example, resource acquisition or integration may provide an incentive for public-private sector networks to advance the events tourism agenda in a community. In addition, the need to legitimise the government's role and image as the caretaker of public interests could also prompt inter-organisational relationships where community interest groups such as environmental bodies are involved.

Where a nation is bidding for a mega-event, inter-organisational relationships between government, non-government bodies and the private sector will be mandatory to achieve competitive and marketing advantages over other nations. Hence the degree of relevance of these relationship incentives to actors in those networks concerned with events tourism strategies is of interest in this research.

Table 2.2   **Incentives or inducements for inter-organisational relationships**

Incentives to collaborate	**Themes or issues within literature**	**Examples of authors**
1. Resource acquisition, integration and efficiencies	Lower production costs, reduce excess capacity, gain access to capital, labour and or materials, lean and responsive supply, buy in entrepreneurial talent	Achrol et al. (1990); Ahuja (2000); Buttery et al. (1994); Dyer et al. (1998); Gulati et al. (2000); Hite et al. (2001); Hoyt et al. (2000); Holmlund et al. (1997); Johnson et al. (2000); Lorenzoni et al. (1999); Spekman et al. (1995); Wernerfelt (1984);Williamson (1979, 1985)
2. Learning and knowledge management	Organisational learning, exchange of tacit and proprietal knowledge, knowledge management processes, learning networks, acquire management, operational and marketing expertise, technological learning	Beeby et al. (2000); Buttery et al. (1994); Andersson et al. (2001); Dyer (1998, 2000); Grant (1996); Hakansson et al. (2001); Holmquist (1999); Johnson et al. (2000); Shariq (1997); Tell (2000).
3. Shared risks and benefits	Lean supply and cost transparency, opportunity to share in success of a region, diversification out of a single economy, avoidance of political risk in international diversification,	Achrol et al. (1990); Ahuja (2000); Buttery et al. (1994); Grandori et al. (1995); Johnson et al. (2000); Ring et al. (1992)
4. Shared decision-making	Connectedness, interdependency, shared decision making and control	Axelsson et al. (1992); Hakansson et al. (1992); Gemunden et al. (1997) Johnson et al. (2000); Moller et al. (1995), Naud et al. (1998); Spekman et al. (1995)
5. Competitive and marketing leverage	Pre-empt competition through faster market entry, develop networking barriers to competition, brand image synergies, marketing know-how, access to marketing channels	Achrol et al. (1990), Araujo et al. (1990, 1997); Buttery et al. (1994); Cravens et al. (1996a); Cravens et al. (1996b)

Table 2.2   **Incentives or inducements for inter-organisational relationships**

Incentives to collaborate	Themes or issues within literature	Examples of authors
6. Social capital and professional links	Social capital creation, resources of new relationships, relationship stability, group norms, reputation and peer control, joint problem solving, trust, commitment, socio-professional development	Ahuja et al. (2000); Blankenburg et al. (1999); Holmlund et al. (1997); Johnson et al. (2000); Tsai (2000); Proenca et al. (1998); Turnbell et al. (1996); Zeithaml et al. (2001)
7. Technological and structural benefits	Exchange technological competencies, ability to coordinate and combine technical dimensions of actors,	Achrol et al. (1990); Buttery et al. (1994); Hakansson et al. (1995); Johnson et al. (2000); Lorenzoni et al. (1999); Spekman et al. (1995); Zeithaml et al. (2001)
8. Innovation advantages	Stimulate actors' culture of innovation, develop futuristic skills,	Achrol et al. (1990); Lorenzoni et al. (1999); Miles et al. (1986, 2000); Teece (1992); Todtling (1999)
9. Political or institutional legitimisation or enhancement	Government imperatives to collaborate; legitimise role of state in public interests; political or institutional complementarity	Buttery et al. (1994); Hall (1999, 2000); Osborne et al. (1997);

Source: developed for this research

2.3.11   Barriers or disincentives for inter-organisational relationships

Just as there are pre-existing conditions within and between organisations that induce relationship formation, there is a set of conditions that serve as barriers and situations that impede collaboration between organisations. In this section, these situational barriers as well as a number of other disincentives for inter-organisational relationships are explored.

The nature of domain overlap discussed in the previous section can provide a situational barrier to inter-organisational relationships. For example, *complete domain overlap* among organisations means that they exhibit the characteristics of competitors who have too few differences to warrant collaboration (Buttery & Buttery 1994). In addition, collaboration is not effective when one stakeholder may take unilateral action and/or there is conflict between stakeholders that is rooted in basic ideological differences (Gray 1989). These conditions give rise to some of the more specific disincentives to inter-organisational relationships.

Firstly, *history and ideology* can be a potential barrier to developing inter-organisational relationships. If there is no history of collaboration with stakeholders including community bodies or a history of conflict between focal agencies and community groups, then this may be a barrier to future relationships. For example, approaches to managing conflict, such as those observed with major events like the Formula One Grand Prix can be linked to community reactions (Hamilton 1997) that impact upon future collaborative attempts. At a deeper level, ideological dispositions towards a corporatist approach to strategy making might also influence an agency's propensity to collaborate. For example, within the Australian tourism sector, Hall (1999) suggests that there is a dominant corporatist approach that emphasises public-private sector partnerships in which the tourism industry, but not all stakeholders participate.

Secondly, *political factors, institutional regulations and norms* can have a direct influence on whether an agency has the ability or inclination to engage in collaborative relationships for strategy (Miles, Snow, & Miles 2000). In Queensland, research in the early 1990s (Buttery & Buttery 1994) identified that there was a need for further insights to how the state government and industry could provide a climate that was conducive for networking. Subsequently, state and national governments have actively promoted the development of networks in industries including tourism (Hall 1999; Healy 2000). For

events tourism strategies, there may be established ways of making decisions within the public sector institutional framework that preclude widespread stakeholder involvement. This situation could occur where there is no policy directive for a collaborative strategy process, no political rewards and no specified guidelines for how and when collaboration should occur (Gray 1989).

Thirdly, *societal and cultural norms* can serve to discourage collaborative networks between organisations (Buttery & Buttery 1994). A tendency towards individualism or collectivism in different cultural contexts has been highlighted (Hofstede 1984). However, a sense of individualism and self-interest within organisational settings can also prompt agencies and individuals to adopt a variety of defence mechanisms that prohibit collaboration (Grubbs 2000; Miles, Snow, & Miles 2000).

This relates to a fourth barrier to collaboration which is the impact of *different risk perceptions* on inter-organisational relationships. For example, barriers to interfirm relationships may be a perceived loss of control, uncertainty about future outcomes, the preclusion of others and exposure to your partners' partners (Hakansson & Snehota 1995). However, a collaborative process relies on recognising that these different risk perceptions of participants exist and must be reconciled (Gray 1989). Perceived risk is also contained within *managerial and organisational attitudes* that may serve as barriers to inter-organisational relationships.

In order to capitalise on opportunities to collaborate, managerial skills are needed that move beyond the task of managing subordinates to that of managing stakeholders over which the organisation has no control (Buttery & Buttery 1994). Managers with expertise in hierarchical organisations can be challenged by a network environment (Cravens & Shipp 1994). There is a need to allow time for interaction that facilitates collaborative initiatives, knowledge building about collaborative processes and the trust that is needed to underpin these processes (Miles, Snow, & Miles 2000). In some cases, leadership, organisational structures, rewards and decision-making processes may need review to accommodate inter-organisational relationships (Miles, Snow, & Miles 2000).

Two further disincentives for organisations to form these relationships are a lack of *partner credibility* or attractiveness and a lack of *perceived value* (Biong, Wathne, & Parvatiyar 1998). Organisations develop certain criteria, consciously or otherwise, for their choice of network or relational partners. Such criteria might include a commonality of objectives, an established reputation and issues of size, innovation, competency, reliability and sociability (Biong, Wathne, & Parvatiyar 1998). Thus a focal organisation forming relationships or participating in a network can be deterred if the actor(s) are not seen to be attractive on these criteria. In addition, organisations tend to assess the perceived value of a relational partner based on those benefits that were highlighted as inducements to collaborate in Table 2.2.

Finally, some organisations have been found to lack a *relational orientation*, having a limited belief in long term and close relationships (Biong, Wathne, & Parvatiyar 1998). In this vein, an organisation involved in events tourism development might develop relationships for the course of a major event, but not maintain those relationships once the event was over. Where there is little relational orientation, contracts and long term agreements tend to prevail, with new partners being invited at the end of these formal arrangements (Biong, Wathne, & Parvatiyar 1998).

In brief, there are conditions in which inter-organisational relationships do not succeed as well as a range of disincentives that serve as barriers for organisations to engage in collaborative relationships. Both situational conditions and a range of disincentives to collaboration exist. Based on the discussion in this section, these disincentives are different risk perceptions, organisational and managerial barriers, lack of perceived value, lack of partner credibility and lack of a relational orientation (Biong, Wathne, & Parvatiyar 1998; Buttery & Buttery 1994; Gray 1989; Miles & Snow 1992; Miles, Snow, & Miles 2000; Miles & Snow 1986). An understanding of the relevance of these barriers and disincentives for collaboration can help to build knowledge about the inter-organisational relationships of events tourism agencies in this research.

2.4 Inter-organisational relationships in tourism

Where the focus in previous sections of this chapter has been on theories of networks and relationships with some events tourism illustrations, this section will look directly at inter-organisational relationships in tourism. Within the tourism sector, an upsurge of interest in the benefits, processes and outcomes of inter-organisational relationships to forge sustainable destination development and marketing strategies is evident (Bramwell & Lane 2000b; Bramwell & Sharman 1999; Brent-Ritchie & Crouch 2000; Cooper 1997; Faulkner 2003; Hall 1999, 2000; Jamal & Getz 1995a, 1997; Palmer 1996, 1998; Selin 1993; Selin & Beason 1991; Selin, Schuett, & Carr 2000; Truly Sautter & Leisen 1999).

Notions of tourism strategy, different tourism planning traditions and organisational arrangements for tourism strategy and theories of inter-organisational relationships have already been discussed. Hence this section explores those themes and issues that have arisen in research of inter-organisational relationships in tourism. These themes include the links drawn between collaborative relationships and sustainable tourism, interpretations of relationships and networks in tourism and, the nature of theoretical frameworks for formulating collaborative tourism strategies.

Sustainable tourism and inter-organisational relationships. In the quest for sustainable tourism, reference to the need for 'collaboration' and 'partnerships' is widespread (Bramwell & Lane 2000a, 2000b; Hall 1999; Jamal & Getz 1995a; Selin & Chavez 1994, 1995; Selin, Schuett, & Carr 2000; Tremblay 2000a). However, the investigation of collaboration theory (Gray 1989; Huxham 1996; Wood & Gray 1991) and partnerships and alliances (Caffyn 2000; Garnham 1996; Palmer & Bejou 1995; Selin 1993; Timothy 2000) is more dominant than the discussion of network theories in tourism (Halme & Fadeeva 2000; Tremblay 1998). Insights to the formation of business relationships in tourism (Watkins & Bell 2002) are also less prevalent, due to a preoccupation with community collaboration theories.

Interest in collaboration theory among tourism theorists springs from attempts to draw together concepts of community-based tourism planning and the sustainable tourism concept in tourism strategy processes (for example, Faulkner 2003), each of which were discussed in Section 2.2.3. Where network models and business relationships embrace a range of cooperative, collaborative and competitive processes, the emphasis in sustainable

tourism literature is on stakeholder collaboration that engages both organisations and citizens (Marien & Pizam 1997; Reed 1997, 2000). In this vein, Hall (1999) suggests that an emphasis on corporatist notions of collaboration in public sector network structures undermines the social capital that is needed for sustainable development. Yet Halme et al. (2000) have demonstrated the practical application of public-private sector network structures in advancing a sustainable tourism agenda in four European countries. In addition, Tremblay (1998) points to the possibility of network structures directing sustainable tourism rents towards communities who are taking a proactive role (acting in advance) to manage their assets. Nevertheless, the goals of partnership emphasised by the public sector, including the Australian public sector, do not always reflect inclusive collaboration (Hall 1999).

Despite interest in integrated approaches to planning sustainable tourism, bureaucratic inertia and hierarchical decision-making are among factors that hinder the development of collaborative relationships in tourism (Selin & Chavez 1995). Suggestions that partnerships and collaboration need to be seen in the context of the public interest instead of the market interest (Hall 1999, 2000) highlight the divergence between the corporate, market-led and community, product-led arrangements for tourism strategy (Section 2.2.5). Yet tourism partnerships recommended for sustainable development are cross-sectoral, involving industry, government and the voluntary sector (Selin 2000).

In effect, the achievement of sustainable tourism requires a 'whole of destination' approach (Faulkner 2003) that involves managing sets of relationships between representatives of economic, socio-cultural and environmental concerns within a destination. However, structured approaches to managing these relationships in tourism are developmental (Selin 1993). Where multi-stakeholder processes are attempted for sustainable tourism strategies, the need to include all stakeholder perspectives in decision-making and achieve consensus-based outcomes continue to challenge these processes (Jamal & Getz 2000). For events tourism, there is no data that demonstrates a history of these multi-stakeholder approaches to strategy, although Getz's model of events tourism strategy (1991b; 1997a) does embrace these processes. Therefore, this research may or may not observe synergies between the nature of inter-organisational relationships of events tourism agencies and a sustainable tourism agenda in Australia's states and territories.

Interpretations of inter-organisational relationships in tourism. The management of inter-organisational relationships is becoming a central focus of research in tourism and hospitality (Medina-Munoz & Garcia-Falcon 2000). The interaction of tourism producers in an inter-organisational, supply-side framework and the stake of host communities in tourism have engendered interest in a range of partnerships, alliances and networks. While alliances in tourism have been defined as formal relationships within and between tourism suppliers of a strategic, opportunistic or tactical nature (Selin & Chavez 1995), interpretations of partnerships in tourism encompass formal and informal relationships and networks. For example, tourism partnerships have been referred to as cooperative marketing initiatives, intergovernmental coalitions; public-private sector partnerships and inter-sectoral planning (Selin & Chavez 1995). Actors in these partnerships can include tourism authorities, non-government bodies, the private sector and professional, voluntary and community groups (Greer 2002; Medina-Munoz & Garcia-Falcon 2000).

In studying inter-organisational actors in tourism, few studies have used relationship marketing or its constructs such as trust, commitment, communication and mutual expectations to study business relationships in tourism settings (Crotts & Turner 1999; Medina-Munoz & Garcia-Falcon 2000; Truly Sautter & Leisen 1999; Watkins & Bell 2002). However, exploratory research of Queensland tourism managers' experiences of their business relationships suggests that managers interpret their relationships as competitive, cooperative or collaborative based on the above constructs as well as time, the nature of decision-making and beneficiaries. Findings of this study suggest that relationships move along a continuum with cooperative networking preceding collaboration and that pre-existing experience is an indicator of future relationships (Watkins & Bell 2002). This influence of pre-existing interactions was observed in the discussion of influences on network theories in Section 2.3.8.

In tourism, network theories have been analysed at the policy level (Dredge 2003; Pforr 2002) and at the level of industry, destination and marketing planning (Hall 2000; Halme & Fadeeva 2000; Selin 1993, 2000; Selin & Beason 1991; Tremblay 1998). While policy and strategy networks may overlap in the public sector (for example, Dredge 2003), this research is only concerned with networks that shape development and marketing strategies for events tourism at state/territory level (see delimitations in Section 1.6). In other tourism domains, Hall et al. (1997) have examined relationships that range from

dyadic linkages to networks in wine tourism. Research of inter-organisational relationships between New Zealand's central government agencies and non-government stakeholders was also underway at the time of writing this thesis.

While these interdependencies exist between tourism and other stakeholders in destinations, potential networks rather than existing networks may also be observed in emerging tourism domains (Selin 1993). For example, Hall et al. (1997) noted the presence of organisation sets, action sets and networks in wine tourism. Where organisation sets were clusters of dyadic relations of a focal organisation, action sets were coalitions of organisations working to achieve a specific purpose in the short term (Hall, Cambourne, Macionis, & Johnson 1997). Similar to the Queensland study of business relationships discussed above, Hall et al. (1997) suggest that relationships move from dyadic linkages to organisation sets and action sets before becoming embedded in formal networks. Consequently, this research of events tourism cannot assume that inter-organisational relationships among events development agencies and other stakeholders in events tourism are recognised as network structures by these organisations.

Frameworks for tourism collaboration and partnerships. It could be said that frameworks to engage stakeholders in cross-sectoral tourism development and strategy making are more evident than models of inter-organisational relationships in tourism (Bramwell & Sharman 1999; Caffyn 2000; Faulkner 2003; Hall 2000; Jamal & Getz 1995a, 1997; Selin & Beason 1991; Selin & Chavez 1995; Selin, Schuett, & Carr 2000; Truly Sautter & Leisen 1999). While these frameworks include inter-organisational relationships, they also outline avenues for citizen participation, an element that is not directly embraced in inter-organisational structures developed for industrial markets. Indeed, citizens' involvement as volunteers was a highlight of the Olympic Games and the Paralympic Games in Sydney in 2000. Citizens may also be represented in inter-organisational networks by leaders of community organisations and groups. Therefore, the perspective of inter-organisational relationships adopted in this research embraces the community through its organisational representatives.

Reflecting this perspective, the existing frameworks for collaborative tourism development exhibit some common characteristics. Firstly, theories that are common bases for these frameworks encompass collaboration (Gray 1989; Huxham 1996; Wood & Gray 1991), power relations and dependence (Emerson 1962; Reed 1997), community

tourism (Murphy 1985; Simmons 1994), sustainable tourism (Inskeep 1991; Wahab 1997; Weaver 2000), stakeholder management (Donaldson & Preston 1995; Freeman 1984; Jackson 2001) and strategic planning (Aaker 1998; Bourgeois & Brodwin 1984; Christenson 1997; Mintzberg 1994b; Mintzberg & Waters 1985). Using these theoretical platforms, tourism authors have proposed both stakeholder collaboration frameworks and visioning processes for tourism destinations.

Most models for developing tourism partnerships and collaborative structures for tourism planning (Jamal & Getz 1995a, 1997; Selin 2000; Selin & Chavez 1995) reflect Gray's process (1989) of problem setting, direction setting and structuring with adaptations for the tourism context. To complement these approaches to collaborative tourism planning (Bramwell & Sharman 1999; Fyall, Leask, & Garrod 2001) the need to analyse the scope, intensity and degree of consensus is emphasised to establish whether planning is inclusive and results in collective learning. Managing power relations and involving stakeholders with a strategic orientation that is compatible with the tourism agency are activities highlighted by tourism theorists (Bramwell & Sharman 1999; Reed 1997; Truly Sautter & Leisen 1999).

Finally, a stream of research has emerged on collaborative visioning in tourism (Faulkner 2003; Helling 1998; Jamal & Getz 1997). For example, Faulkner's model (2003) for visioning the tourism future of the Gold Coast reflected collaboration theories, but also advocated some of the strategic management perspectives of inter-organisational relationships discussed in Section 2.3.4. Theories of the learning organisation as well as an incremental strategy model (van der Heiden 1997) were advocated in Faulkner's model (2003) to move stakeholders in the Gold Coast visioning exercise towards consensus about change.

In brief, there is a growing body of research of inter-organisational and cross-sectoral partnerships in tourism that draws on those theories of inter-organisational relationships established in Section 2.3 of this chapter. Yet additional research of a qualitative and quantitative nature has been suggested to seek further insights to inter-organisational relationships in tourism (Jamal & Getz 1995a; Long 1997). In particular, the engagement of inter-organisational relationships in strategy making for tourism product markets like events tourism is under researched.

2.4.1 Inter-organisational relationships and events

Moving from the broader context of inter-organisational relationships in tourism, this section explores inter-organisational relationships in developing strategies for individual events. Relationships and networks have been explored in a limited array of studies of event organisation and marketing (Collin-Lachaud & Duyck 2002; Erickson & Kushner 1999; Larson 1998b, 2002; Long 2000; Olkokonen 2001; Wolfe, Meenaghan, & O'Sullivan 1998). These studies embrace inter-organisational relationships for events in both sport and the performing arts. However, Long's (2000) research of partnerships surrounding a themed festival year is the only study of this nature to examine linkages with tourism. Three different perspectives of inter-organisational relationships feature in these studies and these include inter-organisational collaboration (Long 2000), relationship marketing among internal and external partners of events and festivals (Collin-Lachaud & Duyck 2002; Larson 1998b, 2002) and the network model of relationships in sports events (Erickson & Kushner 1999; Olkokonen 2001; Wolfe, Meenaghan, & O'Sullivan 1998).

Firstly, programmatic, federational and systemic partnership models (Waddock 1991) are examined by Long (2000) to show the relevance of each of these models (discussed in Section 2.3.7) in establishing links between arts and tourism. Issues affecting event partnerships are described as resource interdependencies and the need for economic efficiencies, building corporate-community relations through sponsorship, reconciliation of partners' objectives, reconciling partners' objectives, ideologies and norms, political relationships and the geographic reach of the event. Reference is also made to the importance of categorising partnerships according to management style, the degree of conflict among participants and their power and diversity (Long 2000). A tendency to assume that partnerships will emerge between arts events and tourism is noted. However, unless festivals are well established, collaboration and consensus between arts bodies, tourism authorities and public sector agencies may not be achieved with ease due to their different agendas (Long 2000).

Secondly, studies of event project relationships and networks have been conducted (Collin-Lachaud & Duyck 2002; Larson 1998b, 2002). For example, Larson (2002) uses relationship marketing theory and the concept of a political market square to characterise relationships between actors organising and marketing events. The market square was a

context for examining relationships and networks between actors (Larson 2002). Political processes of gatekeeping by a network convenor, negotiation, coalition building, trust and identity building as well as actors' entries and exits from the network were observed to change the power structure over the course of Sweden's Storsjoyran Festival (Larson 2002). Nevertheless, longer term stability was created by including a common core of actors in the annual reconstruction of the festival's network. Thus this study emphasised the presence of change and stabilising mechanisms in a reoccurring event.

Finally, several studies highlight those theories and issues within the industrial network model that are pertinent to sports events (Erickson & Kushner 1999; Olkokonen 2001; Wolfe, Meenaghan, & O'Sullivan 1998). The importance of potential sponsors engaging in an evaluation of not just the event, but its ability to link activities and resources to other participants in a network of sponsorship relationships, is emphasised (Olkokonen 2001). In their macro level study of sports networks, Wolfe et al. (1998) conceptualised relationships between the national governing body for a sport, the media and sponsors to illustrate power, dependence and commitment among actors. Because transactional relationships dominate, it is argued that these networks are characterised by market dominance by the media and sponsors with a resulting loss of efficiencies for all actors. A relationship-based network is recommended to reduce conflicts and increase trust and commitment between all actors in the sports event network (Wolfe, Meenaghan, & O'Sullivan 1998).

For a single sports event, Erickson et al. (1999) describe the event as a pure service created by a dynamic network (Miles & Snow 1986) that brings together actors and competencies for a short period. Relationships tend to be contractual, but they may also be ongoing based on actors' consistency of performance (Erickson & Kushner 1999). Within this sports event network, a primary relationship exists between an event promoter and a facility owner and the attractiveness of each partner is tied to their own micro-network of relationships. In addition, some tertiary relationships of these primary actors contribute to the event (Erickson & Kushner 1999). For example, the facility owner may have a relationship with a community interest group that does not participate in the wider network for the sports event. Overall, this study serves to highlight the importance of pre-existing relationships in the formation of networks as well as the range of relationships within a network that underpin its structure.

In brief, studies of inter-organisational relationships in the context of sports and arts events illustrate the applicability of relationship marketing and network theories to the events domain. Nevertheless, there is little research of relationships or networks that link events and tourism at destination level and there are no known studies of relationships between individual events and tourism agencies for devising events tourism strategies. Hence the focus of this research on inter-organisational relationships for events tourism at different levels within Australian states/territories addresses identified gaps in the extant literature.

2.4.2 Summary of parent theory two

Theories of institutional economics, organisational environment, strategic management, relationship marketing and networks underpin studies of inter-organisational relationships. Because inter-organisational relationships are defined in this research as relationships and networks, the relationship marketing and network paradigms directly contribute to its parent theory alongside tourism strategy (Section 2.2). A range of network types exist that may be studied from relational and other perspectives. This research is interested in networks of two or more inter-connected relationships.

Themes that guide network research include actors and their network positions; network connectivity, density, structure, cluster and spread and membership dynamics. Characteristics of these relationships or networks can reflect collaboration, cooperation, coordination and/or competition. Macro-environmental conditions and a number of incentives and disincentives for organisations to collaborate have also been observed that could affect the formation of networks for events tourism strategies in this research.

Within tourism, research has focused upon collaboration and partnerships at the cross-sectoral level. A 'whole of destination' approach to formulating strategies for sustainable tourism has prompted the development of collaborative tourism planning frameworks and more inclusive processes for arriving at a destination vision. The adoption of relationship marketing and network theories are not dominant in tourism research, but the term 'partnerships' is used to embrace many relational structures. While collaboration theories are applied in tourism at the policy, industry and marketing levels, emerging rather than existing networks may be observed in embryonic tourism domains.

Research of inter-organisational relationships in events is limited to a few studies of sports and arts events. Here, theories of collaboration, relationships and networks are applied. Issues that are common in these studies include power and resource dependence, the need to secure resource efficiencies, the influence of different ideologies, norms and political relationships and the need to reconcile actors' objectives. Within event and festival networks, atmospheric characteristics of trust and commitment, the degree of change and stability and patterns of collaboration and conflict have also been studied. Relationship based networks rather than transaction networks are advocated for major events to minimise conflicts and enhance their effectiveness.

Overall, the issues raised in this section point to the lack of empirical research of inter-organisational relationships in events tourism at the level of destinations and major events. Thus the nature of relationships and networks and incentives and disincentives for their formation are yet to be explored for their impacts upon events tourism strategies.

2.5 Theoretical framework and research issues

To synthesise the discussion of the events tourism research context and the parent theories of tourism strategy and inter-organisational relations, the conceptual framework for this research is presented in Figure 2.10. This framework outlines three inter-related spheres of focus within this research of how inter-organisational relationships impact upon events tourism strategies.

Figure 2.10   **Theoretical framework for this research showing the four research issues**

Sphere one

Sphere two

Sphere three

RI 1

Public sector environment of events tourism

Government policies and public sector agendas

Events agencies' roles and links with tourism

RI 2

Events tourism strategy forms and processes of strategy making

Events tourism strategy levels (macro level of city, region or state; micro level of major events)

RI 3

Inter-organisational relationships of agencies for events tourism strategies

- Relationship forms and characteristics

Relationship incentives and disincentives

RI 4

Notes: RI   = research issue,   ⇨ = one-way relationship,   ⇔ = two-way relationship.

Source: developed for this research from the literature review.

The first sphere relates to the public sector institutional *context* for events tourism (research issue 1), including the policies, organisational structures and roles of agencies in each Australian state and territory. Within this context, the second sphere represents each state's events tourism *strategy* forms and processes (research issue 2). Both the micro level of individual events and the macro levels of cities, regions and states are analysed within this sphere. Finally, the third sphere in the framework focuses on the events agencies' *inter-organisational relationships* that impact on these strategy forms and processes. Here, the form and characteristics of relationships or networks (research issue 3) and the importance of incentives and disincentives for these relationships (research issue 4) are explored.

Each sphere of the theoretical framework is now discussed in order to explain how the four research issues or questions have emerged from the discussion in this chapter.

Sphere one: Public sector institutional context for events tourism. In order to position the role of the public sector in events tourism strategies, Section 2.1.2 examined the institutional arrangements for events tourism in Australia. In each state or territory, the public sector combines with the private sector and independent events organisations to deliver events and festivals with tourism potential. The potential of events to enhance destination image and their economic impacts are primary reasons why government departments and/or public sector events agencies seek to acquire, develop and market events in Australia's states/territories (Faulkner 1993; Getz 1997a; Jago & Shaw 1998; Mules 1998).

Where some states/territories have policies and strategies for events or events tourism development, others operate within tourism departments or broader economic imperatives of the government (Mules 1998). Thus there are *different policy frameworks, structures and linkages* between government and statutory authorities in each state that influence events tourism (Section 2.1.2). No previous studies have examined how this public sector environment impacts upon events tourism strategies and the inter-organisational relationships that influence these strategies. This leads to the first research issue which is:

> **RI.1** *How does the public sector institutional* **environment** *impact upon events tourism strategies and the inter-organisational relationships that shape them, and why?*

Sphere two: Events tourism strategies. The focus in the second sphere of the theoretical framework is on the nature of strategies for events tourism within each state or territory. As described in Section 2.1, these events tourism strategies may be observed for major events or at city, regional or state level (Getz 1991b, 1997a). In this research, it is not assumed that each state will have a tangible strategy document or that strategy will exist in the form of a structured plan. While prescriptive, strategic planning models are dominant in tourism and events tourism (Athiyaman 1995; Getz 1997a; Gnoth & Anwar 2000; Heath & Wall 1992; Tremblay 2000b), there is emergent research on descriptive strategies of a collaborative and incremental nature in tourism (for example, Faulkner 2003; Jamal & Getz 1995a, 1995b; Selin 1993, 2000). However, there is no research that examines applications of these alternative strategy models for events tourism within the public sector. As a result, the strategy perspective adopted for this research encompasses both prescriptive and descriptive forms of strategy and the emphasis is placed on 'how' as well as 'what' in exploring events tourism strategies in each state.

The nature and processes of strategy adopted by public sector events agencies is the primary focus along with the contribution of inter-organisational relationships to these processes. The literature has suggested that tourism strategy processes may be more or less collaborative (Faulkner 2003; Reed 2000; Selin 1993). Hence it is envisaged that different inter-organisational relationships could accompany different types of strategy processes. These inter-organisational relationships and strategy processes may also vary at major event, city, regional and state levels. Thus the second research issue is:

> *R1 2: How do events tourism **strategy forms and processes** reflect and influence events agencies' inter-organisational relationships, and why?*

Sphere three: Inter-organisational relationships for strategy making. Because of the shared responsibility between the public and private sectors and independent events for events tourism, a range of inter-organisational relationships may impact upon the strategy processes shown in sphere two of the framework. In particular, public sector events agencies are focal organisations whose inter-organisational relationships have the potential to develop or influence strategy processes that guide events tourism outcomes.

These inter-organisational relationships of events agencies may include networks of two or more business relationships (Anderson, Hakansson, & Johanson 1994) and can be investigated for their role, purpose and membership (Cravens, Piercy, & Shipp 1996). That is, the presence of relationships or networks, the profile of their actors or members and various relationship characteristics are of interest for events tourism (Axelsson 1995; Easton 1992). Although research has examined relationships for individual events and festivals (for example, Collin-Lachaud & Duyck 2002; Erickson & Kushner 1999; Larson 1998a, 2002), no prior research has explored characteristics of inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategies. Thus this research is concerned with the form of these relationships and characteristics such as their formality, permanency, degree of cluster, leadership, communication and atmosphere (Axelsson 1995; Easton 1992; Johanson & Mattson 1992; Low 1996; Mattson 1985).

A precursor to the kinds of inter-organisational relationships formed by events agencies is their stakeholder orientation. The two extremes in stakeholder orientations for strategy making of community, destination-led and corporate, market-led models were identified in tourism literature (Flagestad & Hope 2001; Hall 2000; Weaver 2000). Based on the literature, a synergistic model between the two extremes was added to produce a continuum of stakeholder relationships that could exist for events tourism strategy making (Table 2.1 in Chapter 2). Among these possible models of the agencies' stakeholder orientation, those that apply within events tourism strategy making are not known. In this regard, both the theories of inter-organisational relationships and augmented theories of stakeholder involvement in tourism strategy provide a platform for exploring a third research issue:

> **RI.3** *What are the **forms and characteristics** of events agencies' inter-organisational relationships for shaping events tourism strategies, and why?*

Finally, a range of incentives and disincentives are potential influences on events agencies' involvement in relationships and networks for events tourism strategies as shown in Sections 2.3.10 and 2.3.11. Within the literature, conditions which may serve as *incentives* for network participation include the nature of domain overlap (Buttery & Buttery 1994) and pre-existing relationships among actors (Ahuja 2000; Ring & Van de Ven 1994; Tsai 2000). Domain overlap refers to product or service similarities, client similarities, the actors' modes of operation and territory and time considerations (Buttery

& Buttery 1994; Thorelli 1986). To the extent that events agencies can identify the potential contribution of inter-organisational relationships in one or more of these domains could affect their willingness to participate.

In addition to these conditions, a range of other incentives may be studied for their relevance to events agencies' inter-organisational relationships. These include: resource acquisition, integration or efficiencies; learning and knowledge management; shared risks and benefits; shared decision-making; competitive and marketing leverage; social capital and professional links; technological and structural benefits; innovation advantages and finally, political or institutional legitimisation or enhancement (for example, Achrol, Scheer, & Stern 1990; Araujo 1990; Buttery & Buttery 1994; Johnsen, Wynstra, Zheng, Harland, & Lamming 2000; Lorenzoni & Lipparini 1999). None of the above incentives for relationship or network formation for strategy making appear to have been investigated previously in the events tourism domain.

From the opposite perspective, a range of barriers or *disincentives* for relationships and network participation also exists. Here, inter-organisational relationships might be affected by the ability of a stakeholder to take unilateral action or other legal factors (Gray 1989). In addition, potential disincentives for relationships and networks are political and institutional barriers, historical and ideological factors, incompatible societal or cultural norms, different risk perceptions, organisational and managerial barriers, partner credibility, lack of perceived value and a lack of a relational orientation (Biong, Wathne, & Parvatiyar 1998; Buttery & Buttery 1994; Gray 1989; Miles & Snow 1992; Miles, Snow, & Miles 2000). However, the impact of these disincentives on relationship formation for events tourism strategies is not known. In brief, both the nature and importance of incentives and disincentives for inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategies provide a fertile ground for new research. Hence the fourth research issue is:

> *RI.4 What are the **incentives and disincentives** for events agencies to engage in inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategy making, and why?*

Research propositions

A number of propositions can be developed to further refine the focus of this research in the context of each of the four research issues already discussed. These propositions are more detailed and focused than the more general or inductive research issues already presented. They are not intended to de-emphasise the inductive, exploratory nature of the research, but instead, provide an opportunity to strengthen the deductive aspect of the qualitative methodology discussed in the next chapter. Yin (1994) indicates that propositions should not only reflect the theoretical issues, but also point to where to look for defining evidence. The literature review and the convergent interview process (discussed in Chapter 3) provide the platform for the research propositions. Each proposition is now presented in the context of the four research issues already outlined.

RI 1: How does the public sector institutional environment impact upon events tourism strategies and the inter-organisational relationships that shape them, and why?

> ***RP 1:*** *That different public sector environments of events agencies will be accompanied by a related difference in inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategy making.*

RI 2*:* How do events tourism strategy forms and processes reflect and influence events agencies' inter-organisational relationships, and why?

> ***RP 2****: That events agencies' interpretations of events tourism strategies will be diverse and not just reflective of the planning perspective of strategy.*

RI 3: What are the forms and characteristics of events agencies' inter-organisational relationships for shaping events tourism strategies, and why?

> ***RP 3a****: That the stakeholder orientation for events tourism strategy making reflects a corporate, market-led model more than a community, destination-led or synergistic model.*

> ***RP 3b****: That inter-organisational relationships are more dominant in shaping events tourism strategies for individual events than destination-level events tourism strategies.*

RP 3c: *That inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategies will reflect forms of cooperation, coordination and competition, with a lesser emphasis on collaboration.*

RI 4: What are the incentives and disincentives for events agencies to engage in inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategy making, and why?

RP 4: *That incentives and disincentives for inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategies will emphasise pre-existing relationships, domain overlap, economic, political, institutional and managerial factors and the agency's degree of relational orientation.*

In concluding, this chapter has presented insights to the research context of events tourism, theories underpinning tourism strategy and also, inter-organisational relationships. The theoretical framework that emerges from themes in these domains has led to four research issues shown in Figure 2.10. Research propositions (Yin 1994) have then been identified to refine the focus of the enquiry and enhance the analytic generalisability of the research findings. To clarify the process used to investigate these issues, Chapter 3 outlines the methodology for this research.

3   Methodology

In the previous chapter, issues were highlighted from the literature and a theoretical framework was presented that included four research issues for investigation. The aim of this chapter is to explain the research paradigm and the methods of data collection and analysis used to address these research issues. In addition, it presents results of the first exploratory phase of the study and explains their contribution to the final research design.

The structure of the chapter has nine parts as shown in Figure 3.1. In Sections 3.1 and 3.2, links are made between the realism paradigm and qualitative methodologies chosen by the researcher and the research problem identified in Chapter 1. The choice of the two qualitative methodologies of convergent interviews and multiple case research is also justified.

Figure 3.1   **Outline of Chapter 3 with section numbers noted**
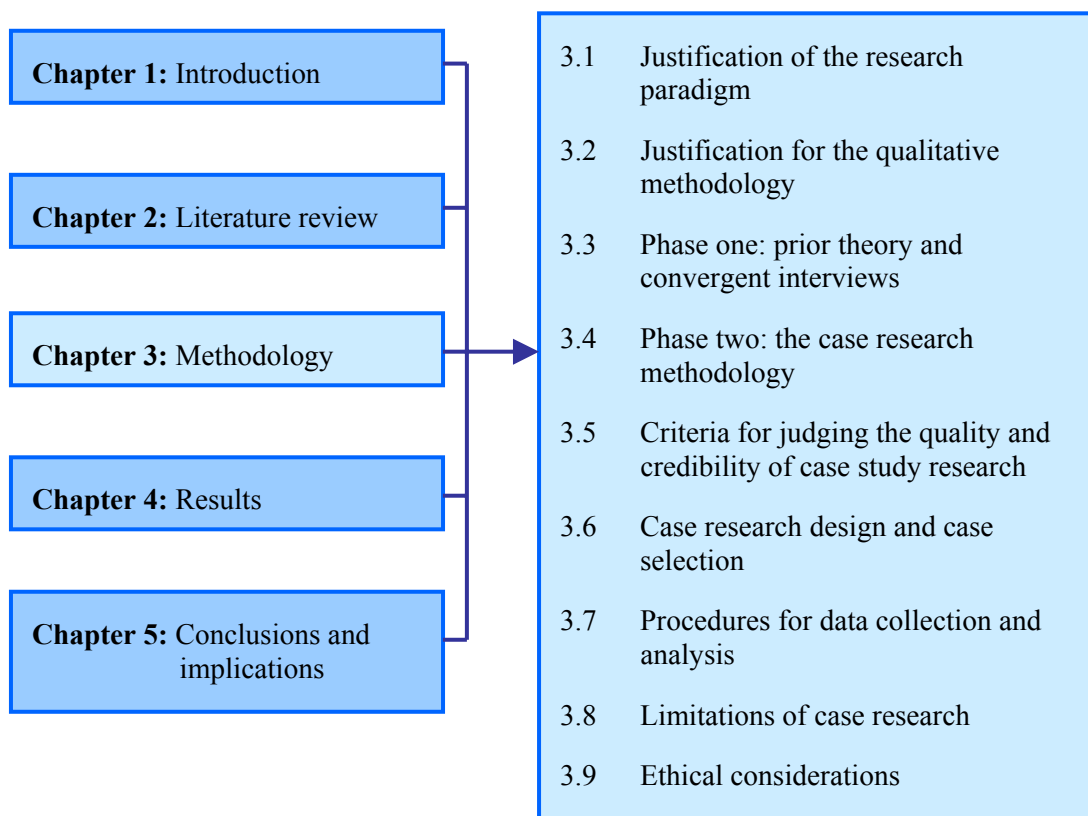
Section 3.3 then explains the nature of the convergent interview technique employed in phase one of the research. Here, the choice of interviewees and the process of determining convergence are discussed before linking the findings within convergent interview data to gaps in the literature of Chapter 2. The case study methodology is then explained in

Section 3.4 to 3.6. Finally, the latter sections provide insights on the case research implementation, limitations of the method and ethical considerations.

3.1   Justification of the research paradigm

The aim of this research is to establish how inter-organisational relationships of events development agencies contribute to events tourism strategies in Australian states/territories. Because it has been shown that this subject has been under-researched for micro level events and at the macro level of destinations, the area is pre-paradigmatic (Perry, Riege, & Brown 1998). Theories underpinning inter-organisational relationships are diverse (Osborn & Hagedoorn 1997) and there is little evidence of their application in the context of developing events tourism strategy (Section 2.2.6). Therefore, the choice of a research paradigm that supports theory development about these relationships in events tourism as an emergent field of enquiry is required.

A decision about the philosophical basis of the research has been made in assessing the appropriate paradigm or world view (Deshpande 1983). Scientific paradigms that guide research of both an inductive and deductive nature have been grouped into the four categories of positivism, critical theory, constructivism and realism (Guba 1990; Perry, Riege, & Brown 1998). Among these paradigms, the positivist paradigm emphasises deduction, while the phenomenological paradigms of critical theory, constructivism and realism emphasise induction (Guba 1990; Healy & Perry 2000; Neuman 1994; Perry, Riege, & Brown 1998). Each of these paradigms is now compared for its relevance to this research in order to justify the choice of the realism paradigm.

Comparison of the four research paradigms. The three elements of ontology (or the reality), the epistemology (or relationship between the researcher and that reality) and methodology (method of investigating that reality) are interrelated in the choice of paradigm (Guba & Lincoln 1994). These elements were each reviewed to determine the relevant paradigm for this study. The four paradigms were considered in turn, beginning with the realism paradigm that was relevant for this research.

The *realist* position is that explanatory knowledge is sought (Easton 1998) of a real world that is independent of researchers, although there are many perceptions of it (Naude & Turnbell 1998; Perry, Alizadeh, & Riege 1997). For example, in events tourism, there is a real world in which sets of relationships exist between individuals and organisations for

shaping strategies that capitalise on the tourism potential of events. Methodologies that obtain a better picture of such undiscovered realities employ qualitative techniques. In contrast, the *positivist* paradigm that dominates social science research assumes an apprehendable reality driven by immutable laws (Guba & Lincoln 1994). Positivists utilise quantitative methods to measure that reality with zero measurement error for the dependent variables. In the events tourism context, the relationships and strategies that shape outcomes are not apprehendable or tangible constructs.

The naturalistic and subjectivist alternative to both realism and positivism is *constructivism* that is based on multiple, constructed realities. A constructivist maps multiple realities with the assumption that there is no reality as important as that created by our awareness (Hunt 1991). However, the meanings attributed to inter-organisational relationships in events tourism do not in themselves decide strategic outcomes, but rather tourists in an external market do. From a realism perspective (Aronson, Hare, & Way 1995; Outhwaite 1983; Perry, Riege, & Brown 1998), these relationships and networks, and their outcomes, will exist independently of any one individual and may be studied through a process of triangulating observations about them.

Like constructivists, *critical theorists* also reject the existence of a window to an imperfect reality or truth (Anderson 1986; Healy 2000). Within critical theory, it is assumed that reality and knowledge are transformed over time by structural/historical insights and that the researcher may change the world in which respondents live (Anderson 1986; Guba & Lincoln 1994; Perry, Alizadeh, & Riege 1997). Because there is no intent to shape or transform reality or groups within it, critical theory is also inappropriate for this research. In addition, the researcher is neither an objective nor an involved participant, but mediates perceptions of reality through the experiences or perceptions that they bring to the research (Aronson, Hare, & Way 1995).

Choice of the realism paradigm. In contrast to positivism, constructivism and critical theory, realism researchers recognise that better development of models from prior theory can move *closer* to the truth, although precise knowledge of reality remains uncertain (Aronson, Hare, & Way 1995; Guba & Lincoln 1994; Healy 2000; Hirschman 1986; Outhwaite 1983; Perry, Riege, & Brown 1998). That realism is relevant for this research can be supported further by the research context. The social realities of the sets of inter-connected relationships of events agencies and events tourism strategy processes

represent complex phenomena (Yin 1994). In addition, knowledge about both relationships and strategy in events tourism is still developmental. The opportunity for further research of business networks and relationships is emphasised by various authors (Greenhalgh 2001; Greer 2002; Healy 2000; O'Donnell, Gilmore, Cummins, & Carson 2001; Perry & Pyatt 1995; Perry, Riege, & Brown 1998; Tinsley & Lynch 2001)including those in tourism (Watkins & Bell 2002). Furthermore, events tourism has also been described as an emergent field of enquiry (Formica 1998). Little qualitative research about events tourism has been done and the existing prescriptive frameworks for events tourism strategy processes have not been empirically explored. Thus a reality remains to be discovered in this field with opportunities for further theory development (Easton 1998) about events tourism and relationships and networks in this context.

In brief, realism is appropriate for investigating the deeper structures and processes (Easton 2002) of inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategy. Arguments are also building for the adoption of naturalistic research paradigms that adopt qualitative means of enquiry in the area of business networks and relationships (Hill, McGowan, & Drummond 1999). Based on the above discussion, the adoption of the realism paradigm for this research is justified on a range of ontological, epistemological and methodological grounds.

3.2   Justification for the qualitative methodology

Because of the realism, theory building nature of this events tourism research, a qualitative methodology was relevant. Where quantitative research is bounded by statistical rules, qualitative research is a creative process that relies on the insights and conceptual abilities of the analyst (Patton 1990). In effect, this qualitative research seeks to understand reality through investigating actors' relationships and networks for events tourism strategies and clarifying the ascribed values, language and meanings within this domain (Deshpande 1983).

Like other fields of social science enquiry, tourism has been dominated by quantitative methodologies (Riley & Love 1999). However, understanding emerging tourism settings and behaviour in those settings requires qualitative research (Jamal & Hollinshead 2001). Events tourism represents a setting in which little qualitative research is evident and the existing prescriptive frameworks for events tourism strategy processes have not been

empirically investigated. Finally, there is increased support for utilising qualitative research to investigate inter-organisational relationships and networks (Easton 1995, 1998; Healy 2000; Hill, McGowan, & Drummond 1999; O'Donnell & Cummins 1999).

The qualitative methods chosen for this research include the convergent interviewing technique (Carson, Gilmore, Perry, & Gronhaug 2001b; Dick 1990; Rao & Perry 2002, 2003) for the first phase of the investigation and a multiple case research methodology in the second phase (Carson, Gilmore, Perry, & Gronhaug 2001a; Eisenhardt 1989; Perry 1998, 2001; Stake 1995; Yin 1993, 1994). This combined use of qualitative methods was justified to respond to the research problem identified.

3.3 Phase one: prior theory and the convergent interviewing technique

Consideration was next given to the level of prior theory to be used in the mix of qualitative methods. Although there is a body of research on inter-organisational relationships and some frameworks for events tourism strategy, there is no research that links these domains or suggests their relevance or importance. A balance of inductive and deductive approaches was achieved through the use of convergent interviews followed by a case research methodology (Parkhe 1993; Perry 1998; Perry, Riege, & Brown 1998).

The convergent interviewing technique was chosen to explore and refine the research issues to be included in the theoretical framework for this research. This method collects, analyses and interprets qualitative information about a person's knowledge, opinions, experiences, attitudes and beliefs through using a series of interviews that converge on important issues (Carson, Gilmore, Perry, & Gronhaug 2001b; Dick 1990; Nair & Riege 1995; Rao & Perry 2003). The cyclical nature of convergent interviews meant that the researcher could refine the content and processes of the depth interviews to narrow down the research issues and achieve more focus in subsequent interviews (Dick 1990). Each interviewee was exposed to responses from previous interviews to achieve a progressive triangulation of data. This process of refinement continued until a firm pattern of data emerged with no new information arising in the interviews (Dick 1990).

Reflecting the purpose of qualitative enquiry, the convergent interviews represented a questioning process as well as a search for new questions (de Ruyter & Scholl 1998). The power of this method was its combined unstructured content and structured processes that led the researcher to an understanding of convergence by interviewees on issues or a divergence that could be explained (Carson, Gilmore, Perry, & Gronhaug 2001b).

Choice of interviewees. For the convergent interviews, a collection of people was chosen to gain relevant rather than representative information (Carson, Gilmore, Perry, & Gronhaug 2001b ; Dick 1990). In addition, the principles of seeking variation and snowballing were employed - the first person directed the researcher to others who had knowledge in the area (Patton 1990). Because of the limited availability of 'experts' in events tourism, this research commenced with academic informants and then moved to other key informants practicing as managers or consultants in events tourism. The content of the data gathered and degree of convergence on issues guided the researcher in determining the final number of participants (Dick 1990).

The convergent interviews were conducted in the four Australian states of Queensland, New South Wales, Victoria and Western Australia. A series of six face-to-face convergent interviews provided a sufficient range and depth for a convergence of views to be observed. Convergence is a form of stability, that is, it occurs when an interviewee agrees with previous interviewees and/or a disagreement with them can be explained by, for example, different industry backgrounds or professional experiences (Nair & Riege 1995). The interviewees included three academics who had conducted industry consultancies as well as academic research in events tourism. In addition, two senior managers in state-level events agencies were interviewed as well as an events tourism consultant with experience in major events production. Table 3.1 profiles participating experts in this research phase. Their state of origin is not identified to preserve anonymity. An explanation of participants' backgrounds is provided in the later analysis of findings.

Table 3.1 **Participants in phase one - convergent interviews**

Interviewee	Origin	Nature of expert
A	State 1	Manager, Events agency
B	State 2	Academic, Events tourism
C	State 3	Academic, Events tourism
D	State 4	Academic with management experience
E	State 4	Manager, Events agency
F	State 1	Consultant, Events tourism

Although the total number of interviews was less than the minimum of twelve people or one percent of a target population of up to 200 advocated by Dick (1990), stability and convergence has been reported with between six and ten convergent interviews in marketing research. (Nair & Riege 1995; Rao & Perry 2002, 2003; Woodward 1997). Importantly, these individuals were found to be 'information rich' and provided a breadth and depth of insights on the issues (Patton 1990). Also, because of the specialised nature of the topic, most interviewees were known to each other. Hence it was decided after evidence of data convergence that the limited value of adding more interviewees was offset by data contamination risks.

Overcoming issues of validity, bias and error. Management of the convergent interviewing process to overcome issues of validity, error and bias are important. Because the interviewer is part of the data collection process, bias and inaccuracies can emerge (Dick 1990). Therefore, the onus was on the researcher to be skilful in the organisation of the interviews, managing the interview dynamics and data quality in terms of how it is recorded and analysed.

In organising the convergent interviews, a set time and venue was organised with the interviewees in each state by telephone or email and clear information was offered on the purpose of the research before the interview date (Carson, Gilmore, Perry, & Gronhaug 2001b). Clarification was also offered on why the interviewee had been chosen for

inclusion in this first phase of the study. Approximately an hour and a half was allocated for each of the interviews that were conducted privately either at the interviewee's workplace, another convenient business premise or at their home. In conducting each of the interviews, the researcher ensured that the scheduling, geographic dispersion and one-on-one nature of interviews served to prohibit data contamination. No reference was made by the researcher to the identities of previous interviewees during data collection which occurred over a short time span.

To manage the data and ensure accuracy of reporting, each interview was audio-taped and later transcribed (Carson, Gilmore, Perry, & Gronhaug 2001b; Dick 1990). The researcher's prior training and experience in conducting managerial interviews to prepare marketing case studies assisted in the conduct of interviews. On completion of each interview, any new information, emphases or attitudes that had emerged were noted for the next interview. Each interview ended when it was clear that no new information was being added (Dick 1990). In the final analysis of the interview data, the researcher also employed a structured coding system (Miles & Huberman 1994) to ensure that all potential issues had been captured by the data analysis.

Nature of the convergent interviews. In this technique, interviews typically commence with a broad, unstructured question (Carson, Gilmore, Perry, & Gronhaug 2001b; Dick 1990). For this research, this question was: *Tell me about the nature of your own experiences with events tourism and those agencies responsible for events tourism in Australia.* Following this opening question, further open ended questions and probes were employed to enrich the researcher's understanding of the issues and to understand where convergence or divergence on issues emerged.

Each of the research issues in the theoretical framework presented earlier in Section 2.5 was explored for their relevance within these interviews. Topics in focus were the public sector context of events tourism, the nature and atmosphere of events agencies' inter-organisational relationships, relational incentives and disincentives, interpretations of events tourism strategies and factors that could affect these relationships or strategies. Definitions were also sought of what is meant by events tourism strategies and the nature of these strategies in Australia before enquiring about the public sector environment for events tourism and inter-organisational relationships. After exhausting the issue exploration, the concept diagram of emerging themes shown in Figure 3.2 was discussed.

Figure 3.2   **Concept diagram examined by convergent interviewees**

Public sector context of events agencies

(Policies, structures and institutional linkages to tourism)

Event agency's relational incentives

- Resource interdependence
- Shared decision-making
- Complementary expertise
- Socio-professional exchange
- Organisational learning
- Establish or reinforce legitimacy, image or power
- Conform to policy, agreement or regulations
- Managerial opportunities or gain

Event agency's relational disincentives

- Institutional/political factors
- Organisational/Managerial factors
- Individual/personal factors
- Partner related: credibility or attractiveness (market and/or suppliers)

Nature of relationships and networks

- Relationship, alliance, network
- Purpose, goals, success criteria
- Degree of permanency
- Degree of formality
- Communication and connectivity
- Clusters/spread within network
- Hierarchy and agency's position

Atmosphere

- Collaboration, cooperation, coordination, competition
- Power/dependence
- Trust and commitment

Nature of membership

- Scope of stakeholder orientation
- Patterns of entry and exit
- Member roles, motives and degree of participation

Events tourism strategy

Macro level

- Destination level strategies for events tourism
- Market specific strategies
  - Sports tourism
  - Cultural/arts tourism
- Evaluation of strategy & impacts assessment

Micro level

- Major events:
  - Conceptualisation
  - Bidding
  - Imaging
  - Programming
  - Implementation
  - Evaluation & Impact assessment

Source: developed for the convergent interviews in this research

Note: The six overall concepts in this diagram and themes within them were synthesised from literature on *inter-organisational relationships* (for example, Bengtsson & Kock 1999; Easton 1992; Ford 1990; Gemunden, Ritter, & Walter 1997; Gulati, Nohria, & Zaheer 2000; Hakansson 1982; Hakansson & Johanson 1992; Hogarth Scott 1999; Johnsen, Wynstra, Zheng, Harland, & Lamming 2000; Moller & Wilson 1995a) and literature on *events tourism* (Carlsen & Williams 1999; Getz 1991b, 1997a).

In this regard, feedback was sought to confirm or disconfirm the relevance of concepts within Figure 3.2. To accurately reflect the flow of topics within the convergent interviews, the discussion of findings now begins with a description of participants' background experiences and viewpoints on events tourism strategy.

Events tourism experience of interviewees. All six interviewees had prior experience with events tourism strategies in Australia which ranged from overall responsibility for events tourism development for a state or city to the planning, production, management and impact assessment of major events. It was evident from the outset that all interviewees had appropriate experience to comment on the nature and incidence of events tourism strategies occurring at the macro level of destinations and the micro level of major events. Each individual had expertise or a position that would warrant their inclusion in public sector relationships and networks for events tourism strategies. While half of the interviewees were employed in positions/consultancies directly concerned with events tourism strategies, the others were engaged in research and academic activities in events tourism.

A matrix of the issues showing the level of convergence on each issue was adjusted after each interview. This matrix that displays the progressive analysis of data is shown in Table 3.2. Findings within the matrix are presented in the sequential order of the research issues. Before discussing data related to each issue, it is important to note that the initial question about the interviewee's experiences yielded information that also enhanced the researcher's knowledge of the research issues. For example, some of the participants gave a brief history of Australia's public sector involvement in events tourism while explaining their experience in the field.

This information highlighted historic issues relevant to their views about the current status of events tourism strategies and those inter-organisational relationships that shape these strategies in Australia. Some participants alluded to a shift in the lifecycle phase of events tourism competition and strategy making. Interviewee F talked about the 1980s when 'everyone saw that there was a lot to be had out of events, socially, economically….so the race was on and it was the prestige that could be gained by securing and winning these events'. However, the interviewee also observed 'a maturing of the way governments handle events' away from the days when 'there didn't seem to be much rationalisation', with some states 'being so competitive and other states backing off and not being able to compete' (interviewee F).

Table 3.2   **Matrix analysis of convergent interview data**

Key: ✓ = Confirmed as relevant   ☑ = Implied as relevant

☒ = Disagreed with relevance /occurrence   NM = Not mentioned

Research issues and themes	A	B	C	D	E	F
Research issue 1: Public sector environment of events tourism						
Differences in structures/operating environment of events corporations, divisions and boards do influence relationships and strategies	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Agency interpretations of their role/charter and performance measures influences nature of strategies	NM	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Inter-agency reliance typifies the operating environment for events tourism	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Both macro (destination) and micro (individual events) level strategies need to be addressed in the institutional framework for events tourism	NM	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
The nature/number of personnel influences their focus on events development/management, tourism and events tourism outcomes	✓	NM	✓	✓	✓	✓
Theme: Public sector factors impacting on events tourism and inter-organisational relationships (IOR) for strategy making						
Events compete with a range of public policy issues eg. Health, transport.	NM	✓	✓	☑	✓	✓
The economic rationale/outcomes is a dominant factor in events strategies	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Priorities of Premiers, ministers and political agendas impact on events tourism	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Budgetary issues eg. access to off-budget funds competes with other priorities	NM	☑	✓	✓	✓	✓
Location specific concerns of states/territories affect events tourism emphasis or direction eg. Isolation, few natural icons as tourist attractions	☑	NM	✓	✓	✓	✓
The need for public accountability impacts on events tourism strategies	NM	NM	✓	✓	✓	✓
Contractual relationships and tender processes impact on supply-side networks	NM	NM	✓	✓	✓	✓
Research issue 2: Events tourism strategy forms and processes						
Theme: Form that events tourism strategy takes:						
More incremental/emergent than a deliberate, coherent plan	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Tangible strategy documents are not available / evident in most states	NM	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

Table 3.2 continued						
Research issues and themes identified	**A**	**B**	**C**	**D**	**E**	**F**
Research issue 2 continued More micro (individual events) than macro (destination) level in its focus	☑	✓	✓	✗	✓	✓
Both micro and macro level events tourism strategies should co-exist	☑	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Theme: Interpretation of actual and desirable strategy processes for events tourism:						
Event selection based on strategic fit/positioning, not just economic gain (should occur and occurs to some degree)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Decision-making about event bidding/acquisition dominates over existing events development for tourism outcomes in the public sector in most states	NM	✓	☑	✓	✓	✓
Events tourism strategies are driven by events agencies, other public sector agencies, the community and the corporate sector including venues	NM	☑	☑	✓	✓	✓
Events corporations in some states are focused on events acquisition/management, with the view that tourism follows	NM	✓	✓	☑	✓	✓
Packaging of events for tourism outcomes needs to be more effective	NM	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Public sector strategies need to embrace corporate leveraging of events	NM	☑	✓	✓	✓	✓
Temporal, spatial, thematic and seasonal events planning should occur and is occurring in some states	NM	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Better linkages are needed between events and tourism for strategic success	☑	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Strategies focus on destination branding, visitation and improved tourism yield (each of these is a focus to some degree in most states)	☑	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Research issue 3: Inter-organisational relationships (IOR)						
A mix of contractual partnerships, relationships and networks exists	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Agencies engage in formal and informal networks and relationships	NM	☑	✓	✓	✓	✓
Internal and external stakeholder involvement is desirable	NM	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Local, inter-state and global relationships and networks are important	☑	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Levels of concern for community, corporate and government input to events tourism directions varies between organisations and managers	NM	NM	✓	✓	✓	✓
Stakeholders of importance are media, government agencies, private sector, events industry, venue managers, community, sports and cultural bodies, tourism agencies and suppliers, event consumers.	NM	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Inter-organisational relationships for events tourism can encompass: events acquisition, existing events development, optimisation of venue demand, public event coordination and major event tours/circuits	NM	☑	☑	✓	✓	✓

| Table 3.2 continued | | | | | | |
Research issues and themes identified	A	B	C	D	E	F
Research issue 3 continued:						
Theme: Relationship and network characteristics						
The degree of formality/informality of relationships and networks	NM	☑	✓	✓	✓	☑
Clustering of networks – around particular purposes or groups of individuals	NM	☑	☑	☑	✓	✓
Variation in the processes of input to events tourism strategies/directions	NM	☑	✓	✓	✓	✓
Interaction or frequency of communication between actors	NM	☑	✓	✓	✓	✓
Fluidity/change in actors involved eg. actors / relationships vary for each event (micro level events tourism) and within event categories (macro level).	NM	NM	✓	✓	✓	✓
Issues of leadership and championing of events and events tourism	NM	✓	☑	✓	✓	✓
Hierarchy of networks and agency positions within networks	NM	NM	☑	☑	✓	✓
Degree of permanency of relationships and networks	NM	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Theme: Atmosphere of inter-organisational relationships						
There is competition, cooperation and collaboration evident in relationships and networks depending on actors involved at state or other levels	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
There has been competition of a negative nature in inter-state relationships	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
There is evidence of an improved relationship between the states	✓	✘	☑	✓	✓	☑
The degree of trust is a factor influencing the atmosphere of relationships	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	☑
The degree of commitment of actors influences the relationship atmosphere	NM	✓	✓	☑	✓	✓
Political/power issues do influence the atmosphere of these relationships	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Research issue 4: Incentives and disincentives for IOR						
Theme: Incentives acknowledged as relevant:						
Conformity to government policy, transparency of decision making	NM	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Resource interdependence	NM	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Legitimise role of agency or enhance image	NM	✓	☑	☑	✓	✓
Complementary expertise	✓	☑	✓	✓	✓	☑
Professional benefits/organisational learning	NM	☑	✓	✓	✓	✓

Table 3.2 continued **Research issues and themes identified**	A	B	C	D	E	F
Research issue 4 continued: Avert stakeholder backlash or dissatisfaction	NM	✓	✓	✓	☑	☑
Optimise the success of events and event tourism outcomes	☑	✓	✓	✓	☑	✓
Theme: Disincentives acknowledged as relevant:						
Insufficient time and resources	NM	☑	✓	✓	✓	✗
Attitudes, personalities, culture (eg. tradition of secrecy)	NM	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Immediacy of projects/timing of decisions impedes widespread involvement	NM	NS	✓	✓	✓	✓
Primary concern for economic performance (limits interest in some stakeholders)	NM	✓	☑	✓	☑	✓
Consciousness of market competition/ sensitive data prohibits input	NM	✓	✓	✓	✓	☑
Organisational and individual manager priorities and beliefs	NM	☑	☑	✓	✓	✓
History relationships and traditional way things have been done	NM	✓	☑	☑	✓	✓
Individuals (political figures or event promoters) can impede cooperation	✓	☑	✓	✓	✓	✓
Concept diagram (with some adjustment) is relevant to investigate	☑	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

Source: analysis of field data

Note: Convergence is indicated when the final interviewee has confirmed or strongly implies that the issue or view is relevant and is not adding a new issue or row to the table.

A maturing of government decision making processes for events was also noted by interviewee D who spoke of one state in the mid-1990s who 'had an events agency, but fairly low key….they wanted to reform that….the overall decision was made that whatever structure came out of it (the reform), it should sit within tourism because it was believed that was the appropriate way to garner the benefits'. These preliminary comments by interviewees underscored the impact of history on public sector relationships as well as the organisational structures that develop events tourism. Research issues one to four in Table 3.2 each demonstrate a convergence of views among interviewees. Data on themes related to each of the four research issues are now discussed.

Public sector environment for events tourism strategies and relationships. Within the public sector environment for events tourism (research issue 1), contrasts and similarities in organisational structures, charters and operating environments of events agencies were observed as indicated in Table 3.2. The importance of agency interpretations of their role

and charter was emphasised. Moreover, the proactive and reactive roles of events agencies were noted for their impacts on relationships and networks. For example, while many agencies have a primary role in attracting/acquiring events, they also have a role in supporting existing events that approach them for funding or expertise. Some agencies within government departments are only responsible for harnessing the tourism potential of existing hallmark events. Thus the degree of proactivity of different agencies in balancing event acquisitions with existing event development for tourism emerged as an issue. An illustrative comment was: 'it's not so much a matter anymore of creating ever more new events, as really utilising better the unique properties we have' (interviewee D).

Other issues related to the public sector context of events agencies that emerged were the impact of agency performance measures on how they approach strategy processes, the need for inter-agency links to shape events tourism and the related issue of limited staff who are either skilled in events or tourism, but not both. A range of unprompted issues also emerged from the interviews. For example, participants emphasised the importance of internal competition for public sector resources with major events competing with other public sector priorities for off-budget funds. There was agreement among interviewees that the political agendas and priorities of the Premier or ministers within a state impact upon inter-organisational relationships and strategies for events tourism. This was supported by comments such as 'in Australia, there are other demands on the limited government funds available… for schools, hospitals….and people throw events in with all of that. ..'. (interviewee C).

A reliance on off-budget government funds for major events was thought to prohibit a funded, long term strategy for events tourism. According to interviewee B, 'it's a constant battle for events corporations to get the funding and resources they need to implement macro events strategies…..they make lots of noises about it…..but in terms of actual resources and implementation of strategy….no'. However, according to interviewee E, 'if you're given a budget, that's all you ever have. Whereas if it's a case by case basis, you just keep going back and it's judged on the merits of the individual case'. The need for agencies to have some autonomy or room to move with decision-making for events tourism was highlighted. Political priorities and funding issues were also linked by interviewees to the need for taxpayer accountability for events tourism expenditure.

Interpretations of events tourism strategy. Participants responded to the definitional question on events tourism strategy from two perspectives (research issue 2) as highlighted in Table 3.2. These perspectives were the *form* that strategy takes and the *processes* or foci that agencies might adopt in determining strategies. It was evident that interpretations of events tourism strategy had not previously been considered by participants. Initial responses were 'that's an interesting one' (interviewee D) and 'I don't think there has been very much work done in terms of events tourism strategies' (interviewee B).

It was agreed that events tourism strategy within most Australian states is of an incremental/emergent *form* and few states develop tangible plans or events tourism strategy documents. This finding was illustrated by interviewee A with the observation that 'it's just not possible to have a strategy document in this business…out of date as soon as it's done. It's really about the relationships and connections that you form and how you manage those that takes you forward'.

Convergence was evident on the notion of events tourism strategy being a part of the overall tourism strategy for a destination or an aspect of planning for major events. Indicative comments were that: 'events tourism strategy should be a long term plan to bid for and obtain the sorts of events that are going to maximise tourism benefits for the city or state' (interviewee D); 'we need to think about events strategies in an overall tourism context' (interviewee B) and 'you need to identify in the context of opportunity costs…..those events that are actually going to lead to tourism outcomes' (interviewee E).

While all interviewees indirectly referred to strategy at the micro level of major events and macro level of destinations (cities or states), the researcher prompted participants before they recognised and agreed that these were distinct, but related entities. All participants except interviewee D felt that micro level events tourism strategies were dominant at state level, although destination level strategies were thought to be advanced in Victoria and Western Australia. The strength of Victoria in developing state level events tourism strategies was mentioned by all participants. However, there was convergence on the viewpoint that strategies should co-exist at both levels in all states/territories.

In relation to the *processes* and foci that underpin events tourism strategy, a wide range of interpretations was evident in the convergent interview data. Responses tended to reflect what should be done as well as what is actually being done to create events tourism

strategies. As demonstrated in Table 3.2, participants converged on the view that these processes occurred with event bidding, but that they should also occur at state level in determining an events portfolio based on 'strategic fit and positioning, not just economic gain' (interviewee A). According to interviewee D, 'successful strategies of that sort are going to look at the ....mix or qualities of that city or state and what's the match between the events that are going to best achieve that'. Participants recommended that the foci of events tourism strategies be derived from an analysis of events on temporal, spatial/geographic, thematic and seasonal criteria as well as unique traits of the destination.

Nevertheless, the interviewees concurred that some states are still focused on events acquisition and development, with a view that tourism will follow. This was illustrated in comments such as: 'the focus comes back to more events, bigger events, more people and flow-on and it doesn't get a lot more sophisticated than that' (interviewee B). According to interviewee F, 'You often find that events that are based on tourism have probably done it by default. They are a very strong event in their own marketplace that has grown'.

The maturing of state level thinking about events tourism strategy mentioned earlier was also substantiated with comments like 'I think we're now at the point where States are sometimes prepared to let events go because they realise that events are not a desirable part of their portfolio' (interviewee D). Nevertheless, the need for better linkages between events and tourism, improved product strategy and new ways of packaging events was acknowledged by all participants. In the context of interpreting events tourism strategies, participants agreed that destination brand enhancement, increased tourism visitation and tourism yield were the intended outcomes of events tourism strategies.

Overall, the researcher achieved a deeper grasp of how events tourism strategy is defined by expert informants and how they believed it should be formulated. The findings supported the need to further explore interpretations of events tourism strategy form and processes alongside those inter-organisational relationships that contribute to them.

Nature of inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategy. Findings on the nature of inter-organisational relationships (research issue 3) revealed a continuum of relationships from contractual partnerships to networks and a range of relationship characteristics and participants. Agreement was reached that there is a mix of contractual partnerships, short and long term relationships as well as networks that impact upon events tourism strategies. For inter-organisational relationships at the level of major

events, participants agreed that contractual agreements had increased along with an 'embedding of performance measures into contracts' (interviewee E). However, contractual relationships with suppliers at the micro level of each event vary in their contribution to events tourism outcomes.

Both short and long term relationships were seen to accompany events agencies' contributions to an events tourism agenda. Although short term relationships exist for the staging of events, interviewee E emphasised that a 'particularly successful event will be repeatable' and 'it's going to be easier if you've got a whole lot of existing relationships'. Networks may be informal, 'soft' networks – 'when you're in a situation of managing an events strategy, you're constantly keeping the network alive' (interviewee D) - as well as more formal relationships. Formal inter-organisational relationships included some 'hard' industry networks or alliances between organisations, but most were soft networks such as industry forums, taskforces and committees or informal relationships that contribute in an unstructured manner to events tourism.

An important finding was the shared view among participants that events agencies are not solely responsible for events tourism strategy processes within cities and states. Instead, events tourism strategies emerge from both 'top down' and 'bottom up' processes (interviewee F). A number of government departments and events agencies, independent events organisers, the community and the private sector including tourism and venue managers jointly shape a destination's events tourism agenda. Interviewee E explained that there are at least three prongs to how events tourism emerges. One is 'how does government acquire events that have tourism potential...then, there's a second….it tends to be venues driven….and the government has a role…so it looks for ways to influence demand for those venues. And then…there's a whole bunch of events that are going to happen whether the government is involved or not……and they place a load on the delivery of government infrastructure and services…' Interviewees D and E also made reference to the role of grassroots events such as the Gay and Lesbian Mardigras and public venues that stage events, for example, the Sydney Opera House. Interviewee D said that 'because the Gay and Lesbian Mardigras came out of one sort of process doesn't mean that it's any less valuable as a tourism or promotional property for Sydney'.

The convergent interview data suggested that various bodies with a degree of formality contribute to multiple events tourism strategies and that 'cross-membership, communication and articulation between them all' is needed (interviewee E). Events development agencies and other government departments may at different times assume a leadership role with major events, depending on the expected degree of tourism and non-tourism benefits. Because of the tourism potential of major events at state level, the contribution of capital city authorities to events tourism strategy was also emphasised in the convergent interview data. Interviewee F referred to a collaborative, formalised network between three city authorities to package the existing major events of that city to garner tourism benefits for the state. Thus convergence was evident on the importance of inter-organisational relationships between a range of organisations responsible for acquired events, locally developed events, venue specific events and public events.

Although internal and external stakeholder involvement was thought to be important for events tourism strategies, participants agreed that views about community versus corporate and government input vary within the sector. There was convergence on the issue that community or corporate orientations tend to affect potential inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategies. For example, interviewees B, D and F expressed the view that community consultation and ownership was paramount in strategy making. However, comments made by other interviewees indicated a corporate orientation - 'in terms of shared decision making, I can't really see that happening…I think that when (the events agency) is organising a bid, the fewer people involved the better, because it actually makes the process more manageable' (interviewee C). Similarly, interviewee E said 'except where the filtering process catches issues that are of potential impact on the community, (their) interest in the event is either as a consumer, worker or beneficiary…...it's a big wide world with a whole range of interests, do we need for any other purposes to go to them and say…do you really like this?'

The relevance of the range of stakeholders listed in Table 3.2 was apparent among all participants. However, varying degrees of emphasis were placed on each of these stakeholders in line with the corporate or community orientations just discussed. Views provided by interviewee B and D were that the community should be 'number one…paramount' and 'in terms of the network, it has to have key people from the community'. However, the required breadth of inter-organisational relationships was seen to be

situation dependent by some participants. Issues related to the timing and mechanisms for inclusion of different actors in the strategy process also emerged from the interviews.

In geographic scope, participants agreed that local, inter-state/national and global relationships were important to events agencies in shaping events tourism strategies. While local relationships were highlighted, interest in and observations of some improvement in the nature of inter-state relationships between events agencies emerged from all interviews. Comments ranged from 'there isn't one…maybe there should be' (interviewee E) to 'alliances with other states are quite possible' (interviewee A) and 'I think there is room to take the cooperation a lot further' (interviewee D).

Specific types of events tourism strategies highlighted for inter-state cooperation included event tours or circuits and events that alternate their place of staging, with potential links being used for both operational and marketing activities. Global relationships and networks were believed to be necessary for agencies in developing events tourism strategies. However, interviewee E stated that the global network required extended to 'probably no more than six federations in the world….maybe a few clubs…and then, maybe half a dozen or so promoters or sports marketers'.

The atmosphere of inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategies reflected a mix of competition, cooperation and collaboration. Here, considerable attention was given to the atmosphere of relationships between events agencies in different states/territories. However, the factors that influence relationships between the events agency, other government departments, and tourism and events organisations were also highlighted at the local level. At the inter-state level, there was both implied and stated agreement that inter-agency relationships had become more positive and potentially cooperative, although these relationships had been negative and competitive. At the local level of each state, a positive atmosphere was observed between events agencies and the corporate sector sponsoring events (interviewee C, D and F). Yet the need for increased collaboration between tourism and events agencies and organisations was mentioned by all participants.

Three factors were seen to be important influences on the atmosphere of inter-organisational relationships. Firstly, the impact of power and political issues was implied and stated throughout all of the interviews conducted. In direct response to the question

about atmosphere, interviewee D said that 'one of the groups that has a lot of power is government and I think they should wield that power responsibly, so that there is proper consultation at the stage when it's important…not when so many things have been decided, there is little room to move'. Next, participants converged on the importance of trust in these inter-organisational relationships. This was illustrated by comments that 'consultation and trust is fairly important' (interviewee D) and 'trust…is paramount. There are people we won't work with, don't care how good their idea is' (interviewee E).

Finally, the importance of shared commitment in inter-organisational relationships for events tourism was also emphasised. This was mostly illustrated from the financial perspective. For example, interviewee E explained how 'the degree to which you can convince central government to commit dollars to an event is your demonstration that someone else is also stretched in their commitment to the event'. Notably, these comments on both trust and commitment were made in response to prompted questions about the concept diagram of Figure 3.2 shown earlier. However, there was convergence on the view that power, trust and commitment were each important, with participants providing some illustration of each factor.

Specific characteristics of inter-organisational relationships that were seen to be important emerged from unprompted discussion as well as prompted questions based on the concept diagram. Unprompted aspects of relationships listed in the matrix within Table 3.2 were the interaction or frequency of communication between actors and the importance of leaders and champions in shaping events tourism strategies. All other aspects identified as important emerged from either prompted questions or feedback given to the researcher on this concept diagram. These issues included the degree of relationship and network formality, permanency and clustering, the nature of input to strategies, the fluidity of membership, the relevance of network hierarchies and agency position. Participants were able to illustrate these relationship aspects in the context of their own events tourism experiences, once prompted.

In brief, issues revealed by participants refined the researcher's understanding of an array of agency relationships that contribute to events tourism at local, national and global levels. Government agencies, major venues, community and corporate event organisers were each identified as potential drivers of inter-organisational relationships that impact on events tourism. Characteristics of these relationships emerged as well as views about

their perceived importance. Divergent views existed on whether community or corporate/government perspectives on stakeholder inclusion in events tourism strategy processes should be adopted. The participants' past or potential engagement in collaborative networks was made apparent in this context.

Incentives and disincentives for inter-organisational relationships. Convergence was achieved on a number of incentives and disincentives for inter-organisational relationships (research issue 4) in Table 3.2. *Incentives* that were identified by participants without prompting were resource inter-dependence or economic benefits, the need to avert stakeholder dissatisfaction and a desire to optimise events tourism outcomes. All other incentives listed as important were drawn from the participants' review of the concept diagram at the end of the interviews. Changes suggested to the list of incentives included an amalgamation of socio-professional benefits with organisational learning and the deletion of shared decision-making which was not seen to be a benefit by all participants. The latter was supported by interviewee E whose response was 'consensus is fine, but shared decision-making, no'. This view was aligned with comments made previously about the adoption of a corporate or community orientation to stakeholder involvement in decision making.

As shown in Figure 3.2, a limited list of broad *disincentives* for inter-organisational relationships was included in the concept diagram by the researcher. However, more specific disincentives were provided by participants without prompting. These included insufficient time and resources, the immediacy of event projects, organisational culture/tradition and priorities, the power of individuals external to agencies who impede cooperation, consciousness of commercially sensitive data and the beliefs, attitudes and personalities of agency personnel. A further inhibiting factor was seen to be the primacy of economic goals over social impacts which could limit an agency's interest in some stakeholders. Commenting on agencies' attitudes or interest in inter-organisational relationships for strategy making, interviewee D referred to 'a little bit of secrecy around events…partly from the fact that event bidding is competitive'. In effect, the interview data generated deeper insights on the disincentives proposed by the researcher and provided additional issues to consider.

Responses to the overall concept diagram of issues and themes. The concept diagram in Figure 3.2 represented a snapshot of themes at the time of conducting the interviews, rather than a complete picture of the issues to be explored. This diagram was only introduced to the interviews after it was apparent that no new, unprompted information would be offered by participants. Both additions and deletions to the concepts were suggested in relation to the nature of inter-organisational relationships for events tourism, incentives and disincentives for engaging in them and the relationship atmosphere. The relevance of the scope of stakeholder orientation, shown in the membership of relationships was confirmed as already mentioned. Issues related to membership such as motives for relationship or network participation and processes of entry or exit to these relationships were accepted as relevant by participants, but did not elicit further comment.

The existence of both macro and micro level events tourism strategies in Figure 3.2 was supported by the convergent interviews. However, there was no indication that the researcher should proceed with a deeper examination of sub-categories such as strategies for sports tourism or the arts or strategies employed for each stage of major event projects. Overall, agreement was achieved that the issues and concepts presented in the concept diagram were relevant to investigate. Interviewee E's comment was 'it's good. A lot of it deals with the subterranean component of events tourism strategy'.

In brief, the convergent interview process served to confirm the research issues and most concepts proposed for investigation within the theoretical framework for the research. Within the public sector environment for events tourism (research issue 1), a range of potential public sector influences on networks for strategy making was confirmed. Findings about events tourism strategy forms and processes (research issue 2) confirmed the need to explore descriptive and prescriptive strategies of events agencies. Those activities that interviewees identified within current strategic processes for events tourism reflected and expanded upon prior events tourism theory discussed in Section 2.2.6. Thus the importance of investigating a list of strategic activities was also confirmed.

Inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategies (research issue 3) consisted of relationships and networks as well as contractual partnerships, although contracts were only pertinent in organising major events. Interviewees believed that the characteristics of inter-organisational relationships identified in prior network and relationship theory (Sections 2.3.6 and 2.3.7) were also relevant to events agencies' relationships and worthy

of further research. Finally, the convergent interview data confirmed the relevance of most incentives and disincentives for inter-organisational relationships (research issue 4) found in the literature and added some new ones for exploration.

In effect, these findings supported the proposed themes for exploration in each of the four issues within the theoretical framework. Moreover, the influence of public sector institutional arrangements for events tourism on strategy making and relationships that shape strategies was apparent from the convergent interviews. Hence a further investigation of links between the three spheres of the theoretical framework (Figure 2.10) was justified.

3.4   Phase two: the case research methodology

Reliance on the convergent interview technique alone was not sufficient to collect the data needed to address the research issues in the theoretical framework for this research. Therefore, case research was used for phase two of this theory building study of events tourism in Australian states/territories. The case research method had the advantage of prior theory obtained through literature as well as the convergent interviewing technique (Carson, Gilmore, Perry, & Gronhaug 2001a; Perry 1998, 2002). This structured approach to the design of case research enabled it to be confirmatory or deductive as well as exploratory or inductive in nature (Hyde 2000; Yin 1993).

Unlike case studies that provide descriptions or narrations of events, a 'pre-structured' case methodology facilitates deduction to the extent that theories are expanded and generalised (Easton 1998; Perry 2001). In this way, analytic generalisation accompanies the method (Amaratunga & Baldry 2001; Yin 1993, 1994). While a process of alternating inductive and deductive processes is used (Patton 1990), theory building rather than theory testing remains the primary goal of the research. Therefore, the final chapter in this thesis presents a proposed conceptual model and theories for further empirical investigation (Perry 1998, 2001, 2002).

Conditions for use of the case method. The case methodology is appropriate when the phenomenon of study is difficult to distinguish from its context, there is a need to rely on multiple sources of evidence and there is a need to define the topic broadly in the first instance (Yin 1993, 1994). In addition, case research needs to be part of a comprehensive

research methodology and not just a data collection technique (Healy 2000; Perry 2001). This research satisfied each of these conditions for use of the case study methodology.

Firstly, those inter-organisational relationships of events agencies that influence events tourism strategies may be difficult to distinguish from those relationships that assist the agency in developing events that satisfy other socio-political and economic agendas. Also, these 'strategy' focused relationships may or may not overlap with those shorter term relationships needed to orchestrate major events. Furthermore, some difficulty could be experienced by agency personnel in distinguishing inter-organisational relationships for destination or macro level events tourism strategies and those for individual events or micro level strategies, as previously shown in Section 3.3.

Secondly, multiple sources of evidence were needed to understand the nature of these inter-organisational relationships and the articulation of events tourism strategy within each state and territory. Based on prior theory and the results of the convergent interviews, different interpretations of these phenomena could emerge within and between events agencies, especially where these agencies operate in different institutional settings. Thus there was a need for a triangulation of case study data (Jick 1979; Oppermann 2000; Stake 1995). This was accomplished by including tourism bodies, capital city marketing bodies and event industry representatives as further sources of evidence on these inter-organisational relationships.

Finally, despite the prior knowledge that guided this multiple case research, the lack of previous research on this events tourism topic meant that there was a need to define the research and its issues broadly. To achieve this breadth, 'how' and 'why' questions were used to investigate the research phenomena (Perry 2001; Yin 1993, 1994). The reflection of this approach in the research issues posed in Chapter 2 enabled this research to acquire deep information about agencies' inter-organisational relationships and their events tourism strategy processes. However, prior knowledge on theoretical issues drawn from the literature and the convergent interview data also enabled some research propositions to be developed.

Consequently, both the research issues and more specific propositions are revisited in a combined inductive and deductive approach to data analysis in Chapter 4 of the thesis. The case research data served to build new theory, but also either confirmed the

propositions and validity of concepts and their relationships or showed disconfirmation and a need to further refine theory (Hyde 2000). In effect, while the research questions were exploratory, the processes of data analysis, explanation and deduction were facilitated by prior knowledge and a set of research propositions (Yin 1994).

3.5 Criteria for judging the quality and credibility of case research

The quality and credibility of this qualitative research were established through the use of rigorous methods of research design, data collection and management. Criteria for ensuring that the qualitative research was trustworthy were it's credibility/internal validity, transferability/external validity, dependability/reliability and confirmability/objectivity (Guba & Lincoln 1994; Healy & Perry 2000; Lincoln & Guba 1999; Miles & Huberman 1994; Sykes 1990; Yin 1994). In fulfilling these criteria, a number of strategies were employed which relate to the ontology, epistemology and methodology of the research.

Credibility or internal validity. In relation to ontology or the reality being investigated, *credibility/internal validity* of the research was established in a number of ways. Firstly, the research problem itself was suited to the realism paradigm and the 'how' and 'why' questions within the investigation provided ontological appropriateness (Healy & Perry 2000). Secondly, the use of both methodological and data source triangulation (Denzin & Lincoln 1994; Hall & Rist 1999; Jick 1979; Oppermann 2000; Perry 1998; Stake 1995; Yin 1994) provided a clearer window to the reality being investigated. The use of multiple methods was achieved in this research by conducting convergent interviews before the case studies. Furthermore, multiple sources of data were achieved with the inclusion of personnel from public sector events agencies, individual events, tourism departments and city marketing agencies. This triangulation served to create the 'family of answers' (Healy & Perry 2000, p.152) about inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategies that typify realism research.

From an epistemological perspective, the credibility of the research was enhanced through cross-case comparisons of the research propositions for theory building and the linkage of these findings to existing literature (Amaratunga & Baldry 2001). This strategy helped to establish strong connections in the data, with this iterative process of examining cases against prior theory leading to a more valid reading of the findings by the researcher (Sykes 1990). The inclusion of cases that deviated from the expected pattern also

improved the internal validity of the research. In effect, a strategic advantage was gained from the explanatory power of atypical cases that illuminated theoretical connections that would otherwise have been obscure (Mitchell 2000). For example, inter-organisational relationships for events tourism in the Northern Territory and Victoria were each expected to deviate from each other and all other cases investigated based on their events tourism lifecycle phase. Finally, a process of subject review or feedback on the credibility of the research findings was adopted in this research to corroborate the reported 'realities' among participants (Bloor 1999). A need to preserve confidentiality for participants, while maintaining the quality of the data also justified this validation of the case study data.

Contingent validity of the research or the validity of the mechanisms and contexts that show the contingency of research findings was also considered (Carson, Gilmore, Perry, & Gronhaug 2001a). One such mechanism in this research was the use of replication logic in the selection of cases for inclusion. In this case study research, theoretical and literal replication was established via a selection of public sector events agencies and settings that provide for both similar and contrary results for predictable reasons (Eisenhardt 1989).

This replication logic assisted in explaining 'why things happened' based on the case interviews (Carson, Gilmore, Perry, & Gronhaug 2001a; Yin 1994). The subsequent analysis not only explained what aspects of a case or situation were similar or dissimilar to another case, but highlighted other aspects of the findings to which these are connected (Ward Schofield 2000). Clear descriptions of background variables such as the history of events tourism involvement of participating states/territories and organisations within them, the nature and structure of organisations and institutional settings for events tourism and the positions and experiences of participating managers assisted in building contingent validity.

Transferability or external validity. The *transferability/external validity* of the case research depended on the researcher's ability to make analytic extrapolations based on a cogency of theoretical reasoning (Ward Schofield 2000). Therefore, the researcher ensured that the initial process of identifying research issues was comprehensive and rigorous (Perry 2001) and that a detailed description of the context, for example, the nature of inter-organisational relationships, was provided.

In this research, the literature review and the convergent interview process sought to clarify the research issues and propositions in a comprehensive and structured manner. Combined with the research protocol for the case studies, these processes enabled the researcher to confirm or disconfirm theory and make analytical generalisations as a result of the research (Perry 1998, 2001; Yin 1994). In addition to the use of prior theory, Healy and Perry (2000) argue that external validity can be enhanced by the maintenance of a readily accessible case study database and triangulation techniques. Computer transcriptions and audio recordings of data were therefore maintained to verify the procedures adopted in this investigation.

Dependability or reliability. The *dependability/reliability* of the research was also considered in the methodology or processes used by the researcher in the data collection and analysis phases of the case study research. For example, reliability was enhanced by providing a clear trail of evidence for auditing, using coding schemes for data analysis and archiving the data for access at a later date (Halpern 1983; Healy & Perry 2000; Lincoln & Guba 1999; Lincoln & Guba 1985; Yin 1994).

With this research, the use of computer software enriched the analytical procedures and provided an efficient support system for managing the qualitative data. Because of the large amount of data anticipated from participants in six states/territories, the choice of N-Vivo Nudist software offered a mechanism for data storage, indexing of themes and categories and retrieval of links between chunks of data (Maclaran & Catterall 2002). This use of computer software contributed to the trustworthiness of the research. In effect, the auditing process was facilitated by electronic storage of the case study data and the use of on-line procedures to summarise the data (Carson, Gilmore, Perry, & Gronhaug 2001a).

Confirmability or objectivity. When considering the *confirmability/objectivity* of the research from an epistemological perspective, the realism paradigm is seen to be neither value laden nor value free, but value aware (Healy & Perry 2000; Perry 1998). There are multiple perceptions of reality, as already discussed in Section 3.1. Hence multiple interviews within events development agencies as well as multiple perspectives achieved through triangulation served to enhance the objectivity of the research. The use of broad questions before probing, the maintenance of a self-critical perspective of the researcher's

own values in conducting the research and the provision of findings for participant and peer review each contributed to objectivity (Healy & Perry 2000).

In brief, the above criteria for maintaining the quality and credibility of the research assisted the researcher in justifying the qualitative approaches that accompanied the realism paradigm. This was especially important in light of the concentration on positivist research within the tourism literature and emerging recognition of the value of qualitative research in tourism (Jamal & Hollinshead 2001; Riley & Love 1999) .

3.6   Case research design and case selection

The unit of analysis or what constituted the case (Yin 1994) was defined in the context of the theoretical framework and issues for this research. The unit of analysis was the 'inter-organisational relationships' of events development agencies in those states and territories involved in the study. As the unit of analysis, these relationships were studied from the perspective of those agencies and organisations that might be expected to contribute to events tourism strategies in each location. Although the 'events tourism strategies' represented a secondary unit of analysis, it was the influence of inter-organisational relationships on those strategies that was the primary research focus. In this vein, it was recognised that public sector agencies may be reluctant to unveil the content of strategies, but would be willing to discuss the networks and relationships that play a role in the strategy making process.

Multiple case research design. For this research, a multiple case research design was adopted to capture the picture of inter-organisational relationships for events tourism in various Australian states. Although this design involved more time and effort on the part of the researcher, the use of multiple cases was justified given the diversity of institutional settings, organisational structures and personnel involved in events tourism in different Australian states. In addition, not one of the justifications for the use of a single case study was applicable to this research (Yin 1994). There was not one state or territory in Australia that represented an extreme or unique case, nor was there a critical case that could be used to test well accepted theory or a revelatory case that was previously inaccessible to researchers (Yin 1994). Instead, a number of cases were observed that were suitable for consideration in this research.

With multiple cases, every case needs to serve a particular purpose within the scope of the enquiry (Yin 1994) with maximum variation sampling being employed (Perry 2001). When using multiple cases for theory development, the cases are chosen in a similar way to multiple experiments, that is, to follow 'a replication logic' (Yin 1994, p.45). As indicated earlier, replication logic meant that certain cases were chosen with an expectation of similar results for predictable reasons or *literal* replication, while others were chosen with an expectation of contrasting outcomes for predictable reasons or *theoretical* replication (Carson, Gilmore, Perry, & Gronhaug 2001a; Eisenhardt 1989; Perry 1998; Yin 1994). In addition, practical issues such as the agencies' willingness to participate and their availability played a part in the selection of case states/territories and interviewees within each case (de Weerd-Nederhof 2001).

Six cases were selected based on replication logic established within different Australian states/territories. These cases were drawn from Queensland, Western Australia, New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia and the Northern Territory. There are no precise rules about the number of cases to be included in case research (Perry 1998, 2001) although Gummesson (1991) suggests that the number of cases should be based on saturation or the diminishing marginal contribution of each additional case. Others argue that four to six cases represent a minimum number for a serious project and an upper limit of 12 cases should be considered due to the quantity of data and costs involved in qualitative research (Hedges 1985; Perry 2001). The need to balance the scope of case study research with project manageability (Martinsuo 2001) was a key consideration in this research due to the geographic distance, time and travel costs involved in conducting the study in numerous Australian states/territories.

Representatives of the public sector agencies in each of the six states provided early written notification of their intent to participate in the research and later confirmed their willingness to be interviewed during the data collection phase. The overall cohort of interviewees in each state encompassed representatives of the events corporations, divisions or boards, the tourism authorities and/or departments, city marketing authorities, local government and managers of individual events organisations.

Sources of replication logic. Replication logic, or expected similarities (literal replication) and expected differences (theoretical replication) in research outcomes were derived from the institutional arrangements and lifecycle phase of events tourism development in each state/territory (the case contexts). The six states and territories display some similarities and differences on these criteria as shown in Table 3.3.

To begin, the institutional arrangements for events tourism can be compared. These arrangements are somewhat similar in Queensland and the Northern Territory where an independent events corporation exists alongside the state tourism department. However, the Northern Territory is different to all other case contexts in that it also houses a major events division within the Department of Sport and Recreation. The states of Western Australia, South Australia and Victoria each have an events development division or company housed within the state tourism department. However, Victoria is in contrast to other states in that it also has a government funded event development corporation. New South Wales has an events focus within its tourism authority, while a major events board within the Premier's Department assumes the primary role for events development in the state. Therefore, sources of literal and theoretical replication were observed across the states and territories in terms of their institutional arrangements for events tourism.

In relation to the lifecycle phase of events tourism, five out of the six states/territories display varying levels of maturity in acquiring and developing major events with tourism potential. In contrast to other states, the Northern Territory was deemed to be in an introductory or growth stage with events tourism, given its later establishment of a major events corporation. However, an assessment about the Territory's intentions to grow or consolidate its events tourism portfolio could not be made in the preliminary research phase. In effect, sources of theoretical and literal replication were expected for cases in all six states/territories based on the lifecycle phase of events tourism.

Table 3.3   **Sources of theoretical and literal replication across the six states/territories**

Case context	(a) Institutional arrangements	(b) Lifecycle phase of events tourism	Theoretical replication on (a) and (b)	Literal replication on (a) and (b)
QLD	Queensland Events Corporation within Premiers Department, Tourism Qld has no internal events division.	Mature – long history of events acquisition and a new regional events development program	**(a)** Differs from most other states, **(b)** Differs from NT	**(a)** Some similarity with NT with independent events agency. **(b)** Similarity with NSW, WA , SA
NSW	Major Events Board within Premiers Department, hallmark and regional events led by Tourism NSW with city tourism agency assistance.	Mature– staged Sydney Olympics, range of hallmark events with tourism appeal. Less aggressive than some other mature states. Regional events program in place.	**(a)** Differs from all other states, **(b)** Differs from NT	**(a)** Minor similarity to VIC only (several events operatives), **(b)** Similar to QLD, WA, VIC and SA
WA	Events Corp. within Western Australian Tourism Commission	Mature – first events agency formed in Australia. Long term history of destination branding with events	**(a)** Differs from all states except SA, **(b)** Differs from NT	**(a)** Similar to SA in structure, **(b)** Similar to NSW, QLD, VIC and SA
NT	NT Major Events within Chief Ministers Dept, Events Division within Dept of Sport & Recreation	Introductory/growth Phase – new agency, although events have existed within sports department	**(a)** Differs from most other states, **(b)** Differs from all other states	**(a)** Some similarity to Qld with separation of tourism and events, **(b)** Not similar to other states.
VIC	Victorian Major Events Company and an Events Division within Tourism Vic.	Mature phase – established reputation as one of the leaders in events tourism	**(a)** Differs from most other states, **(b)** Differs from NT	**(a)** Similar to NSW with events agencies inside and outside tourism **(b)** Similar to most states except NT
SA	Australian Major Events company within South Australian Tourism Commission	Mature – strong focus on major local events plus some acquired events	**(a)** Differs from QLD, NT, NSW and VIC, **(b)** Differs from NT	**(a)** Similar to WA, **(b)** Similar to NSW, QLD, VIC and WA

Note: The two sources of replication are (a) institutional arrangements and (b) the lifecycle phase of events tourism (columns 2 and 3). Comments on (a) and (b) in the last two columns refer to these two sources.

Number of case interviews. In line with the tenets of the realism paradigm and case study research, the qualitative interview encourages the interviewees to describe the phenomena under investigation (Jarratt 1996). Seven or eight interviews were planned within each of the six case states/territories, with 48 interviews initially planned for the second phase of the research. Although there are no set rules, Perry (1998, p. 794) suggests that a doctoral thesis could require between 35 to 50 interviews and that about three interviews at different hierarchical levels within 15 case organisations might be involved. Similarly, de Ruyter (1998) suggests that a major qualitative research project should have around 40 to 60 respondents.

When combined with the six interviews conducted in phase 1 of this research, a total of 54 interviews were conducted across 26 organisations. These interviews produced a comprehensive body of data to address the research issues and complete the within-case and cross-case comparisons. Interviews were conducted with two to three senior managers within events agencies in each state/territory, two to three executives within tourism bodies, two managers of event organisations and one or two executives of other city or local government authorities. Within the tourism and event authorities or departments, more than one interview was usually conducted. In the majority of cases, it was possible to interview executives at different levels within both the events and tourism organisations.

The time schedule for the interviews allowed between seven to ten days in each state to conduct interviews and synthesise the data. Approximately one and a half hours were allocated for each of these case study interviews. A combined use of audiotapes and note taking enhanced the quality and credibility of this implementation phase. In addition, mental observations were made by the researcher about the interviewee's tone, emphasis and interpersonal communication during the interview to add meaning to the data. Following the interviews, the transcription of interview data fulfilled a need for auditable evidence.

3.7   Procedures for data collection and analysis

Based on the purposeful selection of multiple cases, steps were taken to develop the content of the interviewer's guide, finalise the number of interviews and identities of participants and the timeframe for interviews in each state/territory. The interviewer's

guide was a central vehicle in the design and application of this qualitative research (Perry 2001). In effect, it gave direction, structure and some flexibility to the investigation of the research issues and also enhanced the reliability of the results (Burns 1994; Yin 1994).

Design of the interviewer's guide. The content of the interviewer's guide included the case study questionnaire as well as the rules and procedures for the conduct of the interviews. Questions posed related to each research issue in the theoretical framework as shown in Table 3.4. Notably, the three spheres of the framework shown in Figure 2.10 in Section 2.5 informed the structure of the interviewer's guide for the case research. A combination of open ended questions, probe questions and a selection of structured or closed questions were included to obtain a range of data about the four research issues.

The interviewer's guide included 37 questions in ten sections as shown in Appendix A. These sections encompassed: the opening question, state/territory involvement in events tourism, definitions and interpretations of events tourism strategy; the public sector framework for events tourism strategies; nature and processes of strategy formation; inter-organisational relationships for events tourism; incentives and disincentives for engaging in inter-organisational relationships; and, closing questions that allowed for other issues to be uncovered. The opening question was designed to relax the interviewee and understand their events tourism experiences and their organisation's involvement in events tourism. Groups of questions in the subsequent sections sought information on each of the four research issues as indicated in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4   **Interview questions related to each of the four research issues**

Research Issues	Interview questions
RI 1: How does the public sector institutional environment impact upon events tourism strategies and the inter-organisational relationships that shape them, and why?	Questions B1-B2 Questions D1-D4 Questions E1-E2
R1 2: How do events tourism strategy forms and processes reflect and influence events agencies' inter-organisational relationships, and why?	Questions F1-F4
RI 3: What are the forms and characteristics of inter-organisational relationships of events agencies that shape events tourism strategies, and why?	Questions G1-G11 Questions H1-H5
RI 4: What are the incentives and disincentives for events agencies to engage in inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategy making, and why?	Questions I.1-I.4

Given the limited pool of potential interviewees with expertise in events tourism, it was decided to use the first interview to pilot the interviewer's guide. Based on this interview, the number of questions was reduced and the wording of some questions was refined to enhance the clarity and conduct of the interview process. However, outcomes of this first interview suggested that an extended pilot study was not warranted. Moreover, the depth of information obtained in this first interview was more than adequate to justify its inclusion with all other interviews in the data analysis.

Data analysis. Because analysis of the case data is the essence of theory building (Eisenhardt 1989), it was important to have an analytic strategy before the research commenced (Miles & Huberman 1994; Yin 1994). This strategy included the three components of data reduction, data display and data analysis. Data reduction involved selecting, focusing, simplifying and transforming the raw data, while data display was achieved through the assembly and synthesis of data to draw conclusions about the research issues (Miles & Huberman 1994).

Making sense of field data (Lincoln & Guba 1985) commences with the data reduction phase in exploratory research. Both categorising strategies of coding and theming and the contextual strategy of examining data in the context of the case studies were used in this research for data reduction (Maxwell 1996). However, a careful reading of the transcripts was an initial step. Furthermore, interview tapes were listened to by the researcher before the data transcription occurred. Once transcribed, the data were stored, condensed and coded using N-Vivo software (Gibbs 2002) as noted in Section 4.1.

The development of a code tree or hierarchical schema of the issues and themes (Miles & Huberman 1994) accompanied the processes of data reduction and display. Thus each of the passages in interview transcripts was connected to particular codes, with categories of codes reflecting the research issues and emergent themes. Because theoretical decisions occur in deciding which pieces of data to code, this was an important step in the data reduction process (Maclaran & Catterall 2002). However, the software also permitted multiple coding, so that the relevance of segments of text to more than one coding category was taken into account (Catterall 1996).

Various methods served to enhance the researcher's ability to display the data for analysis. For example, tables of data within codes, highlighted quotations and tabulations of the frequency of issues were created. With the N-Vivo software, it was also possible to prepare reports of results for each code both within cases and across cases (Gibbs 2002). Nevertheless, the whole process of analysis was not computerised, due to the potential for the researcher to be weighed down by the myriad of tools and to, in turn, lose the ability for creative insights (Riege 1997).

Because of the exploratory and explanatory purposes of the research, the general analytic strategy included individual case descriptions and referred to the research issues and theoretical propositions (Yin 1994). A key step in this stage of the analysis was the development of detailed summaries of findings on each research issue for the individual states. A combination of pattern matching techniques and explanation building (Yin 1994) was employed in the analysis of data.

Firstly, to preserve the inductive exploration of the research issues, it was necessary to look for coinciding patterns and themes both within cases and across cases (Eisenhardt 1989; Patton 1990). It was also important to look for connections between categories and themes in this exploration of the issues (Maxwell 1996). Secondly, the research propositions were examined through a process of explanation building (Yin 1994) in which a continual process of review of the propositions occurred in examining the cases. The benefit of this combined analytic strategy was the ability to build theory on the broader research issues and to confirm or disconfirm the research propositions. Hence a refinement of the propositions and theoretical framework was facilitated by this strategy.

3.8   Limitations of case research

A range of criticisms have been directed towards the qualitative case methodology. Some of these criticisms are that the method leads to overly complex theories and that it can result in narrow idiosyncratic theories (Eisenhardt 1989; Parkhe 1993). The use and development of prior theory and specific research questions to address issues within the theoretical framework were aspects of the research design that assisted in overcoming possible issues of complexity. In addition, it is important to view qualitative research as a process of theory development, and so, this research was not intended to provide definitive theory on the subject matter (Parkhe 1993).

Further criticisms of case research relate to issues of credibility and quality raised earlier in this chapter. Although the method has been criticised for its logistical and operational problems (Eisenhardt 1989; Parkhe 1993), the use of replication logic for case selection, the development of the interviewer's guide and an analytic strategy addressed these criticisms. Other criticisms of the case methodology related to external validity, research rigour and generalisability have already been addressed in Section 3.5. In effect, the development of clear guidelines for the management of case study validity and reliability by the researcher (Healy & Perry 2000) ensured that there were clear procedures for ensuring that the above criticisms were addressed.

3.9 Ethical considerations

Producing an ethical research design was as important to the researcher as one which displayed intellectual coherence and rigour (Maxwell 1996). In conducting this research, ethical considerations meant that all participants needed to be fully informed of the research process and their role within it (Patton 1990). Also, the ethical conduct of the research ensured that their privacy, anonymity, safety and comfort was respected throughout the research process (Miles & Huberman 1994; Riege 1997). That is, informed consent was the cornerstone of the ethical procedures.

In addition, there was a need to manage sensitive and confidential information in ways that were satisfactory to the case participants, yet would maintain the integrity of the data. The focus was on inter-organisational relationships and events tourism strategy processes of states/territories that compete with each other for a share of the events tourism market. Therefore, a clear indication was given to all participants of how the data would be managed and reported in the final thesis. A full disclosure about the purpose and context of the research and copies of the interviewer's guide were provided to all participants at the time of the interview (Patton 1990). A consent form was also obtained from interviewees in accordance with the legal requirements of Griffith University.

Following the data analysis, interviewees were provided with a detailed summary of findings on their state/territory so that any points of concern about issues raised or confidentiality could be discussed and resolved prior to the final write-up and submission of the thesis. Because participants had the option of withdrawing from the research at any time, it was vital to ensure that these procedures were followed. There was no feedback

from any interviewee about this detailed summary that indicated that any of my interpretations of the interview data were inaccurate. Extreme caution was taken to maintain the confidence of participants in the research process and its outcomes. For example, the researcher took steps to reiterate the availability of preliminary findings and the confidentiality of transcribed data. The anonymity of individual participants as well as each case context, that is, each of the six states/territories was preserved in the data analysis. The pre-test of the interview guide also served to obtain feedback on the sensitivity of questions and issues before the interviews commenced.

3.10   Conclusion

Because understandings of inter-organisational relationships in events tourism had not emerged from previous research, the realities in this domain presented an opportunity for investigation. The choice of the realism paradigm facilitated both an exploration and explanation of these relationships and processes for the purposes of theory building (Easton 1998). A balance of induction and deduction was possible in the choice of qualitative methodologies (Perry, Riege, & Brown 1998). The first phase of the methodology, the convergent interviews with events tourism experts, explored and refined the theoretical framework and its research issues (Carson, Gilmore, Perry, & Gronhaug 2001a).

The second phase of the methodology was the design and implementation of the multiple case studies. In each case, the chosen unit of analysis was the inter-organisational relationships of the public sector events agency for events tourism strategies within the state/territory. Cases were selected for inclusion in the research on the basis of replication logic and interviewees were drawn from the focal events agencies as well as tourism authorities and event organisations to triangulate the data obtained. A comprehensive interviewer's guide including procedures for implementing the research guided the implementation phase of the case research. Careful procedures were then used to reduce, display and analyse the data to build theory about the impact of these inter-organisational relationships on events tourism strategies. Finally, various measures employed throughout the research served to ensure the quality and credibility of the methodology and to manage ethical considerations associated with the research. More insights to these processes are evident in the discussion of data analysis presented next in Chapter 4.

4 Analysis of data

The case study methodology for data collection was outlined and justified in Chapter 3. The purpose of this chapter is to analyse the collected data to identify patterns and themes about the four research issues and their supporting propositions. How these findings reflect and build upon existing literature and their implications is then discussed in Chapter 5.

This chapter consists of five parts, as shown in Figure 4.1. Firstly, Section 4.1 outlines the process of data analysis and its relationship to the research issues and the interviewer's guide described in Chapter 3. The next section provides an overview of each of the six cases investigated in this research. How the themes and patterns were drawn out from the cross-case analysis for each of the research issues is then discussed. Finally, the results on each of the research issues are presented.

Figure 4.1   **Outline of Chapter 4 with section numbers noted**
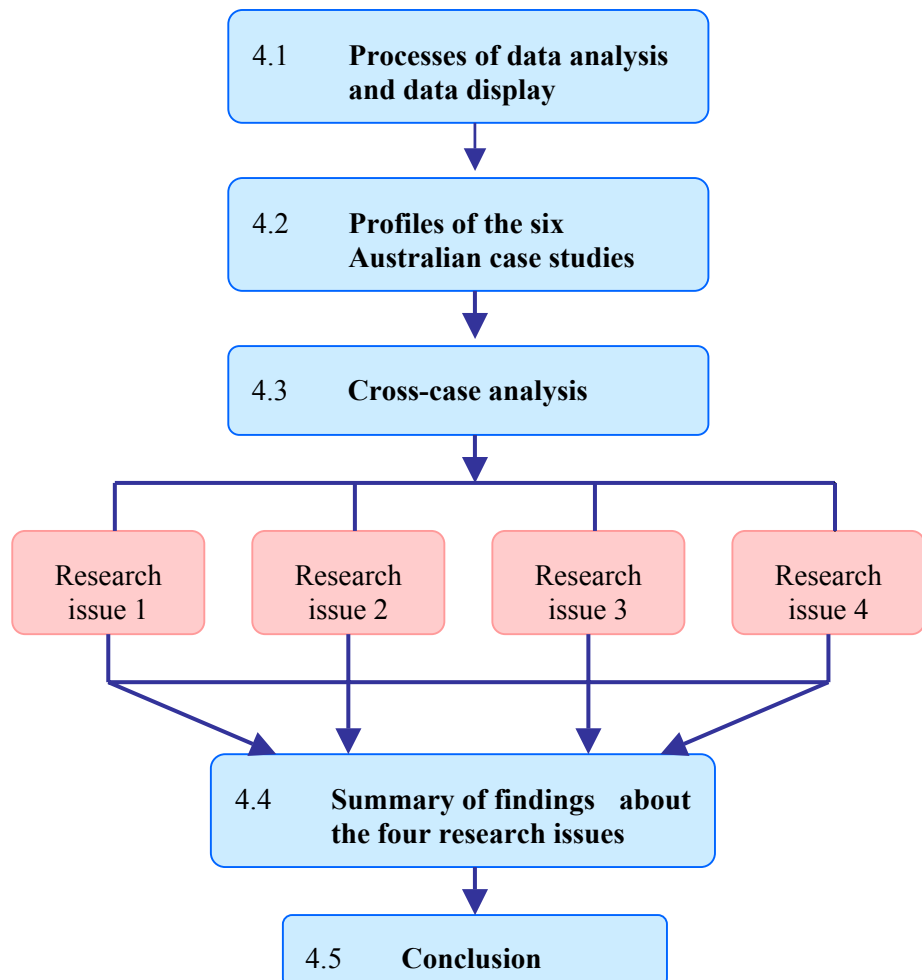
4.1   Processes of data analysis and data display

The case study analysis reported here incorporated pattern analysis and explanation building, as noted in Chapter 3.   To facilitate these processes, methods of coding, indexing and reporting the data were established. Firstly, a *coding structure* based on the research issues and propositions served to organise data into topics and sub-topics for analysis. That is, a system of codes was created within the N-Vivo software prior to coding as shown in Appendix B. Then the on-line content analysis employed axial coding and selective coding (Neuman 1994). First, in the axial coding, the codes were assigned to paragraphs or sections of data in initial passes through the interview data. Next, selective coding was used to identify specific situations within the data to illustrate themes and compare data (Neuman 1994). This combined use of axial and selective coding helped to describe and explain situations and issues within the data.

Secondly, a process of *data indexing* was adopted so that each case was allocated an alphabetical label for reporting in this chapter to preserve confidentiality. For example, cases A through to F were used to represent the six state/territories involved in this research. A deliberate attempt was made to show no anticipated order for states/territories on the basis of their spatial proximity. Moreover, to avert concerns about identifying interviewees within the cases, the indexing system did not identify the nature of their organisations (as discussed further in Section 4.2).

Finally, a number of steps were taken to facilitate and simplify the *reporting of data*. Both within-case and cross case analyses were employed to explore the data and explain the findings (Miles & Huberman 1994). To begin the process, the researcher completed within-case analyses and detailed reports on each of the six cases that were sent to all interviewees within each case. An example of these reports to interviewees on findings about the research issues is shown in Appendix C. This step enabled the researcher to cross-check the accuracy of findings with participants in each state/territory. The reports also provided the platform for the cross-case analysis presented in this chapter.

To simplify the presentation of cross-case results, this chapter needed to describe the patterns in the data or the 'wood' as well as the details or 'trees' that support them (this discussion is based closely on Perry 2002). Patterns in the data that show why and how

the world operates, that is, the 'wood', are emphasised in this chapter because this is realism research exploring an external world (Section 3.1). However, because the events tourism environment is complex and under-researched, the details or 'trees' were also needed to confirm the trustworthiness of the patterns being uncovered. Thus detailed quotations and their sources and other evidence for the patterns found in the data are also included in the chapter. In other words, the patterns from the data were synthesised from the 'rich, qualitative sources on which they were based' (Perry 2002 p.36).

The details in the matrices, figures and tables in this chapter provide a visual display of results for each case on the range of findings (Miles & Huberman 1994). For example, in discussing results for each research issue, a figure is used to show the themes and inter-relationships between them that emerged from the findings (an example is Figure 4.2). To distinguish quotations from the patterns they support, quotations are presented in a reduced 11 point font. The alternative method of presenting quotations in *italics* was not chosen because doing so would confuse the quotations with words that are italicised for headings or emphasis. Moreover, this is realism research rather than constructivism or critical theory research, and so the need to emphasise each respondent's constructed reality by italicising quotations was not overwhelming.

Sometimes, *scales* were used by interviewees to rate the importance of issues and activities based on their own experience and perceptions. Responses were then triangulated with the interviewee's discussion on that topic and related issues to arrive at a summary representation of the data in the tables in this chapter (Perry 1998; Yin 1994). For example, public sector issues that might influence events tourism strategies were rated on a triangulated five point scale from 'very important' or 1 to 'not important at all' or a 5. Similarly, activities that might be included in events tourism strategy processes were rated on a scale from 'a very important inclusion' or a measure of 1 to 'not currently included' or a measure of 5.

It is important to recognise that these tables of *ratings* offer only a general indication of perceptions and they are not intended to be a precise measure of importance because each case involved a search for meaning and was not meant to be a representative survey (Yin 1994). As well, references to the broad distribution of findings among the small number of interviewees in the tables are intended only to provide a picture of differences and

similarities in views expressed. Hence the reader can observe whether there was a consensus, a normal or skewed distribution or a polarisation of views from the tables. However, to repeat, it is the relativity of case responses to each other and reasons for them that were of most interest in this qualitative research.

4.2   Profiles of the six Australian case studies

In this research, a case is the inter-organisational relationships and their contexts that shape events tourism strategy in each of six Australian states and territories as defined in Section 3.2. These cases were chosen on the basis of theoretical and literal replication (Section 3.6). Each case involved interviews with seven to nine executives within the state, city and regional events and tourism sectors. Because the development of state events tourism strategies is concentrated in the public sector, most interviewees were senior executives of government departments or chief executives of statutory authorities. However, triangulating interviews in most states/territories were conducted with managers of private sector events organisations or public-private agencies with a role in events tourism. Details of the time frames, numbers of interviews and types of organisations involved from Queensland, Victoria, New South Wales, Western Australia, South Australia and the Northern Territory are shown in Table 4.1. These states and territories are referred to with the letters A to F in this report, for the sake of confidentiality (Section 4.1).

A rich body of data was obtained in all cases from interviewees who devoted between one to two hours to the interview process. In the following discussion, a more detailed profile of each case and its context is presented. This within-case analysis and the within-case findings in Appendix 3 represent the first step of case data analysis (Patton 1990) and are followed by the cross-case analyses of Sections 4.3 onwards. In some cases, small adaptations have been made to some descriptions to disguise the case. For example, reference to the chief minister in territories of Australia has been changed to Premier and the word 'state' is used to represent both states and territories.

Table 4.1   **Time frame, numbers of interviews and types of organisations involved from each of six states/territories**

Case	Timeframe	Total interviews	Types of organisations and number of interviewees
A	16 to 20 October 2002	8	State tourism organisation (2), major events body (2), major events organisers (2), local government (1), convention marketing authority (1)
B	21 to 27 August 2002	9	State tourism organisation (3), major events body (3), major event organisers (2), local government (1)
C	1 to 9 October 2002	9	State tourism organisation (4), major events body (3), city tourism marketing authority(1), events organiser(1)
D	23 to 27 September 2002	7	State tourism organisation (3), major events body (1), local government (1), events organisers (2)
E	16 to 20 September 2002	7	State tourism organisation (2), major events body (1), city tourism marketing authority (1), events organisers (2)
F	23 to 29 October 2002	8	State tourism organisation (2), major events body (1), tourism marketing agencies (3), events organisers (2)

Note: A territory is referred to as a state in this table to preserve confidentiality

Source: developed for this research

Case A. In case A's state, the major events body is housed within the state tourism body. It initially existed as a separate entity, but political changes led to it being merged with the tourism body in the 1990s. A change of government has placed some pressures on tourism and major events budgets. However, there is an events focus within tourism policy and a commitment to major events acquisition, select events management and development in city and regional areas. Integration of events development and marketing activities with the other functions of the tourism body is incremental. A change from the events agency's direct line of reporting to the board of the tourism body to a panel of tourism executives that reports to the board is a further step towards this integration. A small advisory panel to the events agency meets monthly to discuss proposals for events

acquisition and development. Strategy making occurs internally among events personnel, with an expected linkage between the state's tourism strategy, the tourism body's corporate plans and events tourism strategies. The board of the tourism body, the relevant minister and finally, Cabinet determines the resource allocation to proposed strategies.

For this case, senior executives in major events development, regional events coordination, tourism marketing and market research were interviewed inside the tourism body. Those stakeholders interviewed who were external to government included chief executives of event organisations, a local government marketing manager and a chief executive of a city conventions authority.

Case B. In case B, the state tourism body and the events agency operate as separate entities in this state. A formal linkage is created by a shared staff member. Responsibility for events was initially housed within the tourism portfolio, but was placed within the Premier's department during the 1990s. In addition to the government owned events agency, other personnel within the Premier's department oversee events policy formulation and co-ordinate major government events. An events policy had existed, but a new policy was in the process of formulation at the time of this research. Major events acquisition, city and regional events development are part of the current policy framework of the state government. While the development of regional events is shared between the tourism body and the events agency, strategies for major events acquisition and development are developed internally within the events agency. The agency has its own board, within which the Premier is represented, that reports to Cabinet.

Interviewees within the events corporation included the chief executive and two longstanding employees whose experience spanned events management and regional events development. Those interviewees inside the tourism authority were engaged in marketing directions, destination management and events tourism marketing. Outside these two organisations, the interviewees included two chief executives of major events and a local government executive with many years of events experience.

Case C. In case C's state, a major events agency is housed within the state tourism body. It was initially created as an independent events development agency, but it was merged with the tourism body in the 1990s. The roles played by the events agency embrace events acquisition, events development and ongoing management of a portfolio of major events. Regional events funding is administered by the tourism body, with some reference to events executives. A change of government with an electoral platform that did not feature tourism occurred just prior to this research. However, both tourism policy and events policy existed before this government and new strategies for tourism including events were being developed at the time of the interviews. Although the state tourism strategy provides broad directions for events tourism, the events agency develops its own strategic proposals for events acquisition, development and management. In the post-election period, the events agency's board was abolished in favour of a direct line of reporting to the board of the tourism commission. Several new members of this board represent the local events sector.

Interviewees within the events agency included the chief executive, an events development executive and a group events manager. Within the state tourism body, executives in marketing, destination development and regional events coordination were interviewed. External stakeholders were represented by the chief executive of one of the state's leading events and the chief executive of a city tourism authority.

Case D. In case D, the state tourism body and a major events agency each assume a role in events tourism development in this state. The government's tourism policy and a major events policy provide the framework for the roles and strategies of the two organisations. Where the events agency has multiple goals for its role in mega-event acquisition, the tourism body concentrates on developing the tourism potential of major and regional events. However, both organisations assume a role in the acquisition of events, albeit at different levels of investment. Each organisation submits its strategies for approval to its own board, one of which reports to the Premier, while the other reports to the tourism minister.

For this case, interviews were conducted inside the tourism body with the deputy chief executive officer, a senior events executive and a marketing manager. An interview was also conducted with a senior executive of the major events organisation. Stakeholders

who were interviewed external to those agencies were two managers of major events and a local government marketing manager.

Case E. In case E, events tourism responsibilities are shared between the state tourism body, a major events unit within the Premier's department and a city tourism agency within this state. Each of these bodies with events tourism responsibilities have different lines of reporting for their activities. Major events personnel within the Premier's department report to a board that is represented by sport, corporate, tourism and events personnel. The state tourism body has its own board and the city tourism agency reports to this same board. However, several authorities have a stake in its directions including the state tourism body. While the major events unit determines major event acquisition and development strategies, the city agency is engaged in tourism marketing of major and hallmark events. Regional events tourism development remains the responsibility of the state tourism body. In those contexts, each organisation develops its own strategic directions. However, inter-agency relationships are dominant in staging and marketing capital city mega-events.

The interviewees in this case included a senior events executive, a regional events coordinator, two tourism marketing executives, the chief executive of the city tourism agency and two major events representatives.

Case F. In Case F's state, the tourism body and major events agency operate as separate entities. The events agency was established in the late 1990s to acquire, develop and manage events of importance to the government and community. Housed within the Premier's office, the agency's charter is to attract and build events that result in both tourism and civic entertainment. A post-election climate existed at the time of this research and a review of events policy and direction was in progress. The events agency reports to a board, to which a new chair and some new members were appointed during this study. Representatives on this board include tourism, events, media and other government personnel. While proposals for events investment are considered by the Board and Premier, recommendations are circulated to all Cabinet members for review. The management of a small events portfolio and the development of existing events dominate the activities of this agency. This agency has a more limited role in event acquisition compared with other states.

Interviewees within this case were the managing director and general manager of marketing for the tourism body, an events development executive, a public sector events director, a festival director and two managers of city and regional marketing authorities.

4.3 Cross-case analysis

Based on the within-case analyses, this section presents the more important cross-case analysis (Yin 1994). Results are presented under each of the four research issues from Chapter 2 in this section. For this cross-case analysis, a variable-oriented approach is adopted in which one variable or categories of variables across all cases are discussed in responding to the research issues. That is, both within-group similarities and group differences are analysed within the different categories and dimensions of the data (Eisenhardt 1989). This method of analysis is different to a category oriented approach in which one case is examined and compared with successive cases. The variable oriented approach of this research was justified because each of the cases was chosen for their theoretical and literal replication in the research design. This approach was also possible because of the research issues established in Chapter 2.

4.3.1 Findings about research issue 1: the public sector environment for events tourism

The first research issue was:

> *How does the public sector institutional environment impact upon events tourism*
> *strategies and the inter-organisational relationships that shape them, and why?*

To respond to this first issue, the researcher analysed interviewees' perceptions of how government policies, public sector influences and the role and structure of events agencies impact upon events tourism strategy and related inter-organisational relationships. Perceptions of the government's goals or purposes of events investment and the lifecycle of events tourism within the states/territories were also taken into account in addressing this research issue.

Figure 4.2 illustrates the themes discussed within this first research issue and the inter-relationships that were observed during the course of the analysis. The following discussion progresses in the order shown in the figure, that is, (1a) government purposes for events investment and (1b) public sector policies, (2a) events agency roles and (2b) organisational arrangements, (3) public sector influences on events tourism, and (4) events tourism lifecycle phases. The impacts of these four themes on events tourism strategy are also discussed together with linkages between them.

Figure 4.2   **Themes and their inter-relationships for research issue 1**
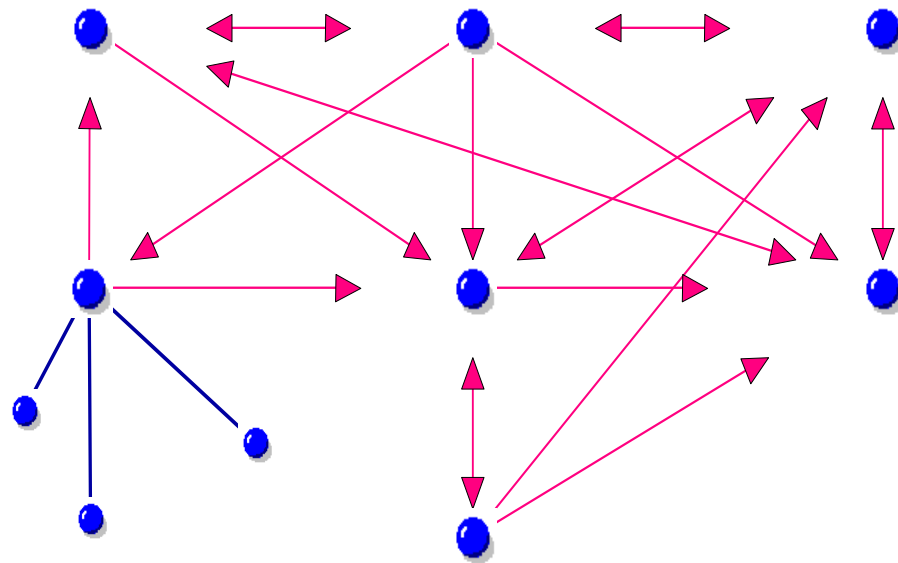
Notes*:* ▬▬ = sub-theme,   ◄──► = two-way relationship,   ──► = one-way relationship
Numbers in parentheses indicate the order of discussion of each theme within the figure from (1) to (4)
Source: developed for this research

4.3.1.1 Government purposes for events investment and public sector policies

The first two themes explored in the data were a government's purposes for investing in events and the related public sector policies for events tourism (numbers 1a and 1b in Figure 4.2). Linkages between a government's purposes for investing in events and public sector policies that impact upon events tourism were then analysed for their relationship to events tourism strategy. This section shows three main *purposes* of public sector investment in events: tourism visitation and destination image enhancement; business and economic development; and social/civic, cultural and sports development.

Events and tourism policies provided either a single or dual *public policy* framework to fulfil these events tourism purposes in most cases (A, B, D, and E). However, there was an absence of both tourism and events policies in some cases (C and F). The policy framework that existed in each state highlighted the perceived importance of tourism purposes relative to other purposes of public sector investment in events. In turn, this framework affected strategy creation, not just for events acquisition and development, but also for events tourism that accompanies these activities. Finally, the policy framework also influenced the type of government funding for events and their tourism marketing.

Policy frameworks for events tourism and their links to event investment purposes. First, consider how public sector policies guide events tourism. Four different policy frameworks were identified across the cases. These four frameworks were an events policy that covered multiple purposes of events including tourism (case B), two separate policies for events and tourism (cases D and E), a single tourism policy that encompassed major events (case A) or no events or tourism policy (cases C and F). Table 4.2 shows these four policy frameworks and dominant purposes for events investment in each case.

Table 4.2   **Policy frameworks and government purposes of events investment**

Cases	A	B	C	D	E	F
Policy frameworks:						
Tourism policy that includes major events	✓		☑	✓	⊠	
Separate tourism and events policies					☑	
Events policy that includes tourism		✓ ☑		✓		
No events or tourism policy						✓
Purposes of events:						
Tourism purposes of events emphasised	✓		✓	✓	✓	
Multiple purposes of events emphasised		✓		✓	✓	✓

Notes: ✓ = the policy framework or purpose exists, ☑ = the policy framework is being developed, ⊠ = a tourism policy exists in this case without an events focus. Although Case B has an existing events policy, it was undergoing review and a new policy was being developed.

Source: analysis of field data.

Now consider the linkages between these four policy frameworks and the government purposes for events investment. A close relationship existed between the chosen policy framework and the emphasis placed on one or more purposes for events by the government. The importance of the tourism purposes of events was underscored by a focus on events within tourism policy and/or tourism strategies that served to project the government's position on tourism and events in most cases (A, C, D and E). 'It fits into our strategy as a tourism organisation' (E3).

Those cases that favoured events policies that were independent of a tourism policy emphasised multiple purposes of events including tourism (cases B and E). For example, because cases B and E saw tourism to be a subset of a number of event purposes, including economic, cultural and sports purposes, a separate events policy was advocated. 'We have gone past the point where we can say that events are just a subset of tourism' (B8). The need for events to fulfil tourism and other purposes was stressed by interviewees. '[We are] putting mechanisms in place that are likely to produce tourism outcomes….promotion of inward investment, (and have) an emphasis on how events positively promote sports participation or cultural access (E4).

Even in those cases where events were only contained in tourism policy and/or strategies and the tourism purpose of events was given most emphasis, consideration was also given to the other purposes of events. However, because funds for events were channelled through the tourism department, the tourism purposes of events were dominant (cases A and C). '[We] try to incorporate other criteria….one of our problems is that this is tourism money, so the tourism constituency doesn't want to see events that don't deliver to them' (A4).

There was no current policy framework for events tourism in cases C and F, but there was a contrast in their stated purposes for events investment. For example, interviewees in case C emphasised the tourism outcomes of events investment and that steps were being taken to develop a tourism policy. 'There was a sort of generalised agreement among the Ministers and government. Now, I'm sure that there will be some firm guidelines that will produce a [tourism] policy' (C7). In contrast, because case F focused on the social and civic benefits of staging events as well as tourism, there were no plans for policy development because of these multiple purposes of events investment. '[Here], they are home grown and developed events, primarily for local consumption, some of which, through the passing of time or their

uniqueness, do have the ability to draw people in' (F3). 'Events are more about satisfying the needs of the local community rather than lets have an event to see if this can generate new tourism' (F2). Here, the Premier's department provided a broad political backdrop for events strategies, but no specific policy.

In brief, the emphasis placed on different events investment purposes varies across the cases and so, public sector policies that provide an umbrella for events tourism were also different. Tourism was one of the leading purposes for events investment in all cases, but other purposes were seen to be equally important in some cases. This comparative importance of tourism alongside other events investment purposes was, in turn, reflected in public sector policies.

The policy-strategy linkage. Regardless of the events investment purposes and types of policies, there was no set sequence in which policy and strategy was developed. For this research, a policy was viewed as a course of action or inaction chosen by public authorities to address a given problem or interrelated set of problems (Pal 1992 in Section 2.2.1). A strategy was viewed as the strategic positions, patterns or approaches of organisations (Section 2.2.1) that inter-relate with policy in the public sector. A priori, it was thought that government purposes for events might be reflected in their public sector policies and some inter-relationship was expected between these policies and events tourism strategies.

In most cases, some form of events strategy or an events tourism strategy had preceded and/or accompanied policy formulation (cases B, C, E and F). '[It] the policy will be driven by various strategy options over the short, medium and long term' (E4). 'It's the first time in my recollection that there hasn't been a specific tourism policy, but they're developing it now, and the state tourism plan is part of that process' (C5). Thus there was an inter-relationship between the policy framework and events tourism strategy, but policies were not always a precursor to strategy development.

This relationship between policies and strategies was affected by how strategies were interpreted. Many cases made a distinction between strategies that focused on events acquisition and development and events tourism strategies that concentrated on the tourism marketing of events. The extent to which events tourism strategies existed

alongside strategies for events acquisition and development varied according to the policy framework. For example, in case B, where a broad events policy was being developed within the Premiers department and the separate tourism authority had not prioritised events as attractions, there was no integrated events tourism strategy. A range of activities that contribute to strategy (discussed in Section 4.3.2.3) were undertaken, but not in the context of a deliberate events tourism strategy. By comparison, those states that had a focus on events in their tourism organisations did have events tourism strategies that worked in tandem with events agencies' strategies for acquiring and developing events (cases A, C, D and E).

The need for public sector policies that foster events tourism. Although the nature of policy and strategy varied and there was no predictable order in which they emerged, events did need to be included in one or more policies of government for events agencies and their strategies to be funded. That is, an events policy that is part of the election commitment of a government, be it within a tourism or events policy parameter, was a perceived requirement for events funding. 'When you're going into a budget, if you're not a policy platform and you're not an election commitment, then you're not on the reserve bench' (B8). 'They've got a scorecard of all of their policy commitments…because tourism isn't on that scorecard, that's an issue for us' (C5).

The chosen policy framework also had implications for the type of government funding provided. Where an events policy was desirable for obtaining funds for events acquisition (cases B, D and E), a commitment to events within the state tourism organisation was a pre-requisite to obtaining adequate resources to leverage the tourism potential of events. In some cases (B and F), where there was no commitment to events in tourism policy and the government had multiple purposes for events investment, events tourism strategies were impeded because no one agency had a primary role in the tourism marketing of events. While there were monies provided for events development and acquisition, there was no 'pot of money' provided for tourism marketing of events. 'It [the events agency] does not get involved in events tourism. It's not their charter…and that's been one of the big problems….the tourism authority is saying, "Well, that's great, but the events agency should have the budget to do that". It's what we refer to as the black hole' (B7). Hence a link was observed between policy and the extent to which resources were allocated to capitalise on the tourist market potential of events.

Summary. In all cases, even when the multiple purposes of events were emphasised, tourism was still one of the leading purposes for events investment. The level of importance placed on tourism outcomes determined whether those states with existing or emerging events policies also had an events focus within their tourism organisations. Yet some recognition of the other purposes of events existed, even in cases where tourism was given the highest priority. Because of these multiple purposes of events, a single tourism policy framework was not the preferred option among most interviewees. Instead, a broad based events policy or dual policies in tourism and events were favoured. The choice of policy had implications for the types of strategies developed including their emphasis on events tourism.

4.3.1.2 Events agency roles and organisational arrangements

The roles of events agencies and organisational arrangements for events tourism were the next themes to be analysed to address research issue 1 (numbers 2a and 2b in Figure 4.2). Four traditional roles played by events agencies and three categories of organisational arrangements for events tourism were identified across the cases. The traditional *roles* of events and/or tourism organisations that contribute to events tourism were major or mega-events acquisition, events development, events management and tourism marketing in support of events. The *organisational arrangements* included separate and merged tourism and events organisations as well as mixed arrangements where tourism and events organisations were separate, but tourism divisions or agencies also performed events tourism roles. Figure 4.3 illustrates these three categories of organisational arrangements.

Figure 4.3   **Separate, merged and mixed organisational arrangements for events tourism across the cases**

| Separate | Merged | Mixed |
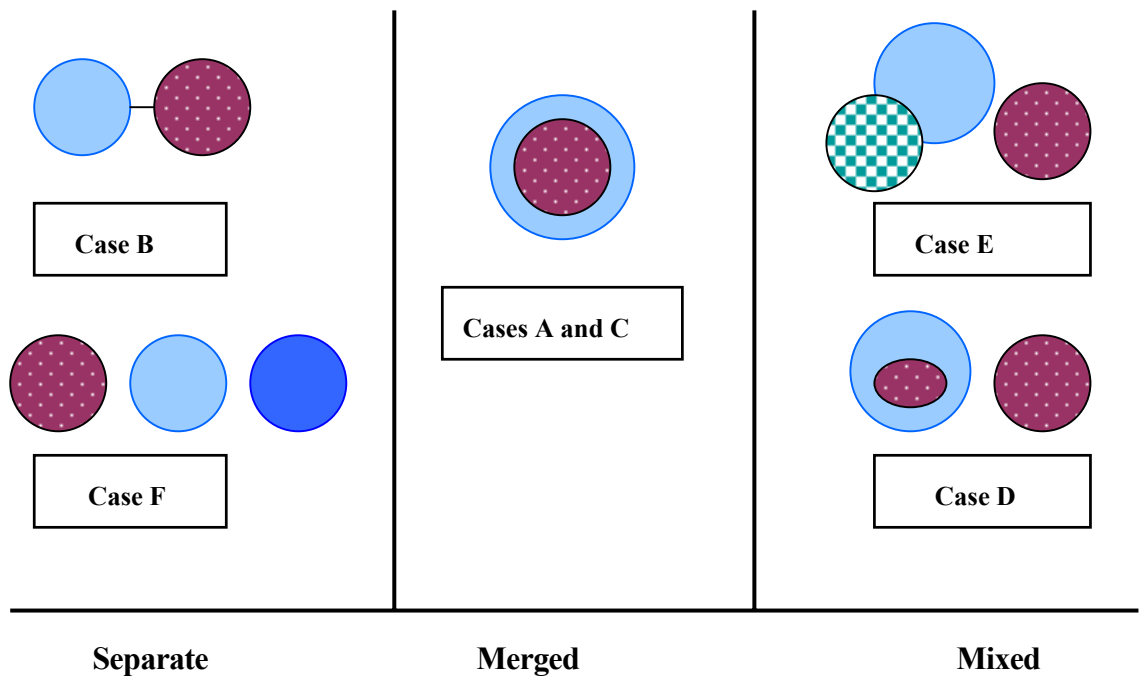
Note: ⬤ = state tourism body ⬤ = events agency ⬤ = city agency ⬤ = sports department
The line in case B denotes the shared staff member between the events agency and tourism body

Source: developed for this research based on field data

Firstly, separate organisational arrangements were shown in cases B and F. In case B, separate events and tourism organisations were linked by one shared staff member, while separate organisations and an additional events unit inside the sport and recreation department existed in case F. Secondly, merged events and tourism bodies were evident in cases A and C. Finally, case D and E showed mixed organisational arrangements. Case D had separate events and tourism organisations with an events division inside the tourism authority, and case E had separate events and tourism organisations whose events tourism roles were supplemented by a subsidiary city tourism agency.

This section now explores reasons for these organisational arrangements relative to the government's policies and intended purposes for events, the reasons for different role emphases among events agencies, and the advantages and disadvantages of different organisational arrangements relative to events tourism strategy.

Reasons for different organisational arrangements. Organisational arrangements for events tourism illustrate how tourism and events organisations have co-existed to achieve a government's intended purposes for events investment. Separate, merged and mixed organisational arrangements demonstrate different ways in which government purposes for events have been addressed. To begin, those cases that acknowledged the multiple purposes of government in events investment had established an events agency that was separate to the tourism body (cases B, D, E and F). The reason for this separation was to ensure that the events agency was not linked with one agency more than others, given the multiple purposes of events. 'Having major events directly aligned and concentrated on the business of the day of one agency [means that there isn't] an opportunity for cross-government policies and strategies to be built into what is happening' (F7).

Several states with separate events agencies had also developed or were developing a broad based, events policy that justified their roles in events acquisition and development (cases B, D and E). However, because the tourism marketing of events can be de-emphasised in a broad events agenda, these states housed one or more events personnel inside their tourism agencies to help fulfil that role (cases B, D and E). Within case F, the role played by the sport and recreation department in managing several events meant that both this unit and the events agency liaised independently with the state tourism organisation for tourism marketing support on an 'as-needs' basis.

In the *mixed* organisational arrangements, events and tourism bodies were also separate, but more than one organisation had an active, complementary role in events tourism. In these cases, the reason for the separation of the events and tourism bodies was that the events agency could concentrate on mega-events acquisition, while the state tourism body focused on events tourism strategies (cases D and E). Because there was more than one organisation involved, there was an expectation that inter-agency communication would shape overall events tourism directions. 'It's not like they're making decisions out in left field, they are involving other government agencies' (E1). By comparison, this communication was less effective in the separate organisational arrangements of case B because there was only one person engaged with events marketing inside the tourism body and they were not responsible for shaping events tourism strategy. 'It needs more than one person' (B7).

Contrasting organisational arrangements were evident in those cases where the events agency had been *merged* with the state tourism body (cases A and C). Here, the structures were merged because of a perceived need to further emphasise the tourism marketing of events. In these cases, in-house structures with some autonomy were initially established. However, because of the need for close liaison between tourism marketing and events personnel, in-house agencies with less autonomy have begun to emerge. This need for a team effort among events and tourism personnel has led to quite different arrangements in case E. Unlike all other states, case E has three inter-related organisations involved in events tourism that include a major events unit within the Premier's department, the state tourism organisation and a subsidiary city tourism agency. Although the city agency was established to market city tourism attractions including major events, this agency provides a third tier in the state's organisational arrangements for events tourism. 'It [the city agency] was seen to fill a bit of a gap in terms of capitalising or leveraging on the tourism potential [of events] to the city' (E1)

In effect, variations in the organisational arrangements in each case were mainly based on whether events were seen to be a subset of the state's tourism goals (A and C) or whether tourism was treated as one of a range of motives for events investment (B, D, E and F). The perceived ability of one or more organisations to fulfil all of the identified roles that contribute to events tourism was another contributing factor. Organisational arrangements in cases D and E showed that the need for two or more inter-related organisations was acknowledged in some states.

Reasons for events agencies' roles. As noted earlier, the four primary roles of the events agencies were events acquisition, events development, event management and tourism marketing of events. Certain types of roles of events agencies were emphasised over others depending on the organisational arrangements, the lifecycle phases of different events tourism roles and related political priorities in each of the cases. The linkages between these roles and the reasons for them are now explored.

Events tourism roles and organisational arrangements. The organisational arrangements for events tourism influence the kinds of roles played by events and tourism organisations. The role of major events acquisition was given priority in most events agencies because they were initially set up as independent entities to fulfil that role. The

independence of these agencies allowed them to be entrepreneurial and competitive with events acquisition. However, these events agencies then assumed roles in event management and development because of the limited resources and expertise of local organisations to fulfil those roles. For example, events agencies share responsibility for regional event development programs with tourism and other state government departments in most cases (A, B, C, D and E). Local government grants also support event and festival development at city and local levels to help fulfil civic entertainment goals (cases A, B, C, D and E). Nevertheless, because these roles are shared with other organisations, events acquisition has continued to be a dominant role of events agencies.

Rarely have independent events agencies assumed a direct role in tourism marketing and some ownership of this role has only occurred after events and tourism bodies have been linked or amalgamated (cases A and C). In all cases where separate events agencies have been maintained, there has been no specific charter for the events agency to undertake the tourism marketing of major or mega-events secured (cases B, D, E and F). In cases with either one or no events marketing personnel inside the tourism body, a gap in both the resources and commitment needed for the tourism marketing of events was evident (cases B and F).

This situation arises because neither agency sees that it has the responsibility or resources to focus on events tourism strategies. 'We see our role as more to make sure that the event is actually staged well and give the other bodies, whose real role it is to market the state, a platform to be able to go and do that' (B8). 'For the tourism authority to shift focus to leverage events would mean that we would have to sacrifice some tremendous work we are doing with industry' (B2). Consequently, events tourism strategies can be hampered by the separate agendas of tourism and events agencies, an absence of a shared focus on events tourism and limited inter-agency relationships and resources to nurture these strategies.

Events agency roles and events tourism lifecycle issues. The extent to which agency roles emphasise event acquisition over event development or vice versa and participate in events management is also related to the lifecycle of events tourism activities. For example, events acquisition is thought to have reached maturity, where rising costs and competition for a small number of mega-events are reducing interest in bidding for events that are retained for short periods. 'So, we're questioning….do we actually go out and buy an

event that we own rather than simply encouraging events that are set up here and then moved away in two or three year's time' (B8). However, because this turning point has just been reached, there was little evidence of major events development and a continued emphasis on event acquisition was reflected in all but one case (cases A, B, C, D and E). Like event acquisition and development, the in-house management of events was also tied to lifecycle issues such as the perceived embryonic state of the events sector and related market failure (cases A, C and F). 'They quickly learned here that for the actual management of the event, there wasn't a lot of that expertise here and they found that the role fell to them [the events agency]' (C2). 'It's a combination of acquiring and managing, with probably a greater balance in the managing than the acquiring' (F3). These lifecycle issues are discussed in more depth in Section 4.3.1.3.

Events agency roles and political priorities. The political priorities of governments, especially new governments were further reasons for certain events tourism roles of agencies to be emphasised in some cases more than others. For example, the different event investment purposes of a new government had affected the events agency's role in event acquisition in case F. 'The government's focus is to put all of their resources into developing local events as a priority, so they're not really looking to invest in the acquisition of events' (F7). New governments in cases A and C had also led to the loss of independent boards for the events agencies or separate lines of reporting to the board, a move which was thought to influence the roles played by the agencies. For example, less autonomy and increased inclusiveness within the state tourism body was associated with a loss of impetus with events acquisition in case C. 'Now their board has gone, it's doing what its got now….Who is out there looking? The problem with being out there looking and bidding for new is it can be politically awkward because you have to have people on planes or overseas' (C1).

In brief, organisational arrangements, lifecycle issues and political priorities combined to affect the roles played by the events agencies across the cases. While most events agencies were set up to acquire major events, many became engaged in events development and management for the above reasons. In many cases, more of a balance between acquisition and development was now anticipated, but most had moved out of events management. However, two cases (C and F) had a continued role in events management because their events sectors were embryonic.

Different organisational arrangements relative to events tourism. The need to participate in a range of events tourism roles has led to a number of arguments for and against the separation and amalgamation of events agencies with state tourism bodies. This discussion focuses on the three categories of separate, merged and mixed organisational arrangements to explore the reasons for and against each one.

Separate events agencies. First, consider the notion of separate events and tourism organisations (column one in Figure 4.3 shown earlier). Most interviewees supported the idea of maintaining an events agency that is separate to the tourism body to acquire major events because they were perceived to operate more effectively when they were independent of other agencies. 'It's important to have some sort of major events group off to the side…..it makes sense because their responsibility is to make decisions based on what they know to be the issues, the criteria, the results….that shouldn't be influenced by agendas that are running from various government agencies' (E1). A range of benefits for events tourism strategy was associated with an events agency or company being housed inside the Premier's portfolio.

These benefits included enhanced funding and political support for events acquisition and development and fewer restraints to act competitively. A negative aspect was that these organisational arrangements have not always engendered a relationship between tourism and events that optimises events tourism strategies (cases B and F). 'You know there are some of us that recognise the value of events, but we really don't have a clear strategy…at a destination level, some of the marketing plans might reflect the role of events…' (B2). 'I think there needs to be much more communication between the two [agencies] on a local level than there is now' (F1).

Merged events and tourism bodies. The perceived advantage of merged events and tourism organisations (second column of Figure 4.3) was a closer alliance between personnel in both areas. However, cases with merged structures also demonstrated that intra-organisational relationships between tourism and events personnel could be improved. These relationships were sometimes hindered by cultural differences between tourism and events personnel (cases A and C). Thus there were positive and negative implications of merged organisational arrangements for events tourism strategies. A positive implication of these arrangements was that the development and marketing of events as tourist attractions had received more attention. 'There were a number of events

identified, particularly in our international marketing, that we were able to leverage in terms of achieving incremental growth in visitor numbers and exposure in the overseas marketplace' (A4). However, negative implications were a perceived loss of ability to act competitively and a related loss of an entrepreneurial approach towards procuring events, as noted earlier. 'The restraints of government mean that it can't be quite as entrepreneurial as if it were outside of it…and winning events is an extremely competitive business' (A5). 'Having them all incorporated into one may not give them the edge that they need to be competitive' (B6).

Intra-agency pressures on merged events agencies to integrate with the culture and operations of the tourism organisation appear to compound this problem. There was a concurrent desire for the events agencies to be entrepreneurial and to also blend into the operating culture of their tourism counterparts. 'I mean their glory days were when they had a bucket of money but they also had separate offices, recruiting structures' (A1); 'they do seem to want to be just a little bit more, you know, independent' (A5); 'some of these people now sit in the same division as me, but again this is to sort of close these silos and build the bridges' (A3). Although the events agency had been moved inside the tourism body, it was clear that agency personnel still maintained their autonomy where possible. 'With all due respect to colleagues, the agency does set itself up as a bit of any enclave society. They're part of the [tourism body], but see themselves as separate' (C9). Thus there was evidence of improved relationships between events and tourism personnel to benefit events tourism strategies, but there were also some obstacles in merged structures that impact on events tourism directions.

Mixed organisational arrangements. In light of the advantages and disadvantages of separate and merged structures, cases D and E had organisational arrangements that showed a mixture of separate and merged arrangements for events tourism (third column of Figure 4.3). In case D, both an independent events agency and the tourism authority had responsibility for events acquisition and development with their roles delineated by the size of the events involved. In addition, the tourism authority organises the tourism marketing for all events at both city and regional levels. A shared role in bidding for events also led to some commonality in operating cultures that was not evident in other cases. Personnel within the tourism authority 'chase events, work with events and look at marketing strategy' (D1). The events agency 'has a budget to go out and acquire events, bid for them and bring them into the calendar' (D3). Here, neither agency was seen to operate in

ways where government processes impeded events tourism strategy. 'Neither operate like, you know, what I'd call traditional public sector agencies, and that's pivotal to why the strategy has been successful' (D6). A shared role in acquisition, albeit for events of different scope, also affected perceptions of these agencies' entrepreneurialism. For example, the events agency and the tourism authority were seen to match each other in their proactivity. 'It [the events agency] doesn't actually act quicker….but it has that ability' (D4).

Within case E, the separate but inter-related roles played by the events unit, the state tourism body and city tourism agency emphasised the importance of inter-agency communication. Where the tourism body had established events tourism directions in the state's tourism strategy and engaged in regional events development, the major events unit is responsible for event acquisition. The advent of the city tourism agency meant that a third organisation, a subsidiary of the tourism body, was responsible for the tourism marketing of events. While these arrangements were recent in their establishment, the benefit of the city agency's involvement was its ability to overcome gaps between the events and tourism agencies. The city tourism agency was perceived to 'fill what was seen to be a bit of a gap in terms of capitalising or leveraging on the tourism potential to the city [of events]' (E1). Thus the existence of two or more agencies with an active role in events tourism appeared to optimise the ability of states/territories to fulfil multiple events tourism roles.

Summary. Both a government's purposes for investing in events and their chosen policy framework affected the kinds of organisational arrangements that shape events tourism strategies. Certain types of roles were emphasised over others depending on whether events activities were housed inside the state tourism body and/or an independent events agency.

Advantages and disadvantages of both separate and merged events and tourism organisations were identified. Because of the multiple purposes of events, the need for an independent events agency was widely acknowledged. However, a high level of importance placed by government on the tourism goals of events meant that some states have opted for several agencies that share events tourism responsibilities. The challenge of developing close ties between events and tourism personnel confronts both separate and merged organisations. Notably, the mixed cases with independent events agencies and more than one agency engaged in complementary events tourism roles appeared to be beneficial models for events tourism strategy formation.

4.3.1.3 Public sector influences on events tourism

Those influences within the public sector that affect the development of events tourism strategies represented the third theme explored for research issue 1 (number 3 in Figure 4.2). The importance of these influences was triangulated with a number of comments made by interviewees to draw conclusions about their impact on events tourism. The relative importance of seven different public sector influences identified in convergent interview data (Section 3.3) on events tourism directions is shown in Table 4.3.

This table also indicates whether findings within each case showed a consensus or they appeared to be normal, skewed, or polarised where two groups of interviewees held opposing views on the importance of an influence. Some public sector influences that were raised independently by interviewees were government changes, public perceptions of events investment, risk management issues and perceived risk profiles of government, resource competition and constraints, regional development priorities, the need for venue utilisation and a growing awareness of social and environmental agendas. These influences are also discussed in this section.

Seven public sector influences on events tourism. The importance of seven public sector influences on events tourism was considered, as shown in Table 4.3. The first of these influences, *competition with other public policy agendas* was important within most individual cases and this was reflected in the summary result for the six states (row 1 of Table 4.3). Primary reasons for this result were that recent or impending government elections had focused attention on essential services such as police, health and education and that there was always some competition for resources in government. 'The lack of funds and the competitive nature of funds through the big three….education health and police….make it a very, very competitive environment' (A5). By comparison, the average importance given to competition with other policy agendas in case D was attributed to the time span and related strength of events within that state's public policy agenda. 'Competition doesn't really come into it a lot…from [our] point of view, it's [events] now become sort of engrained' (D4). However, because each agency in this state had a set allocation of funds, competition for funds from other policy domains was also less important. 'We don't really compete with the other ones, because we actually have our set budget…' (D5).

Table 4.3   **Importance of different public sector influences on events tourism within cases and for all cases**

Cases / Public sector influence	A	B	C	D	E	F	All
1. Competing policy agendas	Important (2.1) N	Important (1.9) S	Important (2.3) N	Average (3.2) N	Important (1.5) S	Important (2.0) N	Important (2.2)
2. Premier's priorities	Average (2.9) N	Very Important (1.5) C	Important (2.2) N	Important (2.0) N	Average (2.7) BP	Important (2.1) S	Important (2.2)
3. Other ministers' priorities	Average (3.1) N	Average (2.6) N	Average (2.8) N	Average (2.5) N	Important (2.5) N	Important (2.3) S	Average (2.6)
4.Budgetary issues	Very Important (1.5) S	Very Important (1.1) C	Very Important (1.3) C	Important (2.2) S	Very Important (1.5) S	Important (1.5) S	Very Important (1.5)
5. Dominance of economic criteria in agencies	Very Important (1.0) C	Important (1.8) N	Very Important (1.3) S	Important (1.7) S	Very Important (1.3) S	Important (1.8) S	Important (1.5)
6. Need for public accountability	Important (1.6) S	Average (2.5) BP	Important (1.8) S	Average (3.0) BP	Important (1.6) S	Average (2.6) N	Important (2.2)
7. Need for events as attractions	Important (1.6) S	Important (2.1) N	Important (2.2) N	Very Important (1.2) C	Important (2.2) N	Average (2.5) N	Important (2.0)

Notes: Number in brackets is the mean score within each case and for all six cases. Likert scale was 1 = Very important, 2 = Important, 3 = Average importance, 4 = Not very important, 5 = Not important at all. Letters beside the numbers refer to distribution where N = normal, S = skewed, BP = bi-polar and C = consensus.

For the second public sector influence of *the Premier's priorities* (row 2 of Table 4.3), differences in the level of importance existed across the states/territories. 'The Premier has trumpeted events wherever he has gone' (B3). 'He will have some influence, like when he needs to, but he's not driven by it' (C2). That the Premier's priorities were seen to be important reflected a strong interest in events by state Premiers in half of the cases. In turn, those cases that showed the Premier's priorities to be of average importance (cases A and E) and of very high importance (case B) reflected lower and higher levels of interest and leadership by the Premier in an events agenda. Illustrative comments for lower and higher levels of importance were: 'I don't think that the Premier gets down to the level of events….I think he's too busy' (A3) and '[the Premier's] obviously very keen on events because it gives him something good to talk about' (B2).

Bi-polar results or two distinct viewpoints in case E reflected different interpretations of the question. Interviewees who did not think that the Premier's priorities were an important influence cited his low level of interest in events relative to other policy domains. However, some interviewees who indicated a higher level of importance of the Premier's priorities also justified their decision with comments about the Premier's limited interest in events. Thus it appeared that the Premier's priorities were an influence on events tourism and may have been of more than average importance in most cases. Reasons given by interviewees for the importance of the Premier's priorities and level of interest in events tourism were the political status and economic benefits generated by major events. While there was no evidence of an interventionist approach to events tourism among current Premiers, there was a direction given to focus on regional events in a number of states (cases A, B and D). 'With [this Premier], the focus has shifted…..to regional [events]' (D4).

The third public sector influence of *other ministers' priorities* (row 3 of Table 4.3) was seen to be less important across most cases (A, B, C and D). The summary result for all cases was that the ministers' priorities were of average importance in influencing the direction of events tourism. In those cases where their priorities were important (cases E and F), government ministers had had more exposure to events decision making, albeit for events of different size and scope. Where case E had staged a mega-event that had involved the whole of government, case F had a small cabinet that participated in most events decisions. 'Because it's such a small Cabinet…they're all trying to support each

other…they've got to see each other succeed….but obviously, they are all going to compete for their own portfolio' (F4). Nevertheless, the input of ministers to events tourism directions was acknowledged across most states. '[We] still put it [proposals] in front of a Cabinet committee for final approval. So, he [the Premier] might like it, but then the rest of them don't' (D5). 'You're sort of subject to the whims of your minister which can include their personal contacts, people within their electorate' (C4).

The fourth influence, that of *budgetary issues*, was accorded the highest level of importance of all public sector influences across the six cases (row 4 of Table 4.3). Political interest in event impacts and the influence of Treasury on each agency's ability to resource events tourism strategies were reasons for the very high level of importance attached to this issue. In addition, a lack of resources to properly develop and implement events tourism strategy existed in some cases. 'The biggest thing in all of this is the resources in terms of money and people….how much does the political will of the State believe….because if we had more money and resources, you could probably do a lot more' (B6). 'Nowhere near the amount of dollars is being spent on major events that you'll find in other states' (E1).

A Treasury review of the budgetary commitment to events was underway in various states/territories. In light of budgetary constraints, the need to educate Treasury about the dynamic nature of events strategies was emphasised. 'Treasury, until recent times, could not understand why we couldn't tell them, "This is the budget that we need and we'll be able to stick within that budget' (B8). 'I think over a period of time, he [the Treasurer] has appreciated what events do bring in' (C5). A focus by Treasury on the methods used to determine the projected economic impacts of events exerted further budgetary pressure in some states (cases A and E).

In turn, this emphasis on achieving more accurate assessments of the financial outcomes of events was reflected in the perceived importance of the *dominance of economic criteria* in assessing agencies' performance (row 5 of Table 4.3). While the cross-case result showed this influence to be important, the dominance of economic criteria was seen to be a very important influence on events tourism in some cases (cases A, C and E). In particular, the different bases used for economic reporting across the states/territories complicate the agency's task of acquiring resources. For example, states that adopt more stringent formulas for calculating economic impact can hamper their ability to acquire their own government's support to compete for events. 'The pendulum has swung too far and it's now impeding the agency's capacity to compete for events' (A1). Government pressure to

perform on financial criteria was also a perceived threat to an agency's ability to continue to manage and develop a stable of events. 'It has become a bit of an unnecessary burden…pressures on keeping budgets, keeping events running at a very high level…but the expectations continue to grow in terms of output and outcome in terms of attracting visitors' (C6).

The sixth influence or the *need for public accountability* with events was also found to be important in the cross-case results (row 6 of Table 4.3). However, the wording of the item as 'a greater need for public accountability with events' meant that this issue was given 'average importance' in half of the cases (B, D and F). Some interviewees felt that accountability for events was important, but there was no greater need for accountability with events more than other government investments. 'I think there are issues of public accountability that you have anyway, but it's not more important than for other activities' (B1). In addition, a perception of limited public interest in events tourism strategies and government funding for events existed in some cases. 'I don't think that the public really care that much' (D3). 'I think it's about the feel good factor and I don't think that anyone worries that much about how much it costs' (D7).

An emphasis on accountability to government for resources acquired and expended by events agencies was given more importance than the public accountability of events. Here, comparisons were drawn between the government accountability of agencies for their events management activities versus the accountability of events sponsored by agencies. The need for sponsored events to demonstrate outcomes to sustain their funding was an example of how agencies were already publicly accountable. 'For events that they own and run, it [accountability] is very important, but for events that they fund, I think it is already being accountable' (B3). Hence public accountability for events investment was viewed as both the public's interest in government expenditure on events and the agency's accountability to government for its use of public funds. The latter was seen to be a more important influence on events tourism strategies.

For the final public sector influence (row 7 of Table 4.3), most cases viewed the *perceived need for events* in their state alongside other tourist attractions as an important issue (cases A, B, C and E). The very high level of importance placed on this issue in case D underscored the need for events in the absence of tourism icons. Compared with all other cases, this state's use of events as a tourism marketing tool has been deliberate and longstanding. 'Historically, we don't have theme parks and things, so the events strategy was a

key part of our approach' (D4). Conversely, the average importance of this item in case F was a reflection of the secondary role played by events in drawing tourists to this state. 'Events help in profiling the destination, but they don't have a significant influence in terms of increasing visitation' (F3).

In effect, most of the seven public sector issues were thought to be important influences on events tourism directions. Budgetary issues and the related dominance of economic criteria in assessing agency performance were the most important of these influences. Reasons for these findings were linked to changes of government in various states and the related focus on agency methods for projecting the financial impacts of events.

Other public sector influences. Some additional public sector influences were also seen by interviewees to impact upon events tourism. These influences included the perceived risk profile of governments, a consciousness of public opinion, a government imperative to regionalise events investment, and finally, political pressure to utilise major public venues.

Firstly, the *risk profile* of government was emphasised in various cases (A, B, C and E). The government's propensity to support events strategies that are entrepreneurial in nature was tied to its risk profile which was partly affected by its strength as the ruling party. 'The stronger the government is, the stronger the hold on power, the more optimistic [it's] going to be, the more risks they're going to take in putting resources into adventurous areas' (B1). Another factor affecting this risk profile of government was the economic conditions before and during its term of office. 'Different governments do have different risk profiles. And I think the current government is quite risk averse' (C1). 'They are scared about the entrepreneurial side, because of a previous era that burnt the government…so they're not real keen on being branded with the entrepreneurial flag' (A5). Because entrepreneurialism is reflected in the events acquisition role of events agencies, links between this influence and agency roles are evident.

Accompanying the issue of government risk profiles was a *consciousness of public opinion* regarding social and environmental impacts of events (cases C, D and E). 'This government is more conscious of the social and environmental impacts that events have on the state, hence we are not bidding for any more motor sports' (D5). This issue was relevant to agencies formulating strategy because of the need for public information about major events and in some cases, the need to adjust strategy based on public opinion. A

perceived lack of public understanding of the benefits of events was either resolved through staging events and demonstrating the benefits to gain acceptance or through opting not to support particular events. 'They [the public] are rather sceptical….quite often we move through those issues….when we first put it [major event] on, no one had any concept of it, but now they understand it' (C1). 'They [the government] didn't support it [the event] because to do so probably would have been ahead of where they perceived public opinion was' (E4).

Related to the issue of public opinion was a *political imperative to regionalise* events investment in most states (cases A, B, C, D, and E). In most cases, events and tourism agencies have been directed by governments to plan and implement regional events development programs demonstrating links between such political imperatives and agency roles. This regionalisation of events investment has the potential to reduce the dominance of economic criteria in agency decision-making, because support for some regional events is justified on social and community development criteria more than tourism impacts in the short term. '..what's coming out of that is more the social benefits of those regional event….there is an economic benefit that it can promote, but with some of these smaller communities, the capacity for events to really bring the community together and make them feel good about themselves' (B8). The need to minimise criticism from politicians' electorates and maintain a positive image for the government was highlighted as a reason why this push for regional programs has emerged as an issue. '[Agencies] are put under loads of pressure because politicians down in whatever [location] want to inject some money into X city in the south….clearly it does become political' (D2).

A final public sector influence that was highlighted in many states was the need for *venue utilisation* or the need to consider venue supply and demand in determining events tourism strategies (cases A, B, D and E). While some cases were concerned with the need for new or improved infrastructure (A and B), others were focused on acquiring or developing events that utilise existing large scale venues (D and E). 'Often a venue is built and then it's looked upon us to deliver events to put in it ….and sometimes we've got [or can get] events but we've nowhere to put them into' (A4). 'What we can do by getting events continually is to amortise the costs of [our venues]' (D4). Thus this issue was relevant to the roles played by events agencies as well as the nature of events selected for support. However, it also affected the inter-organisational relationships of agencies because the need for communication with venue managers was heightened in these circumstances. In some cases, a perceived lack of attention to the capacity of venues and facilities has affected the

state's events tourism strategies (cases A and B). If under that [project] they'd had [more] seats capacity in there, [this state] could have then bid for probably about another five events (A6).

Summary. From the overall analysis of public sector influences on events tourism strategies, most had the potential to impact upon events agency roles, their events tourism strategies and inter-organisational relationships that shape them. In particular, influences such as the Premier's priorities, budgetary issues, the government's risk profile, competing public policy agendas and the dominance of economic criteria in evaluating agency performance affect the intra-governmental relationships of events agencies. Other issues such as regionalism, venue utilisation and public acceptance of events impact upon inter-organisational relationships that are both external and internal to government. Links between these public sector influences and events agency roles in event development and acquisition were also demonstrated. Thus these public sector influences are pertinent in the later analysis of agencies' strategy processes and relationships.

4.3.1.4 The events tourism lifecycle phase

The fourth and final theme in research issue 1 was the events tourism lifecycle phase identified in each case (number 4 in Figure 4.2). A relationship was observed between the events tourism lifecycle and four themes or factors already discussed which were public sector policies and influences on events tourism, the organisational arrangements for events tourism and the roles of events agencies. An interactive relationship between events tourism strategy itself and the lifecycle phase of events tourism was also evident.

Before examining the above factors for their impacts on the events tourism lifecycle, interpretations of the lifecycle phase in each state/territory were explored. For this discussion, the four stages in the lifecycle were based on standard product lifecycle models, for example, Day (1986). Most interviewees had some difficulty in nominating a stage in the traditional lifecycle model that would best reflect the status of events tourism in their state. Based on a lifecycle model of introduction, growth, maturity and decline/rejuvenation, the four stages of introduction, early growth, late growth and maturity were identified and elaborated upon by interviewees. The growth phase was commonly selected by interviewees in some states, because event acquisition and development strategies had existed for some time (cases A, B, E). Figure 4.4 depicts the lifecycle phase of events tourism in each case.

Figure 4.4   **Approximate lifecycle phase of events tourism in each of the six cases**
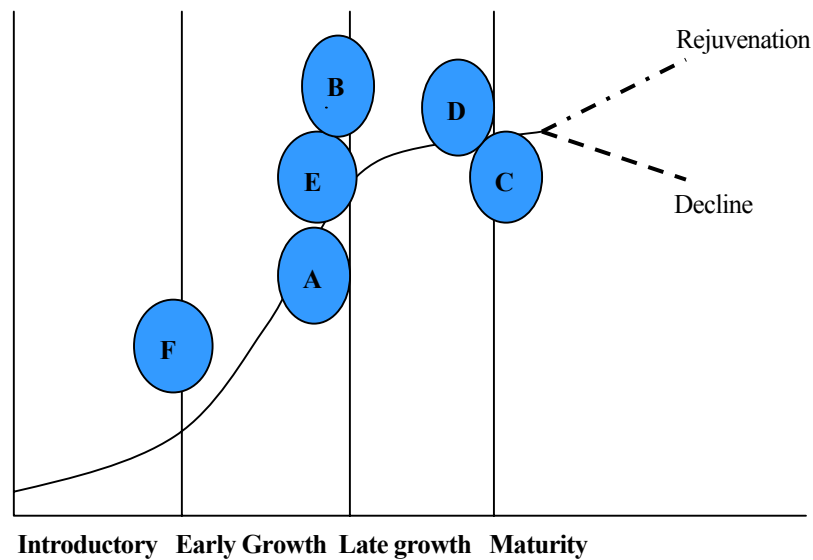
Source: developed for this research based on Day (1986), p.60

While some other states were thought to be in late growth or maturity (cases C and D), one case was seen to be on the border of the introductory and early growth phases (case F). Contrasts were drawn between the maturity of a state's experience in staging major events and its experience with the tourism marketing of events. Although event staging expertise was advanced in some cases (A, B and E), tourism marketing strategies were embryonic. 'I think we've got a hell of a lot to learn about leverage on media…we're still learning about maximising the numbers through incentive tourism and other tourism around the event' (A4). 'Events are not new to [this state], but how we address those events, how we use them, how we incorporate them into our communication…it's a different perspective' (E1).

Factors affecting the events tourism lifecycle. Among those factors affecting the stage on the events tourism lifecycle of the cases were reviews or changes in public sector policies and organisational arrangements, events tourism roles and strategies. A review of one or more of those dimensions was occurring across all cases at the time of this research. Issues that had prompted these reviews were recent or impending government elections (cases A, C, E and F), changing views about the purposes of events investment (case B), changes in tourism and events organisations (case E) and an interest in the efficiency of event strategies (cases A, C and D). In all cases, these reviews had a potential impact on the life phase of events tourism in the state.

Policy reviews. The first factor affecting the lifecycle phase of events tourism was a review of policy arrangements for events tourism. The impetus for these policy reviews was growing recognition of the need for a new phase of growth for events tourism (case E) or an increased emphasis by the events agency on business development or other goals of events alongside tourism (case B). 'We've matured past the point now where events are seen to be a tag onto tourism. Events are seen to be viable economic generators in their own right' (B8). 'We're taking on a new vision on how we deal with events' (E1). Thus these policy reviews were tied to government purposes for events investment, but also affected the future lifecycle of events tourism in those cases involved.

Organisational arrangements. The impact of different organisational arrangements on the pace of growth of events tourism was also implied in the findings. A proactive strategy and a sharp growth phase were evident when major events agencies were independent from other organisations, as noted earlier. However, reduced entrepreneurialism and less access to business networks were associated with their move inside government. 'There was far more initiative in going out and seeking particular events rather than going through the government processes' (C6). Changes in organisational arrangements for events tourism had impacted upon the lifecycle of events tourism in many cases. For example, organisational changes such as the advent of a city tourism agency, changes in agency personnel and board members and an impending election had prompted a new vision for events in case E. The impact of changing organisational arrangements on the events tourism lifecycle was also evident in other states (cases A, C and F). In cases A and C, there was a perception that the integration of the events agency with the tourism body had slowed the growth of events tourism.

By comparison, future changes in the organisational arrangements for events tourism were likely influences on the events tourism lifecycle in case F. Here, the overlapping roles of the events agency and sports department in events management were questioned by some interviewees in the context of shaping the state's future involvement in events. 'That's been another element….should the Sport and Recreation [people] and their major events be put together [with the events agency]?' (F5). In this case, the agency's limited role in events acquisition had strengthened its roles in event management and development. As a result, the overlaps or commonality in the events agency and sports department's roles in events management had become more pronounced. In brief, the organisational arrangements for

events tourism and any changes in those arrangements had influenced the events tourism lifecycle in most cases.

Public sector influences such as changes of government and interest in the efficiency and accountability of events agencies also impacted upon the events tourism lifecycle. A public sector influence which was an outcome of political and organisational changes was the pre-occupation with agency accountability highlighted earlier (cases A, C, D, E and F). In some cases, the anticipated impacts of this accountability were a consolidation of the agencies' existing roles and a dampening of the growth of events. 'People are scrutinising the value of events a little bit more…it's plateaued because I think everyone got a bit too over excited….so I think it's going to stabilise' (A3). 'Within the current environment and the current budget restrictions, it would be very difficult for us to increase our portfolio' (F6).

Another potential outcome of the focus on accountability was a rationalisation of events portfolios to retain certain events, phase out others and acquire or develop events to enter a new growth phase. 'It's been a very steep learning curve and I'd suggest we're at a point of rationalisation at the moment, and that's partly driven by budgets' (C2). 'So what they're looking at is picking the eyes out of the better ones….and looking at what's already existing within their market….what they can do to build those' (D3).

In line with this review of events portfolios was a review of the *roles played by events agencies* that served to further influence the lifecycle phase of events tourism. A re-assessment of the balance of agency involvement in event acquisition, development, management and marketing strategies was evident in all cases. Because of the maturity of event bidding strategies, a reduction in bidding was expected as noted in the earlier discussion of agencies' roles. A focus on developing new events and rationalising some managed and sponsored events was anticipated in the next phase of the events tourism lifecycle. 'The bid stage is mature, in the sense that the state's ability to bid for new events is at a mature stage…it's critical that we start growing events' (A1). 'People are getting sick and tired of the bidding' (B8). 'For the first time, they're talking about rationalisation, not acquisition' (D2).

Despite the length of time that some states had been involved in major events, the development of existing events to maximise their tourism potential was still perceived to be in an introductory stage. '[We're] looking at the role of developing events…events we already have, but creating new events that we can actually own' (B8). 'Now, it's about what are the events that they can look to either nurture a bit more or even create their own' (D3). Where event

acquisition strategies had reached late maturity, the role of agencies in event management was in decline. 'A lot of events bodies around Australia…they've gone through a cycle and a lot of them are coming out the other side and are now looking at not managing events' (C3). Some agencies were still involved in events management because the local events sector was not perceived to have the expertise to stage and market major events. 'While this role is acceptable in the introductory stages of events tourism, it was less desirable when a state wants to move into a new phase of growth. A perceived result of an agency's role in events management can be that there is less time for entrepreneurial activities. 'It has become a de facto operator of events, when I've always thought the primary role was to generate income, revenue from external sources and bring it in' (C7). However, any desire to move out of this phase of public sector management of events has political implications. 'Should the events agency run X event, given its priorities? Maybe not, but there's the political reality and issues of civic pride ' (C2).

In brief, it was evident that there was a relationship between changes in public sector policy frameworks, public sector influences, organisational arrangements, events tourism roles played by agencies and the lifecycle phase of events tourism across the cases. The dynamic nature of these elements and the status of the events and tourism industries combine to affect whether events tourism stabilises, maintains or changes its pattern of growth.

Summary of findings about research issue 1

In summary, there was a close relationship between policy arrangements for events, recognised purposes of events, organisational arrangements for events tourism and the roles played by events agencies in each state/territory. Where multiple purposes of events were emphasised, states/territories with a policy framework referred to either a broad-based events policy or dual policies in events and tourism. In this context, an independent events agency was maintained and some states also featured events divisions and/or strategies in their tourism portfolios. In other cases where the tourism goals of events were given precedence, the tourism policy or portfolio framed the activities of in-house events agencies. Attempts to overcome potential gaps between events and tourism agencies included shared personnel, a demarcation of events tourism roles and in one case, a capital city tourism agency that focused on the tourism marketing of major events.

However, the need to improve inter-agency liaison to shape events tourism strategies was evident in many cases.

Four traditional roles of events agencies are major or mega-events acquisition, city and regional events development, events management and the tourism marketing of events. The perceived purposes of events, organisational arrangements for events tourism, the status of the events sector and a range of public sector issues affected agency involvement in these four roles. Among the public sector issues of importance were changes of government, competing public policy agendas, political priorities including those of the Premier, the government's risk profile, budgetary issues and resource constraints, accountability issues and a dominance of economic criteria in assessing agency performance. Other issues such as venue demand management and regionalisation affected the content of events tourism strategies and the relationships that shape them. Finally, shifts or stability in the lifecycle of events tourism were influenced by these public sector issues, the nature of organisational arrangements for events tourism and the roles and activities of events agencies.

4.3.2   Findings about research issue 2: events tourism strategy forms and processes

The second research issue for this research was:

> *How do events tourism strategy forms and processes reflect and influence events agencies' inter-organisational relationships, and why?*

For this research issue, the forms of strategy that existed for events tourism and the processes used to create these strategies were examined. Seven descriptions of strategy were explored for their perceived relevance to events tourism across the cases. These included the formal, strategic planning approach, an incremental and undocumented strategy, a leader's vision shared with others, a reactive and proactive strategy according to events/episodes that arise, a political process, a mindset within management, a pattern influenced by champions and finally, a passive process that reacts to external events. These strategy forms were based on Mintzberg (1994b) and were confirmed and elaborated upon by the interviewees.

In addition to these strategy forms, the development of events tourism strategies at city, regional and state levels and the integration of these strategy levels were also analysed. The process of shaping these strategies was then addressed by examining the importance

of a range of strategic activities in current strategy making. Finally, the implications of the strategy forms, levels and processes for the inter-organisational relationships of events agencies were briefly considered. Figure 4.5 shows these themes and their inter-relationships for research issue 2.

Figure 4.5   **Themes and their inter-relationships for research issue 2**
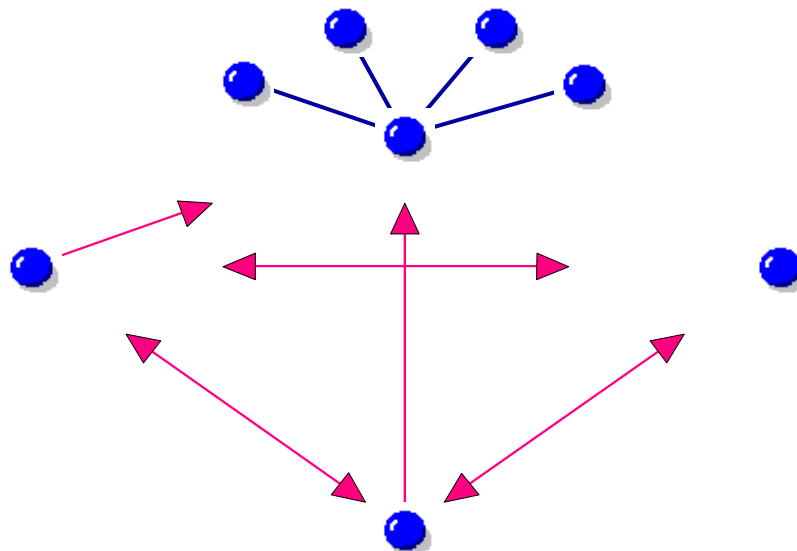
Notes: ▬▬ = sub-theme, ◄──► = two-way relationship, ──► = one-way relationship.
Numbers (1) to (4) indicate the order of discussion for themes within the figure

Source: developed for this research

4.3.2.1   **Forms of events tourism strategy**

The first theme explored for research issue 2 was the forms of strategy adopted across the cases (number 1 in Figure 4.5). Most interviewees found it difficult to define events tourism strategy and only some states had engaged in strategic planning for events that also embraced tourism. In all cases, interviewees chose more than one of the eight forms of strategy already described to explain the ways in which events tourism directions was determined. Among these different forms, a reactive and proactive strategy that varies according to emerging events/episodes was most commonly selected. The formal strategic planning approach was the next form of strategy most often chosen by interviewees. Table 4.4 shows results for each of these strategy forms and summary results for all cases.

Table 4.4   **Forms of strategy for events tourism with shading to show those most commonly chosen in each case**

Cases \ Strategy forms	A	B	C	D	E	F	All
Reactive and proactive according to events /episodes	4	6	5	4	5	5	**29**
Formal, strategic planning, documented	5	1	2	5	7	0	**20**
Political process	3	4	3	2	1	4	**17**
Incremental, undocumented	4	3	7	2	1	1	**14**
Leaders vision shared with others in the loop	1	0	2	4	0	2	**9**
Mindset of management	0	2	2	2	0	1	**7**
Passive process	0	1	0	0	0	3	**4**

Note**:** More than one strategy form was selected by interviewees. Shading indicates the two most commonly selected strategy forms in each case (or three most common forms where scores were tied). The numbers in each column represent the respondents who selected that form of strategy to describe their case.

Source: analysis of field data

The choices of the reactive/proactive strategy and formal strategy reflected a widespread view that a formal strategy alone does not account for the different roles of events agencies in events tourism. In most cases, there was no one document that combines all elements of strategic activity. A reactive/proactive strategy was favoured across all cases because of the need to be flexible and respond to changing opportunities in the events sector. 'If your strategic planning is so structured that you can't be reactive, then there's something wrong and we lose opportunity' (E3). 'If you're over planned, you don't get to take advantage of things or changes' (A3). 'You have to have, not so much laissez-faire, but you have to have some headroom that you can actually move in' (C2). However, the benefits of some formal planning to frame the agency's ongoing decision-making was also recognised. 'You can have your guiding principles, framework or whatever that says, "This is what we're hoping to achieve and this is why we do these things" (B8).

Formal planning for events tourism occurred in the broad context of state tourism strategies (cases A, D and E), but strategies for events acquisition, development and marketing were constantly emerging. For this reason, some interviewees in cases A and C chose an incremental form of strategy together with the formal approach. 'Underneath [the formal strategy], we're actually running with a range of events, looking at their returns, the ability for us to stage them and the cost' (A4). In case C, despite a focus on events in the state tourism strategy, formal strategy processes for events were rarely highlighted by interviewees due to the incremental nature of events tourism strategies (see Table 4.4). In most cases, the strategic initiatives of agencies tended to peak around event opportunities that were developed and managed within the community or acquired from elsewhere. 'I'd say their strategy is more attuned to opportunity' (A8). 'You can have your guiding principles….but typically things can change on a phone call' (B8). These peaks in the strategy process underscored the importance of the reactive/proactive strategy form.

The impact of political processes on strategy making was also highlighted in some cases (B and F). In these cases, the events agency was housed within the Premier's Department and some focus by the Premier and Cabinet on the activities of the events agency was evident. 'The regional thing [events development program] is really a political response, so it's largely political processes… issues of politics mostly determine events tourism strategy' (B9). 'What I've witnessed in other states and politicians in general [is that they] border on obsession about events' (F3). In case F, a change of government had focused attention on the events agency, partly because it had been established by political leaders on the other side of politics. 'We've got some big political issues here in that the events agency was established by the previous government' (F6). Thus the potential for political processes to influence events tourism directions was cited by some interviewees. However, that few interviewees chose the strategy forms of 'leader's vision' or 'management mindset' showed that strategy decisions were not concentrated at the level of the Premier or chief executives.

Summary. In brief, the use of a reactive/proactive form of strategy was evident across all cases because of the opportunistic nature of major events acquisition. However, formal planning provided a framework for decision making of a reactive or proactive nature. A formal events tourism strategy was more evident in cases where the events agency was housed inside the tourism body or there were close ties

between several organisations with events tourism roles (cases A, D and E). The impact of politics on strategic directions was pronounced in cases where the events agency existed inside the Premiers department (cases B and F).

4.3.2.2 Events tourism strategy at state, regional, city and major event levels

The second theme explored for research issue 2 was the levels of events tourism strategy development across the cases (number 2 in Figure 4.5). Three levels of events tourism strategies were state strategies, regional strategies, and city and major event strategies that are considered together. To begin, a distinction was made between events strategy and events tourism strategy in this discussion of strategy levels.

Mixed views emerged on whether the states had events strategies through which tourism objectives were achieved or whether events tourism strategies existed at state level. 'I don't think any state has a thorough events tourism strategy. They have an events strategy through which they try to drive tourism outcomes' (E4). However, the relevance of this distinction was also questioned because many events strategies defaulted to events tourism strategies. 'You're specific in saying events tourism strategy, whereas we talk about major events strategy, but in a way, it defaults to events tourism' (D6). Regional event development programs existed, but not in the context of a pan-regional strategy or an overall events tourism strategy for the state. Finally, tourism strategies for capital city events and major events were developed on a project-by-project basis in most cases.

State events tourism strategies. Because both reactive/proactive strategies and formal strategies contributed to events tourism outcomes, the state events tourism strategies were the result of 'top-down' and 'ground-up' approaches in most cases (A, C, D and E). The 'top-down' strategies were the generic objectives and strategies for events tourism included in state tourism plans, while the 'ground-up' strategies emerged from the agencies evolving decisions about event opportunities and their tourism marketing. Note that case C did have formal planning for tourism at state level that included events, but interviewees did not identify formal planning as a

dominant strategy form as shown in Table 4.4. Cases B and F were different in that there were no umbrella directions for events tourism within state tourism plans. A pattern of little documentation of state events tourism directions was evident in most cases and there was no deliberate focus on events tourism in case F. Thus there was no one document for events tourism strategy in most cases. 'I wouldn't be able to sit here and say that we have necessarily got a black-and-white state events tourism strategy.' (C8).

An emphasis on the multiple purposes of events in some cases meant that tourism plans for events were submerged in overall events strategies. 'Events tourism will almost become a subset of the overall events strategy, because government puts money into events, not so much for tourism values, but a whole lot of social issues as well' (B8). A more passive stance on events tourism strategy in case B was that the existing tourism strategies of the state should offer an adequate framework for marketing events. 'The strategy that the tourism experts have decided [for the state] should be the strategy. We make sure that we're not going against their strategy' (B4).

That strategies for events tourism at state level were developmental in many cases reflected both transitions in public sector arrangements for events and the incrementalism of some strategies. 'I think we are closer to getting there. In recent times, we've looked at our calendar of events, looked at the state tourism plan, and we're making sure our forward planning aligns with what that strategy is' (C8). Consequently, while generic directions for events tourism were published in some cases, most state level strategies were emergent and unpublished.

Regional events tourism. The second level of strategy, that is, the development and marketing of regional events, was emphasised across all cases. While a focus on capital city events had been dominant within events agencies until recent years, political pressures had increased the regional involvement of these agencies. Regional events foci, events funding programs and/or regional offices have been established in many cases (A, B, C, D and E). Priorities for events development have been identified related to the themes and interests of each region. However, challenges in creating an integrated strategy for regional events tourism were also highlighted.

Regional events were perceived to be a subset of the state's overall events strategies in all cases. Yet initiatives within each region mostly determine whether an events tourism strategy emerges, despite government direction and support. 'Because of the leadership role of the state tourism strategy that identified events, the regions that saw events as being a panacea in their tourism activity have adopted similar approaches' (D7). Because each community and their regional tourism authorities determine their own directions, pan-regional events tourism strategies coordinated by government were not evident. Instead, state tourism bodies combine with other agencies such as arts and business granting bodies to respond to events generated within communities.

The need for governments to further integrate their regional events was highlighted. 'There is a need for something which is pan-regional, where we actually get something that links those (regions) together and provides a number of different opportunities' (C6). 'I think the development of such a strategy would be seen as an overall state government issue. I don't think that that's something that the regions themselves would push' (C4). Limited agency personnel and the number and diversity of regions in some states were reasons why events funding programs and not regional events tourism strategies exist.

Capital city and major events tourism strategies. Strategies for events tourism in capital cities were an amalgam of the events agencies' activities in developing and marketing their city's hallmark events, acquired major events and local government supported events. However, the tourism marketing of existing events in a state relied on both the interest of the government and the event itself in tourism marketing strategies for that event. In most cases, there was a perceived low level of interest and understanding of tourism among events organisers. 'Some of the larger events see the relationship with [the state tourism body] not being as important as it could be, and that their relationship with [the events agency] is purely financial. Events organisers were concerned about audience size, but not audience origin. 'Event organisers are quite happy to promote their product locally and to just draw their business from the local market….Where we [the tourism agency] come in and underpin all that is from a tourism perspective, they perceive that to be our responsibility because they don't see an obligation to try and drag people in from [elsewhere]' (E1). As a result, the need for government-driven events tourism strategies at city level was highlighted.

With the rising costs of event acquisition, some public sector agencies had focused more attention on the tourism marketing of existing hallmark events, many of which are staged in capital cities. Although there was little or no distinction made between the tourism marketing of acquired major events and existing hallmark events in some cases (A, B, C and F), the need for strategies to address each type of event was emphasised in two other cases (D and E). In case D, the events unit within the tourism body markets hallmark events at city and regional levels and it provides marketing support for major events acquired by the independent events agency. However, the deliberate development of a capital city events tourism strategy distinguishes case E from all others.

Within case E, an analysis of the tourism potential of existing events in the city led to an integration of these events and acquired events into an integrated tourism marketing campaign for the city. 'They [events] are part of our programs as another reason to come to [the city]. They're not sitting off on the side and packaging them up with some tickets and hope that it works. We've actually made them a part of our core communications programs….it's a different perspective in terms of how we're looking at events' (E1). This city events tourism strategy occurred because of the events focus within the new city tourism agency that created the tripartite organisational arrangement for events tourism in this case.

Integration of all strategy levels. There was a perceived need for improved integration of city, regional and state events tourism strategies in most cases (A, B, C, D and E). Limited integration of these strategies existed because none of these levels of strategy were fully developed and more than one organisation had strategies that contributed to events tourism at each level. 'I think each agency has their [own] strategy. I don't think there's a whole big strategy' (D1). The need for an events tourism strategy to be a component of the state tourism strategy, rather than an adjunct to it, was stressed. 'It's not setting up a strategy that is independent….it's incorporated as part of the overall strategy' (D7). Efforts to further integrate various strategies that contribute to events tourism were planned in various cases. 'I think it could be improved. There are efforts to work towards that' (A5). The ability of different agencies to work together for this purpose underscored the importance of the inter-organisational relationships discussed later in this chapter.

Summary. In brief, state level events tourism strategies existed in some form in all but one case where a limited focus on events tourism existed because of other event goals. These strategies were an amalgam of the generic event strategies in state tourism plans, event acquisition and development decisions of the events agencies and tourism marketing initiatives around individual events. The extent to which each of these elements was integrated varied because of different organisational arrangements and the incremental nature of events tourism strategy.

Among the cases, regional events development programs were common, but community and event diversity and community-based decision making about events impeded the creation of pan-regional events tourism strategies. City and major events tourism strategies reflected combined activities in developing and marketing local, acquired and hallmark events. All cases had tourism marketing strategies for city events, but a deliberate city events tourism strategy was only evident in one case. The need for a better integration of city, regional and state strategies was highlighted.

4.3.2.3   Events tourism strategy processes

For research issue 2, the third theme explored was the processes and activities used to shape events tourism in each case (number 3 in Figure 4.5). Note that the strategic activities explored for their relevance in the research were drawn from literature reviewed in Section 2.1 and the convergent interview data discussed in Section 3.3. In these case findings, a number of these activities were seen to be integral to developing an events tourism strategy, regardless of whether they were currently undertaken by events and tourism agencies. These activities were: developing a vision for events tourism; assessing the regularity, type and timing of events held; scanning events for their uniqueness and fit with the state's profile; researching event market profiles and tourist potential; evaluating venue capacity and infrastructure; applying multiple criteria to event selection; balancing event acquisition and development; competitive analysis; tourism marketing; and, market and event impact research. While these activities were generated independently by interviewees, many of them were also among those that were deliberately examined for their level of importance across the cases. Table 4.5 shows the importance that interviewees attached to each of eleven activities that contribute to events tourism strategies.

Table 4.5 **The importance of different activities in current processes to develop events tourism strategies in each case**

Cases / Strategic Activity	A Importance	B Importance	C Importance	D Importance	E Importance	F Importance	ALL Importance
1. Event selection based on fit with state attributes	Important (2.3) S	Average (2.6) N	Important (1.7) S	Average (2.7) N	Important (2.2) BP	Average (2.6) N	Average (2.7)
2. Calculation of potential tourist volume	Important (1.8) N	Important (1.7) C	Important (1.5) S	Very Imp. (1.4) S	Important (1.7) S	Average (2.8) S	Important (1.8)
3. Calculation of potential tourism yield	Important (1.6) S	Important (2.3) N	Very Imp. (1.4) S	Very Imp. (1.2) S	Important (2.0) S	Average (2.8) S	Important (1.9)
4. Destination brand analysis before selecting events	Average (3.0) N	Average (3.4) C	Important (2.4) S	Important (2.4) N	Important (2.0) N	Average (2.8) N	Average (2.7)
5. Tourism industry consultation on events	Little Import. (3.6) S	Important (2.1) BP	Average (3.0) N	Average (3.0) N	Important (2.2) BP	Average (3.1) S	Average (2.8)

Notes: Numbers in the table refer to the mean score within cases and for all cases. Likert scale was 1 = Very important, 2 = Important, 3 = Average importance, 4 = Not very important, 5 = Not important at all. Letters beside the numbers indicate the distribution of responses where N = normal, S = skewed, BP = bi-polar views, C = consensus

/Continued

Table 4.5 **(continued)**

Cases / Strategic activity	A Importance	B Importance	C Importance	D Importance	E Importance	F Importance	ALL Importance
6. Portfolio analysis: matching events with tourists	Average (3.1) N	Average (3.1) BP	Average (2.7) N	Important (1.9) S	Important (2.0) S	Average (3.5) S	Average (2.7)
7. Thematic, seasonal and place related events planning	Average (2.6) N	Important (2.2) N	Important (1.5) S	Important (1.7) C	Important (1.9) N	Average (2.6) N	Important (2.1)
8. Acquiring events based on their tourism potential	Very Imp. (1.5) S	Important (2.1) N	Important (1.6) S	Very Imp. (1.4) C	Very Imp. (1.4) S	Average (3.0) S	Important (1.8)
9. Developing grassroots events as tourism products	Little Imp. (3.8) N	Average (2.9) BP	Average (2.5) N	Important (2.5) N	Important (2.2) N	Important (2.4) N	Average (2.7)
10. Packaging events as tourist attractions	Average (2.5) N	Average (3.2) N	Important (2.0) N	Very Imp. (1.4) C	Important (1.8) S	Average (3.3) S	Important (2.3)
11. Evaluating the tourism impacts of all events	Very Imp. (1.2) S	Important (1.8) P	Very Imp. (1.1) C	Very Imp. (1.3) C	Important (2.5) N	Important (2.2) S	Important (1.8)

Notes: Numbers in the table refer to mean score within cases and for all cases. Likert scale was 1 = Very important, 2 = Important, 3 = Average importance, 4 = Not very important, 5 = Not important at all. Letters beside the numbers indicate the distribution of responses in which N = normal, S = skewed, BP = bi-polar views, C = consensus.

Source: analysis of field data.

The selection of events based on a *strategic fit with state attributes* was the first activity for developing events tourism strategies that was explored (row 1 of Table 4.5). Although an average level of importance was shown in the summary result, half of the cases perceived that this was an important consideration in current planning (cases A, C and E). This polarisation of views occurred for several reasons. Firstly, some events such as sports tournaments were not perceived to fit with the attributes of any particular state. 'I'd think that not more than one in ten events exercises those thoughts in people's minds' (E4). 'A lot of our events acquisition is based on strategic fit, but there are quite a few that aren't, so on balance, I'd say it's of average importance' (D3).

Secondly, attributes of the state were sometimes seen to include its culture and tourism icons as well as available venues for events. A concern for venue utilisation made this activity more important in case E. 'I think we're going to become very narrow and say 'what fits in the stadiums' (E5). A third related reason was that some states with fewer tourism icons (cases A and C) placed more emphasis on destination imaging alongside tourist visitation as events outcome. 'We need things that are going to fit' (A5).

The next two activities examined were the calculation of the potential *tourist volume* and *tourism yield* of events to be supported or acquired (rows 2 and 3 of Table 4.5). Both of these activities were seen to be important or very important in the current processes of all cases except case F. This pattern demonstrated the strength of tourism criteria in evaluating event proposals. The different viewpoint in case F existed because equivalent importance was placed on the civic entertainment value of events and their tourism outcomes. In addition, some local events were in the embryonic stage and had not reached their tourism potential to warrant measuring tourist volume and yield as yet. 'We wouldn't conduct that type of research on it [the event] at this stage' (F7). Thus the different objectives for events in this case meant that events were not selected on tourist volume and yield, but could grow into tourist attractions over time.

The fourth activity was the analysis of how well events aligned with a *destination's brand* before they were supported or selected (row 4 of Table 4.5). Although the chosen brand was more specific than the state attributes considered in the first activity, many participants found it difficult to distinguish between these attributes

and the overall brand. For this reason, the average importance attributed to brand analysis mirrored the result of the first activity in the table. Again, some interviewees referred to the success of events which had no particular relationship to a state's brand. Examples of events such as Mamma Mia and The Lion King were used to illustrate this point. 'Does X event fit with our branding strategy? Probably not. But it will produce, so they say, $50 million a year in terms of benefit' (E4). The need to make events fit with the state's branding once they were selected for staging was also indicated. 'I'll make the [event] fit…we'll do it in [our city's] style or we'll do it in [our state's style] so it will fit. (E2). Nevertheless, half of the cases did see the analysis of destination brand as important (cases C, D and E). 'More intangible lifestyle things are sometimes hard to promote and so [events] are one of the ways we've done that' (C5). 'The tourism volume and yield and all that is paramount, but some events give you hours of international television and all the rest of it' (D4).

The next activity for developing events tourism strategies that was considered was *consultation with tourism constituents* on events to be selected (row 5 in Table 4.5). In most cases, interviewees thought that industry consultation was of average or little importance in current strategy processes. Tourism industry suppliers were not among those organisational groups who were usually consulted on events acquisition or development decisions. Outcomes of this lack of consultation were that event times were sometimes changed without reference to accommodation and transport suppliers. 'Nobody was consulted, just suddenly we were told…for whatever reason, I'm not sure, but it [the event] is moved to June' (F2).

Cases B and E provided a contrast to other states on the current importance of industry consultation. In case E, there was a consultation process attached to developing the state tourism plan that featured events as well as the city events tourism plan. However, events and tourism agency personnel in case B expressed bi-polar or two different viewpoints on this activity with the tourism body noting a low level of consultation with industry. The importance given to this activity in case B appeared to reflect desired rather than actual industry consultation.

The sixth activity was the importance of developing *an events tourism portfolio* based on a match between events and tourist markets (row 6 in Table 4.5). Average importance was attributed to this activity in most cases, because the theory behind it did not work well in practice (cases A, B, C and F). The ability for a state to choose events on the basis of this event-market fit was usually not possible due to the competitive nature of the events business. 'The events business is such a difficult area because it's not like, "Well, I'll have one of those and one of those…one can drop in your lap, another one you've got to fight like hell for' (C1).

Overall, the need and ability to attract all tourists more than particular markets was highlighted. 'It's a lot more general than that. We just want the tourists' (D5). 'Our portfolio is really developed in a reactive way' (F3). The logistics of matching events with the different tourist markets of a number of regions in a state also prohibited this activity. 'You have got [so many] regions in [this state], within that you've got councils and sub-regions, so to do an event product match to that would require enormous resources' (B8). Thus this activity was seen to be an impractical step in shaping events tourism strategy in most cases. 'Like I said, it's a nice theory' (A3).

The selection of events based on their *themes and seasonal and geographic needs* of the state was the next activity in events tourism strategy making that was examined (row 7 of Table 4.5). This was an important activity in most cases (B, C, D and E). Many interviewees referred to the importance of event calendar analysis to assess the themes of events across different seasons to avoid clashes in event timing and related overcrowding. 'We try to secure events in our shoulder season' (A5). 'We won't bid for another event that's going to be run on the same weekend or clash with another event' (C8). 'That is very much what we're on about as in we don't want all jazz events in March. We want a geographical spread, we want a timing spread, we want types of events spread and we want them supporting the tourism image' (D1). In a number of cases, especially cases A and F, a perceived need to place more importance on this activity was noted. 'They've really got to look at that seasonal side' (F2). 'There's a bit of complaint about that, you know' (F5). 'I do think it could be improved' (A8).

The eighth and ninth activities that were considered for their inclusion in strategy making for events tourism showed the contrasting importance of *events acquisition* and *events development* (rows 8 and 9 of Table 4.5). The acquisition of events based on their tourism potential was seen to be important, while the development of existing grassroots events as tourism attractions was of average importance. Acquisition of events remained the leading activity because this had traditionally been the strongest role of many events agencies and the need to develop new or existing events had only just been acknowledged. Case F was the only exception, where developing local events assumed importance of event procurement. A very high level of importance was associated with acquiring events in cases D and E, with the former case perceived as the leader and initiator of events acquisition in Australia. 'I mean bidding has become a key issue and [X city] started it' (D4).

The continued emphasis on acquisition was also tied to the pressure of inter-state competition and the timeframes needed to develop the tourism potential of existing events. 'It takes a lot longer to build, you don't get the immediate hit, you've got to be patient' (C6). The political profile at inter-state level from acquiring major events had traditionally been greater than that obtained from developing events. 'It's become high profile, who wins what events….and so building up local events to big things is not a huge priority because we don't get that much kudos for it' (A3). Nevertheless, the need to create new events with tourism potential was perceived to be the future trend in the events sector. 'It's fine to bring, you know, whatever it is, wheel it in ….it's a bit like 'cargo cult' stuff - where we could a little bit more creative' (C6). 'Acquisition will probably slip back' (B8). 'It [the development of events] is really moving up….and this is talking about retention [of events]' (D4).

Average or little importance was attached to developing grassroots events in half of the cases (A, B and C). Thus despite the rising costs and competition in acquiring events noted earlier in this chapter, a shift towards event development was not yet reflected in strategy processes. Even in case C, where the development and management of events dominated agency activities, an average level of importance was placed on developing the tourism potential of existing events. 'They [the developed events] may be great events…..but the tourism potential's zilch' (C1). Yet the need to focus attention on developing new and existing events was emphasised

across the cases. 'We should be doing more with what we've got, because the cost of getting new events these days is just becoming over the top' (D4). 'I don't think there's enough building of existing grassroots events….they're not backing what's already there' (E5). 'I think it is just beginning to be addressed' (F4).

The next activity explored was the *packaging of events* as tourist attractions (row 10 of Table 4.5). While the summary result showed this activity to be important in current processes, packaging was of average importance in half of the cases (A, B and F). In contrast to other cases, a very high level of importance was attributed to packaging in case D because of initiatives taken by the events agency inside the tourism body. 'They're proactive. I mean, every event has got to have an inbound tourism operator, got to get [it] into international markets' (D4). Yet despite the summary result, comments made by interviewees suggested that events tourism packaging was developmental in many cases. 'I think the agency recognises that they don't do that as well as they could, but they do it' (A3). 'They [the tourism body] could probably take this on a little bit more that what they're currently doing' (B6). 'It's always a secondary consideration, but at least it's higher up on the agenda now than it used to be' (B9).

A perceived impediment to improved events tourism packaging was the lack of government involvement in what was perceived to be an area of market failure created by too few inbound events tourism operators. 'It's a failure of government that it's not further involved in the packaging of events because there is a clear case of market failure there' (E4). Among the cases, only case A had employed personnel to coordinate tourism packaging for its major events. Therefore, while this activity was important, the data underscored the need for more work on this strategy element.

The final activity considered in events tourism strategy processes was the *evaluation* of the tourism impacts of events (row 11 of Table 4.5). This activity was an important inclusion in strategy processes and was perceived to very important in half of the cases (A, C and D). Although the challenges of developing uniform approaches to assessing event impacts was noted across the cases, most but not all events were examined for their tourism impacts. That tourism impact analysis did not occur with all events across the cases was evident. 'There has to be a reason to do it. It's

an expensive exercise' (B4). 'It's not done strongly on all events. It is done with some of the major ones' (C4).

In most cases, the emphasis was on pre-assessment of the tourism impact of events or projected tourist visitation and tourism yield more than post-event evaluation. Accountability to Treasury on event impact figures was one reason for the growing interest in this activity. 'If Treasury doesn't believe what you're saying you haven't got past first base' (E4). 'Yes, they do go through a pretty rigorous evaluation and I think they have to because of Treasury funds' (A6). Arriving at a uniform method of assessing impacts across the states was seen to be a high priority to reduce the bidding wars that increase the price of events for competing states. 'That's one of the major challenges confronting the whole of Australia' (C8).

Summary. The summary results on all activities in the strategy process revealed that only half of those listed were perceived to be important inclusions, while the remaining activities were of average importance in current strategy processes. Activities of importance were event tourism yield and volume calculation, events planning around seasons, themes and geography, event acquisition, event packaging and tourism impact evaluation. However, criticisms of current efforts with many of these activities suggested that the extent to which they were carried out may be less than the reported result implies. This finding also aligns with the earlier finding that reactive/proactive strategy was more dominant than formal strategy processes.

Among the strategic activities discussed, there was a cited need for improved event packaging, seasonal and temporal planning of events and impact evaluation across the cases. Nevertheless, some activities were thought to be less essential in events tourism strategy processes because they were less practical or relevant to strategy processes in the events sector. These activities were: an event's fit with a state's attributes and brand and, the development of an events portfolio based on event-market matching. A final observation was that agency responsibilities for different strategic activities were not always clear within the cases. This observation lends support for the analysis of inter-organisational relationships for strategy making in this chapter.

4.3.2.4 Inter-organisational relationships and events tourism strategy processes

The final theme addressed for research issue 2 was the links between the above strategy forms, levels and processes and events agencies' inter-organisational relationships (that is, the links between 1, 2, 3 and 4 in Figure 4.5). The forms of strategy adopted for events tourism, the levels of strategies developed and emphasis placed on different strategic activities each had the potential to impact on these relationships. These implications are briefly considered here, while the nature of inter-organisational relationships is explored more fully within research issue 3.

The existence of both formal strategy and reactive/proactive strategies meant that there were structured and unstructured avenues for stakeholders to contribute to events tourism. In cases where the 'top down' planning of state tourism strategies featured events, an opportunity for diverse stakeholders to contribute to strategy existed through the formal consultation processes of the state tourism body. 'There's a lot of consultation…in relation to the state tourism plan' (C3). Yet the reactive/proactive nature of strategy meant that agencies' interactions with other organisations about major event decisions were most likely to occur in an unstructured way to shape their responses to event opportunities. 'One of the bigger strategies we have is just being flexible in forming relationships, so that if something happens to arise, you can actually take advantage of it' (B6).

At state level, there was a need for inter-organisational relationships to ensure that complementary activities were performed across different agencies because there was no one document that reflected all components of events tourism strategies. Similarly, the development and integration of city, major events and regional events tourism strategies relied on dual or tripartite organisational arrangements and the networks of those organisations. That none of these strategies were fully developed or integrated in most cases partly reflected the unstructured nature of the relationships between organisations for this purpose. 'I think at the moment, it's intuition, goodwill and mateship' (D5). However, signs of increased sophistication in inter-agency relationships were evident in cases where dual or tripartite arrangements for events tourism existed. 'We have these different groups, all from different organisations, but I know exactly what each one is charged to do' (D1). 'They've all

identified which bits they're going to be responsible for and the communication process that goes around that' (E3).

In effect, the integration of events tourism at state and regional levels depended upon complex relationships inside and outside of government. For example, links between the state tourism bodies, regional tourism managers, local government, arts and business development agencies and events organisers paved the way for regional events tourism programs. '[The intention is] to leverage funding from other bodies and create cooperation with other bodies, whether they are public or private' (A2). The need to engage the community in regional events tourism strategy was emphasised. 'In the regions, it's been awfully important, because to define the tourism image of the region has involved a whole heap of people…the events actually feed into that' (D1). However, the lack of pan-regional strategies for events tourism illustrated the importance of developing inter-regional relationships as much as state and regional relationships for events tourism.

Many strategic activities of importance in the events tourism strategy process also rely on intra-governmental relationships and external relationships with stakeholders including those in the tourism sector. The current importance of predicting and evaluating the tourism visitation and yield of events highlighted the need for close ties between events and tourism personnel. However, limited liaison with the tourism industry on events decisions including the issue of event timing pointed to weak external relationships with tourism constituents. 'It's not strong at the moment' (A4). Given the developmental nature of events tourism packaging, this was a further activity that depended on agency liaison with the tourism industry including the limited number of inbound tourism operators in the events domain. 'There are very few and mostly small players in Australia involved in packaging inbound events tourism' (E4).

In brief, all activities of importance in the events tourism strategy process were underpinned by multiple relationships of events agencies inside and outside of government. The competitive nature of events acquisition and the mooted shift towards developing new and existing events had implications for agency relationships. Where event governing bodies, event owners and promoters have

dominated relationships for events acquisition, closer ties with the local events and communities were implied by a renewed interest in events development.

Summary of findings about research issue 2

In summary, reactive/proactive strategies that respond to events/episodes that arise and formal strategic planning were adopted for events tourism across most cases. Political processes and incremental activities of events agencies also helped to shape strategy in some cases. In line with these strategy forms, state events tourism strategies were an amalgam of generic events strategies within state tourism plans, formal event proposals of events agencies and their ongoing decisions about major events and their marketing. Little documentation of these reactive/proactive strategies was evident and no one document encompassed all events tourism initiatives within each case. Events tourism was seen to be a either a subset of events strategies of agencies and/or a component of state tourism plans. However, the distinction between events and events tourism strategies was nullified by the range of agency activities that contribute to events tourism outcomes. Some, but not all, strategic activities were emphasised by the agencies because of the need to be reactive or proactive to event opportunities. Thus a link between strategy forms and processes was evident.

At regional level, event funding programs, rather than integrated strategies for events tourism exist and there are no pan-regional strategies for events tourism across the cases. Challenges in creating an inter-regional strategy were the number, size and diversity of regions and the limited resources of events agencies. In turn, city events tourism strategies incorporated local, hallmark and major events, but few cases had integrated strategies for all of these events types. Interest in building the tourism potential of existing city events was evident, but a deliberate capital city events tourism strategy for major and hallmark events existed in only one case.

The integration of city, regional and state strategies for events tourism was impeded by the reactive/proactive nature of strategies, the embryonic state of strategy and complexity of stakeholders in most cases. Yet interviewees were aware of a wide range of steps in the strategy process. However, among those activities considered

for their importance in current strategy processes, only half were considered to be important. Strategic activities of importance were pre-event calculations of tourism volume and yield, the thematic, seasonal and geographic planning of events, major events acquisition, the packaging of events and post event evaluation.

The forms and levels of events tourism strategy had implications for both the strategy processes and inter-organisational relationships of public sector events agencies. The dual and tripartite organisational arrangements for events tourism at city and state levels and the need for synergies between the strategies of these agencies highlighted the importance of inter-organisational relationships. Most strategic activities demonstrated the agencies' need for relationships with events and tourism personnel inside and outside of government.

4.3.3 Findings about research issue 3: forms and characteristics of events agencies' inter-organisational relationships

The third research issue explored was:

What are the forms and characteristics of events agencies' inter-organisational relationships for shaping events tourism strategies, and why?

For this next research issue, the stakeholder orientation of those agencies involved in formulating events tourism strategies was firstly explored. An issue of particular interest was whether agencies' inter-organisational relationships reflected a corporate government orientation or a community orientation. The further issue of whether one-on-one relationships or networks mostly shaped events tourism strategy prefaced the analysis of six separate characteristics of inter-organisational relationships in each state/territory. These characteristics were initially derived for exploration from the network and relationships literature in Section 2.3.7 and from the concept diagram of Figure 3.2 confirmed for its relevance in the convergent interview analysis in Section 3.3.

Such relationship characteristics included the membership of agency relationships that influence events tourism strategy, the formality of relationships, their leadership and hierarchy, clustering or spread within relationships and inter-organisational communication. The climate or atmosphere of the events agencies' inter-organisational

relationships was another characteristic examined for this second research issue. Figure 4.6 shows the themes and inter-relationships between them for this issue.

Figure 4.6　**Themes and their inter-relationships for research issue 3**
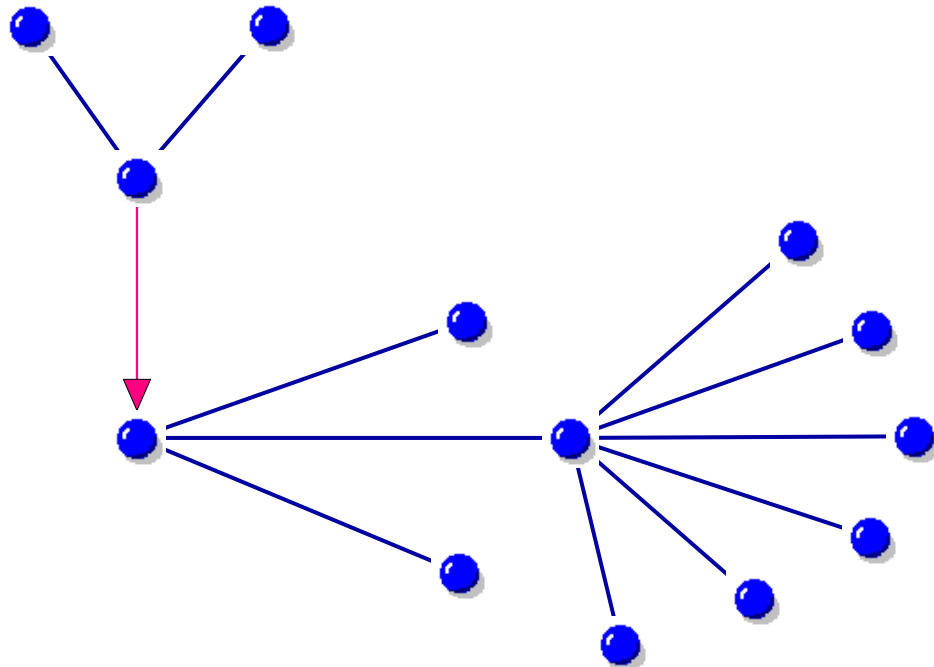
4.3.3.1　　　Stakeholder orientation in strategic decisions for events tourism

The first theme explored in research issue 3 was the stakeholder orientation of events agencies' relationships for strategy making (number 1 in Figure 4.6). This orientation was identified for each case on a continuum ranging from a community, destination-led orientation in which all parties within the community have an equal say in strategy making to a corporate or government, market-led orientation in which a corporate style of government decision-making prevails. The stakeholder orientation of the six cases is presented in Figure 4.7.

Most cases referred to a dominance of corporate or government relationships in decision making about events tourism directions, with more emphasis on intra-governmental stakeholders than others (cases A, B, C and D). 'It's very definitely a government orientation'

(A3). 'Ultimately, the imperatives that drive it will be corporate and government imperatives, rather than the community imperative' (B5). 'I'd say it's heavily weighted towards a government-corporate model' (C7). Avenues for community involvement in events tourism strategy were either through the consultation process that accompanied state tourism strategies (cases A, C and D) or through members of parliament, board members or public sector executives (all cases). However, there were no deliberate attempts to engage the community in state directions for events tourism in these cases. 'The only reason we would talk to the community is if there is an impact on the community at state or regional level' (D6).

Figure 4.7　　**Stakeholder orientation of each of the cases on a continuum from a community orientation to a corporate-government orientation**

Community orientation

Balanced orientation

Corporate government orientation
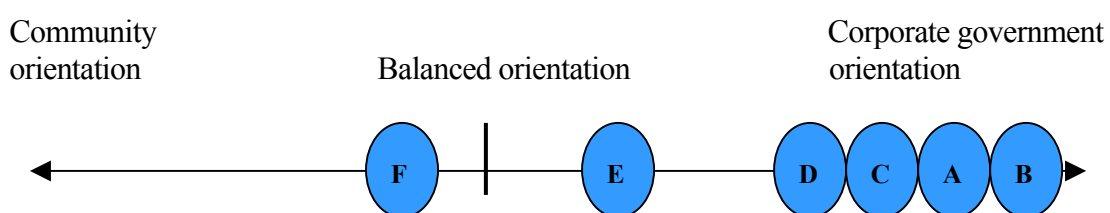
Source: analysis of field data

Some differences in stakeholder orientation were observed in cases E and F. Although a corporate government orientation was dominant in case E, some interviewees pointed to a community orientation in shaping city events tourism strategies that was not evident in other states. Case F was different to all other cases because the bulk of events activity in the state was drawn from existing grassroots events and a limited number of managed events. Although government stakeholders were dominant in decisions on new events investment or funding decisions, the role of community stakeholders in bringing events to the door of the events and tourism agencies was underscored.

Variations in the events agencies' stakeholder orientation. The stakeholder orientation of events agencies showed some variation depending on whether strategies were being formulated for events acquisition, events development and marketing or for the staging of major events within a state. Indirectly, the stakeholder orientation also reflected the form of events tourism strategy, because acquisition strategies were of a reactive/proactive form in most cases. Finally, there was a contrast between the stakeholder orientation of agencies at city and regional levels in most states.

In developing strategies for events acquisition, there was little engagement of stakeholders beyond the senior events agency executives, board and Premier in most cases. 'If there's a major event opportunity that comes up, there's no time for community debate and consultation' (E4). 'At the big end of strategy, no, it's not equal input' (D7). Events development and marketing activities were somewhat different in that communication occurred with individual events organisers, their sponsors and other stakeholders in this process. Yet this input was mostly obtained for individual decisions made by public sector executives, rather than to develop an integrated strategy for events development.

Nevertheless, some blend of a corporate or government orientation and a community orientation was described in relation to events development and marketing activities (cases B, D, E) For example, a process of external consultation, internal decision-making and external communication about decisions accompanied the planning of an events tourism marketing strategy by the city tourism agency in case E. 'It's a bit more middle of the road, where we've done a bit of cherry picking as to what we think are key drivers, and then we've brought the community along with the thinking…to get them to understand the rationale (E1).

In planning major events, a partnership between community, industry and government representatives was important, but these relationships occurred for event implementation rather than shaping events tourism strategies. 'You talk about (a very big event), we'll have a room full of community, hotels, agencies. We'll bring people together to discuss it, so we're much more on the community orientation now' (D3). However, the events tourism potential of the event and its place in the state's overall directions for events tourism were already decided at this point. Most of the interaction with the community in the context of major events was to secure volunteers and to ensure that there was goodwill rather than negativity towards the event. 'If community don't like the event, don't want to embrace it, then it doesn't matter how good, how viable it is, it is always going to flop. So you need to take that into account' (B8).

A marked contrast in the stakeholder orientation for regional and capital city events tourism strategies was evident in most cases. While it was agreed that corporate-government stakeholder orientations were dominant in most decision making at city and state government level, a community orientation was dominant at regional level. 'At the regional level, you've often got communities that are the drivers of events, so it probably shifts back to communities often being the major stakeholders and they push state government' (D7). 'It's

almost the opposite to state level, because communities go out and do an event and then go to the government for funding' (A2).

The one exception to this dichotomy in stakeholder orientations at city and regional levels was observed in case E. Here, the city's tourism strategies for existing events had been based on proactive consultation by the capital city tourism agency. However, at regional level, it was evident that the community input to events tourism directions occurred more at the level of individual events rather than for the creation of a regional strategy for events tourism. Most cases had regional funding programs with decisions made by a panel of representatives (cases A, B, C, D and E), but community input to developing these programs and panel decision making was sometimes limited. 'I was concerned at times at the direction we were going, because we weren't having a lot of consultation' (B7).

Reasons for the dominance of a corporate-government orientation. The need for government to assume leadership with strategy making for events tourism was emphasised by interviewees in most cases. Elements of events tourism such as major events acquisition, development and marketing were seen to be areas of market failure where governments needed to take the lead in concert with the corporate sector. 'If the market was able to bring events to whatever city was appropriate without the intervention of government, the government just wouldn't be involved' (E4). 'You need to give people the leadership, authority and freedom to deliver for and on behalf of the community' (A7). 'Government, to some degree, whether it be local or state, needs to have some leadership' (B7).

While the potential for further community involvement existed in the regions, the possibility of more of a community orientation in strategy making at state level was dismissed. Reasons for this view were the perceived irrelevance of notions of community in the city relative to regions, the potential number and divergence of views about events and limited community understanding of event benefits. 'I don't see community within [the city]' (D1). 'You have so many individual directions, it will be difficult to get adequate input or consensus' (B2). 'It's very scary to get too much of the community involved in some things because sometimes you're doing things on their behalf that they don't really understand' (B6).

Summary. The stakeholder orientation of events agencies showed a relationship to the forms and levels of events tourism strategy and the roles played by events agencies. The reactive-proactive nature of strategy meant that a corporate government orientation to stakeholder relationships was adopted in most cases in decision-making about events

acquisition. In contrast, some community involvement in events development and marketing initiatives was acknowledged. Nevertheless, the notion of increased community inclusion in decision-making about events tourism strategies for city and state level was not promoted because of a perceived lack of public interest and understanding of the strategy process and the benefits of events. Regional events tourism strategies usually emerged from an amalgam of those events concepts developed within local communities. Thus a community orientation was evident within the regions. However, community participation in strategies mostly occurred to plan and implement events, rather than to formulate regional or pan-regional events tourism strategies for a state.

4.3.3.2   Forms of inter-organisational relationships

The second theme to be analysed was the events agencies' inter-organisational relationships (number 2 in Figure 4.6). Interaction between events agencies and other organisations within and outside of government that influenced events tourism included one-on-one relationships and networks. A distinction between 'hard' and 'soft' networks (Buttery & Buttery 1994) was made in examining the nature of inter-organisational relationships. Where 'hard networks' are formal alliances between organisations and partners, 'soft networks' would be represented by industry forums, taskforces, committees and sets of informal relationships that contribute in an unstructured way to events tourism strategy.

Soft networks with varying degrees of structure influenced events tourism in most cases, but no hard networks were involved in shaping state level strategies. Formal alliances only existed between government and non-government organisations to develop the operational strategies for major events. Events tourism directions at state level were mostly shaped by small groups of public sector events and tourism executives (cases A, B, C, D and E). However, communication about strategic initiatives occurred within soft networks of stakeholders. The exception was case F where there was not a discernible group within government and/or externally that shaped events tourism directions. In this case, ad hoc liaison occurred between the events agency, the sports and recreation department and the state tourism body on issues pertinent to events tourism. One-on-one relationships, more than a soft network, were evident here.

In all other cases, soft networks exercised an informal influence on strategic directions for events tourism, because there were no purpose-built networks (created to address a specific strategy) in any state/territory. 'In terms of developing a strategic intent, I do not perceive any evidence of a network…I've yet to see a clear plan that has involved the various stakeholder groups' (B2). I'd certainly think that they draw on networks, but I think they don't necessarily have the network for that purpose' (A1). 'I don't think the network sets the strategy. The network would be used as a resource to give information. They'll take that information from the network, but they'll still develop their own strategy' (D4). There's definitely a network. The city is full of networks and you've got to be part of it' (C2). This influence of soft networks was evident through advisory panels as well as sets of professional relationships that helped to guide the directions taken by agency executives. Nevertheless, formal decisions about strategy were ultimately made by agency board members and Cabinet. 'We sit down as a group and work out the positives and negatives and then potentially put something up to the Board and go through that process' (C3).

Informal, professional networks that mostly featured intra-governmental relationships were identified across most cases. The importance of pre-existing relationships in creating most soft networks in the events tourism domain was highlighted (cases B, C, D and E). 'It's a personal network, you know, so it's the networks that I have because so and so who worked (with me) several years ago now works there' (B1). 'It's evolved over the years, it really has' (D1). Industry advisory panels that met on a semi-regular basis had existed in some states. However, these panels did not always participate in strategic planning sessions (case A) and were less influential when the agency was housed within a public sector body (case C). 'Before it was part of government, the board had an advisory forum that drew on community leaders from arts, sport, business, multi-cultural….since being drawn into the public sector, it's relied on the agency network to bring those things to the table' (C6).

In some cases, the networks of existing or previous board members were central. In states where the events agency now reported directly to a tourism board, informal contact with previous events agency board members and industry contacts continued to exert some influence. 'They still do have an influence. Their knowledge is phenomenal because they've been involved since it began and they've been there and done that….things that work, things that don't…and they understand' (C2).

4.3.3.3 Characteristics of inter-organisational relationships

Once these soft networks were identified, the next step was to examine a range of characteristics that further explain the nature of these inter-organisational relationships (number 3 in Figure 4.6). These six relationship characteristics were the membership of inter-organisational relationships, their degree of formality, their permanency and clustering, leadership and hierarchy, and also communication. In considering members of inter-organisational relationships that have some influence on events tourism directions, the events agencies' relationships with their inter-state counterparts were also examined. The relationship characteristics that were explored were drawn from the literature in Section 2.3.7 and the concept map of Figure 3.2 in Section 3.3.

Membership. The first relationship characteristic to be explored was the membership of events agencies' inter-organisational relationships. In all cases, those individuals and organisations that influenced events tourism directions were senior executives, members of boards and/or Cabinet. These stakeholders represented organisations both within and outside government. Therefore, it was meaningful to analyse a range of organisations and groups for their level of input or influence on events tourism strategies. This range of organisations included the state tourism body, government departments, tourism and event industry suppliers, other corporations, event governing bodies, international contacts, event managers, venue managers, media, community groups and consumers.

For the purposes of analysis, these organisations were split into four groups: government departments and agencies, industry representatives, events and venue representatives and community groups. An analysis of the input of each organisational group across all cases revealed that government departments and agencies were the most active members of the agency's soft networks followed by events related organisations. By comparison, industry and community organisations had minimal involvement. The levels of strategic input of the four organisational groups for each case are shown in Table 4.6. Note that these levels of strategic input are imprecise judgements and represent a broad summary of views about the input of these organisations.

Table 4.6 **Levels of strategic input of organisations in each of the six cases**

Organisational groups	Case A	Case B	Case C	Case D	Case E	Case F	Total
Government: State tourism authorities/commissions and funded regional tourism bodies	High	Medium	High	High	High	Medium	6
Other state government departments and agencies	Medium	Medium	Medium	Medium	High	High	6
Local government	Low	Low	Low	Medium	Low	Nil	1
Events and venues: Governing bodies	Medium	Medium	Medium	Medium	Medium	Low	5
Events managers/organisers	Nil	Low	Medium	Low	Medium	High	3
Venue managers	Low	Low	Low	Medium	High	Low	2
Industry: Corporations	Low	Low	Medium	Low	Medium	Nil	2
Event industry suppliers	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	0
Tourism industry suppliers	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	0
Community: Media	Low	Nil	Nil	Low	Nil	Medium	1
Residents and consumers	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	0

Notes: ☐ = medium and high input by government, ☐ = medium and high input by events/venues,

☐ = medium and high input by industry, ☐ = medium and high input by the community

The number in the final column represents the total of medium and high levels of input for each type of organisation across all six cases.

Source: analysis of field data.

Overall, the profile of inter-organisational relationships was described as a combination of the networks of agency board members, the chief executive and senior events personnel within the agencies. 'You know, I'm sure X has got a whole network of people, Y's got his network, so you know....they would go to their own mentors and their own networks' (B1). However, different levels of strategic input were indicated for representatives of government, event and venue related organisations, industry and community as shown in Table 4.6.

Government departments and agencies. Representatives of government organisations showed the highest total input to events tourism strategies within the agencies' networks. This finding reflected the corporate-government orientation to strategy making in many states discussed earlier. In most cases, the state tourism authority or commission exerted the highest level of influence on events tourism directions alongside the events agency (cases A, C, D and E). The medium levels of input to events tourism by the state tourism bodies in other cases (B and F) reflected the lower level of interaction between the events and tourism bodies on strategic matters in those cases. 'We have no strategic input to the directions of the events agency to my knowledge' (B9). 'I would say that the tourism authority has minimal influence over the strategy and direction' (B2). 'There isn't a close link with the (state tourism body) at all, no' (F6).

Other than tourism, the government departments with membership in these networks were Treasury, sport and recreation, state and regional development and to a much lesser extent, the arts department or agency. Among these departments, Treasuries were influential because of their control over resources that fund strategies, while sport and recreation representatives had input because of the dominance of sports events in most cases.

Event and venue related organisations. Outside of government, events governing bodies such as international sporting federations, events organisations and venue managers had the next highest level of input to events tourism directions. However, compared to government departments and agencies, much of the interaction with these organisations occurred on individual events opportunities. In particular, the events governing bodies were influential because the agencies' regular interaction with them helped to ensure their success in major events acquisition. 'In the end, you're dealing with the owners and marketers of events....you don't have anything if you don't do that' (E4). 'Very strong relationships, because

they're the ones with the product and obviously we want to develop that product' (D1). '[Agencies] would be working with them…the relationship there is basically just lead generation and opportunity assessment' (B2). Case F was the exception because the state's population base, resource capacities and limited number of acquired events lessen the importance of this relationship with event governing bodies. 'We sort of don't have a lot of events where they would be involved' (F2).

Venue managers had become more influential in some cases because of the need to fill excess seating capacity (cases D and E). 'Venue managers…well, without them, you don't go ahead' (D1). '[Brainstorming will involve] a group of people looking at opportunities….maybe with venue managers and talking about what opportunities there might be' (E2). However, tourism industry representatives and suppliers had little or no input to events tourism strategies in most cases and the need to increase liaison with the tourism sector was acknowledged. This result also reflected the findings of Table 4.4 discussed earlier in this chapter.

Industry, community and other input. The amount of strategic influence of other stakeholders within the industry and community varied relative to individual events in each state and perceptions of how different stakeholders might contribute to those events. Thus strategic input to events rather than overall state strategies for events tourism was highlighted. 'It depends on the event, it depends on the individual' (B1). For example, outside industry representatives on events agencies' boards, the medium level of input of corporate leaders in cases C and E usually occurred through informal discussion about event opportunities. 'If they're a major sponsor, they do get consulted actually. X is a major sponsor of a lot of things we do and we talk them through a lot of stuff' (C1).

Interviewees in other cases referred to corporate input at the tactical level of staging events rather than input to shaping overall events tourism strategies. 'When you have an event like X, you bring all your business leaders together to decide how to maximise it….it's not quite the same level' (D3). Those that exerted a low level of influence within the agency's soft network provided input on an ad hoc basis and their network membership was sometimes latent between event opportunities. In most cases, the tactical input of organisations in implementing major events far exceeded their strategic influence on the state's directions for events tourism.

Notably, cases D and E had more inter-organisational relationships that exerted medium to high influence than other cases. Some of the reasons for this result can be found in the different organisational arrangements for events tourism in those states including the number of government stakeholders and the presence of large scale venues. Deliberate attempts were being made within certain cases to increase the scope of agency relationships and the degree of agency interaction with some organisations (cases A, B, C and E). 'I know X has worked hard to actually broaden the circle of people with an interest in events' (C2). '(they are) attempting to evolve networks and are looking for synergy and connections' (E2). For example, more communication was planned with tourism industry suppliers in some cases (A and E), albeit for information sharing more than strategic input.

The breadth of network membership and influence of stakeholders on events tourism also varied according to the different events tourism roles and strategic processes adopted by events agencies. As already mentioned, the agencies' stakeholder orientations for events acquisition, events development and marketing were different. Hence the size and profile of networks for these purposes were also different. The networks established to develop events and to capitalise on their tourism potential were seen to be much more inclusive than networks for events procurement. '(There is) much more of a network in the marketing of existing events versus the acquisition' (E2). 'So much of its done in that fairly confidential status, because they're out there competing with other destinations…you don't find a lot of industry consultation' (A5). Finally, the nature of network membership was also affected by agencies' strategic processes for events tourism. For example, that certain strategic activities such as event packaging and tourism industry consultation received less emphasis had implications for network membership.

Relationships with inter-state events agencies. The potential for inter-state relationships with events agencies to impact on strategic directions for events tourism was minimal. Although a climate of cooperation exists to some extent, perceptions of intense competition have prohibited any strategic cooperation. 'We've tried to work together in the past. It never works. It's like saying Coke and Pepsi should get together and see how they can sell more soft drink' (B8). 'We all keep our cards pretty close to our chest. Nobody trusts anybody else' (C1). An exception to this view was case F because it did not see itself competing with other states for major events due to its size, location and seasonality. 'We don't really feel that we're in the game in that regard' (F5).

National coordination for acquiring certain types of mega-events was suggested by some interviewees because of the cannibalisation of events that occurs between states. 'Events are getting to a mature level now where you really have to look at it from a country's perspective and say, "Well, what events can we really sustain and support in Australia?" (A6). However, the strength of competition between states was a perceived obstacle to this kind of co-operation in the short term. 'I think there's a place for having a broader common good…but I think we're probably a long way from there' (E1).

Benefits of current cooperation with executives in inter-state agencies included sharing the staging of mega-events of national significance, sharing experiences of events promoters and organisers and arriving at more uniform methods for assessing economic impacts of events. 'There's a bush telegraph between them on the organisations to trust, who's on the nose, who's done well, who's burnt who and I think that's quite well developed' (B5). Thus the existence of some informal, inter-organisational relationships between events agencies was evident. However, no linkages existed between the informal networks of each case and these inter-state relationships.

Relationship formality. The second relationship characteristic examined was the formality of the agencies' inter-organisational relationships. As already noted, the networks of events agencies were described as 'soft' or informal because no formal networks had been established to create events tourism strategies. All external relationships were informal, other than those with the agencies' advisory bodies, and many inter-governmental relationships were not formalised. Nevertheless, there were formal, intra-agency networks of events and tourism personnel that considered events tourism initiatives in most cases (A, C, D and E).

The extent to which these formal settings were used for reviewing an overall strategy for events tourism versus considering individual event opportunities varied. While some events agencies referred to formal strategic planning sessions for events acquisition and development, more integrated strategies for events tourism were not specifically covered in those forums (cases A, B and C). An assessment of individual events initiatives occupied much of this internal discussion. 'We might look at strategy, but you see, strategy is all the time' (C3). Thus despite any external influences on strategy, any formal overview of strategic directions for events tourism was only possible at board level.

This lack of formality in ongoing strategy of the events agencies reflected the prevalence of the reactive/proactive strategy form discussed earlier. Yet the formal decision making of boards of events agencies, tourism bodies and/or major events committees at Cabinet level were recognised contributors to events tourism directions. 'They have a major events group and everything has got to go through it and it's got to be approved' (D4). 'There's no formal group there to provide that guidance and leadership other than the tourism board' (C8). However, again, it was strategies for individual events rather than the deliberate creation of an integrated events tourism strategy that dominated the activities of agency boards. Also, the power with respect to strategy making was sometimes seen to reside with events agency executives because decisions were often being ratified at Board level. 'It's rubber stamping. At the end of the day, there are only certain people to convince' (D2).

Because of the role played by events agency executives in formulating proposals and plans for board approval, the influence of informal networks on the decision-making of these executives was important. 'They're continually talking to all of these people and I think that slots away in their heads, and when they do their strategic planning, it does come from a pretty tight circle in the events agency' (A3). However, the amount of emphasis that was placed on events tourism strategies depended on the level of involvement of tourism personnel in the agency's informal network. Where tourism and events organisations were separate entities with limited formal ties and irregular, informal interaction (cases B and F), there was an absence of an integrated events tourism strategy. In effect, the formality of events agencies' relationships with tourism bodies and the strength of informal relationships between them were important influences on strategy.

Network permanency and clustering. The next relationship characteristics to be analysed were the permanency of the agencies' soft networks and the presence of a cluster or spread of relationships in these networks. A relationship between these two characteristics was evident across the cases. Where the primary cluster of relationships in most cases was stable and permanent, there was some fluctuation in the nature of network membership around these clusters. The stability or permanency of networks and the nature of clustering are now considered in more depth.

Firstly, the *permanency* of inter-organisational relationships varied across the cases. One consideration in examining this network stability was the degree of active communication between network members. Among those states that had a soft network of relationships

with organisations that actively discussed events tourism, most referred to a level of permanency in their network (cases B, C, D and E). 'I think they (the relationships) are fairly consistent actually' (B8). 'We know pretty much who the major players are, so if we need to achieve any input from any organisation then you would go to the same places' (E2). While there was a set of intra-governmental relationships in case F with a shared interest in events tourism, these organisations were not actively engaged either formally or informally in strategy making. Therefore, it was not possible to analyse the permanency of the relationships that shaped strategy in this case.

By comparison, cases A and B had active sets of ongoing relationships that influenced strategy, but relationships around those core relationships were more fluid than in other cases. A reliance on one-on-one relationships within an informal network that changed over time according to events opportunities explained this finding. 'There are probably key players who crop up every now and again as needed sort of thing' (A2). 'You try and stay with them because you don't want it to look like you've loved them and left them, but you're always moving on to new ones' (A4). 'We get to know people extremely well for a short period of time and then you don't ever see them again' (B8).

This tendency for the network of relationships to be affected by changes in event opportunities applied in all cases. However, a fluctuation in network membership was less likely at the core of those networks where intra-governmental relationships dominate strategy processes. Within the four cases with more active networks (cases B, C, D and E), the professional positions of executives within organisations and their pre-existing relationships with executives in other organisations were influential in gaining and retaining membership. 'Once you're in, you're in' (D1). 'I suppose the people within the industry have moved around organisations, but the people have not changed a lot in the network' (D4).

Despite some evolution of the networks over time, membership within this soft network in some states was longstanding (cases B, C and D). 'There's a nucleus of people who would always be called upon. It would be fairly much the same people, the same players with the expertise involved' (B7). 'It's been a very stable group, you know' (C1). Nevertheless, a change of government and changes in board members did have an impact on network membership. 'The same group of people over the last eight years has driven the agenda. That's changed now quite dramatically' (C7).

This stability of membership among a core set of organisations was also tied to the nature of *clusters or the spread of relationships* within the networks. Figure 4.8 gives an overall picture of clustering and loose relationships within cases. At least one primary cluster of intra-governmental relationships was evident within most cases, except case F which reflected professional links more than an events tourism network between the public sector agencies. Overall, the strength of government representation in network clusters illustrates the linkage between agency relationships and their stakeholder orientation shown earlier in Figure 4.6.

Membership of network clusters often embraced the state tourism body, other government departments, the events agency and events divisions of tourism bodies where relevant (cases A, C, D and E). Some variation was observed in case B where only one member of the state tourism body appeared to be inside the agency's network cluster. The lack of a close relationship between the events agency and other tourism personnel suggested that the tourism body was mostly contained in the loose network as shown in Figure 4.8.

Within those states where more than one agency was directly engaged in events acquisition or development activities, the inter-organisational relationships of each agency tended to overlap within the network. In case D, the networks of the events agency and events personnel within the tourism body were represented in one tight cluster. 'It (network membership) crosses over between the two of them (the events group within the tourism body and the events agency)' (D4). More than one cluster was evident within cases A and C. Secondary clusters of relationships were identified between events agency and sports industry personnel (case A) and events agencies and corporate opinion leaders (case C).

Figure 4.8 **Clustering within each case with shading to indicate the presence of clusters, loose networks and key organisations within the clusters**

| Cases A and C | Case B | Case D | Case E | Case F |
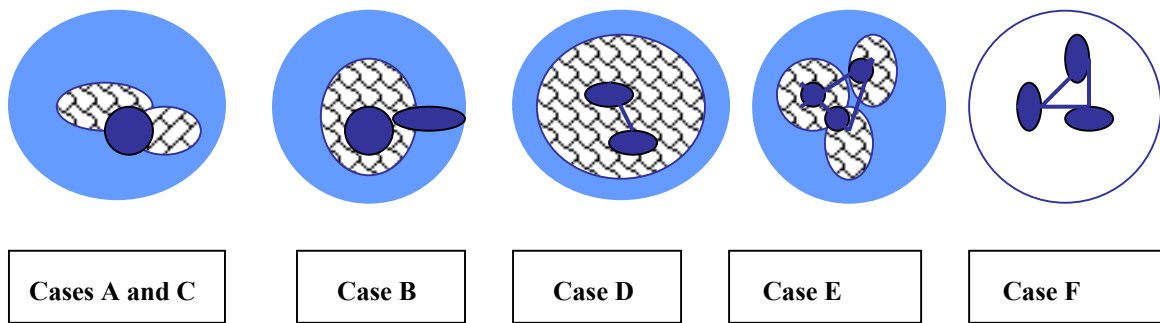
Notes: ⬡ = clusters, 🔵 = loose network, ⚪ = no network, only relationships,

🔵 = agencies with a role in events tourism, ▬ = professional links between agencies

The size of clusters denotes the relative strength of the cluster in the broader sets of relationships. For example, the larger size of the cluster in Case D indicates the dominance of a tight cluster of relationships in decision-making in this case.

Source: analysis of field data.

The tightness of relationships within clusters varied across the cases. Those states that had relied on a cluster of pre-existing relationships among government executives over a long period to shape events tourism displayed tight relationship clusters. 'One of the reasons it is tightly clustered is that a lot of people in these roles have been around for quite a while' (C6). 'I think the core element of it is tightly clustered…you could throw a blanket over it' (C2). 'I mean there are some people who're pretty tight in the middle of it' (D3).

Within these primary clusters of intra-government relationships, all members are not drawn into all of the strategic decisions that impact on events tourism. Sometimes the Premier and a few executives were the only people who were aware of an event acquisition strategy, while at other times the tourism authority was among a few government organisations who were privy to a decision. 'Because we have a relationship with them, then we take them into our confidence ' (D5). Thus the strength of clusters was variable. Across the cases, the most close-knit set of relationships for events tourism strategy occurred in case D. 'It's the core network of those people and the personal leadership of those people that really has driven the strategy' (D7). In this case, the tightness or cohesion of the network cluster was also a potential barrier to new members. 'It's such a strong, cohesive, cooperative drive forward, for someone trying to buy into it….trying to get into that sometimes can be difficult' (D7).

Cases or inter-organisational relationships that were mostly engaged in immediate event opportunities rather than longer term, strategy making either displayed loose relationships within a soft network or loose linkages between agencies with few characteristics of a network. In case A, a cluster of relationships occurred around each strategic initiative, but the overall network was loosely structured. 'It would be very loose, because it varies from event to event or bid to bid' (A2). Thus these network clusters emerged at different intervals, not so much to shape overall strategy for events tourism, but to capitalise on the potential of individual events. Case E was unique among those cases with soft networks because a very tight cluster had formed around a major event over a long period, but the end of that event resulted in less focus and more of a loose network. Subsequently, the network clusters of the state tourism body, the major events unit and the city tourism agency exist within a loose environment of relationships that impact on events tourism. 'It's loose now, because they are still working out what's important' (E4). Thus it was evident that the nature of the events sector meant that clusters could loosen or tighten according to circumstance.

In brief, most cases had at least one stable cluster of relationships dominated by government organisations around which sets of loose relationships were influential. There was little variation in the nature of inter-organisational relationships that contributed to events tourism over time. However, those relationships formed in the context of individual event opportunities were more fluid. In those cases where close ties existed between the public sector bodies engaged in events tourism strategy, overlapping clusters or a merged cluster of relationships were evident. A mix of tight and loose clusters existed across the cases, but this attribute of the networks changed over time.

Network leadership and hierarchy. The leadership and hierarchy of the informal networks was the fourth relationship characteristic to be discussed. Current *leadership* for state level events strategies was derived from either the Premier (case B) or chief executives and senior events personnel (cases C, D and E). A perceived lack of leadership was noted in some cases (A and F). An absence of leadership and some changes in the nature and strength of leadership were the result of government changes (cases A, C and D) and the loss of board members (case E).

In each state, it was assumed that the events agency and/or events divisions within tourism bodies were at the helm of the organisational *hierarchy* with events tourism. However, leadership with respect to events and an events tourism strategy were not

viewed as the same concept among all interviewees. For example, while the Premier championed events and related policy in case B, there was no leader or leaders identified with regard to events tourism strategy. '(He needs to) make a statement and really put resources behind this to make it work and put all the departments together to work together…there is a champion, but no political will to take it to that stage' (B2). A focus on a broader events agenda, more than events tourism, was a primary reason for a lack of leadership in this case.

A distinction could also be made between the notion of a champion for events and leadership of events tourism. For example, internal leadership by chief executives and chairs of boards was emphasised in some cases (C, D and E), but external champions were rarely identified. 'I can't see anyone that's really leading the charge' (A5). 'I don't think there is a single person' (E2). Leadership of an inter-organisational network that influenced events tourism was most evident in those states where more than one organisation was committed to the events-tourism linkage (cases D and E). Previous leadership by a Premier in case D had established the platform for continued leadership by senior events executives across two organisations.

In contrast, there was little personal interest in events tourism by the Premier in case E. 'The Premier doesn't want a profile' (E5). Instead, some leadership in creating events tourism strategy had come from a city tourism agency serving as a subsidiary of the state tourism body. However, no hierarchy was implied by the lead role that this agency had assumed in developing an events tourism agenda at capital city level. 'This agency was established, not to create any hierarchy, but to try to get people to understand the benefit of working together' (D1).

Because of the different roles played by agencies in events acquisition, development and tourism marketing in some states, network arrangements were more likely than one agency assuming a lead role. This expectation of links between all agencies involved was a key factor in the events tourism leadership observed in cases D and E. By comparison, a lack of cohesion between events and tourism personnel was the reason for a perceived lack of leadership in case A. 'If they (events and tourism) had that tighter relationship, you would look towards them as a leader' (A6).

In brief, while there were few individual champions for events tourism outside of government, leadership on strategy and in inter-organisational relationships that affect strategy was demonstrated in some states. The most likely leaders for events tourism strategy were individual executives or small groups of personnel within events and/or tourism agencies, rather than individuals external to government. The leadership of the Premier on events tourism strategy was not evident in any case, although the Premier's leadership of a major events agenda was noted in case B. Those states/territories with no direct leadership of events tourism had either made a conscious decision to limit their events tourism focus (case F) or they had less organised or effective linkages between events and tourism personnel for this purpose (cases A and B).

Network communication. The fifth relationship characteristic examined was communication between members of the events agencies' networks. Most communication between organisations that influenced events acquisition, events development and tourism marketing did not occur through organised channels at pre-determined intervals. 'There's never been a group all getting together just talking about events tourism. It would be interesting to do, I must say' (C1). Communication within the cluster of agencies at the core of the soft networks was mainly driven by need. While one-on-one interaction was regular among a small group of network members in various states (cases A, C, D and E), it was not usually face-to-face communication. 'Most of it's bi-lateral, not a lot of it comes through group meetings, forums and group discussions…they have from time to time, but…that simply articulates and confirms what is picked up in line-one relationships' (E4). 'There isn't an umbrella body coordinating committee meetings with minutes' (D3). Communication between the events agencies and its intra-governmental network is more regular than with organisations that are external to government. 'It would happen on a daily or weekly basis…so, we've all got our fingers on the pulse, so that we can make sure that what we've got works (D4).

Mixed views emerged on the benefits of formal versus informal communication for strategy making. Although informal communication with the network was preferred by some interviewees, others thought that interaction could or would become more formal. 'The agency is trying to formalise some communication by getting key groups together…once every eight to ten weeks, we're going to get together' (E1). Perceived obstacles to organised meetings to discuss events tourism strategies were competition between network members and their desire to avoid offending other members who might have a different

viewpoint. 'No venue manager's going to put on the table an opportunity that some other venue manager might not know about. So you're not going to hear those sorts of things to actually feed into your strategy and that's why it tends to become a one-on-one-type process' (E2). 'They're not going to put across a table any ideas that may disenchant or hurt somebody else' (B3).

Due to the formal mechanisms of government, meetings and forums were usually held between government departments on issues of major event coordination. In order to stage events, formal management committees or boards are often established, so that members of otherwise informal networks communicate in a different forum for the period of the event's organisation and staging. 'In the case of Rugby World Cup, it's a very high profile event and so….there's a regular series of meetings that have been scheduled and there's every man and his dog's wanting to get involved' (B2). In effect, the communication mechanisms for major events planning differed from those that existed among organisations that influence events tourism strategies on an ongoing basis.

In brief, communication within the primary clusters within events agencies' relationships was regular and informal, with no formal channels or structures established to develop strategic directions for events tourism. An intention to introduce some formal communication channels was evident in some cases (A and E). However, competition and differences of opinion among network members were perceived impediments to achieving productive communication about events tourism strategy in formal meetings and forums. Formal avenues for communication among network members were seen to be appropriate and necessary for implementing major events.

Relationship climate or atmosphere. The sixth and final relationship characteristic was the climate or atmosphere of networks that have an influence on events tourism strategies. Five descriptions of climate were used to analyse this characteristic: coordination (institutionalised approach), cooperation (reciprocal exchanges), collaboration (consensus based approach), competition and contractual agreements. These descriptions were drawn from the literature review where the relationship or network atmosphere is discussed in Section 2.3.9 and from the analysis of the convergent interview data in Section 3.3. Interviewees chose one or more of these descriptions to explain the climate of relationships. Other influences on climate that were analysed were trust, commitment and power in the relationships between organisations. Among the five descriptions of climate, cooperation was the most commonly chosen to describe the network climate, followed by

coordination. This finding supported the earlier observations made about relationship characteristics because both an informal network of relationships and formal structures such as agency boards and Cabinet influenced events tourism strategy. Table 4.7 shows the most common descriptions of climate within each case and the summary results.

Table 4.7   **The most common descriptions of network climate with shading to indicate the leading descriptions in each case**

Descriptions of climate	Case A	Case B	Case C	Case D	Case E	Case F	Summary result
Cooperation	7	8	8	7	7	6	43
Coordination	7	4	2	4	6	2	25
Competition	3	6	2	1	3	2	17
Collaboration	1	3	5	2	3	1	15
Contractual	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	0

Note**:** Shading indicates the first and second most commonly cited description in each case. Only the leading description is shown in Case F because of the very small numbers who indicated a second preference.

Source: analysis of field data

Agreement across the cases about a cooperative relationship climate reflects the informality of the soft networks already discussed. However, the impact of formal, institutionalised relationships was also acknowledged in several cases (A, D and E). This was most pronounced in case A where formal reporting mechanisms of the events agency were under review and there was a marked emphasis on accountability to Treasury on matters of economic performance. 'You have to go through formal processes, so there's a fair bit of that' (A3). Coordination was also highlighted in cases D and E because of the need for formal communication between more than one public sector agency involved in activities related to events tourism. 'There are these formal elements you've just got to go through. At the end of the day, that's how it's done. It's done through individuals acquiring events and putting it through a formal process' (D2).

Competitive sets of inter-organisational relationships were identified across the cases, but this was most evident in case B. This finding about the cases reflects earlier observations about the 'silo' effect of events agencies and tourism bodies acting independently, with each agency engaged in a mutual struggle for resources. For example, within case B, instead of a shared resource pool for events tourism, there is competition for government funding to support events alongside other tourism initiatives. The impact of competition among organisations was more evident when strategic decisions were being made about events acquisition, rather than events development and their tourism marketing. 'It's a tight sort of group making that call, working with individual opportunities, whereas marketing is perhaps more about cooperation' (E2).

A relative lack of collaboration or consensus based decision making underscored the dominance of intra-governmental network clusters in making decisions about events tourism in most cases. 'Probably it's a little less collaborative for those reasons of confidentiality' (C5). 'We don't have a process that sits everyone around the table for a consultation on strategy development. It's very much a leadership strategy….the strategy is built on a co-operative approach' (D7). Although collaboration was stressed as important in case C, this mostly applied to intra-agency relationships rather than the events agency's external relationships. Contractual relationships only applied to relationships established to stage major events and were not relevant in describing relationships that influence strategy. Thus cooperation was a more apt description of these inter-organisational relationships.

Trust, commitment and power. Other aspects of the climate of inter-organisational relationships that were examined were trust, commitment and power (identified in Section 2.3.9). The commitment of organisations within relationships and networks was mostly identified in the context of contributing resources and following through on promises made. 'You get called into the inner sanctum if you are seen as a person who can deliver, be reliable and your organisation has credibility' (B5). However, most interviewees focused on issues of trust and power, rather than commitment. Trust was an important issue in all cases except case F. Because a small number of one-on-one relationships influenced events tourism directions, trust was not perceived to be an issue in this case. A pre-requisite for organisations that wish to exert influence within networks was confidentiality or a capacity to be trusted with information. 'That's why these people are influential because they can be trusted with information' (C7). 'Part of the issue is working through

to try to establish a level of trust that probably hasn't been there before' (E1). 'You don't have an informal network if you don't trust them' (B1).

The tightness of intra-governmental clusters engaged in decisions about events acquisition was directly linked to this emphasis on trust. Less inclusive relationships were evident with events acquisition and development decisions for this reason. 'Because events tourism is such a high profile situation, because everybody has a view about what events are good for the state and which should be attracted, it also tends to drive a bit of an insular and protective state within the organisation' (B2).

Power was influential within the agency inter-organisational relationships across all states. However, the power of individuals was thought to be more important than the power of organisations. 'It's who you know and how you can press those buttons. And I'm only beginning to do that. If I stayed for another five years I'd be realising the dreams, you know, but slowly' (A7). 'It's very much about personalities, so even though a person's organisation might not be at the table, they could be quite vocal and in a real leadership role (E1). 'We'll always make sure that X is involved from day one, because they can ultimately decide whether you do or don't go ahead' (B8). The level of priority placed on events within a government was also affected by individuals at the level of chief executives or politicians. For example, the need for the chief executive officer of events agencies to have strong relationships on both sides of government was highlighted. 'The CEO has so much respect on both sides of politics' (C2). Thus the importance of power at the level of individuals or small groups of individuals within networks was evident. 'It's about the individual – if you look at people on the events board, they are a group of fairly powerful business people' (E2).

Summary. The climate of inter-organisational relationships for events tourism was characterised by cooperation in all cases. This was accompanied by coordination or formal ties between organisations that exist at board level or through other government mechanisms. A commitment to relationships from a resource perspective as well as task completion was important. However, trust and power were the attributes of relationships given most emphasis. Trust between network members was necessary to maintain the network and ensure confidentiality in event bidding. The power of individuals was more relevant than the power of organisations in shaping events tourism directions.

Summary of findings about research issue 3

In summary, soft networks of agency relationships dominated by intra-governmental agencies influenced, rather than developed events tourism strategies in most cases. A corporate government orientation, rather than a community orientation to stakeholder relationships influenced the profile of these soft networks for events tourism at state level. In contrast, a community orientation to stakeholder relationships for events tourism was emphasised at regional level. The networks exercised an informal influence on events tourism, because there were no hard alliances formed for strategy making.

Reflecting a corporate-government stakeholder orientation (Section 4.3.3.1), pre-existing relationships between public sector executives and organisations in these networks helped to determine the profile of membership. Often, the membership profile of inter-organisational relationships was determined by a combination of board member networks and events agency networks. The highest levels of strategic input were obtained from government departments and agencies including state and regional tourism bodies and other departments such as Sport and Recreation and Treasury. Event governing bodies, event organisers and venue managers also exercised an influence on events tourism directions. Industry, community and other input to strategy making occurred at the level of major events, but did not contribute to whole of state strategies for events tourism. Although formal links existed between network members in the context of implementing major events, most relationships that contributed to overall strategies were informal.

Stable networks were observed in most cases. There was a primary cluster of relationships within most networks with a loose set of relationships in the periphery that varied according to event opportunities and issues. Where some cases showed a single tight cluster of longstanding relationships, others had more than one cluster and some were more loosely spread. Those states with separate events and tourism agencies with no shared commitment to events tourism strategy were less likely to have tourism as an equal partner in the primary network cluster.

Network leadership was attributed to the events agency in each case. However, leadership with a state's events agenda and leadership in events tourism were viewed differently. Where the Premier was a perceived leader with events in some cases, public sector executives were the leaders of events tourism strategies. Similarly, while some events

champions were identified, championship of events tourism was a perceived role of events and tourism agencies. One-on-one communication rather than group communication mostly occurred between network members who cooperated, rather than collaborated in decisions about events and their tourism marketing. Coordination, or formal mechanisms, was also needed to ratify and resource strategies that emerge from that cooperative climate. Issues of trust and power were pertinent in this inter-organisational climate and the power of individuals was more influential than the power of organisations.

In effect, while there were no hard networks for events tourism strategy making, soft networks dominated by public sector personnel cooperated in an informal way to influence strategies. The extent to which tight or loose clusters of relationships existed was affected by pre-existing relationships, the inter-dependence of agencies involved in events tourism and the emphasis placed on events tourism within states.

4.3.4 Findings about research issue 4: incentives and disincentives for inter-organisational relationships

The fourth research issue investigated was:

What are the incentives and disincentives for events agencies to engage in inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategy making, and why?

For this final research issue, a number of incentives and disincentives for events agencies to engage in inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategy making were raised by interviewees. Other incentives and disincentives for these relationships identified in Chapter 2 were also examined for their importance. Figure 4.9 shows these themes explored within research issue 4, their order of discussion and the tables that illustrate findings on each theme.

Firstly, interviewees identified a number of potential incentives or benefits for these relationships. Those that were commonly identified across the cases were increased trust among relational partners, knowledge sharing and intellectual input to the events agenda, more innovative event concepts and strategies, improved decisions and shared ownership of decisions, avoidance of role overlap and conflicts among agencies, shared and better access to resources and enhanced credibility of events agency activities.

Figure 4.9 **Themes and their inter-relationships within research issue 4**
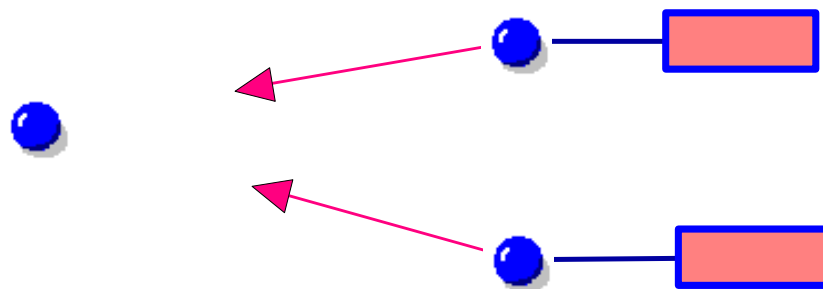
Notes: ➤ = one-way relationship

Numbers in parentheses indicate the order of discussion of each theme within the figure from (1) to (2). Tables 4.8 and 4.9 refer in turn to the range of incentives and disincentives discussed in this section

Source: developed for this research

Secondly, a range of disincentives for engaging in inter-organisational relationships was generated. These disincentives included apathy; issues of trust and respect; increased bureaucracy; a potential loss of focus; inadequate fiscal, human and time related resources; reduced power among lead agencies; difficulty in achieving input and consensus among competing parties; difficulty in providing equitable access to stakeholders; political barriers, threats to confidentiality and a resistance to change. A number of these incentives and disincentives identified by interviewees were among those considered for their importance by interviewees.

4.3.4.1 Eight incentives for inter-organisational relationships

Eight incentives or benefits were analysed for their perceived importance to events agencies in forming inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategy. These incentives were initially drawn from the review of literature in Section 2.3.10 and the convergent interview data analysis in Section 3.3. They included resource interdependence and shared risk; building upon pre-existing relationships; gaining complementary expertise, markets, operations, territories and timeframes; increasing professional expertise; legitimising the agency's role, conforming to government policy, building trust with partners and avoiding stakeholder backlash. Results within each case and summary results for all cases are shown in Table 4.8.

Across the cases, all of the incentives were perceived to be important, as shown in the summary results displayed in the final column of Table 4.8. However, some differences in results are evident within certain cases. The first benefit of *sharing resources and risk* (row 1 of Table 4.8) was independently mentioned by many participants across all cases, but was highlighted in case E because of the risks incurred by events being a high profile, discretionary area of government spending. 'It's a highly discretionary, highly visible area of the application of taxpayers' funds….you wouldn't want to see yourself out of the swim of public opinion….or swimming against the commercial tide' (E4).

This incentive was also important because of the need to seek resources outside the events agency's budget, especially for events that fulfil important purposes that are outside of the agency's criteria or capacity to support. 'The sponsor of that event was an important R &D company that was going to be worth millions of dollars to the economy, so in those terms…if someone else takes some of the resources and risk, then yes, that 's a number 1' (A3). 'The key one here is the fact that it builds resource access. I think that's the problem for us' (F7).

The second benefit of *cementing or growing pre-existing relationships* was important across the cases, but was seen to be most important in cases D and F (row 2 of Table 4.8). This benefit was important because of the emphasis that was already placed on pre-existing relationships in determining events agencies' networks (discussed in Section 4.3.3.3). Thus the opportunity to further cement or grow these relationships was acknowledged among most interviewees. The consensus shown on the high level of importance of this incentive in case D can be linked to the tight cluster of longstanding relationships observed in this case. 'Once you're in, you're in' (D1). In contrast, Case F saw this incentive to be very important because of a perceived need to build more of a network that focuses on events tourism directions among a small number of organisations with pre-existing relationships. 'We'd develop more of a mutual understanding of what the potential is….and also get a shared understanding of what should be the role of events' (A3).

The third benefit of importance across the cases was the ability to gain *complementary expertise, markets, operations, territories and timeframe*s from these inter-organisational relationships (row 3 of Table 4.8). All cases concurred that relationships with a range of stakeholders for strategy making could provide these benefits. The importance of members of these inter-organisational relationships having some use to other members was underlined. 'Unless they think that you're useful to them, they're not going to [include

Table 4.8   **Importance of incentives for events agencies to use inter-organisational relationships to shape events tourism strategies**

Cases / Incentive	A Importance	B Importance	C Importance	D Importance	E Importance	F Importance	All Importance
1. Resource interdependence and shared risk	Important (1.7) S	Important (1.7) S	Important (1.9) S	Important (1.9) S	Very Import (1.5) S	Important (1.8) S	Important (1.7)
2. Cement or grow pre-existing relationships	Important (2.2) S	Important (2.1) N	Important (2.3) N	Very Import. (1.2) C	Important (1.8) S	Very Import. (1.4) S	Important (1.9)
3. Complementary expertise, markets, operations, territories, timeframes	Important (2.0) S	Important (1.8) S	Important (1.8) C	Important (1.6) S	Important (1.7) S	Important (1.8) S	Important (1.8)
4. Increase the agency's professional expertise	Important (2.1) N	Important (2.1) S	Important (1.8) S	Average (2.7) N	Important (2.2) N	Important (1.9) S	Important (2.0)
5. Legitimise the agency's role or image	Important (1.9) S	Important (2.1) S	Important (1.9) N	Important (2.1) S	Important (2.2) N	Important (1.9) S	Important (2.0)
6. Conform to government policy	Average (2.8) N	Important (2.2) BP	Important (1.9) S	Important (1.7) S	Important (2.2) S	Important (2.1) N	Important (2.2)
7. Build trust with new or existing partners	Important (1.7) S	Important (2.2) S	Important (2.0) N	Very Import. (1.5) S	Very Import. (1.28) S	Important (1.8) S	Important (1.7)
8. Avoid stakeholder backlash or complaint	Important (2.1) N	Important (2.1) S	Important (2.0) N	Average (3.0) N	Important (1.6) S	Average (2.5) N	Important (2.0)

Notes: Numbers in the table refer to the mean score within cases and for all cases. Likert scale was 1 = Very important, 2 = Important, 3 = Average importance, 4 = Not very important, 5 = Not important at all. The letter beside this score indicates the distribution of responses where N = normal, S = skewed, BP = bi-polar views, C = consensus

you]…they will assess you pretty clinically as to what you can offer' (B1). In particular, the expertise of other network members and access to the networks of other members were seen to be most attractive. 'Other agencies can value-add enormously, like in terms of their own expertise, their own networks, depending on the type of market' (C5).

Reference was made to knowledge generation in many cases (A, B, C and D) and this need for intellectual input was reflected in the importance placed on increasing the events agency's *professional expertise* (row 4 of Table 4.8). Here, the incentive was not so much a need for more professional skills within agencies, but an interest in capitalising on the different types of expertise offered by other partners. 'All the stakeholders learn to do it better because they're sharing the knowledge of a multiplicity of events' (D3). In effect, there was little difference in interviewees' interpretations of the third and fourth incentives in the table. All comments about increasing professional expertise were tied to the notion of acquiring knowledge through these relationships. 'Expertise, okay, knowledge…sort of the same thing' (E3). 'The more [expertise or knowledge] that you have, the more you can evaluate [events tourism] (D1). Where this incentive was interpreted in the literal sense of increasing the expertise of agency personnel, it was sometimes discounted. '[It's] not really relevant (D5). 'I have a worry about corporations trying to get too concerned about their professional expertise' (E4). 'They've got a fair degree of operational competency, biding competency, now increasingly risk management….and marketing…so it's not as if [they're] weak in this area of competency' (C5). Therefore, the perceived benefits to events agencies of acquiring knowledge, rather than professional expertise were supported.

The fifth and sixth incentives analysed were those of *legitimising the agency's role* or image and *conforming to government policy* (rows 5 and 6 in Table 4.8). Reasons for the importance of the fifth incentive were the need for the agency to generate a wider understanding of the benefits of events and also, the agency's achievements (cases A, C and D). 'Having networks…probably cements your credibility with some of these people' (A1). 'Let the community know it and know what these people are doing….and say, after five years, "We've been successful because, this is what we set out to do and this is what we've done' (D5). 'It gives you more ambassadors for what you do' (C2). Similarly, the sixth incentive of conforming to government policy was thought to be important simply to maintain government recognition and support as a public entity. 'It's vital, you know. They're a government body, they've got to be beyond reproach' (D2).

The seventh incentive of *building trust with new or existing partners* was important in most cases and it was perceived to be very important in cases D and E (row 7 of Table 4.8). Evidence of the need to continually build trust in inter-organisational relationships emerged in various cases (A, D and E). 'At the moment, there might be a slight lack of trust. Some sports organisations go directly to bid overseas without involving the events agency' (A2). 'You've got the typical tendency for rivalry or jealousy or debate about strategy' (D3). 'You know, X and Y do things and they don't tell Z who might be the last to know' (E7). However, this incentive was seen to be important both to maintain trust in existing relationships as well as to overcome current low levels of trust among organisations. For example, case D placed a high level of importance on this incentive in light of its pre-existing relationships between organisations, while case E was currently building inter-organisational relationships in the events tourism domain. Hence it appeared that this incentive was relevant to cases at different stages of relationship formation.

The eighth and final incentive investigated was *the need to avoid stakeholder backlash* or complaint about events tourism decisions made by agencies (row 8 of Table 4.8). Although this incentive was important in many cases, it was of average importance in cases D and F. Across the cases, interviewees referred to either a lack of backlash or complaint about events tourism decisions or an inevitable backlash from some quarters that was of no significance. 'We almost don't have any backlash or complaint' (A3). 'There's always going to be some form of backlash…no matter what you do' (A5). 'People ring up and say we should be doing it/shouldn't be doing it and we have to just explain the reasons why we are involved, but these people…harangue anyone about anything. It's just a rotational thing' (D1). Hence while it was important to take steps to avert dissension, this incentive was not perceived to be a very important incentive for relationship formation. Many agreed that relationships are not formed for this reason, but the existence of relationships can help to avert conflicts. 'Assuming people get on board with things, then there's less political fallout from marginal groups' (C1).

In brief, all eight incentives were seen to be important reasons for building or enhancing inter-organisational relationships that are engaged in shaping directions for events tourism. Many of these incentives were also generated independently by interviewees. Those incentives identified by the researcher and also raised by interviewees were access to shared resources, overcoming potential conflicts, increased trust, knowledge sharing

and enhanced credibility for the events agencies. The additional incentive of 'more innovative event concepts' was also emphasised by interviewees.

4.3.4.2   Nine disincentives for inter-organisational relationships

In turn, nine disincentives for forming inter-organisational relationships to develop events tourism strategy were discussed with interviewees. These disincentives were initially drawn from the literature review of Section 2.3.11 and the convergent interview data analysis shown in Section 3.3. These disincentives were the ability for agencies to obtain resources without certain stakeholder input; inadequate time, resources and personnel; fast turnaround on decisions; a culture of secrecy; a lack of interest in forming relationships; a concern for economic outcomes that limits interest in some stakeholders; event promoters and political leaders who impede relationships and finally, history or traditional ways strategy has been managed. The importance of each disincentive within each case and for all cases is presented in Table 4.9. Just over half of the disincentives were seen to be important, while the remaining disincentives were of average importance as barriers to inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategy. Notably, none of these disincentives were seen to be very important.

The first disincentive analysed was that of *some stakeholders offering resources or input already available* to events agencies (row 1 of Table 4.9). Average and low levels of importance were attributed to this disincentive because the value of most stakeholders' input to the strategy process was recognised. Many interviewees dismissed this incentive and it was given a low level of importance in cases A, B and D. Yet mixed views existed on the possible duplication of resources or input that could occur. While some interviewees believed that duplication was a problem, others saw no problem in having more than one party that delivers certain resources. 'You do need to be able to bring something different to the table' (E1). 'If they've got the resource, they're not going to go out and duplicate it, so it's [a disincentive]' (A1). 'There's no harm in having more than one that delivers' (E1).Thus there was a belief that stakeholders do need to bring something different to the table, but overall, this was not an important disincentive to relationship formation.

Table 4.9 **Importance of disincentives for events agencies to use inter-organisational relationships to shape events tourism strategies**

Cases / Disincentive	A Importance	B Importance	C Importance	D Importance	E Importance	F Importance	All Importance
1. Some stakeholders offer resources/input that agencies can already obtain	Not very important (3.8) S	Not very important (3.5) N	Average (3.2) N	Not important (4.8) S	Average (3.1) N	Average (3.1) S	Average (3.3)
2. Inadequate time, resources or personnel	Important (2.2) N	Important (1.6) C	Important (2.0) S	Average (3.0) N	Important (1.7) S	Important (2.3) S	Important (1.9)
3. Immediacy of projects and decisions, need for fast turnaround	Important (2.2) S	Important (2.0) S	Important (1.8) S	Average (3.0) BP	Important (1.9) S	Important (2.3) S	Important (2.0)
4. A culture of secrecy due to commercial sensitivities	Important (2.3) N	Not very important (2.0) S	Important (2.2) N	Important (2.0) BP	Important (2.4) N	Average (3.0) N	Important (2.4)
5. Lack of interest or willingness to form relationships among agency managers	Average (3.5) N	Not very important (3.7) S	Average (3.3) N	Not very important (3.9) S	Average (2.7) N	Average (2.8) N	Average (3.2)

Notes: Numbers in the table refer to the mean score within cases and for all cases. Likert scale was 1 = Very important, 2 = Important, 3 = Average importance, 4 = Not very important, 5 = Not important at all. The letter beside this score indicates the distribution where N = normal, S = skewed, BP = bi-polar views, C = consensus

/**Continued**

Table 4.9 **(Continued)**

Cases / Disincentive	A Importance	B Importance	C Importance	D Importance	E Importance	F Importance	All Importance
6. Concern for economic outcomes limits interest in some stakeholders	Important (2.0) S	Important (2.4) S	Important (2.0) S	Important (2.4) N	Average (2.5) N	Average (3.1) BP	Important (2.4)
7. Event promoters /organisers who might impede relationships or networks	Average (2.8) N	Average (3.0) N	Average (2.6) N	Average (3.3) S	Important (2.4) S	Important (2.4) S	Average (2.6)
8. Political leaders who might impede some relationships or networks	Average (2.7) N	Average (2.6) N	Average (2.7) N	Not very important (4.0) C	Important (2.5) N	Average (2.9) N	Average (2.7)
9. History or traditional way strategy is managed (not relationship oriented)	Important (1.8) C	Not very important (3.9) S	Important (2.0) S	Not very important (3.5) S	Important (2.5) N	Important (2.1) S	Important (2.4)

Notes: Numbers in the table refer to the mean score within cases and for all cases. Likert scale was 1 = Very important, 2 = Important, 3 = Average importance, 4 = Not very important, 5 = Not important at all. The letter beside this score indicates the distribution where N = normal, S = skewed, BP = bi-polar views, C = consensus.

Source: analysis of field data

The second disincentive was the *inadequacy of time, resources and personnel* to form these inter-organisational relationships (row 2 of Table 4.9). This disincentive was independently raised as a barrier within all cases and was important because events agencies are under resourced. 'They're seriously under resourced' (A1). 'They've only got a handful [of people]' (F1). However, it was not given a high level of importance in any of the cases and was thought to be of average importance in case D because these constraints to relationship formation can be overcome with forward planning. '[You] make it happen. Everyone's under pressure, everyone's got resource problems, but if the things going to work, you make it happen' (D2). 'The only barrier is the amount of time that they set themselves to develop the strategy…so, if they're timeframe is unrealistic, then it's a disincentive' (D4).

Similar views were expressed about the next disincentive which was *the immediacy of projects and decisions* and the need for fast turnaround (row 3 in Table 4.9). Again, while this was an important disincentive in most cases (A, B, C, E and F), it was not seen to be insurmountable because the development of strategy was not an immediate decision and time could be managed. 'But that can be overcome' (A1). 'We manage our time' (F3). The average importance of this disincentive in case D reflected these sentiments. 'We just do things faster. That's not an issue' (D3). It's never stopped us to try and fast track things' (D5). Thus the second and third disincentives were seen to be important, but manageable barriers to engaging inter-organisational relationships in strategy making for events tourism.

A *culture of secrecy* created by commercial sensitivities was the fourth disincentive and it was also seen to be important (row 4 of Table 4.9). Across the cases, a level of secrecy within events agencies was seen to be necessary in major events acquisition and so, this disincentive affected inter-organisational relationships in that context. 'That can be important, particularly in the acquisition end of it' (D7). 'The more people you get involved, the more things are going to leak out' (B6). In the context of event development and tourism marketing of events, this disincentive was less important because these processes were not competitive. 'Generally, it's not a critical issue. Maybe at the major events level, but not at the next level down' (E3).

A difference was noted between commercial discretion about decisions and an overall culture of secrecy within organisations. 'It's a very open organisation generally, but it's actually the imperative of a particular exercise that requires you to have to be secretive' (C5). 'There's a big difference between being commercially discreet and secrecy. I'm a black hole, but it doesn't stop

me from talking to people' (E4). Hence, while this disincentive was important, the opportunity to gain stakeholder input by being open to external input was not incongruent with commercial discretion.

The fifth disincentive examined was a *lack of interest or willingness* to form relationships among agency managers (row 5 of Table 4.9). This disincentive was given no more than average importance in most cases (A, C, E and F) and was not very important in cases B and D. Overall, it was felt that most events agency personnel were not adverse to inter-organisational relationships and that other disincentives were more influential. 'I would have thought that all of these people are pretty collaborative' (C5). 'That's never an issue' (D3). 'It's just, I suppose, lack of time and effort' (E7).

A *concern for economic outcomes* that limits interest in some stakeholders was the next disincentive investigated (row 6 of Table 4.9). This was an important issue in most cases (A, B, C and D) because some stakeholders were not seen to contribute to the economic outcomes of events tourism initiatives. For example, the community, certain cultural constituents and some event organisers were seen to be less vital members of agency networks because they did not always have tourism purposes of events in mind. 'The only premise on which you'd allow them in would be on the basis that there's tourism values there' (A4). 'I mean, they [major event] are totally focused on making the event happen….so, it tends not to get involved in a strategic way' (C5). The traditional involvement of agencies with sports organisations more than cultural representatives was also tied to the dominant concern for economic outcomes. 'Unfortunately most of the events at the moment that seem to generate the greatest return are sporting events' (A5). Nevertheless, attempts to address this imbalance of interest in different stakeholders were evident in various cases (A, B and C).

In turn, the seventh and eighth disincentives were *event promoters/organisers* and *political leaders* who might impede some relationships or networks (rows 7 and 8 in Table 4.9). Barriers created by these parties that affect inter-organisational relationships were of average importance in most cases. Event promoters/organisers could impede agency relationships because they compete for resources both within and between states. Thus some difficulties were anticipated if agencies attempted to include competing events managers and organisers in strategy processes. Because of the tendering processes of government and the need to be fair to all parties, the engagement of some events representatives and not others in relationships was problematic. 'One of the things you'd

have to be careful of there is this whole tendering process…government being fair to all. If we have a couple of events managers, then we have to have all events managers' (A4). For this reason, the contribution of event promoters/organisers to strategy processes was contained to some degree by the events agencies.

Because political leaders were engaged in events tourism directions, they also impeded relationships in the events tourism domain on occasion. 'Well, they'll always intervene in this area and sometimes we do get directed to do things that defy our professional judgement' (F3). 'That's [intervention by political leaders] certainly a consideration' (E4). 'It's probably a fact, but it shouldn't be important' (D2). The reason for the average importance of this disincentive was that intervention was irregular and, in most cases, political leaders had little involvement in events tourism directions.

Finally, *history or a traditional lack of relational orientation* in the way strategy had been managed was the ninth disincentive examined (row 9 in Table 4.9). This was an important disincentive across all cases except cases B and D. In case B, a history of a lack of resources for strategy making was cited as the primary barrier to these relationships, more than the traditional way strategy had been determined. 'I think resource constraints are really driving that. I think they're open to discussions' (B1). In contrast, case D showed a tight cluster of longstanding inter-organisational relationships that contribute to strategy, so this barrier was not as relevant in this case. The reason for the importance of history or tradition as a disincentive for relationships in most other cases was some passivity and resistance to change. 'In other words, this is the way it's been done…yes' (F5). 'I think we all suffer from that' (F7). 'There's always history…It's been a closed shop' (A2).

In brief, half of the disincentives were thought to be important across the cases. Those that were important were time, resources and personnel, the immediacy of projects and decisions, a culture of secrecy, a concern for economic outcomes that limits interest in some stakeholders and finally, history or traditional ways strategy had been managed. Several of these issues were also among those initially identified by interviewees. In particular, time and resource constraints, confidentiality, loss of control and some reluctance to manage more transparent processes of strategy making emerged from these discussions of disincentives.

Summary of findings about research issue 4

In summary, a range of incentives and disincentives for inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategy making were identified by interviewees. A number of these were also considered for their importance. Eight incentives for engaging inter-organisational relationships in these strategies were important. These included resource interdependence and shared risk, growing pre-existing relationships, gaining complementary expertise, markets, operations, territories and timeframes; increasing professional expertise, legitimising the agency's role and conforming to policy; building trust with partners and avoiding stakeholder complaints. The importance of some incentives such as shared resources, building trust and enhancing the agency's image was further supported because interviewees raised them independently. The advantage of identifying 'more innovative event concepts' added to the above incentives.

Among the nine disincentives for agencies to draw on inter-organisational relationships for strategy making, only five were important. These were the inadequacy of time, resources and personnel; the immediacy of decisions; a culture of secrecy; a concern for economic outcomes that limits interest in some stakeholders and a history of strategy making that was not relationship oriented. However, most disincentives were seen to be important, but not insurmountable. Other disincentives such as stakeholders offering resources that could already be obtained, a lack of willingness to form relationships and impediments created by events promoters and political leaders were of average importance among interviewees. Overall, it was apparent that the incentives were seen to be more important than the disincentives in forming inter-organisational relationships to shape events tourism strategies.

4.4   Summary of findings about the four research issues

The preceding cross-case analysis has presented findings about each research issue. This summary of those findings completes the analysis of data in this chapter. In the next chapter, propositions that accompany each research issue are discussed along with their contributions and implications. This section's discussion is summarised in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10   **Summary of findings for each research issue discussed in Chapter 4**

Research issue	Major findings about each research issue	Section in chapter
Research issue 1	Tourism was among multiple purposes of events investment. Links existed between these events investment purposes and public policy frameworks. Four public policy frameworks existed for events tourism. Multiple purposes of events were linked with either an events policy and/or a tourism policy that featured events. Links existed between event investment purposes, policies and organisational arrangements for events tourism. Separate events and tourism bodies, merged and mixed arrangements were identified.	4.3.1.1 Government purposes for events and public sector policies
	Events and/or tourism agencies had roles in event acquisition, development, management and tourism marketing. Organisational arrangements, political priorities and the events tourism lifecycle affected these roles.	4.3.1.2 Events agency roles and organisational arrangements
	Seven public sector influences were important. Budgetary issues and an emphasis on economic criteria in agency activities were most important Governments' risk profiles, regionalisation and the need for public venue utilisation were new influences identified.	4.3.1.3 Public sector influences on events tourism
	The growth phase in the events tourism lifecycle was common. Reviews of policies, organisational arrangements, agency roles and public sector issues have impact upon the events tourism lifecycle.	4.3.1.4 The events tourism lifecycle phase
Research issue 2	Reactive/proactive strategies for events tourism followed by formal, strategic planning were the most common strategy forms.	4.3.2.1 Forms of events tourism strategy
	No one events tourism strategy existed at state level in any case. Strategies were an amalgam of generic plans of tourism bodies and ongoing decision-making by events agencies. Some strategic activities occurred at state, regional, city and major event levels. There were no pan-regional strategies and limited integration of these different strategy levels.	4.3.2.2 Events tourism strategies at state, city and major events, and regional levels

/Continued

Table 4.10 **(Continued)**

Research issue	Major findings about each research issue	Section in this chapter
Research issue 2 (continued)	A number of strategic activities in the events tourism strategy making process were undertaken: assessing tourism volume and yield; thematic, seasonal and geographic events planning; event acquisition; packaging of events as tourist attractions and impact evaluation.	4.3.2.3 Events tourism strategy processes
	Inter-organisational relationships were important because of dual and tripartite agency arrangements for events tourism. Strategy processes have implications for these relationships.	4.3.2.4 Inter-organisational relationships and events tourism strategies
Research issue 3	A corporate government orientation to stakeholder relationships dominated strategy making for events tourism. A community orientation to these relationships existed within the regions.	4.3.3.1 Stakeholder orientations in strategic decisions for events tourism
	Soft, informal networks of relationships influenced events tourism strategies. Intra-governmental relationships were dominant in networks. Pre-existing relationships between members were important.	4.3.3.2 Forms of inter-organisational relationships
	Network members with most strategic input were government agencies followed by event and venue management and corporate leaders. Competitive inter-state events agencies had minimal influence.	4.3.3.3 Characteristics of inter-organisational relationships
	Networks were characterised by informality, stability within a core cluster of members, leadership by public sector agencies and communication on an 'as-needed' basis.	
	The climate of inter-organisational relationships was one of cooperation and some formal coordination. Collaboration and competition were less common. Trust and power among members were important influences.	
Research issue 4	Important incentives for inter-organisational relationships were: shared resources and risk, building relationships and trust, complementary input, innovation, role legitimacy, policy conformity and complaint avoidance.	4.3.4.1 Eight incentives for inter-organisational relationships
	Important disincentives for these inter-organisational relationships were: limited time, resources and personnel; immediacy of decisions; secrecy; economic issues, loss of control and history or tradition.	4.3.4.2 Nine disincentives for inter-organisational relationships

Research issue 1: How does the public sector institutional *environment* impact upon events tourism strategies and the inter-organisational relationships that shape them, and why?

A close linkage existed between government purposes for events investment, public sector policies and organisational arrangements for events tourism, the roles played by different agencies and events tourism strategies. Tourism was among multiple purposes of events investment. Links existed between these purposes and the chosen policy framework. Four policy frameworks were identified. Where multiple purposes of events were emphasised, an events policy or a tourism policy that featured events existed, while cases that mainly emphasised the tourism purposes of events had only a tourism policy or strategy that featured events.

Organisational arrangements that featured separate events and tourism agencies as well as merged and mixed arrangements were identified. Multiple purposes of events were linked with separate organisational arrangements. In contrast, where tourism purposes of events had precedence, events and tourism agencies had merged and events tourism strategies relied on intra-agency relationships. Mixed organisational arrangements in some cases emphasised all event purposes, but provided more than one, inter-related agency to shape events tourism strategies. Different agencies had roles in events acquisition, development, management and tourism marketing, and so, inter-agency links or relationships affected events tourism strategies. The organisational arrangements, political priorities and the events tourism lifecycle had some impact on these roles.

Seven public sector influences of a political and economic nature were pertinent to events tourism strategy making. Among these influences, budgetary issues and economic criteria in assessing agency performance were most important. New influences identified by interviewees were governments' risk profiles, regionalisation and the need to utilise public venues. The lifecycle of events tourism and its strategies were also affected by these public sector influences. Most cases were perceived to be in a growth phase, but policy reviews, changes in organisational arrangements and the emphasis on different events tourism roles had an impact on the events tourism lifecycle.

Research issue 2: How do events tourism *strategy forms and processes* reflect and influence events agencies' inter-organisational relationships, and why?

A mix of formal strategic planning and reactive/proactive strategies were dominant and no one document incorporated all levels of strategy in any of the cases. Strategic activities were evident at state, regional, city and major event levels, but there was limited integration of these strategy levels. Funding programs, rather than strategies, were evident in the regions and there were no pan-regional strategies for events tourism or any notable link between city and regional events tourism development.

Despite this lack of integrated events tourism strategies, a number of steps in the strategy process were currently implemented in each case. Such activities were pre-event assessments of tourism volume and yield, thematic, seasonal and geographic planning of events, major events acquisition based on tourism potential, the packaging of events as tourist attractions and post-event evaluation of tourism impacts. Because dual and tripartite organisational arrangements were established to conduct these strategic activities, inter-organisational relationships between these agencies and their stakeholders were needed to further develop and integrate events tourism strategies. The nature of current strategy processes also had an impact on the profile of inter-organisational relationships.

Research issue 3: What are the *forms and characteristics* of events agencies' inter-organisational relationships for shaping events tourism strategies, and why?

A corporate government orientation dominated most inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategies, except in the regions where a community orientation was evident. Some variations in the agencies' stakeholder orientation were observed across strategies for events acquisition, development, management and tourism marketing. Soft, informal networks dominated by government agencies served to influence, rather than develop events tourism strategies because there were no purpose-built networks for strategy making. Relationships with inter-state events agencies were of limited strategic benefit because of intense competition for major events.

Leadership for events tourism strategies was mostly derived from public sector executives, but a perceived lack of independent leaders and champions for events tourism existed in some states/territories. A stable cluster of relationships existed in most networks, with some fluctuation in network membership based on event opportunities. Pre-existing relationships between organisations led to a tighter cluster within some networks, while others exhibited loose sets of relationships. Communication between network members was unstructured and needs-driven, albeit regular within a cluster of the agencies' core relationships. Overall, the climate of these relationships was cooperative, but some coordination or formal relationship mechanisms as well as competitive relationships were found. Issues of trust and power influenced the climate of these inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategy.

Research issue 4: What are the *incentives and disincentives* for events agencies to engage in inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategy making, and why?

Eight incentives and nine disincentives for engaging in inter-organisational relationships to shape events tourism strategies were examined and some additional ones were identified. Among the important incentives were: resource interdependence and shared risk, enhancing pre-existing relationships; gaining complementary expertise, markets, operations, territories and timeframes; increased professional expertise; legitimising agencies' roles and conforming to policy; building trust with stakeholders and avoiding complaints. 'More innovative event concepts' was a further incentive.

Disincentives for having these relationships to shape strategy were related to time and resource constraints, confidentiality and secrecy surrounding major event decisions; a perceived loss of power, concerns for economic outcomes that limit interest in some stakeholders and a history of strategy making that was not relationship oriented. A perceived ability to overcome most of these barriers meant that the incentives to form inter-organisational relationships were given more importance across the cases.

4.5 Conclusion

This chapter provided a brief within-case analysis and a more detailed cross-case analysis of data relative to the research issues identified in Chapter 2. Themes and patterns within each of these issues were discussed together with linkages between them. The discussion of the conclusions and implications of these findings about each research issue and a number of research propositions is reserved for the next chapter where a comparative examination of the literature and these results is presented.

5   Conclusions and implications

This final chapter presents conclusions about the research issues and the research problem: *How and why do inter-organisational relationships of public sector events agencies impact upon events tourism strategy making within Australian states and territories?*

Chapter 1 introduced this research problem, while Chapter 2 presented the literature on the problem and identified four related research issues. Chapter 3 then explained the two methodology phases of convergent interviews and multiple case research that were used to collect data about the issues. Next, Chapter 4 provided the analysis of data about inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategies in each of six Australian states/territories.

In turn, Section 5.1 in this chapter discusses conclusions about the research issues. Responses to a series of research propositions are then provided in Section 5.2. Conclusions about the overall research problem and a new conceptual model are outlined in Section 5.3. Next, the implications of findings for parent theories and practicing managers of public sector events agencies are explored in Section 5.4 to 5.6. Finally, Section 5.7 and 5.8 show limitations of this research and explore future research opportunities. Figure 5.1 shows these chapter sections and their linkages.

Figure 5.1 **Outline of Chapter 5 with section numbers noted**
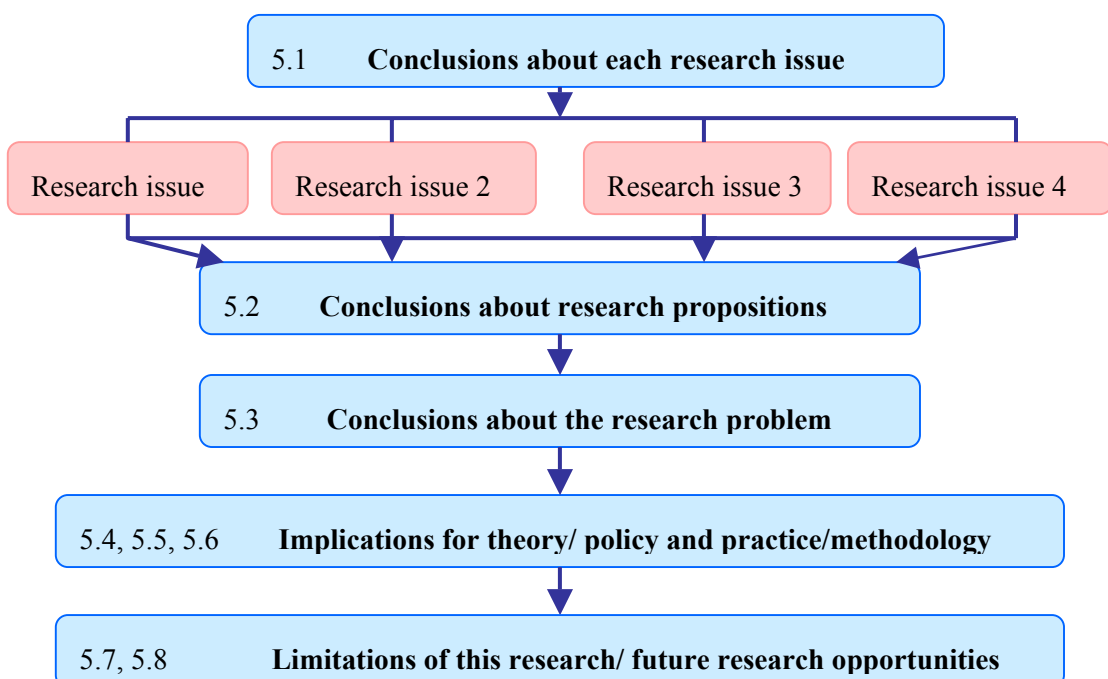
5.1   Conclusions about the four research issues

The findings presented in Chapter 4 are now examined and compared with the literature reviewed in Chapter 2, to identify the contributions they make to the literature. This discussion also refers to results of the convergent interviews in Section 3.3 because contributions to the literature are made by both the convergent interview and case methodologies of this research. Conclusions and contributions for each of the four research issues are summarised in Table 5.1 and discussed in subsequent sections.

Table 5.1 **Summary of conclusions and their contributions for each research issue**

Issue	Conclusions about each research issue in this chapter	Contribution
RI 1	**Impact of public sector environment on events tourism strategies**	**High overall**
	1.1 Links exist between investment purposes of events and four policy frameworks for events tourism (ET). The separate but inter-related nature of policy and strategy is apparent within ET.	High for ET and medium for T
	1.2 Separate, merged and mixed organisational arrangements exist for ET. Links exist between policy frameworks and these arrangements.	High for ET
	1.3 Four agency roles for events tourism are event acquisition, development, management and marketing. Organisational arrangements, lifecycle issues and political priorities impact upon these agency roles.	Medium and high for ET
	1.4 Seven public sector influences affect ET and the relationships that shape it.	High for ET
	1.5 There are links between the events tourism lifecycle, policy frameworks, organisational arrangements, public sector influences, agency roles and ET strategies. PLC is difficult to apply in events tourism. Growth phase of ET is impacted by reviews of policies, roles and organisational arrangements.	High for ET and low for T
RI.2	**Strategy forms and processes for events tourism**	**High overall**
	2.1 Reactive/proactive strategies followed by formal strategies are dominant. Incremental strategies and political strategy are evident.	High for ET and medium for T
	2.2 Strategic processes occur to some degree at major event, city, regional and state levels. There is no evidence that Getz's (1997) multi-level portfolio model is applied or that strategy is integrated at different levels. Limited application of existing ET strategy models.	High for ET

Notes: ET = events tourism, T = tourism, R & N = relationships and networks, S = strategy, IOR = inter-organisational relationships, PLC = product lifecycle. The final column notes contributions on the issue.

(Continued)

Table 5.1 (Continued)

Issue	Conclusions about each research issue in this chapter	Contribution
RI.2 (cont…)	**2.3** A number of strategic activities occur to shape ET, but one overall strategy does not embrace reactive/proactive and formal strategies. Agencies are aware of more activities than those that they include in their current strategy processes. Limited application of ET models is apparent.	High for ET.
	2.4 Strategy forms, levels and activities affect inter-organisational relationships for ET. These relationships are also impacted by the input of multiple agencies to ET strategies.	High for ET, medium for R&N and medium for S.
RI.3	**Form and characteristics of IOR for ET strategy making**	**High overall**
	3.1 A corporate government orientation exists in relationships and events agencies assume leadership. A community orientation is dominant in regions and exists to some degree for major events. A corporate, market-led model for strategy making overshadows both the community, destination-led and synergistic models.	High for ET, high for T and medium for S
	3.2 Soft, unstructured networks influence events tourism strategies. No formal alliances exist for strategy formulation. Social, professional and some structural bonds exist. Some exclusivity of membership is based on pre-existing relationships.	High for ET and medium for R & N
	3.3 Government members provide high levels of strategic input, followed by venues/events and then corporate leaders. Some ambiguity exists about membership. Inter-state events organisations have no strategic influence, but there is some inter-agency cooperation.	High for ET and low for R & N
	3.4 Relationships are informal with some permanency of membership in a stable network core. One primary cluster exists in most cases and some secondary clusters. Leadership by agency executives and informal communication is evident. A climate of cooperation is dominant, with some coordination.	High for ET and medium for R & N
RI. 4	**Incentives and disincentives for IOR for ET strategies**	**High overall**
	4.1 Eight different incentives for these relationships are seen to be important.	High for ET and medium for R & N
	4.2 Among nine disincentives considered, just over half of them are important. There is an expressed ability to overcome most disincentives.	High for ET and medium for R & N

Notes: ET = events tourism, T = tourism, R & N = relationships and networks, S = strategy, IOR = inter-organisational relationships, PLC = product lifecycle. The final column notes contributions on the issue.

5.1.1 Conclusions about research issue 1: the public sector institutional environment for events tourism strategy making

To explore the public sector institutional environment for events tourism (research issue 1), this research addressed: purposes of public sector events investment and policies; organisational arrangements; events agency roles; public sector influences and the lifecycle phase of events tourism. Conclusions about each of these five themes are now discussed to identify their contribution to the literature. These contributions were summarised in the first block of Table 5.1.

Conclusion 1.1: Event investment purposes and public sector policies. Firstly, events tourism literature (Getz 1991b, 1997a) refers to the multiple purposes and related impacts of events investment and the need for public sector policies to support events tourism strategies. While empirical studies have examined economic, socio-cultural and tourism impacts of events (for example, Faulkner 1993; Fredline & Faulkner 2000; Getz 1991a, 1991b, 1997a; Hall 1992; Mules 1998; Ritchie 1984 in Section 1.1), links between a government's purposes for events investment and public sector policies have not been explored. Also, no investigations of alternative policy arrangements for events tourism are evident in the literature.

In turn, this research confirms the multiple purposes of events investment (Section 4.3.1.1) that have been implied in previous research of event impacts. Other authors have identified impacts of event investment in relation to tourism (for example, Carlsen & Williams 1999; Getz 1991b, 1997a); economic development (for example, Mules 1998) and social, cultural and sports growth (for example, Bull & Weed 1997; Fredline & Faulkner 2000; Getz 1997b; Hall 1992). However, conclusions from this research also extend the literature by showing links between the purposes of events investment and four different policy frameworks for events tourism (shown in Section 4.3.1.1).

This research also explored links between events tourism strategies and policy frameworks. The need for an events tourism policy framework to precede strategy implementation was identified in the events tourism literature (Getz 1997a; Gnoth & Anwar 2000 in Section 2.2.6). Yet conclusions about the policy-strategy linkage for events tourism in this research highlight the inter-related, but separate nature of policy and strategy reflected in prior theory (for example, Wahab & Pigram 1997). In this research, tourism and/or events policies precede or accompany events tourism strategies

in some cases, while a policy framework follows strategy formulation in others. Hence this research builds upon current understandings of the policy-strategy linkage in tourism generally and, it creates new knowledge of the policy-strategy relationship for events tourism specifically.

Conclusion 1.2: Organisational arrangements for events tourism. The second conclusion about research issue 1 that separate, merged and mixed organisational arrangements exist for events tourism (Section 4.3.1.2) confirms and builds upon the literature. The separate and merged organisational arrangements between events and tourism agencies found in this research (Section 4.3.1.2) are noted in the extant literature (Jago & McArdle 1999 in Section 2.1.2). This research provides a deeper insight to these two arrangements and identifies a third category of mixed organisational arrangements for events tourism in two Australian states (Section 4.3.1.2). These mixed arrangements have events and tourism agencies that fulfil events tourism roles and sometimes have a third agency such as a city tourism authority that assumes an events tourism role. In this research, links between governments' purposes for events investment and their policies as well as organisational arrangements for events tourism (Sections 4.3.1.1 and 4.3.1.2) contribute to the literature.

Conclusion 1.3: Events agency roles in events tourism. A third conclusion about research issue 1 concerns events agencies' roles in events tourism. Some reference has been made in the literature to the roles of events agencies in shaping events tourism (for example, Department of State Development 2001; Eventscorp 2001; Getz 1997a; Mules 1998; Queensland Events 2001). However, no empirical studies of these roles were identified. This research confirms that four traditional roles of agencies contribute to events tourism: events acquisition, events development, events management and tourism-related, events marketing. For the first time, it also identifies that the performance of these roles is influenced by organisational arrangements for events tourism, political priorities and the lifecycle phase of events tourism (Sections 4.3.1.2 to 4.3.1.4).

In particular, this research builds upon the literature by showing that the relative emphasis on different events tourism roles is affected by the presence of separate, merged or mixed organisational arrangements for events tourism. That the lifecycle phase of the different events tourism roles affects the events agencies' involvement in these roles is another contribution to the literature. In contrast, the effect of political priorities of governments

on events tourism found in this research (Section 4.3.1.3) had been highlighted in prior theory (Hall 1989b, 1992; 1993 in Section 1.1). Here, this research adds to the body of knowledge by linking the political priorities of governments with the events agencies' emphases on particular events tourism roles over others (Sections 4.3.1.2 and 4.3.1.3).

Conclusion 1.4: Public sector influences on events tourism. Another conclusion about research issue 1 involved public sector influences on events tourism directions or strategies (Section 4.3.1.3). Seven public sector influences were identified for investigation from the convergent interview phase of this research (Table 3.2 in Section 3.3). Confirmation of the importance of these seven influences and five others identified independently by interviewees in the case research add to the literature. Influences identified in the convergent interviews were the Premier's priorities, the dominance of economic criteria in agency performance measures, the perceived need for events as tourist attractions, the public accountability of events agencies' activities, budgetary issues, competing public policy agendas and ministerial priorities.

Among these influences on events tourism, only the two influences of 'priorities of the Premier' and the 'dominance of economic criteria in agencies' performance criteria' are indirectly mentioned in the literature (Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell, & Harris 2002; Hall 1989b, 1992; Mules 1998 in Section 1.1). This research confirms the relevance of all of the above issues (Section 4.3.1.3) as well as the five additional influences of government changes, the risk profiles of governments, regionalisation, the need to utilise public venues and also, public opinion. Overall, conclusions about public sector influences on events tourism make a major contribution to the extant literature, because most influences had not previously been investigated.

Conclusion 1.5: The events tourism lifecycle phase. The final conclusion about research issue 1 concerns the lifecycle phase of events tourism. In the literature, the complexities of applying the traditional lifecycle concept to tourism are noted (Prosser 1995). The lifecycle of tourism destinations is also discussed for its relationship to strategy making for tourism overall (Cooper 1997) and observations are made about the continued expansion of events as tourist attractions (Getz 1991b, 1997a; Jago & Shaw 1994; Janiskee 1996; Lyon 2000 in Section 1.1). Yet no previous studies focus on the lifecycle concept in events tourism.

In this research, the complexities of applying the lifecycle concept to events tourism are also evident. For example, respondents experienced some difficulty in relating a traditional lifecycle model to events tourism in their state/territory. Moreover, comments within the literature about the continued growth of events (for example, Jago & Shaw 1998) were supported by conclusions about the dominance of the growth phase for events tourism among these Australian cases. However, this research provides new knowledge about relationships between lifecycle phases, policies and organisational arrangements for events tourism and the impact of the events tourism lifecycle on agency roles and strategies (Section 4.3.1.4). Also, a linkage between current reviews of policy frameworks, organisational arrangements, events agencies' roles and the growth of events tourism sheds new light on this concept in the Australian context (Section 4.3.1.4).

Such state government reviews are prompted by a perceived need to stimulate new events tourism growth in those states involved. A call for a different emphasis on particular events tourism roles such as event acquisition or development is also tied to the pace of growth. Because there were no previous studies of events tourism lifecycles within destinations, these conclusions represent a major contribution to the literature.

Summary of conclusions on research issue 1. In summary, the public sector institutional framework influences events tourism strategies and the inter-organisational relationships that contribute to them. Advances on previous research and new contributions to the literature are made on all themes explored within research issue 1. Overall, the findings on this issue make a major contribution to literature because virtually no empirical investigations of these themes exist.

5.1.2   Conclusions about research issue 2: Strategy forms and processes for events tourism

In addressing research issue 2, different strategy forms and processes were examined. The nature of strategy at major event, city, regional and state levels and the importance of a range of strategic activities within events agencies' current strategy processes were investigated within this issue. More than one strategy form describes events tourism strategy processes that occur at state, regional, city and major event levels. A number of strategic activities for shaping events tourism directions were identified, but only some of these were regarded as important inclusions in current strategy making for events tourism. These conclusions were summarised in the second block of Table 5.1.

Conclusion 2.1: Forms of events tourism strategies. The first conclusion about research issue 2 concerned the forms of strategy most commonly adopted for events tourism (Section 4.3.2.1). Most events tourism literature has assumed prescriptive or rational schools of strategy (Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell, & Harris 2002; Getz 1991b, 1997a; Gnoth & Anwar 2000; Hall 1992). In contrast, this research found descriptive or behavioural schools of strategy (Mintzberg 1994b) to better describe strategy making for events tourism. Among the eight forms of strategy identified by Mintzberg (1994b), a descriptive form of strategy, that is, a reactive/proactive strategy that varies according to events that arise, is most evident in this research. The behavioural form of strategy of strategic planning identified by Mintzberg (1994b) and also cited by events authors (for example, Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell, & Harris 2002; Getz 1991b, 1997a) was only featured when state tourism plans existed with an events tourism focus.

Notably, some tourism literature has discussed descriptive forms of strategy. For example, the need for flexibility and experimentalism in strategy making was advocated by Tremblay (2000b) and incremental strategies based on collaborative processes have also been highlighted (for example, Jamal & Getz 1995a). This tourism literature responded to perceived inadequacies of formal planning as a sole process for strategy making in tourism (Faulkner 2003; Faulkner & Russell 1997; McKercher 1999). Thus conclusions of this research reinforce these observations about the role of descriptive or flexible strategy forms alongside those prescriptive strategy models proposed by events tourism authors. Another kind of descriptive strategy within the literature (Mintzberg 1994b) was one where politics determined strategy, and this form of strategy was also evident to some degree in this events tourism research. Overall, conclusions about the strategy forms adopted for events tourism serve to advance tourism research and make a major contribution to events tourism literature.

Conclusion 2.2: State, regional, city and major event levels of strategy. The second conclusion about research issue 2 concerned strategic processes for events tourism that occur to some degree at state, regional and finally, city and major event levels (Section 4.3.2.2). Some strategic directions for all of these levels within Getz's (1997a) model for building a destination's event portfolio (Section 2.2.6) were found in this research. However, strategic activities within each level were limited and an integration of strategies across all levels was not apparent. Thus there was no empirical evidence in this

research that Getz's (1997a) multi-level approach to event portfolio development was being applied. This finding may be attributed to the emergent nature of events tourism strategy making at all levels in Australia (Section 4.3.2.2).

Rather than applying the conceptual events tourism models (Getz 1991b, 1997a; Gnoth & Anwar 2000 in Section 2.2.6) to create purpose-built events tourism strategies, this research concludes that public sector agencies have events strategies that drive tourism and other outcomes of events in the absence of purpose-built events tourism strategies. Elements of the conceptual models were applied to some degree within state tourism plans, but were not evident at other strategy levels. This conclusion further highlights how the 'top-down' planning of state tourism plans fails to account for the reactive/proactive strategies highlighted under conclusion 2.1.

In effect, the dominance of reactive/proactive strategies affects both the development and integration of events tourism strategies at all levels. The degree of integration of strategies at different levels is also complicated because more than one agency has strategies that contribute to events tourism at each level. In this vein, organisational arrangements for events tourism and inter-organisational relationships (discussed further in conclusion 2.4) assist in understanding how events tourism strategies are developed at different levels.

In providing these insights about events tourism strategy development at different levels, this research makes a major contribution to the literature. Findings of this research partly confirm the relevance of existing models for events tourism strategy making at state level, but these conceptual models are not applied at other strategy levels. It is apparent that an amalgam of formal and emergent strategy processes exist. Therefore, the view within the literature that Australia is advanced in creating events tourism strategies and policies (Getz 1997a in Section 2.2.6) should not create assumptions about the application of prescriptive strategy models of existing authors.

Conclusion 2.3: Strategic activities undertaken for events tourism. A third conclusion about research issue 2 relates to the number of strategic activities that occur to shape events tourism. Various strategic activities for events tourism have been cited in literature as steps within conceptual strategy models for events tourism (Getz 1991b, 1997a; Gnoth & Anwar 2000; Hall 1992; Jago & Shaw 1995). In this empirical research, events and tourism agency executives support the relevance of most of those activities in shaping

events tourism strategies. Yet only some strategic activities are important inclusions in current strategy making for events tourism as shown in Table 5.2.

Among the eleven strategic activities considered in this research, six activities are most important. These activities are calculation of tourism volume and yield (rows 2 and 3 in Table 5.2); thematic, seasonal and place related planning (row 7); acquiring events based on tourism potential (row 8); packaging events as tourist attractions (row 10), and, evaluating their tourism impacts (row 11). While each of these activities is cited in the literature, a new contribution of this research is their high level of importance in agencies' strategy processes.

In turn, five strategic activities of medium importance are described as having limited or no support by interviewees in the final column of Table 5.2. These activities are event selection based on state attributes; destination brand analysis relative to events; tourism industry consultation on events selected; events tourism portfolio analysis and, developing existing events as tourism products. The limited importance of these activities provides new knowledge about events tourism strategy processes. In particular, these empirical findings dilute the practical relevance of portfolio analysis in events tourism and question the logic of selecting events only on the basis of their synergies with the destination brand or a state's unique attributes. Reasons for these results are that the competitive nature of events precludes the ability for states/territories to select events that match particular tourism demand profiles. In effect, some profitable events have no obvious fit with destination attributes.

Because most of these eleven strategic activities are contained in seminal events tourism models (Getz 1997a; Gnoth & Anwar 2000 in Section 2.2.6), this research within Australian states/territories demonstrates that these models are not fully applied. Indeed, a comparison of the range of strategic activities identified by interviewees with those currently included in strategy making (Section 4.3.2.3) further suggests the limited application of these models.

Overall, these findings make a major contribution in three areas that have not previously been explored: the events agencies' awareness of strategic activities for events tourism; the perceived importance of these activities in current strategy making; and, an expressed desire by agencies to place more importance on some of these activities in strategy

making in the future. A further understanding of the relevance of existing theories is a contribution to events tourism knowledge.

Table 5.2 **Strategic activities within events tourism strategy making and the level of support for them within the literature and case research data**

Strategic activity for events tourism	In the literature	Importance in the case research data of Section 4.3.2.3
1. Tourist volume calculation	Yes	Yes
2. Tourist yield calculation	Yes	Yes
3. Thematic, seasonal, place related events planning	Yes	Yes
4. Acquiring events based on tourism potential	Yes	Yes
5. Packaging events as tourist attractions	Yes	Yes
6. Evaluating tourism impacts of events	Yes	Yes
7. Event selection based on state attributes	Yes	Limited or disconfirmed by some interviewees
8. Destination brand analysis before selecting or developing events	Yes	Limited
9. Tourism industry consultation before events are selected	Yes	Limited
10. Portfolio analysis: matching events with priority tourist markets	Yes	Limited or disconfirmed by some interviewees
11. Event development on tourism potential	Yes	Limited

Note: The most important activities are shaded (Rows 1 to 6) in this table. Activities in the table are copied from Table 4.5 with the sequence adjusted to show the block of activities (shaded) of most importance in these conclusions. As indicated previously, these strategic activities were identified by Getz (1991,1997) and were also confirmed for their importance in the convergent interview data in Section 3.3.

Source: developed for this research

Conclusion 2.4: Inter-organisational relationships and events tourism strategies. The final conclusion about research issue 2 relates to how the forms and levels of events tourism strategies and strategic activities affect the inter-organisational relationships of events agencies (Section 4.3.2.4). There is an acknowledged need for stakeholder input to

events tourism strategies within the literature (Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell, & Harris 2002; Getz 1991b, 1997a). However, no empirical studies of inter-organisational relationships in events tourism have been conducted.

In this empirical research, both structured and unstructured avenues for organisations to participate in strategy accompany the reactive/proactive and formal strategies (Section 4.3.3.2). The extended timeframe for developing formal tourism strategies in which events are featured means that more diverse organisations contribute to those strategies. However, the reactive/proactive strategies in this research imply a faster timeframe in which limited sets of relationships contribute to strategies.

The role of inter-organisational relationships in shaping events tourism strategies also shows some variation at state, regional, city and major event levels. For example, diverse, local involvement in shaping events tourism is more apparent at regional levels rather than state, city or major event levels. The need to focus on these relationships is heightened by the contribution of more than one agency's strategies to events tourism. The above conclusions about variations in the contribution of inter-organisational relationships to events tourism strategies represent a major contribution of this research to the extant literature.

Summary of conclusions about research issue 2. In summary, conclusions drawn about the dominant strategy forms in events tourism, the status of strategies at state, regional, city and major event levels within each state and, the relative importance of strategic activities are contributions to the events tourism literature. No empirical studies of these themes are evident in the literature and a limited application of existing conceptual models for events tourism is evident.

5.1.3 Conclusions about research issue 3: Forms and characteristics of inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategy making

For research issue 3, conclusions were drawn about the form and characteristics of events agencies' inter-organisational relationships that contributed to their strategies for events tourism among the Australian cases. Specific conclusions were made about the agencies' stakeholder orientation for strategy making, the importance of inter-organisational networks versus one-on-one relationships and a range of relationship characteristics. Each

conclusion (summarised within the third block of Table 5.1) is now outlined and compared with the literature.

Conclusion 3.1: Stakeholder orientation for events tourism strategy making. The first conclusion about research issue 3 concerns the stakeholder orientation adopted by events agencies in events tourism strategy processes. A continuum of community, destination-led and corporate, market-led orientations in strategy making is identified in tourism literature (Flagestad & Hope 2001), but there is no reference to these concepts for events tourism. That is, stakeholder orientations in agencies' strategy making for events tourism and reasons for these orientations have not been explored. As a result, tourism theories (Flagestad & Hope 2001; Hall 2000; Weaver 2000) were adapted for this research to investigate three possible models for strategy making that imply different types and levels of stakeholder involvement.

A continuum of stakeholder orientations developed for this research included community, destination-led, corporate (or government), market-led and synergistic models for events tourism strategy making (Table 2.1 in Section 2.2.6). In turn, the community and corporate models imply leadership by community constituents and corporate and/or government agencies. The synergistic model between these two extremes allows for public sector leadership, but stakeholder input is also possible throughout the strategy process. Indeed, a shift towards more collaborative decision making for tourism overall has already been noted (for example, Bramwell & Lane 2000b). Because these stakeholder orientations for strategy making represent adaptations from prior theory, no indication of their relative importance in real world strategy making for events tourism is evident within the literature.

In this research, the *corporate, market-led* model (based on Flagestad & Hope 2001; Weaver 2000) is most evident, with limited application of either the community, destination-led or synergistic models. The *synergistic* model (developed for this research in Table 2.1) was not supported in this research because it requires that both markets and a destination's resources are considered in devising strategies and, that multiple criteria including economic, social, cultural and environmental factors are assessed by diverse stakeholders. The strength of economic criteria in agencies' decision-making and the dominance of event acquisition strategies, rather than a balance of event development and acquisition, further discount the synergistic model.

A *community, destination-led* model (based on Flagestad & Hope 2001; Weaver 2000) was only evident at state level in one of the cases where much of the impetus for events tourism comes from grassroots events, rather than government agencies (Section 4.3.3.1). Although there is a strong community orientation in events tourism at regional level, the high level of collaboration and assessment of multiple event impacts that typify this community-led model (Table 2.1 in Section 2.2.6) is not apparent. Reasons for a limited community engagement in strategy are the perceived irrelevance of the concept of 'community' in metropolitan contexts, the diverse opinions of stakeholders and low levels of community understanding of strategy processes and event benefits. Limited public comprehension of planning issues is also noted as a barrier to community participation in tourism planning literature (Hall 1998b; Jenkins 1993). Primary conclusions about the stakeholder orientation of agency relationships are shown in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3 **Conclusions about the stakeholder orientation of agency relationships with an indication of their presence in the literature**

Conclusion about stakeholder orientation in this research	In the literature
1. A corporate-government orientation in stakeholder relationships was dominant in strategy making.	Identified in tourism literature, but not for events tourism
2. Community orientations to relationships for strategy making were dominant in the regions. Some community orientation accompanied major events.	Some evidence in tourism literature, but not in events tourism
3. The synergistic model (between the corporate-government and community, destination-led models) is rarely evident in agencies' stakeholder orientations for strategy making.	Identified in tourism literature and expanded for this thesis. No application in events tourism.
4. A trend towards collaborative or consensus based approaches to strategy making was not evident	A contrasting trend was observed in tourism literature. Not explored previously for events tourism.

Source: developed for this research from section 4.3.3.1 and Chapter 2.

No comparative examination of these different stakeholder orientations in strategy making for tourism or events tourism strategies at regional, state or other levels is explored in the literature. However, this research shows a variation in the stakeholder orientation of agency relationships at different levels of events tourism strategies (conclusion 2 of Table 5.3). A community orientation in stakeholder relationships is

apparent at regional level because diverse stakeholder support is needed to implement events tourism strategies. A partnership between community, industry and government also occurs for some city and major events, but stakeholder involvement tends to occur for strategy implementation, rather than formulation.

The corporate-government orientation in relationships does not reflect the trend towards collaborative decision-making noted in tourism literature (for example, Bramwell & Lane 2000b; Jamal & Getz 1995a, 2000; Selin 2000; 1991; Selin & Chavez 1995). This conclusion indicates that events tourism is among those tourism domains that have not embraced the collaborative concept in shaping strategies in this Australian context. Nevertheless, the stakeholder orientation varies for events acquisition, development and marketing strategies. While an inner circle of confidants or corporate-government relationships determine event acquisition strategies, a blend of corporate, government and community relationships influence the development and marketing of events as tourist attractions. Overall, these conclusions about stakeholder orientations in events tourism strategy processes extend the tourism literature, but make a major contribution to events tourism literature.

Conclusion 3.2: Forms of inter-organisational relationships. The second conclusion about research issue 3 concerns the form of inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategies. Informal or 'soft' unstructured networks are identified in the literature (Buttery & Buttery 1994) along with formal or 'hard' networks created for strategic purposes (Gulati, Nohria, & Zaheer 2000; Jarillo 1988, 1993; New & Mitropoulos 1995). In this research, informal networks influence rather than develop events tourism strategies (Section 4.3.3.2). Nevertheless, these events agency networks fulfil the requirements of 'strategic networks' discussed in the literature (for example, Gulati, Nohria, & Zaheer 2000). No formal alliances or 'hard' networks exist to formulate strategies, although organised networks of industry and government representatives emerge to implement major event strategies. This first conclusion and other conclusions about the form of these relationships are briefly summarised in Table 5.4.

In the literature, a number of bonds of a social, economic, legal, technical, informational, structural and knowledge related nature create ties between network members (Axelsson 1995; Hakansson & Snehota 1995; Holmlund & Tomroos 1997; Hoyt & Huq 2000; Proenca & Castro 1998; Turnbell, Ford, & Cunningham 1996). In this research, an

absence of economic exchange within strategic networks places more emphasis on social, informational, professional and some structural bonds between members (for example, Healy 2000; Holmqvist 1999; Proenca & Castro 1998; Tsai 2000; Turnbell, Ford, & Cunningham 1996). In particular, events agencies use their networks for the benefit of information and knowledge gathering to help them in their strategic decision-making.

Table 5.4 **Conclusions about the form of inter-organisational relationships with an indication of their presence within the literature**

Conclusion about the form of relationships in this research	In the literature
1. Soft, informal networks of agencies influenced, rather than developed event tourism strategies	Within network literature. Not in tourism or events tourism literature.
2. Networks were 'strategic' and emphasised social, informational, professional, structural bonds	Within network literature, but not in tourism or events tourism literature
3. Nets of intra-governmental relationships demonstrated some exclusivity in relationships. Pre-existing relationships were influential in determining the profile of these nets.	Within the network literature, but not in tourism or events tourism literature

Source: developed for this research from section 4.3.3.2 and Chapter 2.

The literature also highlights the presence of 'nets' or local concentrations in a larger network (Easton 1992; Mattson 1988). In turn, in this research, the presence of nets consisting of events tourism stakeholders demonstrates a degree of exclusivity within strategic networks. Also, a dominance of intra-governmental relationships within these networks emphasises the corporate government orientation of relationships outlined in conclusion 3.1. Nets of government agencies with limited non-government input shape events tourism strategies. That pre-existing relationships between individuals and organisations in these nets help to shape membership also reflects findings of prior network research (Ring & Van de Ven 1994). Conclusions about the form of inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategies demonstrate the relevance of a number of themes within existing network literature, as shown in Table 5.4. The major contribution of these conclusions is that observations about forms of inter-organisational relationships for strategy making have not previously been made in tourism or events tourism literature.

Conclusion 3.3: Characteristics of inter-organisational relationships. The third conclusion about research issue 3 involves a number of characteristics that describe agencies' inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategies (Section 4.3.3.3). Conclusions are drawn about the six characteristics of network membership, formality, permanency and clustering, leadership and hierarchy, communication and climate. Relationships with inter-state events agencies feature among these conclusions as a subset of membership. Conclusions for each characteristic are summarised in Table 5.5 which also indicates how conclusions are reflected in the literature. These six conclusions about relationship characteristics are now explained.

Table 5.5   **Conclusions about relationship characteristics for events tourism strategies with an indication of their presence in the literature**

Conclusion about the relationship characteristic	In the literature
1. Membership is dominated by government agencies, followed by venues/events and corporate leaders. Little community input occurs. Pre-existing relationships are influential. There is no strategic influence by inter-state events agencies, despite some cooperation.	Characteristic of membership exists in network literature, but is not studied in events tourism.
2. Informality pervades relationships and networks. Some formality is provided by agency boards, but only with some strategic decisions.	
3. Some permanency of membership exists in a stable core of relationships. One primary cluster exists in most cases and some secondary clusters.	
4. Leadership is mostly provided by events agencies. The Premier also has a leadership role or no leadership exists in some cases.	
5. Informal, unstructured communication occurs between network members. A desire for more formality exists in some cases. Competition and conflict between members impedes communication in formal settings.	
6. A relationship climate of cooperation and some coordination is apparent. Trust and power also influence the atmosphere for strategy making.	

Source: developed for this research from Section 4.3.3.3 and Chapter 2.

Membership. Within the literature, the identity of the network and an ability to gain membership is seen to depend upon micro-networks of connections (Gulati, Nohria, & Zaheer 2000; Hakansson & Snehota 1989). In this events tourism research, this observation is supported because the profile of network membership is an amalgam of the networks of events agencies' Board members, the agencies' chief executives and senior events personnel in each state/territory. The number of peak agencies involved in events tourism networks is partly influenced by organisational arrangements for events tourism in each state and the size of the venues and events sector. However, some ambiguity about network membership and members' influence has been noted in previous network research (Huxham & Vangen 2000). Reflecting this observation, there is also some uncertainty about the status of network membership and members' influence on events tourism strategies among interviewees in this research.

To analyse network membership in this research, the four organisational groupings of government departments and agencies, industry representatives, event and venue representatives and community groups were considered for their strategic input. Government organisations provide the highest level of strategic input to events tourism strategies followed by event and venue representatives (Table 4.6 in Section 4.3.3.3). Corporate leaders within the industry group provide a medium level of input to these strategies and the community injects little or no input. Only a general indication of levels of strategic input of different organisational groups can be obtained because there is no purpose-built network for developing events tourism strategies (conclusion 3.1). Notably, managers of government agencies and departments have more strategic influence on events tourism directions, while venue and event representatives often provide input to strategies for individual events.

In light of these findings, Heide's (1994) view that plans or strategies should be the objects of decentralised network processes (Section 2.3.7) is not supported in this Australian research, because events tourism strategy making is quite centralised within a net of membership. Those organisations that influence strategy making are mostly 'resource actors' (Holmlund & Tomroos 1997, p. 307) in that they are government agencies or other organisations that offer financial or other support for events tourism initiatives. In effect, the range of conclusions about network membership advances the

literature on networks and contributes new knowledge about relationships that influence events tourism strategies.

A further conclusion about network membership concerned *relationships with inter-state events agencies* and their degree of influence on events tourism strategies at state level (Section 4.3.3.3). The intensity of inter-state competition was evident in events tourism literature (Gans 1996; Mules 1998), but there is no prior research of the influence of inter-state relationships on state level strategies. In turn, this research also shows intense competition in the atmosphere of relationships between inter-state events agencies that impedes strategic cooperation among them (Section 4.3.3.3). Yet a degree of informal, inter-organisational cooperation between managers of events agencies is also apparent. This finding supports current opinion of events sector representatives cited in the literature review (M Rees [Eventscorp] 2002, pers. comm., 11 Feb). The concept of co-existence noted in literature (Bengtsson & Kock 1999; Easton 1992) also applies to these inter-state relationships because they are based on distant, non-economic exchanges for information sharing and some social exchange.

There are some benefits of increased cooperation and steps towards national coordination of some events tourism strategies (Section 4.3.3.3). These benefits include joint planning of mega-events of national significance and information sharing about methods of impact assessment and experiences with different event organisers/promoters. That co-existence describes these relationships underscores the relevance of this concept (Bengtsson & Kock 1999). Overall, the existence of some cooperation between inter-state events agencies and this recognition of the benefits of inter-state cooperation contribute to the Australian events tourism literature.

Relationship formality. A second relationship characteristic examined in research issue 3 was the formality of inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategies (Section 4.3.3.3). Network research emphasises the characteristic of formality in discussions of the atmospheric conditions of networks (for example, Araujo & Mouzas 1997; Bengtsson & Kock 1999) as well as their degree of structure (Buttery & Buttery 1994; Healy 2000). However, there is no prior research of the formality of relationships for events tourism strategy making. In this research, many inter-governmental relationships and all external relationships of events agencies for strategy making are informal (Section 4.3.3.3). This informality is a natural adjunct to the 'soft' networks

noted in conclusion 3.2 of this research. In contrast, some intra-agency networks of events and tourism personnel are formalised and there is also formal governance by tourism and/or events agency Boards in decision making about events investment. Nevertheless, most strategy making occurs among events agency executives whose informal liaison with select departments and organisations influences strategic decisions that are later ratified by board members.

In particular, the integration of events and tourism strategies in this research is affected by the formality of relationships between events and tourism agencies. Separate organisational arrangements with limited formal ties result in less integration of events and tourism strategies. In brief, the relevance of formality as a network characteristic within the literature is supported by this research. The major contribution of this research is that the formality of inter-organisational relationships does affect events tourism strategies.

Network permanency and clustering. Next, conclusions were drawn about the degree of permanency and clustering within strategic networks for events tourism (Section 4.3.3.3). The degree of clustering or spread identified in network literature (Axelsson 1995; Easton 1992; Moller & Wilson 1995a) was a characteristic that also served to define inter-organisational relationships in this events tourism research. Building upon prior knowledge, this research highlights a relationship between the permanency of nets of members and the degree of clustering within networks (Section 4.3.3.3). Where there is little fluctuation in the net of members that influences events tourism strategies, a stable network of relationships may be observed with some clusters that are mostly comprised of public sector executives.

As with other relationship characteristics, conclusions about network permanency and clustering in this research provide new knowledge about inter-organisational relationships that shape events tourism strategies. The conclusions also advance the existing literature on inter-organisational networks by showing links between the nature and stability of network membership and the emergence of clusters.

Network leadership and hierarchy. The fourth relationship characteristic explored for research issue 3 was the leadership and hierarchy within the events tourism networks (Section 4.3.3.3). The importance of network leadership in setting the direction and tone

of relationships is emphasised in extant literature on inter-organisational alliances (Achrol, Scheer, & Stern 1990). The scant reference to leadership in the events tourism literature highlights the prominent role played by government (for example, Getz 1997a). For example, the leadership role of a former Premier of the state of Victoria is noted as an influence on inter-state relationships in the events tourism sector by Australian authors (Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell, & Harris 2002).

In this research, leadership for events tourism is derived from government (Getz 1997a), but public sector executives and their networks appear to be more influential in shaping strategies than political leaders alone. Leadership for events tourism strategies is mostly provided by public sector agency executives. The role of the Premier is sometimes acknowledged, but an absence of political leadership of events tourism is also noted in some states/territories. Contrasts are drawn between leadership for events and events tourism, because the Premier may champion events more than events tourism. While events and/or tourism agencies are at the helm of networks that influence events tourism directions, a sense of hierarchy is not emphasised because networks are unstructured and informal.

This research builds on current understandings of the dominance of government in events tourism strategy making. However, the importance of networks of public sector executives versus political leaders alone in influencing strategy making adds to the body of knowledge. This conclusion and observed differences between events and events tourism leadership in the Australian context are major contributions to events tourism literature.

Network communication. The nature of communication that occurs in these strategic networks for events tourism was the next relationship characteristic addressed (Section 4.3.3.3). Observations in the literature about network communication occur in the broader context of atmospheric variables that impact on networks (Hogarth Scott 1999; Lovelock, Patterson, & Walker 2001; Morgan & Hunt 1994 in Section 2.4.1). Specific studies of communication within relationships and networks are isolated (Oikkonen, Tikkanen, & Alajoutsijarvl 2000) and no such studies have been found in the context of events tourism strategy making.

In this research, communication about events tourism strategies does not occur through organised channels at pre-determined intervals (Section 4.3.3.3). Network communication is needs driven and mainly occurs through one-on-one interaction between members rather than group meetings. Obstacles to more structured communication between organisations are competition between existing or potential network members and related conflict avoidance. These concerns were discounted in the context of planning and implementing major events because formal roles and communication are established to stage these events.

Overall, a preference for one-on-one interaction to gather intelligence for strategy making suggests a less than open environment for stakeholder input and further underscores the corporate government orientation to relationships found in conclusion 2.1. These conclusions about communication within inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategies are major contributions to the literature, because there is no evidence that these themes have previously been explored. A contribution is also made to the networks literature where there is limited research of communication between network members.

Relationship climate or atmosphere. The final relationship characteristic within research issue 3 is the climate or atmosphere of inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategies (Section 4.3.3.3). In the network and relationships literature, five descriptions of climate are cooperation, coordination, competition, collaboration and contractual agreements (Araujo & Mouzas 1997; Bengtsson & Kock 1999; Gummesson 1997; Teece 1992 in Section 2.4.1). No comparative, empirical examination of these climatic conditions in networks for events tourism strategy exists in the literature.

In this empirical research, cooperation is the most commonly selected description of relationship climate for events tourism strategies (Section 4.3.3.3). However, coordination or formal mechanisms between network members also affects this atmosphere for strategy making. Collaboration and competition are rare within these inter-organisational relationships and contractual agreements do not apply at the strategy formulation stage. The strength of cooperation followed by coordination reflects conclusion 3.3.2 about the informality of strategic networks that exists alongside the formal mechanisms of decision making within agency boards. Similarly, the presence of cooperation and coordination reflects the identified forms of strategy in events tourism (conclusion 2.1) where

reactive/proactive planning is more prominent than formal strategic planning. In this regard, there is a link between descriptions of relationship atmosphere and the strategy forms adopted for events tourism.

Within the atmosphere of relationships for strategy making, the concepts of trust, power and commitment are also considered for their importance. These relationship dimensions are well illustrated within the relationship literature (for example, Crotts & Turner 1999; Emerson 1962; Lovelock, Patterson, & Walker 2001; Morgan & Hunt 1994). In this research, trust and power are also important influences, but commitment is not emphasised given the unstructured nature of strategic networks. The importance of trust is highlighted because of the confidentiality of event acquisition processes. This need for trust is also a reason for the tight clusters of intra-governmental relationships discussed in conclusion 3.3.3. Power is influential at the level of individuals within networks, more than organisations. This finding supports views within extant literature about the political influence of individual network members (Emerson 1962; Hogarth Scott 1999 in Section 2.4.1).

These conclusions about the relationship climate or atmosphere build upon the established importance of this characteristic within the literature. However, the strength of cooperation in inter-organisational relationships for strategy making and the importance of trust and power within the relationship climate establish new knowledge in events tourism.

Summary of conclusions about research issue 3. In summary, conclusions about the existence of soft, informal networks that influence events tourism strategies make a major contribution to the events tourism literature. They also extend research of inter-organisational relationships. Conclusions about all characteristics of inter-organisational relationships for strategy making provide new knowledge in events tourism and enhance the body of knowledge about relationships and networks.

5.1.4 Conclusions about research issue 4: Incentives and disincentives for inter-organisational relationships in events tourism strategy making

To explore research issue 4, incentives and disincentives for inter-organisational relationships to shape events tourism strategies were considered for their importance. Each of these incentives and disincentives are featured in the literature and/or the

convergent interview data obtained in the first phase of the research (Sections 2.3.10 and 2.3.11). In turn, reasons for and against these relationships are established in the findings of Sections 4.3.4.1 and 4.3.4.2. Conclusions about incentives and disincentives for having these relationships for events tourism strategy making are now presented. These conclusions are shown in the fourth block of Table 5.1.

Conclusion 4.1: Incentives for inter-organisational relationships. Eight incentives for inter-organisational relationships were investigated in this research: resource interdependence and shared risk; building upon pre-existing relationships; gaining complementary expertise, markets, territories and timeframes; increasing professional expertise; legitimising the agency's role; policy conformity; building trust with partners, avoiding stakeholder backlash. Most of these incentives are highlighted in prior network research (Achrol, Scheer, & Stern 1990; Biong, Wathne, & Parvatiyar 1998; Buttery & Buttery 1994; Gemunden & Walter 1997; Hoyt & Huq 2000; Johnsen, Wynstra, Zheng, Harland, & Lamming 2000; Park 1996; Spekman & Celly 1995). However, an additional incentive that emerged from the research is that of innovation advantages or more innovative event concepts.

This research examined the relative importance of these incentives for inter-organisational relationships for the first time. All of the above incentives are important reasons for forming inter-organisational relationships to shape events tourism strategies. In particular, opportunities for shared resources, conflict avoidance, increased trust, knowledge sharing and enhanced agency credibility are emphasised in these findings. The presence of most of these incentives in relationship and network literature (Section 2.3.9) as well as this events tourism research is illustrated in Table 5.6.

Note that the incentive of 'innovation advantages' (row 9 in Table 5.6) was broadly investigated as a component of 'complementary expertise (of other parties)' (row 3), but this benefit of more innovative event concepts was independently highlighted in the case research. Therefore, the potential for increased innovation in events strategy making through the use of strategic networks represents an added incentive for relationship formation. The conclusions about these incentives strengthen the existing network and relationship research and they make a major contribution to the events tourism literature.

Table 5.6 **Incentives for inter-organisational relationships with indications of their occurrence within literature, the convergent interviews and case research**

Incentive for relationships in this research	Literature	CI	Case research
1. Resource interdependence and shared risk	Yes (numbers 1 and 3 in Table 2.2)	Yes	Yes
2. Cementing or growing pre-existing relationships	Yes (number 6 in Table 2.2)	Yes	Yes
3. Complementary expertise, markets, timeframes and territories	Yes (number 5 in Table 2.2)	Yes	Yes
4. Increasing the agency's professional expertise	Yes (number 2 of Table 2.2)	Yes	Yes
5. Legitimising the agency's roles or image	Yes (number 9 in Table 2.2)	Yes	Yes
6. Conforming to government policy	Yes (number 9 in Table 2.2)	Yes	Yes
7. Building trust with new/existing partners	Yes (number 6 of Table 2.2)	Yes	Yes
8. Avoiding stakeholder complaint/backlash	No	Yes	Yes
9. Innovation advantages	Yes (number 8 in Table 2.2)	No	Yes

Notes: CI = convergent interview data, No = not supported, Yes = supported.

The incentives of 'shared decision-making' and 'technological- structural benefits' that feature earlier in Table 2.2 do not appear in this table because they were not supported by convergent interviews and were not tested in the case research.

Source: developed for this research

Conclusion 4.2: Disincentives for inter-organisational relationships. Nine disincentives for inter-organisational relationships were investigated in this research (Table 4.9 in Section 4.3.4.2): the ability to obtain resources without input from some stakeholders; inadequate time, resources and personnel; fast turnaround on decisions; secrecy; a lack of interest in relationships; a concern for economic outcomes that limits interest in some stakeholders; politicians or events promoters that impede relationships; and, history or tradition. A further disincentive of perceived loss of control among agency managers was not investigated, but emerged from the research. Among these

disincentives, five were cited in the literature as shown in Table 5.7: domain overlap where stakeholders offer resources already held by members (Buttery & Buttery 1994), perceived loss of control (Hakansson & Snehota 1995), political factors and norms (Buttery & Buttery 1994; Miles, Snow, & Miles 2000), history or tradition (Gray 1985, 1989; Hall 1999) and a lack of relational orientation among managers (Buttery & Buttery 1994; Cravens & Shipp 1994). The other five disincentives are findings of the convergent interviews (Section 3.3). Table 5.7 summarises whether the disincentives are supported within the literature, convergent interviews and case research.

Table 5.7 **Conclusions on disincentives for inter-organisational relationships and support for them in literature, convergent interviews and case research**

Conclusion about disincentive	Literature	Convergent interviews	Case research
1. Some stakeholders offer resources/input that agencies can already obtain	Yes	Limited	Limited
2. Inadequate time, resources and personnel impede inter-organisational relationships	No	Yes	Yes
3. Immediacy of projects and fast turnaround on some strategic decisions impedes relationships	No	Yes	Yes
4. A culture of secrecy impedes relationships	No	Yes	Yes
5.Limited willingness to form relationships among managers – (attitudinal issues)	Yes	Yes	Limited
6. Concern for economic outcomes limits interest in relationships with some stakeholders	No	Yes	Yes
7. Events promoters impede relationships	No	Yes	Limited
8. Political leaders impede relationships	Yes	Yes	Limited
9. History or traditional ways strategy is managed impede relationships	Yes	Yes	Yes
10. Perceived loss of control of strategy processes	Yes	Not raised	Yes

Notes: Yes = supported, No = not identified or supported, Limited = average importance or support. Items 1 to 9 were examined in the case research. Item 10 was not raised in the convergent interviews, but emerged in case research.

Source: developed for this research

This empirical research also explored the importance of these disincentives for the first time. Just over half of the disincentives are important and the remainder are of medium importance. Among those disincentives within the literature, only 'history or tradition' (row 9) and a 'perceived loss of control' (row 10) are important. This loss of control was encompassed by 'managerial attitudes' within the convergent interview data (Table 3.2 in 3.3), but it is emphasised separately in the case research. The medium importance of other disincentives noted in the literature is indicated by limited support in the last column of Table 5.7.

This range of disincentives for inter-organisational relationships builds upon existing network literature, but also adds to the body of knowledge about relationships for events tourism strategy making. That less importance is attached to disincentives than incentives and events agencies perceive that most disincentives can be overcome are further contributions to the literature.

Summary of conclusions about research issue 4. In summary, conclusions about incentives and disincentives for inter-organisational relationships confirm the findings of prior network research. More incentives than disincentives for inter-organisational relationships were found to be important in this research and some new barriers and inducements were identified. These conclusions about research issue 4 shed light on relational incentives and disincentives in the previously unexplored context of events tourism strategies. Hence contributions are made to the extant literature in both the inter-organisational relationships and events tourism fields.

5.2   Conclusions about the research propositions

Based on the literature review and convergent interview data, some propositions about each research issue were developed in Section 2.5. The extent to which each proposition is supported by this research is now briefly discussed. Note that these propositions were developed in the early phases of this research. A more complete list of propositions could be developed by future researchers, as noted in Section 5.8.

Research proposition 1: *That different public sector environments of events agencies will be accompanied by a related difference in inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategy making.*

The first research proposition concerns research issue 1 or the public sector institutional environment for events tourism strategies. This environment does impact upon inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategy making. Differences in that environment related to the government's purposes for events investment, policy frameworks and organisational arrangements for events tourism, the roles of public sector events agencies and a range of public sector issues each affect the way in which events tourism unfolds (conclusions 1.1 to 1.4).

Firstly, merged and mixed organisational arrangements for events tourism facilitate wider representation to events tourism directions because events are included in the state level plans of tourism agencies in these contexts. Secondly, the extent to which event acquisition, development, management and tourism marketing is undertaken by events agencies affects their inter-organisational relationships. For example, a 'closed-shop environment' inside government often accompanies event acquisition strategies, while grassroots events development requires more interaction with non-government stakeholders. Finally, public sector issues such as the dominance of economic criteria in agency decision-making, public accountability and the Premier's and ministers' priorities are indirect influences on stakeholder inclusion in relationships for strategic making. As a result, this first proposition is supported by the conclusions of this research.

Research proposition 2: *That events agencies' interpretations of events tourism strategies will be diverse and not just reflective of the planning perspective of strategy.*

The second proposition relates to research issue 2 or the form and nature of strategies adopted by events agencies. Forms of strategy identified in this research indicate that events agencies are not governed by formal strategic planning processes in shaping events tourism directions. Instead, a combination of descriptive and prescriptive strategy schools is evident, with the former being more dominant among events agencies (conclusion 2.1). Reactive/proactive strategies and formal strategies both exist and there is also evidence that political processes help to shape events tourism directions in some cases. These outcomes indicate that this second proposition about interpretations of strategy is supported.

Research proposition 3a: *That the stakeholder orientation for events tourism strategy making reflects a corporate, market-led model more than a community, destination-led or synergistic model.*

Three propositions were developed for research issue 3. The first proposition above concerns the stakeholder orientation of organisational arrangements for shaping events tourism strategies. The adoption of a corporate or government, market-led model is more evident than the other two models in describing stakeholder orientations for events tourism strategy making in this research (conclusion 3.1). There are direct implications of this conclusion for the inter-organisational relationships that influence strategy. The dominance of economic or market criteria in decision making about events that accompanies the corporate or government, market-led model can limit interest in those stakeholders whose interests are aligned with social, cultural and environmental criteria. In this context, the market impacts of decisions receive more attention than the destination wide impacts of events that concern community stakeholders. Support for this proposition has implications for the profile and input of inter-organisational relationships to events tourism strategies.

Research proposition 3b: *That inter-organisational relationships are more dominant in shaping events tourism strategies for individual events than destination level events tourism strategies.*

The second proposition related to research issue 3 focuses upon the nature of inter-organisational relationships at different levels of strategy (major events versus destination levels of city, state and regions). Inter-organisational relationships of events agencies influence strategic decision making for events tourism at each of city, major event, regional and state levels in this research (conclusion 2.2). Yet a more obvious role is played by networks of organisations in strategies for major events because these decision making networks are often formalised by governments. By comparison, the impact of inter-organisational relationships on destination wide strategies for events tourism may be less obvious because of the informal and unstructured nature of these networks. Because a tourist destination may be a city, region or state, some variation in the nature of relationships for strategy making may be observed at these levels (conclusion 2.4). Nevertheless, there is no evidence of purpose-built networks for events tourism strategy

making outside those formal bodies that manage the operation and marketing of major events. Hence the above proposition is supported.

Research proposition 3c: *That inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategies will reflect forms of cooperation, coordination and competition with a lesser emphasis on collaboration.*

The third and final proposition linked to research issue 3 concerns the atmosphere of inter-organisational relationships for strategy making. While cooperation and coordination typify this atmosphere, there is limited evidence of the impact of competition between organisations on these relationships (conclusion 3.3). Collaboration for strategy making is not apparent in these research findings because network members have an indirect influence on strategy and do not engage in consensus-based, strategic decisions. Apart from the limited relevance of competition between network or relationship members, this proposition is supported.

Research proposition 4: *That incentives and disincentives for events agencies' inter-organisational relationships will emphasise pre-existing relationships, domain overlap, economic, political, institutional and managerial factors and the agencies' degree of relational orientation.*

This final research proposition related to research issue 4 concerns the range of incentives and disincentives for agencies to draw upon inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategy making. The importance of pre-existing relationships in shaping the profile of inter-organisational networks is supported (conclusion 4.1). The complementarity or differences between organisations' markets, timeframes, territories and operating frameworks referred to in the literature as 'domain overlap' (Buttery & Buttery 1994) is also important in relationship formation.

Economic factors such as resource inter-dependence and the emphasis on economic criteria in agency decision making affect the types of stakeholders who are of most interest to events agencies. Political factors of influence are the agencies' desire for policy conformity as well as the influence of political leaders on relationship formation for strategy making. Institutional factors of importance include a desire to legitimise the role of events agencies as well as history or tradition. Finally, managerial factors such as a perceived loss of control by managers and to some extent, a limited willingness to form

relationships are noted influences on forming inter-organisational relationships. Thus this final proposition is supported by the research findings.

5.3 Conclusions about the research problem

The conclusions and propositions about the four research issues show how the research findings fit into the literature and establish the platform to discuss **overall** conclusions about the research problem: *How and why do inter-organisational relationships of public sector events agencies impact upon events tourism strategy making in Australian states and territories?* Accordingly, this section explains how the theoretical framework of Figure 2.10 in Chapter 2 has been revised to present a more comprehensive model of how and why events tourism strategies are impacted by the inter-organisational relationships of events agencies. First, consider how the range of themes discussed in the findings of Chapter 4 relates to the research issues within the three spheres of the theoretical framework (Figure 2.10). The further development of these themes is now shown in Figure 5.2.

Briefly, within sphere one or the public sector institutional environment (research issue 1), the themes of public sector policies, purposes of events investment, public sector influences, events agency roles and organisational arrangements were confirmed for their influence on events tourism. The lifecycle phase of events tourism is a further environmental influence. This set of themes then impacts on sphere two that embraces the events tourism strategy forms and processes (research issue 2). In this second sphere, the themes are the forms of strategy, different levels at which events tourism strategy is developed (major events, city, regional and state) and the processes and activities for strategy making.

Finally, sphere three's inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategies (research issue 3) impacts upon and is influenced by different strategy forms and processes. Here, conclusions about these networks or relationships, the stakeholder orientation of events agencies and the six characteristics of network membership, formality, permanency and clustering, leadership, communication and climate explain the third research issue. Within the third sphere, the incentives and disincentives for inter-organisational relationships (research issue 4) also explain a range of reasons for and against the agencies' use of these relationships for events tourism strategy making.

Figure 5.2   **Themes related to the four research issues presented within the three spheres of the original theoretical framework**

Sphere 1

RI 1

Public sector environment of events tourism

Public sector policies

Purposes of events investment

Public sector influences

Events agency roles

Organisational arrangements

Events tourism lifecycle

Sphere 2

RI 2

Events tourism strategy forms and processes

Events tourism strategy forms

Events tourism strategy levels: major event, city, regional and state

Events tourism strategy processes

Sphere 3

RI 3

Inter-organisational relationships of events agencies

Events agencies' stakeholder orientations

Characteristics of agencies' relationships

RI 4

Incentives and disincentives for inter-organisational relationships

Notes: RI   = research issue,   ⇨ = one-way relationship,   ⇔ = two-way relationship.

Source: based on the theoretical framework of Figure 2.10 in Chapter 2.

The inter-relationships between the themes shown in the three spheres of Figure 5.2 set the scene to present the final conceptual model of this research in Figure 5.3. This model depicts inter-relationships between the themes within all four research issues and combines and builds upon the themes and linkages shown in Figures 4.2, 4.5, 4.6 and 4.9. Reflecting the original theoretical framework in Chapter 2, the linkage in this final model between the public sector institutional framework and events tourism strategy making is direct. Moreover, events tourism strategy forms and processes have an interactive relationship with the events agencies' inter-organisational relationships.

The summary of conclusions about each research issue (Table 5.1) and this new conceptual model of Figure 5.3 jointly resolve the research problem of how events agencies' inter-organisational relationships impact on events tourism strategy making within Australian states/territories. Firstly, conclusions about the public sector institutional framework show how purposes for events investment interact with policy, public sector influences, organisational arrangements and agency roles to influence the form of events tourism strategy (conclusions 1.1 to 1.4). The lifecycle of events tourism in a state/territory is also influenced by components of the public sector environment and in turn, it affects the roles played by agencies to shape events tourism strategy (conclusion 1.5).

Next, the form of events tourism strategy affects the processes adopted for its formation including those observed at state, regional, city and major event levels (conclusions 2.1 to 2.3). Finally, an events agency's inter-organisational relationships have an interactive linkage with these strategies. While this research indicates that events agencies' relationships influence, rather than develop strategy (conclusion 3.1), the potential for the strategy processes to also affect these relationships is evident (conclusion 2.4). Agencies' stakeholder orientations, characteristics of their relationships and a range of incentives and disincentives for engaging in them further inform understandings of inter-organisational relationships within this model. In brief, the combined themes and linkages within Figure 5.3 resolve the research problem of how the inter-organisational relationships of public sector events agencies impact upon events tourism strategies within Australian states/territories.

Figure 5.3 **Final conceptual model of events tourism strategies and inter-organisational relationships that influence strategies**
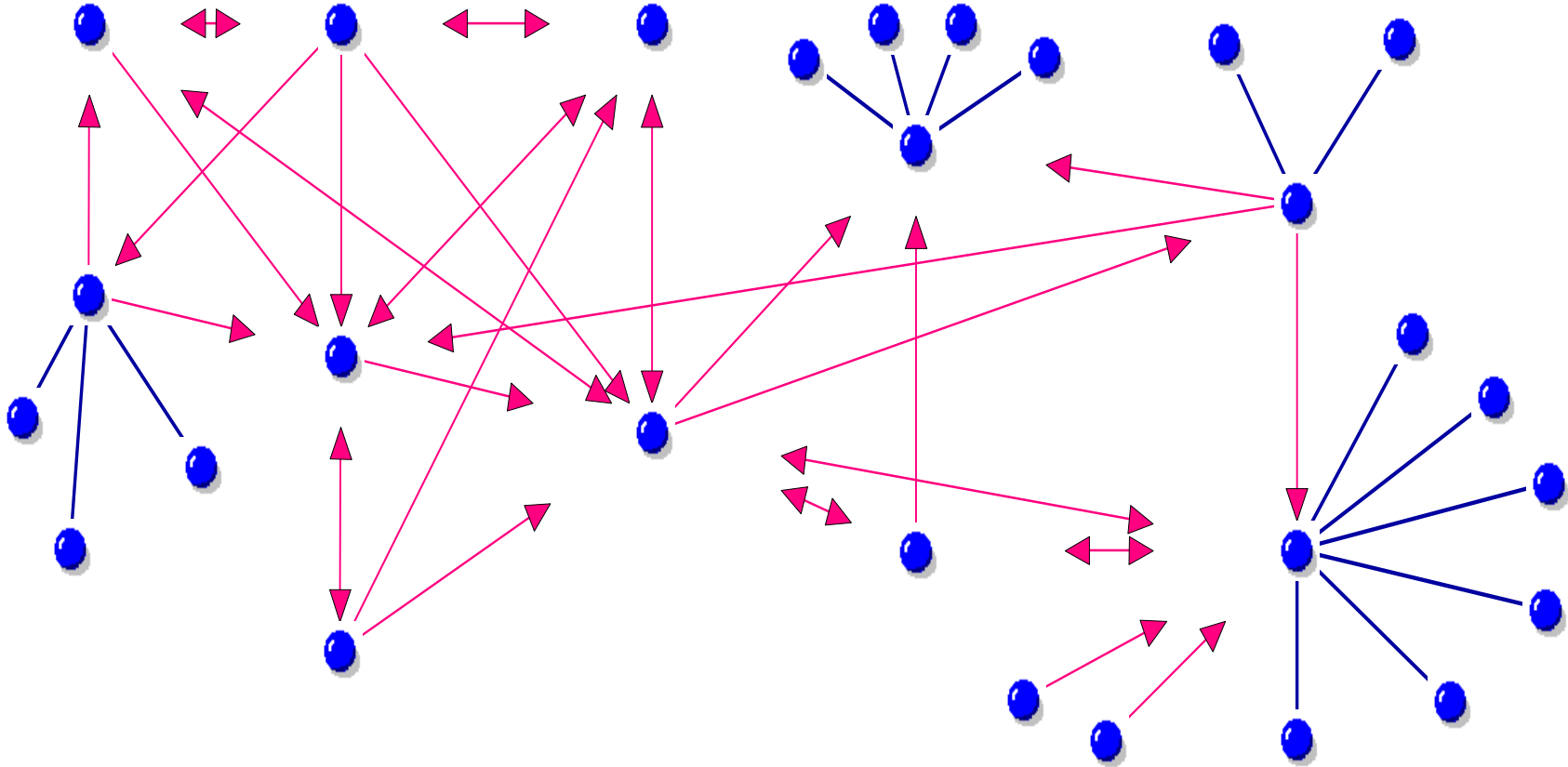
Notes: *:* ──── = sub-theme, ◄──► = two-way relationship, ───► = one-way relationship

Source: based on concepts within Figures 2.10 and 5.1. Working from left to right, this figure links the themes and relationships shown in Figures 4.2, 4.5, 4.6 and 4.9.

5.4   Implications for theory

Conclusions about the research problem have implications for the two parent theories of Chapter 2 which are inter-organisational relationships and tourism strategy. In turn, the implications of this research for each parent theory are now discussed.

Implications for theories about inter-organisational relationships. This research demonstrates the relevance of three perspectives on network theory that are evident in inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategies. These perspectives are networks as relationships, networks as actors with positions and finally, networks as structures with membership and processes (Section 2.3.7). Firstly, the findings support the *relationship perspective* of networks (for example, Moller & Wilson 1995a) because nets of focal and interdependent organisations engage in professional and informational relationships that influence events tourism strategies. The non-economic nature of these relationships also supports observations about network diversity within the literature (for example, Gulati, Nohria, & Zaheer 2000).

Secondly, the perspective of networks as *actors with positions* is supported because the positions of tourism and events agencies vary within the net of actors that influence events tourism strategies because of different organisational arrangements and agency roles (Section 4.3.1.2). The perceived power of individuals and the importance of members' access to resources within these informal networks for events tourism strategy making reflect existing theories about network actors and their positions (Easton 1992; Low 1996). That power and trust help to determine the level of input of different types of organisations to these networks underscores the importance of these atmospheric characteristics in network research (for example, Morgan & Hunt 1994).

Observations about the presence of cooperation, coordination, collaboration and competition or conflict (Easton 1992; Gummesson 1997; Hakansson & Johanson 1993; Teece 1992) in the atmosphere of inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategies also contribute to existing relationship theories. All of these conditions, except collaboration, are featured in events agencies' relationships. However, the dominance of cooperation in these informal networks shows a link between the relationship atmosphere and the structure and formality of the network itself. In addition, the absence of consensus based collaboration for events tourism strategies means that communication occurs

informally between members to influence rather than decide strategies. Thus this research contributes to knowledge about possible impacts of the atmosphere of inter-organisational relationships on modes of strategy formation.

Finally, this research supports the perspective of networks as *structures and processes*. In these inter-organisational relationships for events tourism, there was evidence of local concentrations or nets of members and some exclusivity based on pre-existing relationships and social, professional and structural bonds between members (Easton 1992). Structural bonds are only evident between tourism and events agencies in some states/territories. Similar to prior network research, ambiguity about membership of these inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategies impedes a precise analysis of members and their relationships within the network structures (Huxham & Vangen 2000). However, this research shows that characteristics of network structures and processes such as clustering or spread, permanency, leadership, communication and formality (Achrol, Scheer, & Stern 1990; Axelsson 1995; Easton 1992; Moller & Wilson 1995a) can be used to understand inter-organisational relationships in events tourism.

A further implication of this research for relationship theory is that all incentives and a number of disincentives for inter-organisational relationships within the network literature are also applicable in this events tourism context. This conclusion represents a major contribution to this parent theory because similar empirical studies of this range of incentives and disincentives for inter-organisational relationships are not evident within the extant literature.

Implications for theories about tourism strategy. Three implications of this research for theories about tourism strategy concern the policy-strategy linkage, the adoption of different forms of strategy in tourism and the impact of different stakeholder orientations of events agencies on relationships that shape tourism strategy. To begin, the ability for strategy to be used during tourism policy implementation or formulation is reflected in the literature (Elliot 1997). This research also shows that there is no predictable order in which policy and strategy is developed for events tourism and there is some uncertainty about differences between policy and strategy. However, this research does indicate that strategy is a separate, but inter-related concept to tourism policy (for example, Wahab & Pigram 1997) and policy does not always include strategy as suggested by some theorists (Brent-Ritchie & Crouch 2000).Yet the need for tourism and also events to be included in

policy in order to obtain government funding for events tourism strategies is evident. In this regard, conclusions of the research contribute to current understandings of both the nature and importance of links between tourism policies and strategies.

A second implication of this research exists for theories about the adoption of different forms of strategy and the use of a strategic approach in tourism. Prescriptive or rational schools of strategy were dominant in tourism research until the late 1990s (Tremblay 2000b), but there is now an established interest in more collaborative processes (Bramwell & Lane 2000b; Hall 2000; Jamal & Getz 1995a; Reed 2000; Selin 1998; Selin & Chavez 1995). In contrast to contemporary tourism literature, this research does not show the emergence of a collaborative approach to strategy making for events tourism. However, it does support the view that there is no one best way for organisations to act strategically in tourism (Soteriou & Roberts 1998) because more than one form of strategy is evident for events tourism. Prescriptive or formal strategic planning is not dominant in this tourism domain given that the reactive-proactive model of strategy is most common and other descriptive strategy forms are also evident.

This research found that informal cooperation rather than deliberate collaboration occurs for strategy making in the events tourism domain. Here, the public sector environment of events tourism and reported disincentives for inter-organisational relationships are pertinent factors in understanding why events tourism strategy making is not collaborative. For example, the negative effect of secrecy surrounding event acquisition on developing collaborative strategy processes may not be as influential if agencies shift away from acquisition toward events development strategies as mooted in this research.

A final theoretical implication of this research is that it provides understandings about the impact of different stakeholder orientations of public sector agencies on tourism strategies. The need to include a diversity of stakeholders in strategy processes is emphasised in the literature (Araujo & Bramwell 2000; Truly Sautter & Leisen 1999) as a means of promoting collaborative tourism strategies. Sustainable tourism theorists also stress differences between corporate, market-led and community, destination-led perspectives of sustainable tourism with the latter being more concerned with stakeholder inclusion (Jamal & Getz 1997; Twining-Ward 1999; Weaver 2000). From this research, a new continuum that includes a corporate, market-led model, a synergistic model and a community, destination-led model of stakeholder orientations for events tourism strategy

making is developed (Table 2.1 based on Flagestad & Hope 2001; Hall 2000; Weaver 2000). This framework provides a theoretical tool that could also be used to investigate the stakeholder orientation of agencies formulating strategies in other tourism domains.

Conclusions about the dominance of a corporate-government orientation in relationships for strategy making underscore prior observations about corporatist networks in the public sector and the inadequacy of industry relationships to facilitate stakeholder inclusion in tourism strategies (Hall 1999, 2000). Therefore, the conclusions of this research build upon parent theory about stakeholder orientations of tourism strategy makers. This research also provides a new model for exploring stakeholder orientations in strategy making within other tourism domains.

5.5   Implications for the research methodology

Two implications of the use of the case research methodology were evident from this investigation. Firstly, participation in the interviews served as a reflective process for public sector executives who had not previously assessed their events tourism strategy processes or their inter-organisational relationships. This positive outcome of the case research process had not been noted within the methodology literature. For example, questions that required interviewees to assess the inclusion of various activities in current strategy making were commonly followed by a resolve to place more emphasis on some activities in the future. In addition, the interviewees' exposure to incentives and disincentives for inter-organisational relationships prompted the view that there are more benefits than barriers and that most barriers can be overcome. Thus some cognitive benefits for agency managers emerged from their participation in this research.

Secondly, the conduct of the six case studies enabled the researcher to provide separate state/territory level reports on findings for each state which the interviewees were keen to peruse (sample report shown in Appendix C). These tangible summaries of results provide a point of reference for those agency executives with a leadership role in events tourism. At state level, these reports offer previously unpublished information about policy-strategy linkages, organisational arrangements, agency roles, strategy processes and the use of inter-organisational relationships to shape events tourism strategies. Again, the methodology literature has not emphasised the practical importance of these within-case reports for policy makers to any extent.

5.6   Implications for policy and practice

The implementation and conclusions of this research provide benefits to public sector tourism and events agencies in developing policies, organisational arrangements, agency roles and strategies for events tourism. In turn, the specific implications for policy makers and practitioners are explored.

Implications for policy makers. That Australia has not developed a *national* events tourism strategy because state level policies, organisational structures and inter-state competition for major events precludes such a strategy, is an insight that was raised in Section 2.2.2. Conclusions of this research about how the public sector environment at state level impacts on national collaboration have implications for policy makers. However, the development of national policies and networks for events tourism may be more readily addressed once policy makers have responded to the findings of this research about policies and strategies at *state* level. One reason for this judgement is that constitutional change has been difficult in Australia.

For policy makers with an interest in the tourism benefits of events, conclusions about the public sector environment for events tourism are most relevant to their decision-making. To begin, policy makers could assess the suitability of current *links* between their government's purposes for events investment and the chosen policy and organisational contexts for events in their state/territory relative to events tourism (Section 5.1.1). Broad based events policies that respond to multiple events purposes with little emphasis on tourism and/or tourism policies that omit events do not provide a platform to achieve the tourism purposes of events. Consequently, policy makers should develop events policies that emphasise tourism and/or tourism policies that feature events in order to accrue the tourism benefits of events investment.

To enact these policies, structures akin to the *mixed* organisational arrangements found in this research should be adopted that include an independent events board or agency and state tourism agencies with an events responsibility (Section 5.1.1). Some formal relationships between these agencies at a strategic level should be considered to achieve an integrated events tourism direction. Adoption of these mixed organisational arrangements will enable governments to better integrate inter-agency contributions to events tourism and diversify the inter-organisational relationships that influence events

tourism strategies. Formal ties between state level agencies and a capital city agency with an events tourism role should also be considered to strengthen state level strategies and the input of events and community leaders to the networks that influence them.

Secondly, policy makers could consider how current forms of strategy adopted by events agencies affect *links* between their policies, reporting structures and strategies. Policy makers could allow for an integration of formal and emerging strategies in their guidelines for policy implementation. Multi-layered reporting structures will not accommodate the reactive/proactive strategies that events agencies adopt to respond in an entrepreneurial way to event opportunities. For this reason, policy makers could build increased flexibility into their policy implementation approaches.

Finally, policy makers could monitor the impact of a range of public sector influences on events tourism in their state and devise political or bureaucratic responses to those influences. For example, the extent to which events are perceived by government as tourist attractions may be influential in determining the priority given to events tourism and the Premier's leadership of events tourism. In addition, the strong emphasis on economic criteria in measuring events agencies' performance (Mules 1998) may perpetuate a short term focus by agencies on events acquisition rather than building existing or new events for the longer term benefit of states/territories.

The benefit for governments and policy makers of a reduced emphasis on the short term economic and political gains of events acquisition would be the creation of events that engender wider community ownership (for example, Hall 1989b, 1992, 2000). Given the high cost of events acquisition, policy makers have the capacity to steer public sector agencies towards an events development role, where strategies are less affected by secrecy and the short timeframes that impede stakeholder input. Networks of inter-organisational relationships that represent regional and city event interests could be encouraged to determine events development strategies and the tourism marketing strategies that support them. Policies that promote these strategic networks for events development and marketing can respond to the political agenda for regionalisation and move strategy makers towards destination-based criteria for events selection, more than market criteria alone. Events tourism strategies that are sustainable on economic and other criteria could emerge if policy makers heed these recommendations.

Implications for agency practitioners. For agency practitioners engaged in events tourism strategy making, the research focuses attention on the emphasis placed on different events tourism roles. It also highlights the strategy forms and levels that exist in their state/territory and strategic activities that they undertake for events tourism. Furthermore, this research profiles the inter-organisational relationships and level of strategic input of different types of organisations to agencies' strategies. Consider the practical implications of conclusions about these issues.

Firstly, a shift towards events development and the tourism marketing of new and existing events involves new sets of strategic decisions and processes for events agencies. It is recommended that agency managers consciously develop different strategy processes for each of their roles in event acquisition, events development and the tourism marketing of events. In their focus on strategies for events development, agencies could move towards more of a community, destination-led approach to their strategy making. Here, agency managers could firstly adopt the *synergistic model* for stakeholder engagement in strategy proposed in this research (Table 2.1 based on Flagestad & Hope 2001; Hall 2000; Weaver 2000). This model provides a useful 'middle ground' to guide agencies with a tradition of corporate-government driven strategy processes for events acquisition to more collaborative decision making about events development and marketing.

Agency managers could also address the limited integration of city, regional and state strategies for events tourism (Section 5.1.2). Specifically, steps should be taken to *further integrate* state and regional events tourism strategies and develop pan-regional strategies that capitalise on event competencies of adjoining regions within states. Here, the synergistic framework for strategy making discussed in this research can also provide guidelines to manage intra-governmental relationships at state and regional levels that allow for strategic input of diverse stakeholders.

Next, agency practitioners can act upon conclusions drawn about the strategic activities undertaken by agencies in this events tourism research (Section 5.1.2). In effect, the current levels of importance placed on different strategic activities for events tourism in each state/territory offer a benchmark for improvement and review. Strategic activities that depend upon inter-organisational relationships between events and tourism stakeholders like consulting tourism constituents about event decisions, packaging events

and evaluating their tourist impacts can be reassessed once steps are taken to strengthen these networks.

These steps to further capitalise on inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategy making represent a final area of recommendation for practitioners based on this research. Events agencies have the capacity to develop different types of inter-organisational relationships to map strategies that fulfil different events tourism roles. For example, nets of government agencies with limited non-government input might continue to influence acquisition decisions, but more formal and inclusive networks between stakeholders could exist for events development and tourism marketing. Informal, strategic networks for events development that include government agencies, event organisations, venue managers, corporate and tourism representatives and community leaders are recommended. More inclusiveness and less formality are desirable in these events development networks because of the perceived effects of competition between members on network dynamics. In contrast, formal links between government agencies and industry stakeholders are recommended to create tourism marketing strategies for events.

These enhanced inter-organisational relationships and the trial of some collaborative decision making about events tourism strategies depends on an agency's will to overcome disincentives for relationship formation. In particular, the influence of history or tradition, the perceived loss of control and time and resource constraints must be addressed by agency managers (Section 5.1.4). Practitioners seeking to build more inclusive, strategic networks (Gulati, Nohria, & Zaheer 2000; Jarillo 1988, 1993; New & Mitropoulos 1995) to develop events at state and/or regional level could promote incentives for these inter-organisational relationships highlighted in this research.

In brief, conclusions of this research have implications for both policy makers and agency practitioners. Findings about the public sector environment, events tourism strategy forms and processes as well as inter-organisational relationships provide a platform for action, further research and review by policy makers and practitioners.

5.7   Limitations of this research

Delimitations of the research were noted and justified in Chapter 1 and limitations of the methodologies were examined in Chapter 3 along with how they were addressed. That is, the research is limited to the data collected from six Australian states/territories (Section 1.6). Further empirical research in the other two Australian states/territories, other countries or additional interviews in any one state or territory could extend the scope of this research.

Another limitation of the research may relate to the difficulties encountered by some interviewees in articulating the nature of strategy and inter-organisational relationships (Section 4.3.2.1). These limitations arise because of the lack of purpose-built or formal networks for strategy making and the lack of one strategy that embraces all directions and decisions for events tourism in each state/territory. However, the interviewers guide allowed for various forms of strategies and the existence of informal and unstructured relationships that influence rather than develop events tourism strategies. As a result, any perceived difficulties in articulating strategy or relationships were addressed by the flexibility of the data collection method.

5.8   Future research opportunities

A range of opportunities for future research arise from conclusions of this research. In general, issues for further research arise from sets of conclusions about each research issue as well as the final conceptual model of this events tourism research (Figure 5.3 in Section 5.3).

Firstly, opportunities are presented by other research methodologies including quantitative research to investigate themes within this research and relationships between them. The theory building nature of this research relies on analytic generalisations (Yin 1994) and not the testing of theory or statistical generalisation. Hence, future research is required to test the statistical generalisability of the relatively narrow, but deep findings of this research. Such research, adopting quantitative methods of data collection, would provide more external validity to the analytic generalisations of this research. That is, future quantitative research such as surveys could utilise variables generated in this research such as the strategic activities for events tourism and incentives and disincentives for relationships to test their relevance and importance among events agencies in a wider

context. Note that propositions or hypotheses for this survey research could build on the preliminary propositions developed for this research (Section 5.2).

Other opportunities for new research may be found among variables in the public sector environment for events tourism, different forms and levels of strategy and the networks and relationships that impact upon them. Possible topics in the public sector environment include understandings of tourism policy and strategy among public sector executives; longitudinal impacts on events tourism of changes in government, policies, organisational arrangements and agency roles; and, changes in strategy form and process relative to shifts in government policies. In addition, aspects of strategy and inter-organisational relationships within this research could be explored in other tourism domains such as nature based tourism or rural tourism.

Within the strategy domain, exploratory research of a conceptual model for events tourism strategy development that integrates the reactive-proactive decision making of agencies with their formal strategy processes could be of interest. This model could account for the impact of chaos on tourism espoused by Faulkner (2000; 2003) as well as formal planning interventions. A further topic for research about strategy involves the application of the stakeholder orientation framework in Figure 2.1 of Chapter 2 to strategy processes in other tourism domains. More specific opportunities for strategy research concern those factors that impede the integration of state and regional events tourism strategies and the development of pan-regional strategies within states.

Theories of inter-organisational relationships (for example, Buttery & Buttery 1994; Dyer & Singh 1998; Easton 1992; Hakansson & Johanson 1993; Moller & Wilson 1995b; Ring & Van de Ven 1994) were studied in this research, but they still represent a relatively new field of enquiry in tourism. Studies of how public sector networks and relationships could help to establish more uniform methods for projecting major event impacts and studies of inter-relationships for strategy making in other tourism contexts are yet to be done. An opportunity also exists for those relationship characteristics and incentives and disincentives for relationships identified in this research to be examined for different tourism policy or strategy networks.

Finally, the conceptual model of Figure 5.3 in this research presents a comprehensive framework of themes and relationships that could be further investigated in other

countries with established infrastructure and markets for events tourism. Further exploration of this conceptual model in other countries could underpin the design of quantitative research of a cross-cultural nature to generalise the themes and linkages within the model in an international context. These investigations could occur at city, regional, state or national levels to enhance knowledge about events tourism.

In conclusion, this theory building research has found that events tourism strategy making is both descriptive and prescriptive in nature and informal networks of inter-organisational relationships dominated by government agencies influence, rather than develop these strategies. The resulting model of interactions between the public sector environment for events tourism, strategy forms and processes and inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategy making paves the way for further empirical research to inform theory and practice.

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Appendix A

Interviewer's Guide (with participant's information sheet and consent form attached)

INTERVIEWER'S GUIDE

State/case no……….. Interview Number………... Date…………………………….....

Organisation: …………………………………………………………………………….

Interviewee's name:……………………………………………………………………

Interviewee's title:……………………………………………………………………..

Location:…………………………………………………………………………………

Agency or business type:……………………………………………………………...

Start time………………………Finish time…………………………………………..

Part A: Opening questions

A1.   Firstly, can you tell me about **your organisation's involvement** in events tourism over time and your role within that?

_____
_____
_____
_____

Part B: State/territory involvement in events tourism

B1.   I'd like to now focus on the purposes for staging events. How much emphasis would this government place on the **tourism outcomes** of events to the government versus other outcomes? (For example, social and cultural goals or even other economic outcomes?)

_____
_____
_____

B2.   In your view, what **stage of development** has events tourism reached in this state? For example, would it be still introductory, growing, mature or in decline? **Probe:** *Why?*

_____
_____
_____
_____

Part C: Definitions and interpretations of events tourism strategy

C1.   If I use the term 'events tourism strategy', what does that mean to you?
           Probe: What are some examples?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

C2.   I'd like to talk about **some different strategies** that could exist for events
           tourism**. (SHOW CARD A)** Among these, which ones have been developed (or
           have shown signs of being developed) in this state/territory?

_____

_____

_____

_____

| **Overall state/territory events tourism strategy** |
| **Regional events tourism strategies** |
| **Capital city events tourism strategies** |
| **Tourism strategies for major events** |
| **Integrated strategy across one or more levels** |

*Probes: Can you comment on the relative emphasis on developing an overall state
           strategy for events tourism versus tourism strategies for major events? Is it
           important to distinguish between these two levels with strategy? Why?*

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Part D: Public sector framework for events tourism strategies

D1.   Tell me about the (other) **government agencies** who might be involved in developing events tourism directions in this state?

_____
_____
_____

Probes: *What are the current **links** between these organisations in shaping events tourism?*

_____
_____
_____

D2.   To your knowledge, how does the development of events tourism strategies **link with state government policies**? *Probe*: *Are there any particular policies that drive the development of events tourism?*

_____
_____
_____
_____

D3.   In your view, **what is the role(s)** of the events agencies in this state in developing events tourism strategies or directions?

_____
_____
_____
_____

Probe: *How would the role played by these agency(s) in developing events tourism strategy be affected by their organisational charter?*

_____
_____
_____

D4.   In what ways would **non-government and private sector organisations** in this state/territory be involved in developing events tourism strategies?

_____
_____
_____

Probes: *Would there be any liaison between these organisations and the government about those strategies? Why/ why not? Should this be any different? Why?*

_____
_____
_____

Part E: Public sector influences on events tourism strategies and relationships

E1.   Broadly speaking, what kinds of **public sector issues** could impact on the development of events tourism strategies in this state/territory? (These might be political, institutional or other government issues).

_____
_____
_____

E2.   **(SHOW CARD B)** Here are some **possible government influences** on events tourism strategy**.** I'd like you to tell me how you would rate their importance on a 5 point scale from 1-Very Important to 5-Not important at all. I'm also interested to hear your comments on each one.

        Code: 1 = Very important, 2 = important, 3 = average importance,
               4 = not very important, 5= not important at all

Competition with other public policy agendas eg, health, transport	*Very Important* *Not important at all* *1---------2--------3--------4--------5*
Individual priorities of the Premier	*Very Important* *Not important at all* *1---------2--------3--------4--------5*
Priorities of other Ministers and government bureaucrats	*Very Important* *Not important at all* *1---------2--------3--------4--------5*
Budgetary issues eg. Need to access off-budget or extra funds for events	*Very Important* *Not important at all* *1---------2--------3--------4--------5*
Greater need for public accountability with events	*Very Important* *Not important at all* *1---------2--------3--------4--------5*
A dominance of economic criteria in assessing event agency performance	*Very Important* *Not important at all* *1---------2--------3--------4--------5*
Perceived need for events in the state, given other tourist attractions or infrastructure	*Very Important* *Not important at all* *1---------2--------3--------4--------5*

Comments:_____
_____
_____
_____

PART F: Nature and processes of events tourism strategy formation

F1.   How would you describe the **steps or processes** that are currently used to arrive at a strategic direction for events tourism in this state/territory?

_____
_____
_____
_____

F2.   There are a number of ways that strategy is interpreted. **(SHOW CARD C)** Which of the following **best reflects the approach** used to decide the direction for events tourism in this state/territory? Why?

(a) Formal, strategic planning process, documented	(e) Political process ie Issues of politics mostly determine events tourism strategy
(b) Incremental, constantly emerging, but undocumented	(f) More of a mindset within management or the organisation
(c) A leader's vision shared with others in the loop	(g) A pattern that emerges, strongly influenced by champions or leaders
(d) Both reactive and proactive according to events or episodes that arise	(h) Fairly passive process that reacts to external events/issues

Comments:_____
_____
_____

F3.   What are the **key activities or steps** that should be involved in developing an events tourism strategy for a destination?

_____
_____
_____
_____

F4. I'd like you to consider this list of **activities that might be included** in strategy processes for events tourism. **(SHOW CARD D)** Using the 1-5 rating scale, tell me about the level of importance placed on these activities in developing events tourism directions in this state/territory.

Code: 1= Very important inclusion, 2 = Important, 3 = Average importance, 4 = A small consideration, 5 = Not currently included

Activity	Importance of activity in strategy making
Event selection based on strategic fit with state attributes	Very important inclusion Not currently included 1---------2--------3--------4-------5
Calculation of the potential tourist volume of all events	Very important inclusion Not currently included 1---------2--------3--------4-------5
Calculation of the potential tourism yield of all events	Very important inclusion Not currently included 1---------2--------3--------4-------5
Analysis of destination branding before events are selected	Very important inclusion Not currently included 1---------2--------3--------4-------5
Consultation with key tourism constituents on event selection	Very important inclusion Not currently included 1---------2--------3--------4-------5
Development of the event portfolio based on event and tourist market matching	Very important inclusion Not currently included 1---------2--------3--------4-------5
Thematic, seasonal, time related or place related events planning	Very important inclusion Not currently included 1---------2--------3--------4-------5
Acquisition of events (negotiation and/or bidding) based on tourism potential	Very important inclusion Not currently included 1---------2--------3--------4-------5
Development of existing, grassroots events as tourism products.	Very important inclusion Not currently included 1---------2--------3--------4-------5
Packaging of events as tourism attractions	Very important inclusion Not currently included 1---------2--------3--------4-------5
Evaluation of the tourism impacts of events developed or acquired.	Very important inclusion Not currently included 1---------2--------3--------4-------5

Part G: Inter-organisational relationships and networks for events tourism

G1. In this part of the interview, I'd like to talk about **who** makes input to events tourism in this state/territory and **how** this occurs. **(SHOW CARD E)**
As a starting point, I'd like to hear your thoughts about the general **model of stakeholder input** to events tourism that you believe is adopted.

Consider the two extremes on this continuum.
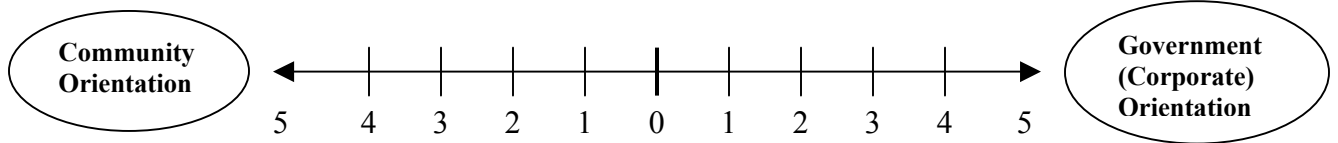
One extreme is where the **community has an equal say** in events tourism strategies alongside a number of other parties. These would include tourism and events agencies, the private sector and independent events managers.

At the other end of the continuum, **strategies are largely government driven** with little or no input from other stakeholders such as the community and independent events managers. The center of the continuum represents a position between these two extremes. Where would you position this state/territory on that continuum? Why?

Probes: Could this be any different? Why? Does this situation vary between city and regional communities? Why?

_____
_____
_____
_____

G2. In what ways would **stakeholder input to strategy** be affected by whether an events agency is housed within a tourism department or operates separately? Why?

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

G3. **(SHOW CARD F)** Tell me **what kinds of input** might come from these organisations in shaping events tourism directions in this state/territory.
Probe: Who would contribute more or less to the process?

Organisation / group	Type and amount of input
Tourism authority or commission	
Tourism industry suppliers	
Other government departments	
Event governing bodies	
Other international contacts	
Managers of individual events	
Event industry suppliers	
Corporations/businesses	
Venue managers	
Event consumers	
Community groups	
Media organisations	

*In general, would the **input of these groups** be any different when tourism strategies are being developed for major events. Why / why not?*

_____
_____
_____
_____

G4. Would all of these relationships be **one-to-one with the events agencies, or is there a network** (a set of two or more connected relationships) that shapes events tourism directions in this state/territory? Why?

_____
_____
_____
_____

*Probe: Are there any other networks that might **indirectly** help to shape events tourism directions – these could be government, industry or social networks?*

_____
_____

G5a. If there **is a network** involved in shaping events tourism directions here, how is the **membership** determined? Go to G. 6.

_____
_____
_____

OR

G5b If there is no network for shaping events tourism directions, which of those one-to-one relationships assume more importance? Why? Go to G.8.

_____
_____
_____

G6. Would this events tourism network be a **fairly loose** network or would it be more **tightly clustered** around a few key relationships? Why?

_____
_____
_____
_____

G7. Is there some kind of **hierarchy** within this network(s) for shaping events tourism strategies or directions? If so, how would you describe the **events agency's place** in the hierarchy? Why?

_____
_____
_____
_____

G8. How important is the **role of a leader or** one or more **champions** in shaping events tourism in this state/territory? What leads you to this view?

_____
_____
_____

G9. In your view, **how formal or informal** are the events agency(s) relationships and networks for shaping events tourism directions?

_____
_____
_____

G10. Would these relationships or network(s) be **fairly permanent or do you think that they change** quite a bit over time? Why?

_____
_____

G11. How much communication would the events agency(s) have with **groups of organisations** meeting together on issues that help shape events tourism strategy?

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

Part H – Atmosphere of relationships and networks for events tourism strategies

H1. How would you describe the general **climate** of the events agency(s) relationships or networks that contribute to events tourism directions in this state/territory. For example, **(SHOW CARD G)** does this climate include:

Coordination = formal, institutionalized relationships
Cooperation = informal, reciprocal relationships
Collaboration = consensus based decision making among voluntary participants
Competition = struggle for resources, markets or other stakes
Contractual = legal agreements

_____
_____
_____

H2. Would the level of **trust and commitment** between the agency(s) and these organisations affect their input to events tourism directions? Why /why not?

_____
_____
_____
_____

H3. Would the **power or political status** of organisations have an influence on who contributes to those events tourism directions? Why /why not?

_____
_____
_____

H4.   To your knowledge, would the events agency(s) in this state/territory draw
        on **any inter-state relationships** to shape events tourism directions? If so, how?

_____
_____
_____
_____

Probe: What benefits, if any, could come from networks between inter-state events
        tourism agencies? Are shared events, event tours or circuits a platform for joint
        strategies between state/territory events agencies? Why/ why not?

_____
_____
_____
_____

H5.   Which of the following conditions could be used to describe those relationships
        between inter-state events agencies? Why? **(SHOW CARD H)**

Coordination = formal, institutionalized relationships
Cooperation = informal, reciprocal relationships
Collaboration = consensus based decision making among voluntary participants
Competition   = struggle for resources, markets or other stakes
Contractual = legal agreements

_____
_____
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_____
_____

PART I – Incentives and disincentives for engaging in inter-organisational
         relationships for event tourism strategies

I.1   Tell me about the kinds of **benefits or incentives** that would entice events
        agencies to engage in relationships and networks to shape events tourism
        strategies?

_____
_____
_____
_____

I.2. **(SHOW CARD I)** I'd like you to rate the **likely importance of the incentives** listed below to events agencies in forming relationships and networks to shape events tourism strategies. Tell me how you would rate these incentives on the 1-5 scale below.

Code: 1= very important, 2 = important, 3 = average importance,
4 = not very important, 5 = not important at all

Incentive or reason	Importance		
Resource interdependence and shared risk	Very Important		Not important at all
	1---------2--------3--------4--------5		
Cementing or growing pre-existing relationships	Very Important		Not important at all
	1---------2--------3--------4--------5		
Ability to gain complementary expertise, markets, operations, territories or timeframes	Very Important		Not important at all
	1---------2--------3--------4--------5		
Increasing the corporation's professional expertise	Very Important		Not important at all
	1---------2--------3--------4--------5		
Legitimising the corporation's role or enhancing its image	Very Important		Not important at all
	1---------2--------3--------4--------5		
Conforming to government policy and showing accountability	Very Important		Not important at all
	1---------2--------3--------4--------5		
Building trust and strengthening linkages with new or existing partners	Very Important		Not important at all
	1---------2--------3--------4--------5		
Avoiding stakeholder backlash or public complaint	Very Important		Not important at all
	1---------2--------3--------4--------5		
Any additional incentives:			

1.3. Can you think of any **barriers or disincentives** for events agencies in forming relationships and networks to shape events tourism directions?

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

1.4. **(SHOW CARD J)** I'd now like you to rate the likely **importance of some barriers or disincentives** that might affect the events agency(s) relationships and networks for shaping events tourism strategies. Tell me how you would rate these incentives on the 1-5 scale.

Code: 1= very important, 2 = important, 3 = average importance, 4 = not very important, 5 = not important at all.

Barrier or disincentive	Importance
Some stakeholders offer resources or input that agencies can already obtain	Very Important Not important at all 1---------2--------3--------4--------5
Inadequacy of time, resources and personnel	Very Important Not important at all 1---------2--------3--------4--------5
The immediacy of projects/ decisions (fast turnaround needed)	Very Important Not important at all 1---------2--------3--------4--------5
An organisational culture of secrecy due to commercial sensitivities	Very Important Not important at all 1---------2--------3--------4--------5
Lack of real interest or willingness to form relationships among individual managers	Very Important Not important at all 1---------2--------3--------4--------5
Primary concern for economic outcomes would limit interest in some stakeholders	Very Important Not important at all 1---------2--------3--------4--------5
Event promoters/organisations who might impede relationships or networks	Very Important Not important at all 1---------2--------3--------4--------5
Political leaders who might impede some relationships or networks	Very Important Not important at all 1---------2--------3--------4--------5
History or traditional way strategy is managed (not relationship oriented)	Very Important Not important at all 1---------2--------3--------4--------5
Any other disincentives:	

PART J – General questions

J 1.   Are there any other issues that I could have raised?

_____
_____
_____
_____

J 2.   If I need to clarify any points, may I please get back to you?

_____
_____

Thank you sincerely for your generous input to my project! I look forward to sharing some results with you.

CARD A: TYPES OF EVENTS TOURISM STRATEGIES

State/territory events tourism strategy
Regional events tourism strategy
Capital city events tourism strategy
Tourism strategies for major events
Integrated strategy across all levels

CARD B: **Importance of different government influences on events tourism strategies**

Competition with other public policy agendas eg, health, transport	*Very* *Not important* *Important* *at all* *1---------2--------3--------4-------5*
Individual priorities of the Premier	*Very* *Not important* *Important* *at all* *1---------2--------3--------4-------5*
Priorities of other Ministers and government bureaucrats	*Very* *Not important* *Important* *at all* *1---------2--------3--------4-------5*
Budgetary issues eg. Need to access off-budget or extra funds for events	*Very* *Not important* *Important* *at all* *1---------2--------3--------4-------5*
Greater need for public accountability with events	*Very* *Not important* *Important* *at all* *1---------2--------3--------4-------5*
Economic outcomes of events being a key performance criteria of events agencies	*Very* *Not important* *Important* *at all* *1---------2--------3--------4-------5*
Perceived need for events in the state, given other tourist attractions or infrastructure	*Very* *Not important* *Important* *at all* *1---------2--------3--------4-------5*

CARD C: APPROACH TO STRATEGY FOR EVENTS TOURISM

|	
(a) Formal, strategic planning process, documented	**(e) Political process ie Issues of politics mostly determine events tourism strategy**
(b) Incremental, constantly emerging, but undocumented	**(f) More of a mindset within management or the organization**
(c) A leader's vision shared with others in the loop	**(g) A pattern that emerges, strongly influenced by champions or leaders**
(d) Both reactive and proactive according to events or episodes that arise	**(h) Fairly passive process that reacts to external events/issues**

CARD D: POSSIBLE ACTIVITIES IN CURRENT EVENTS TOURISM STRATEGY PROCESSES

**Code: 1= Very important inclusion, 2 = Important, 3 = Average importance,
4 = A small consideration, 5 = Not currently included**

Event selection based on strategic fit with state attributes	Very important inclusion Not currently included 1---------2--------3-------4-------5
Calculation of the potential tourist volume of all events	Very important inclusion Not currently included 1---------2--------3-------4-------5
Calculation of the potential tourism yield of all events	Very important inclusion Not currently included 1---------2--------3-------4-------5
Analysis of destination branding before events are selected	Very important inclusion Not currently included 1---------2--------3-------4-------5
Consultation with key tourism constituents on event selection	Very important inclusion Not currently included 1---------2--------3-------4-------5
Development of a portfolio based on event product-tourist market matching	Very important inclusion Not currently included 1---------2--------3-------4-------5
Thematic, seasonal, time related or place related events planning	Very important inclusion Not currently included 1---------2--------3-------4-------5
Acquisition of events (negotiation and/or bidding) based on tourism potential	Very important inclusion Not currently included 1---------2--------3-------4-------5
Development of existing, grassroots events as tourism products.	Very important inclusion Not currently included 1---------2--------3-------4-------5
Packaging of events as tourism attractions	Very important inclusion Not currently included 1---------2--------3-------4-------5
Evaluation of the tourism impacts of events that have been developed or acquired	Very important inclusion Not currently included 1---------2--------3-------4-------5

CARD E: STAKEHOLDER INPUT TO EVENTS TOURISM

Consider the two extremes on this continuum.
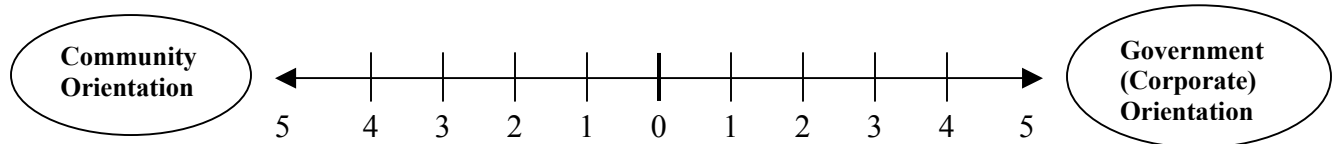
Community Orientation ← 5 4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4 5 → **Government (Corporate) Orientation**

One extreme is where the **community has an equal say** in events tourism strategies alongside a number of other parties. These would include tourism and events agencies, the private sector and independent events managers.

At the other end of the continuum, the **strategies are largely government driven** with little or no input from other stakeholders such as the community and independent events managers.

The center of the continuum represents a position between these two extremes.

Where do you think strategy making for events tourism in this state or territory is positioned along that continuum? Why?

CARD F: **WHAT KINDS OF INPUT DO THESE ORGANISATIONS HAVE TO EVENTS TOURISM STRATEGY OR DIRECTION?**

Organisation / group	Type and amount of input
Tourism authority/commission	
Tourism industry suppliers	
Specific government departments	
Event governing bodies	
Other international contacts	
Managers of individual events	
Event industry suppliers	
Corporations/businesses	
Venue managers	
Event consumers	
Community groups	
Media organizations	

CARD G   **CLIMATE OF THOSE RELATIONSHIPS THAT SHAPE EVENTS TOURISM IN THIS STATE OR TERRITORY**

Coordination = formal, institutionalized relationships

Cooperation = informal, reciprocal relationships

Collaboration = consensus based decision making among voluntary participants

Competition = struggle for resources, markets, other stakes

Contractual = legal agreements

CARD H   **How would you describe the climate of relationships between inter-state events agencies?**

Coordination = formal, institutionalized relationships

Cooperation = informal, reciprocal relationships

Collaboration = consensus based decision making among
                    voluntary participants

Competition = struggle for resources, markets, other stakes

Contractual = legal agreements

CARD I POSSIBLE *INCENTIVES* FOR EVENTS AGENCIES TO FORM RELATIONSHIPS AND NETWORKS TO SHAPE EVENTS TOURISM STRATEGY

Code: 1= very important, 2 = important, 3 = average importance,
4 = not very important, 5 = not important at all

Incentive or reason	Importance
Resource interdependence and shared risk	Very Important 1---------2--------3-------4-------5 Not important at all
Cementing or growing pre-existing relationships	Very Important 1---------2--------3-------4-------5 Not important at all
Ability to gain complementary expertise, markets, operations, territories or timeframes	Very Important 1---------2--------3-------4-------5 Not important at all
Increasing the corporation's professional expertise	Very Important 1---------2--------3-------4-------5 Not important at all
Legitimising the corporation's role or enhancing its image	Very Important 1---------2--------3-------4-------5 Not important at all
Conforming to government policy and showing accountability	Very Important 1---------2--------3-------4-------5 Not important at all
Building trust and strengthening linkages with new or existing partners	Very Important 1---------2--------3-------4-------5 Not important at all
Avoiding stakeholder backlash or complaint	Very Important 1---------2--------3-------4-------5 Not important at all
Any additional incentives:	

CARD J   POSSIBLE *DISINCENTIVES* FOR EVENTS
                   AGENCIES TO FORM RELATIONSHIPS AND
                   NETWORKS TO SHAPE EVENTS TOURISM STRATEGY

Code: 1= very important, 2 = important, 3 = average importance,
               4 = not very important, 5 = not important at all.

Barrier or disincentive	Importance		
Some stakeholders offer resources or input that the corporation can already obtain	Very Important		Not important at all
	1---------2--------3--------4-------5		
Inadequacy of time, resources and personnel	Very Important		Not important at all
	1---------2--------3--------4-------5		
The immediacy of projects/ decisions (fast turnaround needed)	Very Important		Not important at all
	1---------2--------3--------4-------5		
An organisational culture of secrecy due to commercial sensitivities	Very Important		Not important at all
	1---------2--------3--------4-------5		
Lack of real interest or willingness to form relationships among individual managers	Very Important		Not important at all
	1---------2--------3--------4-------5		
Primary concern for economic outcomes would limit interest in some stakeholders	Very Important		Not important at all
	1---------2--------3--------4-------5		
Event promoters/organizations who might impede relationships or networks	Very Important		Not important at all
	1---------2--------3--------4-------5		
Political leaders who might impede some relationships or networks	Very Important		Not important at all
	1---------2--------3--------4-------5		
History or traditional way strategy is managed (not relationship oriented)	Very Important		Not important at all
	1---------2--------3--------4-------5		
Any additional disincentives:			

PARTICIPANT'S INFORMATION SHEET

Thank you for participating in this study. The contribution of your time is extremely valuable. Your organisation will benefit from its conclusions and recommendations about the influence of events agencies relationships on strategies for events tourism in Australia.

Purpose and methodology of the research

The purpose of the research is to explore how inter-organisational relationships of events agencies at state/territory level impact upon events tourism strategies. A qualitative case study methodology is being used that involves interviews with events agencies, tourism authorities/departments and events managers in a number of states/territories. The interviews will be completed by November, 2002 and draft results on your state/territory will be made available to you for review in January, 2003.

About the researcher

Robyn Stokes is conducting her research within the School of Tourism and Hotel Management at Griffith University, Gold Coast. She is also employed as a lecturer in tourism and events marketing at Queensland University of Technology. If confirmation is needed of these details, feel free to contact the principal supervisor Professor Leo Jago, Deputy Chief Executive Officer, Centre for Sustainable Tourism on 03 9688 5055 or 0408 388 122.

Ethical issues

The data collected in this interview is confidential and anonymous. Specific steps will be taken to protect your anonymity. Each state/territory involved in the study and each participant will be disguised in the thesis, for example, Case A, Interviewee No 2. Any undisguised information in the data will not be made public or given to a third party. Participation in this research is totally voluntary and you have the option of withdrawing at any time without explanation. Be assured that your information will be handled with respect and integrity at all times during this research.

Could I please tape this interview as it will assist in my data analysis? If yes, you may push the pause button at any time during the interview. Please let me know if you have any further questions about the aim or procedures of the interview.

Project title: **Inter-organisational relationships of events**
                       agencies for events tourism strategies

Aim: This project examines the contribution and impact of inter-organisational relationships of events agencies on strategies for events tourism in Australian states/territories.

Consent form:

Thank you for your involvement in this research.

On completion of the draft chapter of results from my investigation, I will provide you with a copy of the section that summarises the findings on your state/territory. At that time, if there are any issues of concern, I will be very happy to discuss and resolve them. In addition, you will receive an executive summary of my conclusions and recommendations on completion of the thesis.

As indicated, your participation in this research is voluntary. Therefore, to formalize your agreement to participate, I would be grateful if you could read the following and sign this consent form.

'I have read the information sheet and the consent form. I agree to participate in this research on inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategies. I understand that the study will be carried out as described in the information statement, a copy of which I have retained. I realize that whether or not I decide to participate is my decision and will not affect my treatment or association with the researcher or her institution. I also realize that I can withdraw from the study at any time and that I do not have to give any reasons for withdrawing. I have had all the questions answered to my satisfaction.'

Signatures:

Participant:……………………………….. Date:……………………………..

Investigator:………………………………… Date:……………………………..

Appendix B

Coding system: Attribute and node list from N-Vivo Nudist

List of attributes assigned values in N-Vivo for analysis
(shown in alphabetical order as shown in N-Vivo)

1. Avoid backlash	45. State-collab
2. Budget issues	46. State-compet
3. Build trust and linkages	47. State-contract
4. Competing pub policies	48. State-coop
5. Complement expertise	49. State-coord
6. Conform to policy	50. Strategic fit
7. Culture of secrecy	51. Themes seasons
8. Destination brand	52. Time and resources
9. Econ criteria	53. Tourism ind consult
10. Economic concerns	54. Tourism yield
11. ET portfolio	55. Tourist volume
12. Event acquisition	56. Trust
13. Event devlpt	57. Vision
15. Event packaging	
16. Event promoters	
17. Formal strategy	
18. History or trad	
19. Immediacy decisions	
20. Impact evaluation	
21. Increas profess	
22. Incremental	
23. Input not needed	
24. Interstate – Compet	
25. Interstate – Contract	
26. Interstate – Coop	
27. Interstate – Coord	
28. Interstate – Collab	
29. Lack of interest	
30. Legitimise role image	
31. Lifecycle	
32. Managers mindset	
33. Minister priorities	
34. Need for events	
35. Passive process	
36. Pattern of leaders	
37. Political leaders	
38. Political process	
39. Power	
40. Pre-exist relations	
41. Premier priorities	
42. Public accountability	
43. Reactive proactive	
44. Share resources	

Project: Events tourism strategy

NODE (CODE) LISTING

Nodes in Set: All Tree Nodes

Number of Nodes: 47

1	(1) /ET agency roles
2	(2) /ET purposes
3	(2 1) /ET purposes/tourism devlpt
4	(2 2) /ET purposes/econ devlpt
5	(2 3) /ET purposes/social or civic
6	(2 19) /ET purposes/political goals
7	(3) /ET agency structures
8	(3 1) /ET agency structures/Within tourism
9	(3 2) /ET agency structures/Within Premiers
10	(3 3) /ET agency structures/Separate agency
11	(4) /ET lifecycle
12	(5) /ET strategy meanings
13	(6) /ET strategy levels
14	(6 1) /ET strategy levels/state
15	(6 2) /ET strategy levels/regional
16	(6 3) /ET strategy levels/city
17	(6 4) /ET strategy levels/majevent
18	(6 5) /ET strategy levels/non govt
19	(6 6) /ET strategy levels/integrated
20	(7) /ET strategy models
21	(8) /ET strategy processes
22	(8 1) /ET strategy processes/Key steps
23	(8 19) /ET strategy processes/General process
24	(9) /IOR stakeholder orientation
25	(9 1) /IOR stakeholder orientation/community
26	(9 2) /IOR stakeholder orientation/corporate govt
27	(9 3) /IOR stakeholder orientation/mixed model
28	(10) /IOR strat participants
29	(11) /IOR form
30	(11 1) /IOR form/network
31	(11 2) /IOR form/relationships
32	(12) /IOR characteristics
33	(12 1) /IOR characteristics/members
34	(12 2) /IOR characteristics/clustering
35	(12 3) /IOR characteristics/formality
36	(12 4) /IOR characteristics/hierarchy
37	(12 5) /IOR characteristics/permanency
38	(12 6) /IOR characteristics/communication
39	(12 7) /IOR characteristics/leadership

Appendix C

Sample report for state/territory on research findings

<p style="text-align:center">Inter-organisational relationships and events tourism strategy
Summary of Findings for Case C
Author: Robyn Stokes
January, 2003</p>

1.0 Background

This study of how inter-organisational relationships of events agencies impact on events tourism strategy was conducted across six Australian states in late 2002. A total of 48 interviews were conducted in collecting data for this research which represents the author's doctoral study at the School of Tourism and Hotel Management, Griffith University, Gold Coast. Topics addressed in the research were the public sector framework and status of events tourism development in each state/territory; current forms of events tourism strategy and processes adopted to develop it; the nature of relationships and networks that contribute to strategy; and incentives and disincentives for agencies to use inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategy making.

This executive summary of key findings for Case C addresses five research questions posed by the investigator. The results represent a synthesis of the data from interviews conducted in October, 2002 with nine key personnel in the tourism commission, major events company, peak tourism/convention agencies and event organisations. Some comparisons are also made with findings from other states/territories.

1.2 Participants comments

<u>Feedback and comments on the findings at state level are sought by February 14th</u>. Be assured that the anonymity of participating individuals will be fully preserved at all times by the researcher in preparing and presenting the thesis (as demonstrated in this report). A brief discussion of state level findings and detailed cross-state comparisons are requirements in completing this thesis. States will be referred to within the thesis as Cases A through to F. Because the thesis mostly focuses on a cross-case analysis, rather than in-depth results on each state (as presented in this report), there will be much less depth on any given state than is evident in this report. However, it is obviously useful for you to have this more comprehensive summary of data for your state, separate to the thesis.

2.0 Findings

2.1 Research Issue 1

How does the public sector institutional framework impact upon inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategy, and why?

In responding to this issue, the researcher investigated knowledge and perceptions of how policy, public sector issues, events agency roles and their stakeholder orientation affect events tourism strategy and the relationships that shape strategy. Areas explored in the research are now discussed in more depth.

Public sector policy and events tourism strategy. In this state, the events agency is housed within the tourism commission. While the events agency initially existed as an independent entity with its own Board, political changes led to it being merged with the tourism body in the late 1990s. Policy for both tourism and events is seen to be developmental within the state, given the recent change of state government. A shift from a Liberal to Labor government and an electoral

platform of essential services, in which tourism policy was not featured, provides the backdrop for some uncertainty about policy for events tourism. However, both tourism policy and events policy existed under the past government and recent work on tourism strategy incorporates events and festivals within it. 'It's the first time in my recollection that there hasn't been a specific tourism policy, but they're developing it now, and the state tourism plan is part of that process' (C5). 'There was a sort of generalized agreement among the Ministers and the government. Now, I'm sure that there will be some firm guidelines that will produce a policy' (C7). There was no indication from interviewees that there would be a specific events policy, as it was expected to be housed within tourism policy and strategy. The likelihood of events existing as a subset of tourism policy is also suggested by the recent abolition of the events agency's Board which had reported to the Board of the tourism commission. This decision implies structural integration of the events agency with tourism and, in this context, policy alignment could be expected.

Tourism and economic outcomes of events are key emphases in agency decision-making, although social, cultural/civic and political priorities also influence decisions. It was agreed that this state, more than others, has a tradition of differentiation on its arts and cultural agenda. Policy implications of the place of events within different government portfolios were highlighted. Here, reference was made to the Premier's dual portfolio which includes the arts, the placement of one of the state's major events under industry, trade and investment, with a separate minister responsible for tourism and the events agency. These portfolio arrangements point to recognition of multiple goals of events. Continued support for the arts and fiscal control of event investment were thought to be priorities of the new government. However, it was agreed that different criteria existed for event support among departments and agencies, with the major events agency measured on its input to tourism and economic growth. 'The tourism outcomes are the primary thing that they're looking for. There are other funding agencies that look after the other aspects' (C4).

Event agency roles and inter-agency links. As indicated, the tourism outcomes of events are stressed in the agency's perception of its charter and both tourist visitation and destination imaging are sought from events. The agency's roles span major events acquisition, event development via sponsorship or funding and the management of a stable of events. 'They manage events, they bid for events and they also sponsor events that they don't manage' (C2). A regional events funding program is administered by the tourism commission outside of the events agency. Debate was evident among interviewees about the appropriate balance of agency involvement in its primary roles. Event management and ownership has been emphasized in this state more than others, due to the infancy of the events industry. 'There are a number of events that require government involvement in an operational sense, because we're the only body, private or public, that has the network, the resources…' (C9). However, events tourism is believed to be at a crossroads in its lifecycle that has implications for the roles played by the events agency.

A perceived result of the agency's role in events management is that there is less time for entrepreneurialism and it is complex for a government agency to reduce support or withdraw from a suite of managed events. 'We're reached a point now where there is so much at stake with a lot of events, if we didn't do them, the question would be, who would do them?' (C8). Conflicts between the agency's economic priorities and political and cultural concerns were evident here. 'Should the events agency run X event, given its priorities? Maybe not, but there's the political reality and issue of civic pride' (C2). The question of whether the event management role has overtaken other agency roles was evident in the comment, 'it has become a sort of de facto operator of events, when I've always thought the primary role was to generate income, revenue from external sources and bring it in' (C7). Most felt that an event management role remained

necessary. However, a skew towards this role was thought to complicate the agency's ability to move into a new phase of growth.

Most interviewees suggested that events tourism in the state had reached a plateau, with new initiatives being necessary for a new growth phase. 'It's been a very steep learning curve and I'd suggest that we're at a point of rationalization at the moment…I think we're actually plateauing' (C5). 'I think we're mature with a middle-age crisis coming up…it will have to be a rejuvenation' (C6). Government pressure to re-evaluate economic outcomes of events was also stressed in this context. 'I think with the new government, it's very clear the message is 'Look, we're going to be looking at ones that can add wealth to the community, not just as a de factor operator' (C7). Thus, it appeared that events agency roles and potential role conflicts are issues to consider in advancing events tourism to a new growth phase.

Intra-agency links between the events agency and the tourism commission have implications for the operating culture of the events agency, its development of events tourism strategy and the relationships that drive strategy. Firstly, some shifts in the agency's operating culture were thought to have occurred from its time as a separate entity from the tourism commission to the present day. This shift was perceived to affect the process of developing events tourism strategy. For example, participants described an early phase of growth typified by pro-activity when the agency was an independent entity. 'The agency knew where the strengths in the sector were and far more readily and quickly could go to those experts and get a number of things done. And, in terms of event bidding, there was far more initiative in terms of going out and seeking particular events rather than going through the government process' (C6). Most referred to the agency's later phase being one of event consolidation and maturity, with 'a more consistent set of events and more of a calendar. It's done a bit more scientifically' (C2). However, the operating culture was thought to lack some of the pro-activity of the early phases and its ease of access to more diverse networks. 'Before it was part of government, the Board had an advisory forum that drew on community leaders from arts, sport, business, multi-cultural….since being drawn into the public sector, it's relied on the agency network to bring those things to the table' (C6).

The recent loss of the events agency Board in favor of a single Board at the level of the tourism commission was viewed as a potential concern in this context. 'You've got to be in the market looking for new (events) and looking ten years ahead…..the loss of autonomy, without it's Board, means it could lose focus on looking at longer term….What new ones are going to come in?' (C1). 'They were purely for us, to be there to either provide some strategic direction on what events to bid for, looking at it across the broad spectrum of our calendar and filling in the gaps' (C8). These views point to concerns about public sector arrangements for events tourism, but also the degree of emphasis that should be placed on event acquisition. In effect, concerns about the shift away from acquisition within the state contrast with findings in most other states. Results in all six states suggest that acquisition remains a priority, but a shift towards developing new and existing events at state level is mooted. One interviewee in this state echoed the national view with the comment, 'we need to be more courageous in developing our own events – it's fine to wheel in events, but it's a bit like cargo cult stuff – we could be a little bit more creative' (C6).

Interviewee's comments reflected different views about the public sector arrangement for events tourism in this state. Mixed opinions were expressed on the extent to which the holistic marketing of events has occurred as a result of the agency's alignment with tourism. 'We're two agencies that have integrated, we do talk about marketing the events…but where there wasn't an evaluation of the whole distribution system, the whole packaging of the event…that's beginning to happen now' (C5). Other comments suggested that improvements in intra-agency linkages were still needed. 'With all due respect to colleagues, the agency does set itself up as a bit of an enclave society.

They're part of the commission, but see themselves as separate….no-one therefore considers their thinking. Within the destination development group, it should be integral in their thinking' (C9). This issue was not isolated to this state, as most other states where the events agency was aligned with tourism also recognized a need to improve internal linkages. A difference in the organizational cultures of events agencies and tourism bodies was highlighted as a challenge in developing a holistic approach to events tourism strategy, even when personnel were brought into the one structure.

A number of positive and negative implications of having an events agency inside tourism and independent to it emerged from interviews in this state. Benefits of being housed inside tourism were cited as the ability to leverage the tourism benefits of events, awareness of political process and community consultation. Negative aspects were political constraints and some loss of pro-activity or ability to respond to opportunity. Organisational independence was thought to engender entrepreneurialism and more access to event champions and a business network. 'I think if it was a separate body with its own separate Board, you would have more stakeholder input to that' (C1). 'Events agencies need to be big strong entities that can, you know, proudly go where no one else has gone…as part of a bigger government entity, they sometimes feel they've lost a bit of their mojo' (C2).

Stakeholder orientation of events agencies. The stakeholder orientation of events agencies that shape their relationships for developing events tourism was described as corporate/government, more than community directed. However, stakeholder engagement to guide the tourism strategy which includes events was described as different to stakeholder input to ongoing decisions about event acquisition and development. In the context of the formal development of tourism strategy, consultation with industry and community leaders is widespread. 'From a strategic point of view, there's been a fairly broad involvement in that' (C4). However, the reactive and proactive strategy making that typifies the ongoing work of the events agency is more of a closed process. 'It's a closed shop (C2). 'I'd say it's heavily weighted towards a government-corporate model (of input)' (C7). There was some consensus that it was not possible to engage the community in strategy making of this nature at state level. 'I think there's attempts made to involve the community, but only once decisions have been made. You really do have to make decisions and lead, because it'll be sort of paralysis by analysis otherwise' (C2).

It was agreed that community involvement was appropriate and did occur in order to implement major events. In contrast, most felt that overall events tourism strategy emerged in a different manner. 'We've got two areas: major events, it's all government, regional events, it's all community' (C9). 'We don't sit here and make decisions about regional events unless they're on a big scale….Most of those events grow up from the community' (C2). Similar issues were raised in most states with respect to community input to state level strategy. Across the six states, most participants believed that the concept of community input to events tourism was not workable in a city environment. Constraints highlighted in this state were the diversity of event types and views about them, limited community interest in having input to events tourism and the need for secrecy due to competition.

Public sector issues and influences. Issues in the public sector framework that affect events tourism strategies and relationships to create them were investigated in open ended and closed questions. Issues that arose in unprompted discussion were: priorities of a new government and ministerial preferences; a vocal community and government consciousness of public perception; risk management issues and risk adversity of government; environmental or 'green' issues; the need for public understanding of event benefits; and, resource competition from competing agendas. The issue of events and tourism not being policy commitments of the new government

was also perceived to be a key issue. 'They've got a scorecard of all of their policy commitments….because tourism isn't on that scorecard, that's an issue for us' (C5).

A number of public sector issues were rated by participants for their importance as influences on events tourism strategy on a five point scale from 1 (Very Important) to 5 (Not important at all). Results presented in Table 1 show a contrast with overall findings for the six states on the dominance of economic criteria in assessing agency performance. A variation in the degree of importance attached to this issue in this state may be explained by the new government's focus on the financial viability of events mentioned earlier. Supporting the importance of this issue was the higher rating given to the need for public accountability of events in this state. Notably, findings on both the economic measurement of agencies performance and public accountability were skewed towards the reported result.

Table 1   Comparative importance of public sector influences on events tourism in this state and others

Influence on events tourism * Indicates a difference between this state and all states	Importance (this state)	Distribution	Importance (all states)
Competing public policy agendas	2.38 (Important)	Normal	2.20 (Important)
Priorities of the Premier	2.27 (Important)	Normal	2.27 (Important)
Priorities of other ministers	2.88 (Average importance)	Normal	2.66 (Average Importance)
Budgetary issues	1.38 (Very important)	Consensus	1.50 (Very important)
Need for public accountability	1.83 (Important)	Skewed	2.23 (Important)
Dominance of economic criteria in assessing event agency performance*	1.38 (Very important)	Skewed	1.52 (Important)
Perceived need for events given other tourist attractions	2.22 (Important)	Normal	2.00 (Important)

Overall, each of the public sector issues posed by the researcher was seen to be an important influence on events tourism directions. A marked similarity between findings in this state and all six states was noted.

Summary: A tourism policy and strategy framework for events exists in this state. However, tourism and events were not specific policy platforms of the newly elected government, and strategy is developmental since the change of government. Several portfolios invest in events development, however, the events agency is measured on tourism and related economic outcomes. The agency's shift into the tourism commission has focused attention on leveraging events for tourist visitation and imaging, but intra-agency linkages can still be strengthened. The shift to a public sector environment and the degree of involvement in events management is perceived to have reduced agency pro-activity in events acquisition. A number of interviewees thought that there were more, rather than less advantages to be gained from the events agency's independence from a tourism body.

Key benefits of agency independence were thought to be increased competitiveness, ease of access to a business network and those who champion events, political and funding advantages

and strategic advice of an independent board. Public sector issues of most influence on events tourism related to political priorities of a new government and an emphasis on economic performance, risk issues, resource constraints and public perceptions of events in the context of environment and lifestyle. A corporate government orientation pervades stakeholder input to state-level events decisions, while a community orientation drives events tourism in the regions.

2.2 Research Issue 2

What form and nature do inter-organisational relationships of public sector events agencies assume for shaping events tourism strategies and why?

To address this issue, participants were asked to comment on whether one-on-one relationships shaped events tourism strategy or if this was achieved via a network (sets of two or more inter-organisational relationships engaged in strategy). In order to analyse the data, the distinction must be made between 'hard' industry networks or alliances and 'soft' networks. The latter is represented by industry forums, taskforces and committees or informal relationships that contribute in an unstructured manner to events tourism strategy. In this state, inter-organisational alliances or 'hard' networks plan and implement major events. Complex networks form around major events, with key personnel and coordination committees working closely with industry and community. Membership of these project networks, in terms of industries and individuals varies with each major event, but a range of government departments are represented.

All participants agreed that there is no active, 'hard' network of inter-organisational relationships that formulates events tourism strategy. 'We've involved them, but not in a formal way' (C2). This situation also reflects the strategy environment of other states/territories. Although a formal, public consultation process on the state tourism strategy indirectly seeks comments on events, it was agreed that there is no deliberate network formed to shape events tourism specifically. Thus, a small, intra-governmental and Board level network formulates events tourism directions, with a 'soft' network of relationships, internal and external to government, that influences decisions.

'Soft' networks. It was agreed that events agency personnel, the CEO of the tourism commission, Board members and their 'soft' networks drive the state's events tourism strategy. 'I think it would be the events agency driving it, but using their network to get there' (C5). 'There's definitely a network. It (the city) is full of networks and you've got to be part of it' (C2). 'There are key individuals in this state who have got the ears of the decision-makers at government level…and within the events agency; we've all got those relationships' (C8). While several interviewees referred to social networks which exert political influence, there was also a reference to the strength of relationships between the agency and members of the recently disbanded events agency Board. In the absence of this Board, it was thought that these individuals would continue to be part of the 'soft' network of influence on the agency. 'They still do have an influence. Their knowledge is phenomenal because they've been involved with it since it began and they've been there and done that with bids, things that work, things that don't work and they understand' (C2).

Deliberate attempts by events agency management to create social interaction with corporate leaders also served to highlight the strength of the 'soft' network. 'I know X has worked hard in the last few years to actually broaden the circle of people that have an interest in events' (C2). Thus, there is a deliberate attempt to invite informal input to strategic direction. Nevertheless, the executive group within the tourism body and management group within the events agency were seen to dominate strategic decisions. The contribution of this network to strategy occurs through interaction via one-on-one relationships with network members over time, rather than through combined and organised input of members to a state-level events tourism strategy. In addition to

their degree of formality, the events agencies relationships were examined for their hierarchy and leadership, membership, degree of cluster or spread and communication. Each of these characteristics is now discussed.

Formality of relationships. All participants stressed that the inter-organisational network of relationships influencing events tourism is *informal* and this lack of formality is heightened in the absence of the agency's formal advisory Board. However, there is a formal, internal network of events and tourism personnel that considers event initiatives. In relation to major events, 'We sit down as a group and work out, you know, the positives and negatives, and then potentially put something up to the Board and go through that process' (C3). However, a focus on overall strategy occurred less frequently in this formal way. 'We might look at strategy, but you see, strategy is all the time' (C3). As a result, the overview of the agency's reactive and proactive strategy and its tourism potential mostly occurs at Board level. 'I'm not aware of any formal thing, other than the formal processes at Board level' (C5). In this vein, the importance of having events representatives on the board of the tourism commission who informally access industry and community networks was emphasized. 'There's no formal group there to provide that guidance and leadership other than the tourism commission board' (C8). 'The current Board needs to pick up that same sort of big picture, that strategic guiding role' (C5).

Hierarchy and leadership. Leaders or champions for events tourism in this state were seen to be members of the decision-making network both inside and outside government. As in most other States, public sector executives and not the Premier were seen to champion or lead events tourism directions. The current CEO of the tourism commission was seen to be the primary leader and champion within the decision-making network. 'If he's not the king of the castle, he's certainly the sounding board' (C2). Although leadership in this domain is his professional responsibility, it was stressed that his role as champion and his passion for events stems from his role in establishing the events agency. Where most interviewees thought that there had not been any champions external to government or the Board to date, it was felt that former members of the agency's advisory Board would now assume that role in an informal network. It was suggested that the city culture and size also means that there are less formal processes for initiators of new events to gain access to network leaders. 'It's like six degrees of separation becomes one degree of separation in this city…people know that they can walk in and get an audience with the head of the whole department who will entertain their idea if its half decent' (C2).

Network membership. As indicated, key individuals and organisations who participate in events tourism strategy were identified at Cabinet, senior executive and Board level. However, these stakeholders represent politicians (political parties), government departments (senior executive), corporate or civic organisations with an interest in tourism or events. Hence, it is meaningful to refer to particular types of organisations and the nature of their input to events tourism strategy. To understand network membership, comments were sought on the relative influence of various organisations and groups. These stakeholders included the tourism commission, other government departments, tourism and event industry suppliers, event governing bodies and international contacts, managers of events, businesses or corporations, venue managers, media, community groups and consumers. The majority of these stakeholders were not considered to be part of the 'soft' network that influences strategic directions for events tourism.

Intra-governmental membership of the 'strategic' network was seen to consist of executives of the events agency and tourism commission, the Premier and Deputy Premier, the tourism minister, arts and sports departments and directors of major government facilities. Some strategic influence was thought to be exercised by external stakeholders such as former members of the events advisory Board, chairs of major sports or cultural boards, the city tourism authority, the Lord

Mayor and city council. Most interviewees thought that the contribution of some of the above stakeholders could be increased. 'It's probably too heavily weighted with public sector players and not enough of private sector and perhaps community voices' (C6). 'In terms of strategy, I'd say that they could be more involved than they currently are' (C8). Other stakeholders such as external event managers, venue managers, tourism industry suppliers and community were thought to be only engaged at the tactical level of staging a major event. The shaping of events tourism strategy and the strength of influence of network members was thought to be affected by personalities to an extent. 'In some ways, you'd almost say it's personality driven and it depends on who's heading up the particular positions at the time' (C9). 'It will just fluctuate, with whoever's in, and that is often colored by the chief executive and their view' (C6).

The potential for interstate relationships to impact on strategic directions for events tourism was thought to be minimal. All participants concurred that competition was intense. 'We all keep our cards pretty close to our chest. Nobody trusts anybody else' (C1). The majority also felt that inter-state cooperation is occurring at a minor level and can be beneficial. Relationships between inter-state events agencies were perceived to have improved in recent years. Cooperation was now seen to be valuable to share the staging of mega-events of national significance, experiences with event organisers and promoters, methods of assessing economic impacts and responses to the risk management issue.

At state level, membership of the 'strategic' network has remained stable at the core of the network, with some fluctuation in membership based on event opportunities and relationships over time. However, it was felt that political changes would lead to some shifts in the network profile. 'Where there might have been decisions made by three to five people who drive it through the ministry. Now, I guess it's exactly the same…but, in a different political perspective, there'll be another group that reflects a different political bent' (C7). Thus, while the influence of former events agency board members was evident, the power of new members of the tourism commission board and Cabinet was also underscored.

Clustering in the network. As evidenced in the above discussion, there is a clustering of core relationships within the network. While relationships around this cluster were said to be loose and informal, the core of the network that shapes events tourism directions was described as tightly clustered, 'It's both close-knit and very small' (C9). 'One of the reasons it is tightly clustered is that a lot of people in these roles have been around for quite a while…it's been a very stable group' (C6). With recent changes in agency Board arrangements, findings indicate that a cluster of influential relationships will remain from the former Board, while new Board members could be expected to join the core decision-makers in a formal capacity. Therefore, the network is likely to be characterized by clusters of relationships that are linked both formally and informally.

Network communication. Communication between individuals and organisations that shape events tourism can be observed at two levels. Firstly, there is regular intra-agency communication (events and tourism executives) of a formal and informal nature. In addition, there are formal channels of communication between the events agency, the Board and Cabinet. However, communication with the 'soft' network of those who influence strategy does not occur through formally organized channels at intervals that are pre-determined. 'There's never been a group all getting together just talking about events tourism, to my knowledge. It would be very interesting to do, I must say' (C1). Instead, communication between the events agency and these organisations and individuals occurs on a needs-driven basis. This tends to occur as informal, one-on-one interaction, rather than through formal avenues such as meetings or forums. In effect, results point to regularity of communication, albeit not formal, within the network on issues that combine to influence events tourism strategy.

Summary: Inter-organisational relationships that impact on state-level events tourism strategy are tightly clustered around events and tourism executives, former and current board members, government leaders and select government departments. A loose network of other influential organisations and individuals is derived from local government, chairs of major sports and cultural bodies, corporate leaders and the city tourism authority with marginal input from other stakeholders. This periphery of the network does not develop strategy, but it can influence events tourism via lobbying and information sharing.

A core network of intra-governmental decision-makers for events tourism with a loose set of relationships outside government was also found in a number of other states. No formal, inter-organisational network that spans government and non-government exists to shape state-level events tourism strategies in any of the states/territories studied. Views in this state about the intensity of inter-state competition with some growth of cooperation between events agencies were also shared by most other states. The strength of public sector executives as leaders and champions for events tourism was emphasized in this state, together with the impacts of a change of government on the profile of decision-makers. Although varying levels of strategic input were attributed to different stakeholders, participants thought that the events agency can be insular in its decision making. In this context, it was believed that the input of some organisations and departments to shaping overall direction for events tourism could be increased.

2.3 Research Issue 3

What are the atmospheric conditions of these inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategies, and why?

To understand the atmosphere or climate of relationships, the discussion invited participants to choose between different descriptions of the relationships. These included coordination (formal, institutionalized), cooperative (informal, reciprocal), collaborative (voluntary, consensus based), competitive and contractual relationships. From the results displayed in Table 2, it was evident that cooperation was the most common description. This observation reflects earlier comments about relationship characteristics.

Table 2   Participants who agreed with each descriptor of the climate of relationships for events tourism strategy

Descriptor of climate	Number of participants
Coordination – formal, institutionalised	2
Collaboration – consensus based	5
Competition – for resources or markets	2
Cooperation – informal, reciprocal	8
Contractual – legal agreements	0

The strength of cooperation as a descriptor of the climate represents a similar finding to other states. More than half of the participants also thought that relationships displayed characteristics of collaboration. While there was no evidence of a collaborative effort to develop overall strategy, it was evident that collaboration and also coordination existed between stakeholders in the context of major events. The lack of agreement that contractual relationships influence events

tourism strategy is uniform across the states, as such relationships are only associated with implementing major events.

Specific relational attributes explored were trust and power. All participants agreed that perceptions of trust between organisations and individuals influenced the degree to which strategic or tactical input to events tourism occurred. Indicative comments were: 'that's why these people are influential because they can be trusted with information' (C7); but also, 'probably it is a little less collaborative for those reasons of confidentiality…there are bids that they've had where we haven't even known until they've won it' (C5). In this state, views were mixed on the extent to which the power and political status of people and organisations affected the membership and atmosphere of relationships. Just over half of the participants thought that issues of power do affect the atmosphere for events tourism development. Some comments were 'It definitely does, but the CEO has so much respect on both sides of politics' (C2), but also 'I haven't witnessed that, but in the former government, events were quite high in government policy…the current minister has an enormous portfolio' (C6). Several participants thought that personalities, more than politics underpinned relationships that contribute to strategy. 'these things come down to personalities more than anything and I think there's always a willingness to collaborate, it depends on how the personalities sort of gel' (C5).

Summary: The investigation of this issue showed an atmosphere of cooperation (informal, reciprocal relations), but also one of collaboration between organisations (mostly evident in planning major events). This finding was consistent with the characteristics of the 'soft' network already described that influences directions for events tourism. However, compared with other states/territories, more participants in this state referred to collaboration as a possible description of some network relationships. Consensus exists on the impact of trust on the membership and atmosphere of the inter-organisational network. Power was also thought to be an important factor, but the influence of personalities on relationship formation was emphasized.

2.4   Research Issue 4

How are events tourism strategies and the relative contribution of inter-organisational relationships to these strategies interpreted, and why?

In examining the contribution of inter-organisational relationships to strategy, it was important to firstly understand how participants interpret events tourism strategy. Firstly, views about the model or form of 'strategy' that was applied in the events tourism domain were sought. An exploration of the status of events tourism strategy at state, city and regional levels was then undertaken and compared with the emphasis placed on tourism strategies for major and mega-events. Next, some general questions were asked about processes of creating strategy before participants rated a number of activities for their importance as inclusions in current strategy making. Findings in each of the above areas also point to relational issues in developing events tourism strategy.

Interpretations and models of events tourism strategy. Participants in this state provided their views on the content as well as aims of events tourism strategy. With respect to content, it was thought that strategy should draw upon the competitive strengths as a destination, using events to accentuate strengths and attract tourists to those experiences. Understanding the interrelationship between the state tourism plan, the corporate tourism plan and event plans was thought to be important. The intended aims of strategy were seen to be tourism visitation, related economic impacts and international exposure for the state. Bidding activity, event development and event management were the recognised components of strategy.

To gain more insight to the shape that events tourism strategy takes at state level, participants were asked to choose between eight different descriptions of strategy. More than one description was usually chosen by each participant as indicated in Table 3 below.

Table 3   **Models of strategy applicable to state-level events tourism strategies with shading to indicate the two models most commonly chosen**

Model or description of strategy	Number (this state) 9 people	Total number (all states) 48 people
Formal, strategic planning process, documented	2	20
Incremental, constantly emerging, undocumented	7	18
Leader's vision shared with others in the loop	2	14
Reactive and proactive according to events/episodes	5	29
Political process, politics mostly determines strategy	3	17
More of a mindset within management or agencies	2	7
Pattern that emerges influenced by champions	1	11
Fairly passive process that reacts to external events	0	4

The most commonly selected models in this state were firstly the incremental model, followed by a reactive and proactive process. Few people chose the formal, strategic planning process although events are a subset of the state tourism plan. Most saw the events tourism strategy as unfolding over time. Although there is the tourism plan and corporate plan, with a business plan for each major event, an overall strategy for acquisition and development of events is constantly emerging. As shown in Table 3, the reactive and proactive strategy model was most commonly chosen across all six states, followed by the formal strategy process. As in most states, it was thought that a formal strategy alone is not appropriate for events tourism. 'It almost becomes bureaucratic. You have to have a little bit of laissez-faire, but you have to have some headroom that you can actually move in' (C2). Thus, state level strategy consists of the directions for events contained in the tourism plan, but also an incremental, strategic approach that seeks and responds to opportunities.

Status of events tourism strategies and strategic input. The majority of participants felt that the events tourism strategy at *state* level existed as an amalgam of the events focus in the state tourism strategy and ongoing strategic decisions. 'I think we are closer to getting there. In recent times, we've looked at our calendar of events, looked at the state tourism plan, and we're making sure that our forward planning process aligns with what that strategy is' (C8). It was suggested that the state strategy is brought together from both 'top-down' and 'ground-up' approaches. There is an overall evaluation of directions that occurs in the context of the tourism plan and through ongoing managerial decisions, but the strategy also emerges from the tourism marketing that surrounds each of the *major events*.

An intent to draw tourists to the *regions* via events was an acknowledged element in the state tourism plan. However, a funding program, more than a strategy for regional events tourism was described. The opportunity to integrate the events development work being undertaken by regional marketing bodies was recognized. 'I think the development of such a strategy would be seen as an overall state government issue. I don't think that that's something that the regions themselves would push' (C4). 'There is a need for something which is pan-regional, where we actually get something that links those together and provides a number of different opportunities' (C6).

At *city* level, a capital city events tourism directions is thought to exist as a result of joint membership in the decision making network by the events agency and the city council. Here, the word 'collaboration' was used to describe the relationship which has resulted in forward planning by the city council with events funding and joint involvement as stakeholders with major events. 'You know on a weekly basis, we work with the council on all levels' (C3).

Differing views were expressed on whether city, regional and state strategies for events tourism exist in an integrated form. Some participants thought that this was the purpose of the state tourism plan. However, the majority indicated that none of these levels of strategy for events tourism were sufficiently developed in their own right to provide the basis for an *integrated* strategy. Where the state level strategy including major events decisions is guided by the intra-governmental decision-makers and their informal network at city level, regional strategy emerges from communities themselves and the work of the regional tourism authorities and their networks throughout the state.

Processes of strategy creation and strategic input. General questions produced a range of activities that were seen to be integral to the process of developing events tourism strategy. Included in these steps were: knowledge gathering about event opportunities, assessment of their uniqueness; events calendar analysis, looking at events in the context of the state's key drivers of growth as well as tourism, target market identification, competitive analysis, internal and external stakeholder consultation, financial feasibility and residual impact analysis.

To gauge the importance of particular activities in strategic processes for events tourism at the present time, a list of steps identified by the researcher were rated. Table 4 shows the extent to which these activities were thought to be included at the moment. The table also shows combined results for all six states in the research. Most results were skewed towards the reported finding, while others were normally distributed. The consensus on the high level of importance attached to evaluating the impact of events in the state ties in with the earlier finding about the importance of economic criteria in assessing events agency performance.

Table 4   The importance of different activities in the current processes used to develop events tourism strategy

Activity * Indicates result variation with all states	Level of importance (this state)	Distribution	Level of importance (all states)
Event selection based on strategic fit with state attributes	1.77 (Important)	Skewed	2.70 (Average importance)
Calculation of potential tourist volume	1.5 (Important)	Skewed	1.82 (Important)
Calculation of potential tourism yield*	1.44 (Very important)	Skewed	1.92 (Important)
Analysis of destination branding before events are selected *	2.43 (Important)	Skewed	2.70 (Average importance)
Consulting tourism constituents on event selection	3.0 (Average importance)	Normal	2.86 (Average importance)
Events portfolio development via matching events with tourist markets	2.72 (Average importance)	Normal	2.75 (Average importance)
Thematic, seasonal, place related events planning	1.5 (Important)	Skewed	2.12 (Important)
Acquiring events based on tourism potential	1.68 (Important)	Skewed	1.86 (Important)
Developing grassroots events as tourism products	2.5 (Average importance)	Normal	2.75 (Average importance)
Packaging events as tourist attractions	2.05 (Important)	Normal	2.39 (Important)
Evaluating the tourism impacts of all events*	1.11 (Very important)	Consensus	1.87 (Important)

In Table 4, a variation between this state and others was observed on the analysis of tourism yield as well as the analysis of destination branding relative to events acquired or supported. The high level of importance attached to looking at yield, not just visitors, further highlights the pressure to demonstrate economic viability of events in the current political environment. More importance was also attributed in this state to linking events with the destination brand. In other states, many interviewees felt that a number of events that derive tourism impacts cannot reflect any particular relationship to their state's tourism branding. The example of Mama Mia was cited where it brought tourist visitation to host cities, but had no relationship with state branding. The higher importance attached to this activity here could point to more priority being given to profiling the state's attributes alongside attracting visitation. It also aligns with the perceived importance of events as tourist attractions discussed earlier in the report. 'More intangible lifestyles things are sometimes hard to promote and so (events) are one of the ways we've done that' (C5). Ongoing analysis of the events calendar also achieved a higher rating in this state than in results for all others. Almost all participants emphasized that this was an important reference in the context of making strategic decisions. 'It's massively important' (C2). A higher level of importance was also placed on evaluating the tourism impacts of events in this state than was shown in the composite result for all states.

In contrast to points made by some interviewees about the need for more pro-activity in seeking or establishing new events, these ratings suggest that acquisition is seen to be a more important inclusion than developing existing, grassroots events. A similar finding in all six states was evident, but event development was thought to be growing in importance. Similar to other states, the development of an events portfolio based on matching event opportunities with tourist markets was thought to be a difficult process. 'I think the event business is such a difficult area because it's not like, "Well, I'll have one of those and one of those"….One can drop in your lap, another one you've got to fight like hell for' (C1). Consulting with tourism constituents or industry in the strategy formulation stage was also considered to be of average importance in this state and this was reflected in the total state results. In effect, these stakeholders were not part of the core network of inter-organisational relationships engaged in strategy formulation in most states/territories.

Summary: This state adopts an incremental strategy model, but also recognizes that it is reactive and proactive approach to opportunities. Formal processes for shaping events tourism exist in the context of the state tourism plan, but the overall shape of strategy is thought to be incremental. There is no one document that draws together detailed strategies for state, regional and city level events tourism, although the state tourism plan offers directions and some initiatives at each level. Participants agreed that most strategic outcomes for events tourism are shaped by the ongoing decisions made by the events agency in concert with its small network of stakeholders. A range of activities was recognized as steps to be taken in formulating events tourism strategy. All activities identified by the researcher were rated as important inclusions in this process. When compared with the combined results for all six states, this state exhibits little difference in the degree of importance attached to most strategic activities for events tourism.

2.5   Research Issue 5

What are the incentives and disincentives for events agencies' inter-organisational relationships for shaping events tourism strategies, and why?

To understand the reasons for and against the use of inter-organisational relationships by events agencies to shape events tourism strategy, both open ended and closed questions were employed. Overall, participants generated several incentives and a number of disincentives for forming networks for this purpose. When combined with those previously identified by the researcher, the body of data generated on this research issue was extensive.

Incentives. Benefits or incentives for having relationships and networks drawn from unprompted discussion were: more innovative event ideas, wider acceptance of the benefits of events, more intellectual input into where things should go, creation of social capital, increased sponsorship and 'buy-in' to events, access to the networks of other agencies, an ability for a representative group to shape directions, an enhanced political profile for events tourism and an ability to better convey agency achievements.

Potential incentives identified by the researcher were rated on a scale from 1 (Very Important) to 5 (Not important at all). Results in Table 5 show their perceived level of importance compared with other states. In this state, all incentives identified by the researcher were considered to be important and there was no variation at all with findings reported for all six states.

Table 5　　　**Perceived importance of different incentives for having inter-organisational relationships to shape events tourism strategy**

Incentive or benefit	Level of importance (this state)	Distribution	Level of importance (all states)
Resource interdependence and shared risk	1.77 (Important)	Skewed	1.75 (Important)
Cement or grow pre-existing relationships	2.11 (Important)	Normal	1.99 (Important)
Gain complementary expertise, markets, operations, territories or timeframes	1.8 (Important)	Skewed	1.84 (Important)
Increase the agencies professional expertise	2.22 (Important)	Skewed	2.07 (Important)
Legitimise the agencies' roles or image	2.12 (Important)	Skewed	2.04 (Important)
Conform to government policy	2.25 (Important)	Polarised	2.27 (Important)
Build trust with new or existing partners	1.6 (Important)	Skewed	1.71 (Important)
Avoid stakeholder backlash or complaint	2.1 (Important)	Skewed	2.08 (important)

As shown in Table 5, most results were skewed towards the reported finding. However, the use of inter-organisational relationships as a means of conforming to government policy and showing accountability produced a polarized result. Half of the participants thought this was an incentive of average importance, while the remainder indicated that it was a very important incentive. Reasons for this result could be linked with the two prongs of the stated benefit. While most indicated that showing an allegiance to government policy was important, the need for accountability was even more important in the current political environment. Thus, the ratings of participants appear to have been affected by how much emphasis was placed on the two parts of this question.

Overall, participants agreed that there were benefits in developing inter-organisational networks to shape events tourism. While it was acknowledged that events agency management had a demonstrated ability to network, the opportunity to obtain more diverse input was emphasized. 'Other agencies can value-add enormously, in terms of their expertise and their own networks' (C5). Some suggested that there were people from the agency's original advisory group, community leaders and former Board members who could be part of a regular, collaborative forum. 'That would be the ideal forum, where every quarter something comes out, we discuss in confidence what's happening, such as ideas on bidding. It's too public sector driven and I suspect it might get more intense before it eases off' (C6).

Disincentives. All participants were able to identify barriers or disincentives for using inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategy making. Specific barriers raised in open-ended discussion were: people's perceptions of the bureaucratic nature of public sector networks, the risk of confidentiality breaches, loss of power for people within the group, a reluctance to become more transparent, slower processes, an inability to appease all interests, a potential loss of focus and conflicts created by parochialism and hidden agendas. It should be noted that similar barriers were also noted in other states. A number of other barriers or disincentives for inter-

organisational relationships identified by the researcher were rated by participants. Table 6 (on the following page) presents their views on the level of importance of these as disincentives for engaging in inter-organisational relationships for events tourism strategy. In this state, a level of importance was attached to all identified barriers. The potential for most stakeholders to offer some resources or input of value is indicated by the average importance attached to the first barrier.

Table 6   **Perceived importance of disincentives for having inter-organisational relationships to shape events tourism strategy**

Disincentive or barrier	Importance (this state)	Distribution	Importance (all other states)
Some stakeholders offer resources/input that agencies can already obtain	3.27 (Average importance)	Normal	3.39 (Average importance)
Inadequate time, resources or personnel	2.0 (Important)	Skewed	1.97 (Important)
Immediacy of projects and decisions, need for fast turnaround	1.81 (Important)	Skewed	2.08 (Important)
A culture of secrecy due to commercial sensitivities	2.22 (Important)	Normal	2.40 (Important)
Lack of interest or willingness to form relationships among agency managers	3.33 (Average importance)	Normal	3.22 (Average importance)
Concern for economic outcomes limits interest in some stakeholders	2.0 (Important)	Skewed	2.43 (Important)
Event promoters/organizers who might impede some relationships or networks	2.68 (Average importance	Normal	2.68 (Average importance)
Political leaders who might impede some relationships or networks	2.75 (Average importance)	Normal	2.71 (Average importance)
History or traditional way strategy is managed (not so relationship oriented)	2.06 (Important)	Skewed	2.49 (Important)

From the above table, it is evident that there is again no difference in the results found in this state and those reported for all six states. While there were instances of states that thought most of these perceived barriers were unimportant, this was not the case with the results reported here. Therefore, each of the above barriers as well as those generated independently by participants deserves consideration if enhanced networks for strategy making are desired in this state.

Summary: Overall, participants in this state were able to generate a range of incentives and disincentives for drawing on networks and relationships to help shape events tourism strategy. All of the items identified by the researcher were seen to be important and participants added others to that list. Findings on this issue provide a reference for the events agency in understanding reasons to extend its current inter-organisational relationships and in weighing up the perceived impediments.

3   Conclusions and implications

The impact of particular institutional arrangements and public sector issues on the relationships that shape events tourism strategy was emphasized in this state. Events and tourism are structurally aligned and a tourism strategy framework guides major events acquisition and development. Initiatives of the new government to streamline events agency reporting to the tourism commission board demonstrate a continued commitment to the events-tourism linkage. Various public sector issues provide a backdrop to events tourism development. Interviewees noted an absence of tourism and events in election policies of the new government, a heightened interest in economic performance as well as the pressure of risk management and 'green' issues. Primary roles of the events agency exist in events acquisition, development and management. The state's continued role in events management contrasts with other states. It was agreed that events tourism is at a crossroads, where resolutions about the agency's pro-activity in seeking or developing new events alongside its event management role are needed to shift events tourism into a new phase of growth.

Positive and negative implications of current public sector arrangements for events tourism development were highlighted. On the positive side, a range of strategic activities for events tourism are now acknowledged to be important within the state. These activities devised by events and tourism personnel provide the opportunity to further leverage the tourism potential of events. The state tourism plan formally documents an events tourism direction while incremental strategies are facilitated by the agency's reactive and proactive response to event opportunities. Opportunities also remain to further integrate state-level events tourism with pan-regional strategies for events tourism. Yet, ease of access to a business network, an independent advisory Board, enhanced competitiveness and some political and financial advantages were perceived benefits of agency independence. Without that independence, the agency's use and development of inter-organisational relationships offers a means of garnering some of the above advantages.

In the public sector context, a small, 'tightly-knit' network of intra-governmental relationships dominates events tourism directions. This network cluster is influenced by an informal, cooperative network of relationships, inside and outside government. However, most thought that private sector stakeholders and community leaders could be more prominent in this network. Diverse networks that typified the events agency's introductory phase, relationships with recent members of the events advisory Board and relationships with new events representatives on the tourism Board were highlighted as important. Along with diversification of the network, deliberate 'in-confidence' brainstorming among network members was suggested. Many benefits of such inter-organisational relationships were recognized by participants. However, those highlighted in this state were enhanced innovation and intellectual input to events tourism directions, shared risk, the creation of social capital, an improved understanding of the benefits of events and the agency's role. Among the impediments to be overcome to acquire those benefits are concerns about loss of power, the pace of decision-making, stakeholder conflicts and confidentiality. However, the agency's recognized ability to network, albeit informally, provides a platform for building inter-organisational relationships for this purpose. Thus, while a 'closed shop' is thought to prevail at the present time, avenues exist to re-assess the network and claw back some of the perceived advantages of independence through the agency's relational orientation.