

**THE PERCEIVED ROLE OF COMMUNITY
INVOLVEMENT IN THE MEGA-EVENT HOSTING
PROCESS: A CASE STUDY OF THE ATLANTA 1996 AND
SYDNEY 2000 OLYMPIC GAMES**

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Thesis submitted for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

School of Leisure, Sport and Tourism

Faculty of Business

University of Technology, Sydney

2000

CERTIFICATE

I certify that this thesis has not already been submitted for any degree and is not being submitted as part of candidature for any other degree.

I also certify that the thesis has been written by me and that any help that I have received in preparing this thesis, and all sources used, have been acknowledged in this thesis.

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to thank my supervisor, Associate Professor Tony Veal, for his guidance and the many hours he invested in this PhD. Secondly, I would like to thank my fellow PhD student John Dodd, for his companionship, support and advice, both thesis related and otherwise. In addition I would like to thank the staff of the School of Leisure, Sport and Tourism, University of Technology, Sydney, for all of their help and for making me feel welcome during the course of my studies. Finally, I would like to thank my family for their unwavering support and patience, without which I would not have been in a position to even begin this thesis.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CERTIFICATE	i
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.....	ii
LIST OF TABLES	ix
LIST OF FIGURES	xi
ABSTRACT	xiii
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION	1
TOURISM.....	1
<i>Defining Tourism</i>	2
<i>An Historical Profile</i>	4
THE EVENT AS A FACTOR IN TOURISM.....	6
<i>Mega-Events as Attractions</i>	7
REASONS FOR CURRENT STUDY.....	7
THESIS OUTLINE	8
 SECTION 1: EVENT AND PLANNING THEORY	
CHAPTER 2: SPECIAL AND MEGA-EVENTS.....	11
WHAT ARE SPECIAL EVENTS?	11
AN EVENT TYPOLOGY	13
<i>Determinant factors</i>	14
a) Local Events.....	14
b) Regional Events	16
c) National/Continental Events	16
d) Mega-Events	17
<i>Non-determinant Attributes</i>	20
DEFINING MEGA-EVENTS	22
<i>The Progression of the Mega-event</i>	24
THE PERCEIVED IMPACTS OF TOURISM, SPECIAL AND MEGA-EVENTS	26
a) <i>Tourism</i>	27
b) <i>Resident Response Strategies to Tourism</i>	29
c) <i>Special and Mega-Events</i>	32
CHAPTER 3: PLANNING AND THE ROLE OF COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT.....	35
INTRODUCTION	35
WHAT IS PLANNING?.....	35
MAJOR FORMS OF PLANNING.....	37
<i>Urban Planning</i>	37
A GENERAL APPROACH	38
COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT AND PARTICIPATION	40
<i>Involvement Vs Democracy</i>	41
<i>Levels of Involvement</i>	41

<i>Consultation</i>	42
<i>Participation</i>	43
COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT IN PLANNING FOR MEGA-EVENTS.....	46
<i>Why is it Necessary?</i>	46
<i>Planning Approaches to Mega-Events</i>	49
a) Political Approach.....	49
b) Planning Approach	51
Toronto Olympic Commitment.....	52
IMPLICATIONS FOR THE FUTURE	52
CHAPTER 4: THE MEGA-EVENT HOSTING PROCESS.....	54
INTRODUCTION	54
EXISTING MODELS	54
FACTORS INFLUENCING THE MEGA-EVENT HOSTING PROCESS	55
GENERIC MODEL OF THE MEGA-EVENT HOSTING PROCESS	58
1. <i>Inception Stage</i>	59
1.1 Initial Concept.....	59
1.2 Community Compatibility.....	59
1.3 Preliminary Situation Analysis and Feasibility Study.....	59
2. <i>Pre-Bid Stage</i>	60
2.1 Decision to Bid or Not to Bid.....	60
2.2 Preliminary Planning, Fundraising and Bid Preparation	61
3. <i>Bid Stage</i>	61
3.1 Bid to National/Regional Sanctioning Body.....	61
3.2 Detailed Planning, Fundraising and Bid Preparation	62
3.3 Bid to International Sanctioning Body.....	62
4. <i>Pre-Event Stage</i>	63
4.1 Review and Implement Plans	63
4.2 Marketing and Fund-raising	63
4.3 Construct Facilities and Infrastructure	64
4.4 Develop Hosting Strategies.....	64
5. <i>Event Stage</i>	65
5.1 Implement Hosting Strategies	65
6. <i>Post-Event Stage</i>	65
6.1 Evaluate Event and Impacts	65
6.2 Utilise Opportunities Created by the Event.....	66
APPLICATION OF GENERIC MEGA-EVENT HOSTING MODEL	66
1. <i>The Wimbledon Tennis Championships</i>	67
2. <i>The Soccer World Cup Final</i>	69
3. <i>The funeral of Diana, Princess of Wales</i>	70
VALUE OF THE GENERIC MEGA-EVENT HOSTING MODEL	72

SECTION 2: OLYMPIC GAMES: BACKGROUND AND THEORY

CHAPTER 5: HISTORY OF THE OLYMPIC GAMES.....	74
INTRODUCTION	74
THE ANCIENT OLYMPICS	74
<i>Origins.....</i>	75
<i>An Olympic Ideology.....</i>	77
<i>Olympic Participants and Amateurism.....</i>	78
<i>The End of an Era</i>	79
THE REVIVAL.....	80
<i>Panagiotis Soutsos and William Brookes.....</i>	81
<i>Baron Pierre de Coubertin.....</i>	82
<i>Beginnings of the International Olympic Committee</i>	84
Eligibility of Competitors	85
THE MODERN OLYMPICS	87
<i>The Role of Politics</i>	88
<i>Advent of Commercialism.....</i>	90
CONCLUSIONS	93
CHAPTER 6: THE OLYMPIC GAMES HOSTING PROCESS	95
INTRODUCTION	95
OLYMPIC TIME-LINE AND HOSTING STAGES.....	96
<i>Inception Stage.....</i>	96
<i>Pre-Bid Stage</i>	98
<i>Bid Stage.....</i>	99
<i>Pre-Event Stage.....</i>	103
<i>Event Stage.....</i>	108
<i>Post-Event Stage.....</i>	109
EVENT-SPECIFIC FACTORS APPLIED TO THE OLYMPIC HOSTING PROCESS	111
<i>Politics.....</i>	112
<i>Commerce.....</i>	113
<i>Preliminary Study.....</i>	113
<i>IOC.....</i>	114
<i>NOC.....</i>	114
<i>Sporting Bodies</i>	115
<i>Media.....</i>	116
<i>Community Involvement</i>	117
<i>Culture.....</i>	119
<i>Environment</i>	119
<i>Infrastructure.....</i>	120
SUMMARY	120

CHAPTER 7: COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT AND THE OLYMPIC GAMES -

A REVIEW OF RELATED RESEARCH	122
INTRODUCTION	122
COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT AND THE OLYMPIC GAMES	123
RELATED RESEARCH.....	126
<i>Calgary 1988 Winter Olympics</i>	126
<i>Toronto's Bid for the 1996 Olympics</i>	129
<i>Atlanta 1996 Olympics</i>	135
<i>Sydney 2000 Olympics</i>	138
SUMMARY	142

SECTION 3: EMPIRICAL STUDY

CHAPTER 8: RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND ISSUES..... 145

INTRODUCTION	145
PURPOSE OF THE STUDY.....	145
RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND ISSUES	147
<i>Major Research Question</i>	147
Definition of Terms.....	147
<i>Subsidiary Questions</i>	148
Host Publics	148
Community/Welfare Groups	149
Bid/Organising Committees	150

CHAPTER 9: METHODOLOGY

INTRODUCTION	152
OVERVIEW	152
SUBJECTS	154
<i>Atlanta Region</i>	154
<i>Sydney Region</i>	154
RESEARCH DESIGN.....	155
SURVEY INSTRUMENTS	155
<i>Pilot Questionnaire</i>	156
<i>Questionnaire Content and Design</i>	157
Host Publics	157
Community/Welfare Groups	161
Bid/Organising Committees	162
SAMPLE SELECTION AND DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE.....	164
<i>Atlanta Region</i>	164
Host Public Survey.....	164
Community/Welfare Group Survey	166
Bid/Organising Committee Survey	167
<i>Sydney Region</i>	168
Host Public Survey.....	168

Community/Welfare Group Survey	169
Bid/Organising Committee Survey	169
<i>Implications for the Study</i>	170
<i>Reliability</i>	170
<i>Validity</i>	170
<i>Analysis</i>	171
SAMPLE SIZE AND CHARACTERISTICS.....	172
<i>Representativeness</i>	172
<i>Demographic Characteristics</i>	174
Major Sample Differences.....	175
CHAPTER 10: ATLANTA HOST PUBLIC SURVEY RESULTS AND ANALYSIS.....	176
INTRODUCTION	176
<i>Question 1.1</i>	176
<i>Question 1.2</i>	179
<i>Major Research Question</i>	181
<i>Question 1.3</i>	185
<i>Question 1.4</i>	187
<i>Question 1.5</i>	188
<i>Question 1.6</i>	189
<i>Question 1.7</i>	191
<i>Question 1.8</i>	192
<i>Question 1.9</i>	194
SUMMARY	197
CHAPTER 11: SYDNEY REGION RESULTS AND ANALYSES.....	199
INTRODUCTION	199
HOST PUBLIC SURVEY	199
<i>Question 1.1</i>	199
<i>Question 1.2</i>	202
<i>Major Research Question</i>	204
<i>Question 1.3</i>	207
<i>Question 1.4</i>	211
<i>Question 1.5</i>	213
<i>Question 1.6</i>	214
<i>Question 1.7</i>	216
<i>Question 1.8</i>	218
<i>Question 1.9</i>	219
COMMUNITY/WELFARE GROUPS SURVEY	224
<i>Support and Perceived Community Involvement (Q1.1, Q1.2)</i>	224
<i>Forms of Participation Aware of and Perceived Contribution (Q1.3, Q1.5)</i>	225
<i>Olympic Related Issues and Statements (Q1.6, Q1.8)</i>	225
BID/ORGANISING COMMITTEES SURVEY	226
<i>Support and Perceived Community Involvement (Q1.1, Q1.2)</i>	226

<i>Forms of Participation Aware of and Perceived Contribution (Q1.3, Q1.5)</i>	228
<i>Olympic Related Issues and Statements (Q1.6, Q1.8)</i>	228
SUMMARY	229
CHAPTER 12: SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS	231
INTRODUCTION	231
DISCUSSION OF EMPIRICAL RESULTS	231
CONTRIBUTION TO EXISTING THEORY AND METHODOLOGY	234
<i>Event and Planning Theory</i>	234
<i>Olympic Games: Background and Theory</i>	236
<i>Empirical Research</i>	237
POTENTIAL FOR FURTHER RESEARCH	237
CONCLUSIONS	238
REFERENCES	240
APPENDICES	259
APPENDIX 1: CANDIDATURE QUESTIONNAIRE THEMES	260
APPENDIX 2: ATLANTA AND SYDNEY HOST PUBLIC QUESTIONNAIRES	261
APPENDIX 3: SYDNEY COMMUNITY/WELFARE GROUP QUESTIONNAIRE	269
APPENDIX 4: SYDNEY COMMUNITY/WELFARE GROUP MAILING LIST	273
APPENDIX 5: WEIGHTED VS NON-WEIGHTED ANALYSIS OF KEY OPINION VARIABLES BY AGE	274
APPENDIX 6: SYDNEY BID/ORGANISING COMMITTEE QUESTIONNAIRE	276
APPENDIX 7: ATLANTA SURVEY COMPLETION RECORD FORM	280
APPENDIX 8: STATISTICAL SUMMARY- ATLANTA HOST PUBLIC	281
APPENDIX 9: ATLANTA HOST PUBLIC STATISTICAL ANALYSIS	291
APPENDIX 10: STATISTICAL SUMMARY- SYDNEY HOST PUBLIC	303
APPENDIX 11: SYDNEY HOST PUBLIC STATISTICAL ANALYSIS	312
APPENDIX 12: STATISTICAL SUMMARY- SYDNEY COMMUNITY/WELFARE GROUPS	324
APPENDIX 13: STATISTICAL SUMMARY- SYDNEY BID/ORGANISING COMMITTEES	330

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE 4.1: ANALYSIS OF EXISTING MODELS	55
TABLE 6.1: 1993 IOC SESSION VOTING	102
TABLE 7.1: OLYMPIC IMPACT STUDIES.....	124
TABLE 9.1: INDIVIDUAL SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS.....	172
TABLE 9.2: CONFIDENCE INTERVALS.....	172
TABLE 9.3: DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF HOST PUBLIC SAMPLES.....	174
TABLE 10.1: LEVELS OF SUPPORT AT DIFFERENT STAGES IN THE HOSTING PROCESS	177
TABLE 10.2: REASONS FOR LEVEL OF SUPPORT DURING THE GAMES	178
TABLE 10.3: REASONS FOR ANY CHANGE IN SUPPORT DURING THE HOSTING PROCESS.....	178
TABLE 10.4: PERCEIVED LEVELS OF COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT PRE AND POST-BID	181
TABLE 10.5: LEVEL OF GAMES SUPPORT BY PERCEIVED PRE-BID HOST COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT.....	182
TABLE 10.6: LEVEL OF GAMES SUPPORT BY PERCEIVED POST-BID HOST COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT.....	182
TABLE 10.7: CORRELATIONS BETWEEN PERCEIVED COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT AND LEVEL OF SUPPORT.....	183
TABLE 10.8: THE EFFECT OF FEELING MORE INVOLVED ON OVERALL LEVEL OF SUPPORT	184
TABLE 10.9: FORMS OF COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION AWARE OF AND UTILISED	185
TABLE 10.10: WHY FORMS OF COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION AWARE OF WERE NOT UTILISED	186
TABLE 10.11: LEVEL OF GAMES SUPPORT BY PUBLIC MEETING AWARENESS/UTILISATION.....	187
TABLE 10.12: NUMBER OF EVENTS ATTENDED DURING THE GAMES.....	188
TABLE 10.13: RESPONDENTS' PERCEIVED CONTRIBUTION THROUGHOUT THE HOSTING PROCESS.....	188
TABLE 10.14: METHODS OF CONTRIBUTION.....	189
TABLE 10.15: RANKING OF OLYMPIC RELATED ISSUES.....	189
TABLE 10.16: CORRELATION BETWEEN PERCEIVED IMPORTANCE OF OLYMPIC ISSUES AND SUPPORT....	190
TABLE 10.17: PERCEIVED REASONS TO BID FOR AN EVENT SUCH AS THE OLYMPICS.....	192
TABLE 10.18: AGREE/DISAGREE STATEMENTS CONCERNING RESEARCH Q1.8	193
TABLE 10.19: LEVEL OF GAMES SUPPORT BY AGE	195
TABLE 10.20: KEY VARIABLES BY DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS	196
TABLE 10.21: CORRELATIONS BETWEEN KEY VARIABLES AND INCOME/AGE.....	197
TABLE 11.1: LEVELS OF SUPPORT AT DIFFERENT STAGES IN THE HOSTING PROCESS	200
TABLE 11.2: REASONS FOR LEVEL OF SUPPORT DURING THE SURVEY	201
TABLE 11.3: REASONS FOR ANY CHANGE IN SUPPORT DURING THE HOSTING PROCESS.....	201
TABLE 11.4: PERCEIVED LEVELS OF COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT PRE AND POST-BID	204
TABLE 11.5: LEVEL OF GAMES SUPPORT BY PRE-BID INVOLVEMENT	205
TABLE 11.6: LEVEL OF GAMES SUPPORT BY POST-BID INVOLVEMENT	205
TABLE 11.7: CORRELATIONS BETWEEN PERCEIVED INVOLVEMENT AND LEVEL OF SUPPORT.....	206

TABLE 11.8: THE EFFECT OF FEELING MORE INVOLVED ON OVERALL LEVEL OF SUPPORT	207
TABLE 11.9: FORMS OF COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION AWARE OF AND UTILISED	208
TABLE 11.10: WHY FORMS OF COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION AWARE OF WERE UTILISED	209
TABLE 11.11: LEVEL OF GAMES SUPPORT BY AWARENESS/UTILISATION OF PUBLIC MEETINGS AND DESCRIPTIVE INFORMATION	210
TABLE 11.12: NUMBER OF EVENTS RESPONDENTS WANT TO <i>AND</i> BELIEVE WILL ATTEND	211
TABLE 11.13: PAIRED SAMPLE T-TEST BETWEEN EVENTS WANT TO ATTEND AND EVENTS BELIEVE WILL ATTEND	212
TABLE 11.14: LEVEL OF SUPPORT BY THE NUMBER OF EVENTS RESPONDENTS WANT TO ATTEND AND BELIEVE WILL ATTEND.....	212
TABLE 11.15: PERCEIVED HOST PUBLIC CONTRIBUTION DURING THE HOSTING PROCESS	213
TABLE 11.16: REASONS FOR PERCEIVED LEVEL OF CONTRIBUTION.....	214
TABLE 11.17: RANKING OF OLYMPIC RELATED ISSUES.....	215
TABLE 11.18: CORRELATIONS BETWEEN PERCEIVED IMPORTANCE OF OLYMPIC ISSUES AND SUPPORT..	216
TABLE 11.19: REASONS TO BID FOR AN EVENT SUCH AS THE OLYMPICS	217
TABLE 11.20: AGREE/DISAGREE STATEMENTS CONCERNING RESEARCH <i>Q1.8</i>	218
TABLE 11.21: LEVELS OF PERCEIVED INVOLVEMENT BY INCOME.....	220
TABLE 11.22: KEY VARIABLES BY DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS	221
TABLE 11.23: CORRELATIONS BETWEEN SELECTED VARIABLES AND INCOME/AGE.....	222
TABLE 11.24: COMPARISON OF PERCEIVED <i>ACTUAL</i> AND <i>IDEAL</i> LEVELS OF COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT PRE/POST-BID.....	227

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE 2.1: EVENT TYPOLOGY	15
FIGURE 2.2: APPLICATION OF THE EVENT TYPOLOGY.....	21
FIGURE 3.1: THE PLANNING PROCESS.....	40
FIGURE 4.1: GENERIC MODEL OF THE MEGA-EVENT HOSTING PROCESS	58
FIGURE 4.2: HOSTING PROCESS FOR THE WIMBLEDON TENNIS CHAMPIONSHIPS.....	68
FIGURE 4.3: HOSTING PROCESS FOR THE SOCCER WORLD CUP	69
FIGURE 4.4: HOSTING PROCESS FOR THE FUNERAL OF THE PRINCESS OF WALES.....	71
FIGURE 5.1: MODERN OLYMPIC REVIVAL TIME-LINE.....	80
FIGURE 6.1: MODEL OF THE OLYMPIC GAMES HOSTING PROCESS	96
FIGURE 6.2: EVENT-SPECIFIC FACTORS APPLIED TO THE OLYMPIC HOSTING PROCESS.....	111
FIGURE 6.3: INTERNATIONAL STRUCTURE OF THE OLYMPIC MOVEMENT.....	115
FIGURE 8.1: RESEARCH PROCESS FOR CURRENT STUDY	147
FIGURE 10.1: PERCEIVED COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT PRE-BID	179
FIGURE 10.2: PERCEIVED COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT POST-BID	180
FIGURE 11.1: PERCEIVED COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT PRE-BID	202
FIGURE 11.2: PERCEIVED COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT POST-BID	203

ABSTRACT

Whilst not exclusively a tourism phenomenon, mega-events such as World Fairs/Expositions, Olympic Games, and World Cup Soccer finals, have come to be recognised as major factors in many tourism development, urban revitalisation and urban imaging strategies. Consequently, these events have the ability to significantly impact upon the economic, political and social (both sociocultural and psychological) fabric of the cities and regions that host them. Furthermore, in recent decades there has been a noticeable increase in the desire for a simultaneous growth in participatory democracy and expertise in decision-making in many western societies. These factors have contributed to the emergence of community involvement, and its optimal role in the planning and hosting of such events, as one of the more contentious issues debated in contemporary tourism literature. It should be noted in particular that much of the publicised rationale for hosting mega-events is based upon their potential benefits to the host community.

In order to contribute to the body of knowledge on mega-event planning and management, the present study was initiated to investigate the perceived roles of community involvement in the mega-event hosting process. More specifically, by examining the Atlanta 1996 and Sydney 2000 Olympic Games as case studies, the study sought to identify discrepancies between the *perceived* roles and levels of host community involvement at different stages in the hosting process, from the point of view of the *host public*, *community/welfare groups* and *organisers* in both locations, and whether the level of *perceived* involvement influenced support for hosting the Games.

The methodology consisted of an initial review of literature examining *event and planning theory* and *Olympic Games: background and theory*. An *Event Typology* was developed and a definition for *mega-events* was provided. In addition, six basic stages in the event hosting process (*inception*, *pre-bid*, *bid*, *pre-event*, *event* and *post-event*) were identified and incorporated into a *Generic Model of the Mega-Event Hosting Process*. Questionnaire surveys were utilised as the major method of data collection for the empirical study.

Findings indicated that the *public* in both host regions perceived levels of *actual* involvement to be lower than the *ideal* levels in both the pre-bid and post-bid periods. However, the differences between the *actual* and *ideal* levels of involvement were considered to be greater by Sydney residents. Unfortunately, poor response rates from *community/welfare groups* and *organisers* in the Atlanta region meant that it was not possible to determine if there were any discrepancies between the *perceived* roles and levels of host community involvement at different stages in the hosting process. However, results did indicate that the Sydney *bid/organising committee* respondents perceived *actual* levels of involvement to be higher and *ideal* levels to be lower than the public of Sydney. In both *host public* surveys, relationships were detected between residents' perceived levels of community involvement and levels of support for hosting the Olympic Games. In essence, residents who perceived *actual* community involvement to be *non-existent* in either the pre-bid or post-bid period (except for the Atlanta pre-bid period) showed significantly lower levels of support for the Games, during those same periods and at the time of the Games/survey, than other residents.

Perhaps the most significant finding, however, relates to the fact that whilst members of the Atlanta and Sydney *host public* believed in the concept and benefits of community involvement in the planning process, the knowledge or reassurance that there *were* opportunities to become involved, via participation of various forms, was of greater importance than actually doing so. This finding strongly supports the *rational choice theory*, which proposes that individuals have a tendency to resist participating in collective decision-making. This tendency has been described as the *free rider problem*. It is believed that people, in general, are reluctant to participate in a process to deliver a collective good if they are reasonably assured that others will participate and be successful in obtaining the desired result. Application of the *Generic Model of the Mega-Event Hosting Process* allows a more accurate identification of how, and at what stages in the process, stakeholders' perceptions concerning various aspects (eg. community involvement) of hosting a mega-event, can change.

Further research aimed at determining the extent and implications of the *free rider problem* and the effectiveness of different levels of involvement and forms of participation at the various stages in the hosting process would be beneficial to event organisers and other stakeholders.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

This chapter begins by outlining the impacts of tourism as a global industry and in particular its growing importance to the economies of countries including Australia. Secondly, it provides a working definition of tourism suitable for the purposes of this study. In addition, a brief historical profile of tourism is provided, including an examination of its origins and the emergence of special events as a distinct tourism product. In recent years, the largest and most visible of special events, commonly known as mega-events, have emerged as *essential* components of many individual tourism development programs (city, state and national) (Hall 1995:385). Consequently, the increased role of mega-events as tourism attractions and the possible implications associated with this increased role are discussed. Finally, reasons for and possible applications of the current study are highlighted and an outline of the study provided.

TOURISM

Tourism has grown significantly in both economic and social importance over the past twenty years. The fastest growing economic sector of most industrialised countries over the past several years has been in the area of services (Theobald 1994:3). One of the largest segments of the *service industry* is travel and tourism. According to the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) (1995:3), the travel and tourism industry's contribution (gross output) to the world's economy was \$US3.4 trillion in 1995, or about 10.9% of global GDP, whilst supporting 212 million tourism related jobs (1 in 9). In addition, the WTTC (1995:3) estimates that, by the year 2005, travel and tourism will:

- create employment for 338 million, one in every eight workers;
- generate \$US7.2 trillion in gross output;
- produce 11.4% of world GDP;
- invest \$US1.6 trillion in new facilities and equipment; and
- contribute more than \$US1.4 trillion in tax revenue.

According to the Commonwealth Department of Tourism (1999¹), the number of international visitors to Australia has approximately quadrupled since 1984 to a figure of 4.2 million in 1998, generating \$16.3 billion in export earnings. These figures are expected to rise to 7.7 million and \$29 billion, respectively, by the year 2007 (Tourism Forecasting Council 1998:3). In addition, during the year ending March 1996, Australian residents aged fourteen and over took 63 million trips of at least one night's duration within Australia (domestic tourism), contributing approximately \$42 billion to Gross Domestic Product (Commonwealth Department of Tourism 1999).

DEFINING TOURISM

As an activity, tourism is not easy to define, nor is it the purpose of this study to do so. However, tourism research requires a standard definition in order to establish parameters for research content and to allow the measurement and comparison of tourism impacts (Gee, Makens and Choy 1989) and, as such, will be discussed briefly at this point.

Although complicated, cutting across sectoral categories, and fragmented in nature, tourism is a system comprised of interrelated parts and, when viewed as such, can be defined, analysed, planned, and managed in an integrated manner (Inskeep 1991:22). Rather than one discrete entity, tourism is dependent upon a series of interrelated goods and service providers who combine to facilitate the tourism experience. The following are examples of the individual yet interrelated parts that contribute to the tourism experience (Craig-Smith and French 1994:2):

- tour operators and brokers;
- travel agents and wholesalers;
- transport operators;
- hotels, restaurants and resorts;
- caravan parks and camping grounds;
- retail shops and markets;
- natural and built attractions;
- entertainment centres;
- national parks and wildlife reserves.

¹ <http://www.tourism.gov.au/publications/impact.html>

However, while there remains no *one* simple and universally accepted definition of tourism, it may be argued that there are two major types of definition for tourism, each with its own rationale and intended usage (Theobald 1994:7). Burkart and Medlik (1990:41) argue that *conceptual* definitions provide a broad notional framework, identifying the essential characteristics and distinguishing tourism from similar, often related, but different phenomena. *Technical* definitions on the other hand evolve through experience over time and provide instruments for particular study, statistical, legislative, administrative and industrial purposes. There are different technical definitions appropriate for different purposes. Examples of the application of *technical* definitions can be observed in the actions taken to help standardise comparative international tourism data collection (Theobald 1994:7).

One of the more frequently cited *conceptual* (and perhaps historical given its gender-specific language) definitions of tourism is that by Jafari (1977:8), who states that 'tourism is a study of man away from his usual habitat, of the industry which responds to his needs, and of the impacts that both he and the industry have on the host socio-cultural, economic and physical environments'. Mathieson and Wall (1982:1) on the other hand define tourism as 'the temporary movement of people to destinations outside their normal places of work and residence, the activities undertaken during their stay in those destinations, and the facilities created to cater to their needs'.

Both of the above definitions provide some insight into the continuously evolving phenomenon of *tourism*, however, for the purposes of this study, a more contemporary definition of tourism proposed by the World Tourism Organisation (WTO) has been adopted.

'Tourism comprises the activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes'.

WTO cited in Harris and Howard (1996:154)

AN HISTORICAL PROFILE

Even though tourism as we know it today is a recent phenomenon, which has evolved in the post-World War II period to become an industry of global importance, there have been numerous references to travel and tourism throughout the course of history.

According to McIntosh and Goeldner (1990:22), from earliest times, people travelled, mainly driven by hunger or to escape danger, and it was not until the invention of money by the Sumerians (Babylonia) and the development of trade, which began approximately 4000 BC, that the modern era of travel began.

The Great Pyramids, the River Nile, and the many other monuments of ancient Egypt, attracted large numbers of visitors as early as 2000 BC. Other early accounts of travel relate to the ancient civilisations of Greece and Rome. The Greeks and Romans travelled for the purposes of sightseeing and to attend sporting and religious festivals (Greece particularly witnessed considerable travel to the ancient Olympic Games - discussed in greater detail in Chapter 5), used guides and guidebooks and bought souvenirs (McIntosh *et al.* 1995:30-33).

Following the demise of the Roman Empire, the road network they had created fell into disrepair, together with the peace and stability that had been established and, as a result, long distance travel became fraught with danger. It was not until the nineteenth century that long distance traffic again reached a level equal to that when Rome was at the height of its power (Craig-Smith and French 1994:11).

The next wave of travel in the west, the pilgrimage, had to wait until the early Middle Ages and was initially motivated by religious zeal, with Rome and Jerusalem being popular destinations for Christian pilgrims (Craig-Smith and French 1994:11). This form of travel was, and still remains, a very significant event in other religions. For example, up to one million international Muslim pilgrims make the journey each year to Ka'aba in Makkah, Saudi Arabia (Ahmed 1992:36).

The eighteenth century saw the emergence of the Grand Tour, the journey through Europe, by which the wealthy young might become civilised by exposure to European art, architecture and manners (Burkart and Medlik 1990:4). Indeed, Craig-Smith and French (1994:11) suggest that a person typically had to be without everyday work responsibilities and enjoy a significant income to be able to indulge in travel at this time. This period also saw the beginnings of the fashionable era of spas and seaside resorts. Originally owing their existence to the supposed medicinal benefits of mineral and sea water, they eventually became places of entertainment and relaxation (Burkart and Medlik 1990:4).

Travel and tourism in the nineteenth century were dominated by the railway on land and by the steamship at sea. Before the railways, the aristocracy could be sure of a vacation surrounded only by people of their own class, but with the railways came the middle class followed later by the working class (Burkart and Medlik 1990; Craig-Smith and French 1994). During the twentieth century the growth in annual holiday entitlements and incomes, and the emergence of the motor car and then the jet aircraft have been the factors which have enabled modern tourism, or *mass* tourism, to grow to be one of the world's largest industries (Lynch and Veal 1996:280).

However, the growth and development of tourism has not progressed without controversy. Tourism, by its very nature, is attracted to unique and fragile environments and societies, and it has become apparent that in some cases the economic benefits of tourism may be offset by adverse and previously unmeasured environmental and social consequences (Archer and Cooper 1994:73). In many instances, disillusionment with *mass* tourism and the many problems it has triggered has led many observers and researchers to criticise the past methods and directions of tourism development and to call for more *sustainable* tourism. Sustainable tourism, sometimes referred to as *alternative* or *community-based* tourism, may be broadly defined as those forms of tourism which are consistent with natural, social, and community values and which allow both hosts and guests the opportunity to enjoy positive and worthwhile interaction and shared experiences (Getz 1991:5; Smith and Eadington 1992:3). It is only in recent years that special events (discussed in greater detail in Chapter 2) have been recognised

as one form of tourism with the *potential* to offer the benefits associated with *alternative or community-based* tourism.

THE EVENT AS A FACTOR IN TOURISM

Many special events have a long history, however, every year new festivals and events are created. In fact, the recent popularity of special events has led them to be considered one of the key image builders of modern tourism. Since the commencement of commercial travel in the mid-nineteenth century, short-term staged attractions or special events have been a primary means by which to place or keep tourism destinations on the tourist map (Hall 1992:1).

Getz (1989) argues that, increasingly, these special events are being viewed as an integral part of tourism development and marketing plans for cities, regions and countries alike. Indeed, he further suggests that festivals and special events can play a number of important roles in tourism destination planning, including: attractions in their own right or contributors to destination attractiveness; animators of static attractions and facilities; image makers; and catalysts for other urban development and renewal (Getz 1991:5-16).

Although the majority of events in the past have emerged for non-touristic reasons such as religious festivals or *Holy days*², community leisure, or cultural celebrations, a trend has clearly emerged over the past two decades, to exploit them for tourism and to develop and market *new* events specifically as tourist attractions (Craig-Smith and French 1994:9; Getz 1989:125). The aim of planned *event tourism*, is to enhance the overall attractiveness of a given destination through the development of attractive individual events. This is particularly the case for the larger scale *mega-events*, sometimes referred to as *hallmark* or *landmark* events, such as World Expositions, Olympic Games and World Cup Soccer finals. These largest of events gain significant international exposure and, hence, in most cases, large television viewing audiences. In turn, this *exposure* helps to generate the necessary advertising

² The origin of the modern word *holiday* (Craig-Smith and French 1994:9)

revenue television networks require to justify obtaining (paying for) exclusive rights to event coverage as well as providing justification for the expenditure required by other sponsors to be associated with the event. The significance of hosting such events becomes apparent when both the prestige and competitive international bid processes that are often associated with them are considered (discussed in Chapter 4).

MEGA-EVENTS AS ATTRACTIONS

Whilst not exclusively a tourism phenomenon, it has been suggested that one of the major characteristics of mega-events is their ability to 'enhance the awareness, appeal and profitability of tourism destinations in the short and/or long-term' (Ritchie and Yangzhou 1987:20). Indeed, in recent years, mega-events, such as World Fairs/Expositions, Olympic Games, and World Cup Soccer finals, have come to be recognised as being major factors in many tourism development, urban revitalisation and urban imaging strategies (Hall 1996:366) (discussed in Chapter 2).

Consequently, these events have the ability to significantly impact upon the economic, political and social (both sociocultural and psychological) fabric of the cities and regions that host them (Hall 1996:366; Ritchie 1990:262). It is somewhat surprising, therefore, that mega-events, which have been succinctly described as 'short-term events with long-term consequences for the cities/regions that host them' (Roche 1994:1), and more specifically their associated social impacts, have received limited attention in the literature (discussed in Chapter 7). This is particularly so considering that, apart from encouraging economic, trade and tourism development, much of the publicised rationale for hosting mega-events is based upon their potential benefits to the host community (discussed in Chapter 2).

REASONS FOR CURRENT STUDY

In line with an apparently widespread desire in western societies for increased public involvement in the making of decisions that have the ability to impact upon people's lives (Fagence 1977:2) (discussed in Chapter 3), in recent years potential host communities have begun to question whether the purported benefits attributed to mega-events are indeed realistic and whether they outweigh the potential negative impacts (eg.

Toronto's failed bid for the 1996 Olympics). However, as discussed in Chapter 7, very little research concerning community involvement and its perceived role in the planning and hosting of individual mega-events has been undertaken. Of the limited research available, studies such as those by Lenskyj (1992, 1994, 1996), Kidd (1992) and Hiller (1990), offer preliminary insights into the role and ability of community involvement (primarily in the form of action by community/welfare groups) to influence the *bid* and *event* stages of the Olympic hosting process specifically. However, the host community's role in the remaining stages of the hosting process and particularly host public perceptions regarding involvement remain essentially unexplored.

The purpose of the present study is to begin to fill a void in the body of available literature. A framework is developed for studying the hosting process of mega-events within countries with fairly sophisticated democratic systems and, using the Atlanta 1996 and Sydney 2000 Olympics as case studies, it examines the *actual* and *ideal* levels of community involvement at different stages in the mega-event hosting process as *perceived* by key stakeholders to determine whether or not increased community involvement leads to feelings of increased *support* for such events. It is believed that the findings of this study offer practical applications for both potential event organisers and community/welfare groups in cities and/or regions contemplating bidding for mega-events in the future.

THESIS OUTLINE

The thesis is divided into three major sections. Section 1 provides an examination of special event and general planning theory. More specifically, Chapter 2 discusses in detail special events and mega-events, providing a working definition of the latter. Chapter 3 provides an overview of planning and the role of community involvement in general and mega-event planning. Chapter 4 focuses on the mega-event hosting process, discusses existing models and provides a generic model of the process and examples of its application.

Section 2 is concerned with general theory relating to arguably the largest of mega-events, the Olympic Games. The history of the Olympic Games as an event is

discussed in Chapter 5 with specific attention paid to the ancient Olympics and the revival of the modern Olympic Games. In Chapter 6, the generic mega-event hosting process is applied to the hosting process for the Olympic Games with the role of community involvement throughout the process highlighted. Chapter 7 is utilised to more closely examine community involvement and the Olympic Games and in particular that research which has been undertaken in the area.

Finally, Section 3 represents the empirical aspect of the present study. While Chapter 8 establishes the research questions and issues to be addressed, Chapter 9 outlines the methodology adopted to successfully answer them. Chapters 10 and 11 provide the results and analysis of the surveys undertaken in both Atlanta and Sydney, while Chapter 12 provides a summary of results and conclusions concerning the overall study.

SECTION 1

EVENT AND PLANNING THEORY

CHAPTER 2: SPECIAL AND MEGA-EVENTS

WHAT ARE SPECIAL EVENTS?

‘Not so long ago, when the human species was part of the land, cyclical natural phenomena were subjects for celebration. In cities, where we almost have succeeded in our pursuit to ignore the seasons, cyclical events are taking a new significance. They are the opportunity to break the seemingly endless continuum of time. Not only do they allow us to reconnect with mythical and natural time, festivals are also strong social and political statements and, in many cases, they mean big business.’

(Cousineau 1991:1)

As highlighted in the previous chapter, festivals and special events are emerging as one of the fastest growing segments of the rapidly expanding worldwide tourism industry (Mayfield and Crompton 1995). Backman *et al.* (1995:15) argue that there has been a noticeable increase in hosting such events, particularly since the 1980s, with a large number of towns and communities around the world organising and promoting festivals and special events to create a positive image of themselves. The International Events Group estimate that in North America alone, at least 6000 events occur annually (cited in Backman *et al.* 1995:15). Some studies on community-based festivals and special events have reported as many as 2000 festivals in just two states in the United States alone (Long and Perdue 1990:10). In Australia, the state of New South Wales alone held over 400 such festivals and events in 1992 (Beauregard 1992).

Getz views these events as part of a new wave of *alternative* or *community based* tourism (1991:5). In this context he argues that festivals and special events have the potential (with community support) to minimise negative impacts, contribute to sustainable development, foster community development, improve host/guest relations, and help preserve sensitive natural or social and cultural environments (Getz 1991:5). In addition to their more intangible benefits festivals and special events are also organised to bring money into the local community (Backman *et al.* 1995). However,

as with all forms of tourist and general development, events also have the ability to polarise negative community attitudes if host communities or sections of those host communities believe that their wishes or interests have not been taken into account. This phenomenon can often be exacerbated by the high profile associated with many events.

The generally accepted definition for 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 it represents an opportunity for a leisure, social, or cultural experience outside the normal range of choices or beyond everyday experience.’

Getz (1991:41)

Special events offer a unique form of tourism attraction, ranging in scale from community festivals (eg. an annual street parade) and events at parks and other facilities through to international scale events such as Olympic Games and World Expositions (Getz 1989:125). Hall (1992:3) argues that the key difference between events and *traditional* attractions is the period of time over which they impact on the host community or region. Events are short-term in nature often lasting only one or two days, while fixed attractions tend to draw visitors in a more seasonal or extended manner.

The *uniqueness* and *ambience* associated with special events is a product of several factors, including: their short duration and relative infrequency; their diverse geographical and environmental locations; and their perceived ability to cross cultural barriers (Getz 1989:125). For example, the Olympic Games are held in a different location every four years, with representatives from almost 200 countries coming together to compete for a period of approximately two weeks. The International Olympic Committee, which chooses Olympic host cities and oversees their preparation, deliberately changes the sites for the Olympics as a means of promoting athletic development in a variety of nations which, if successful, are required to provide world-class facilities that might otherwise not have been constructed (Hiller 1990:118).

AN EVENT TYPOLOGY

Terms, such as *mega-event*, and *hallmark event*, can generally only be defined contextually. To aid in understanding the meanings of these terms, Getz argues that the development of an *event typology*³ is necessary and although essentially academic, such a device is likely to be valuable for all stakeholders associated with events. Without some way to distinguish between the different types of events, it is difficult to describe them in terms which are easily understood (1991:44).

A detailed discussion of event definitions and typologies was undertaken by both industry experts and academics by the National Task Force on Data in Canada (Statistics Canada cited in Getz 1991:45). While no firm definitions and classifications emerged from the work of this task force, a preliminary list of criteria for defining festivals and special events was developed. Those characteristics thought to be most essential included (Getz 1991:45):

- it is open to the public;
- its main purpose is the celebration or display of a specific theme;
- it takes place once a year, or less frequently;
- it has predetermined opening and closing dates;
- it does not own a permanent structure;
- its program may consist of separate activities;
- all activities take place in the same local area or region.

The comprehensive and precise nature of these criteria nevertheless excludes several important event types, for example travelling shows (circuses etc.) and any events that occur more regularly than once a year. More specifically, the criterion which suggests a special event should not have its own permanent structure, excludes such international spectacles as the All England Tennis Championships at Wimbledon, the Cannes Film Festival, and several Motorcycle and Formula 1 Grand Prix. Therefore, while these criteria do go part of the way in outlining the essential

³ Typology- study and interpretation of types (Turner 1987:1233)

characteristics of special events, there remains a need to develop a classification system that will more comprehensively encompass and categorise the full range of events.

Getz (1991:45) put forward an *Event Tourism Typology* which outlines the key roles of events in tourism destination development, primarily in their role as attractions. The *Event Typology* offered in Figure 2.1, however, is more concerned with the intrinsic nature of events and is in essence an attempt to illustrate how any one given event differs from other events. However, with the great number and diversity of individual events in existence it was considered necessary initially to categorise events into manageable groups. For the purposes of this study, the use of size or *scale* was determined to be the obvious and single most effective way to distinguish between given events, and similarly, event categories. Consequently, stages in the proposed event hierarchy were categorised as, a) *local events*, b) *regional events*, c) *national/continental events*, and d) *mega-events*.

In addition, it was concluded that the most influential or *determinant factors* affecting the perceived *scale* of events and event categories were, *participants* (number/catchment area), *spectators* (number/catchment area), and the *media* (coverage/*live demand*). Following is a breakdown of the major event categories based on these *determinant factors* and a brief discussion of *non-determinant attributes* that may be associated with events after they have been categorised.

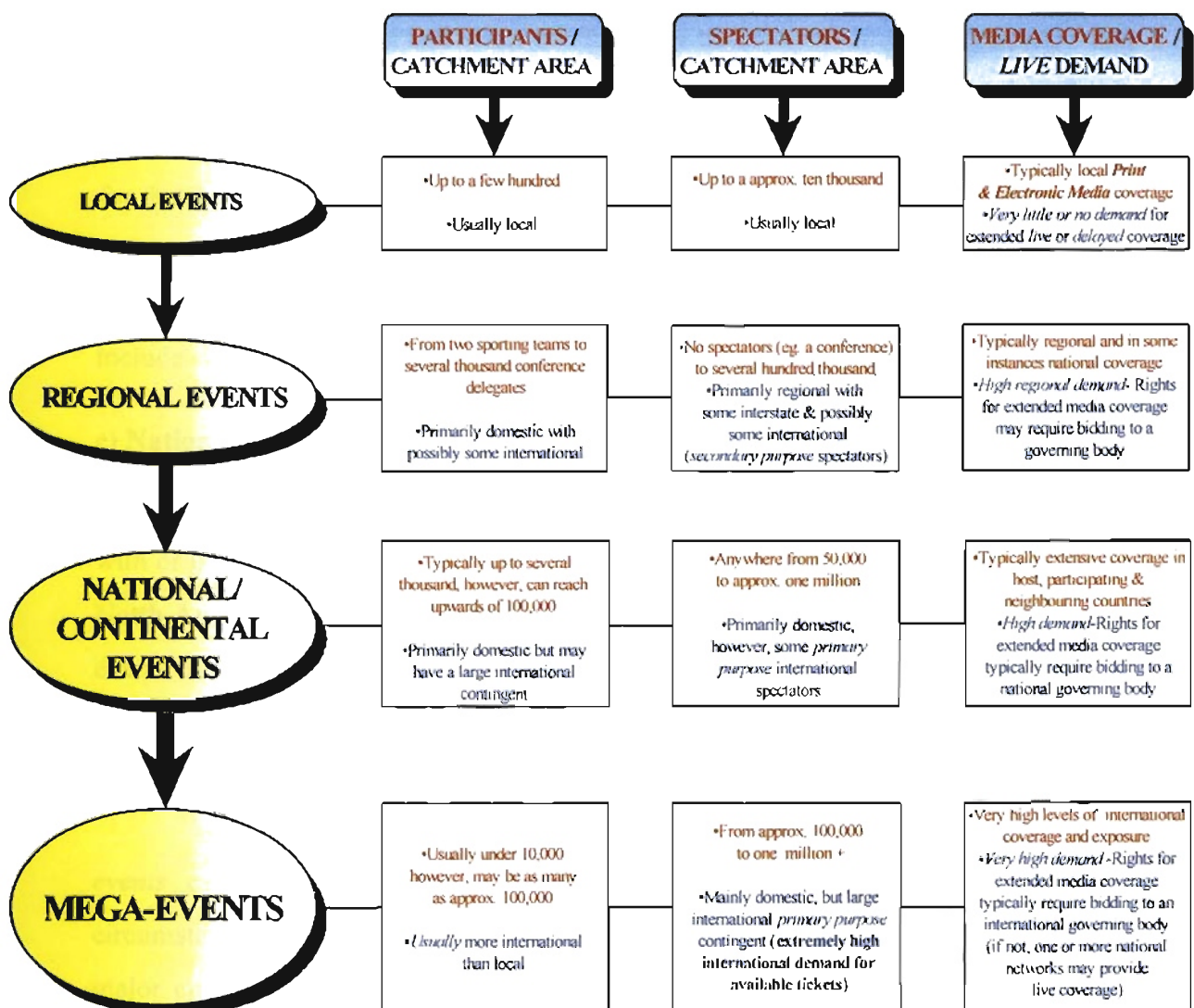
DETERMINANT FACTORS

a) Local Events

The category of *local events* can include, for example, community festivals, mobile markets and small town fairs and festivals. These events usually have anywhere up to several hundred *participants*, with the majority being of local origin. The *catchment area* for *spectators* is typically limited to the immediate area (eg. suburb, small town etc.), with a smaller percentage of *spectators* originating from surrounding suburbs/communities. *Spectator* numbers may range from a few hundred up to approximately ten thousand.

Media coverage is generally limited to attention in both local print and to a lesser extent local television (typically during the news service if at all). There is typically very little or no demand for extended live or delayed coverage of these events. As with all forms of events, *local events* have the potential, over time, to grow in size and stature until large enough to be included in one of the larger event categories. Of course such progression is not guaranteed, nor in many instances is it desired. In addition, progression becomes increasingly difficult the further up the hierarchy an event is located.

Figure 2.1: Event Typology



b) Regional Events

Participants in regional events can range in number from two sporting teams up to several thousand conference delegates. They are primarily domestic in nature but international participants are not uncommon, for example, annual international conferences for professionals. Of course events such as conferences will not have *spectators*, as such, however other events typically have a *catchment area*, which includes the city or state hosting the event. A smaller percentage may come from surrounding states with fewer still originating from an overseas destination. International spectators at regional events are usually *secondary purpose* in nature, meaning that attending the event was not the major reason for their trip.

Coverage in print and electronic news media of regional events is usually state-wide and to a lesser extent nation-wide. There is *high regional demand* for extended live or delayed coverage of these events, often resulting in media networks having to bid for the rights to such coverage. Occasionally networks on-sell their coverage, typically to international cable operators and, as such, these events are often broadcast overseas, although rarely as the result of demand by their viewers. Examples of *regional events* include city festivals, agricultural shows and some domestic sporting finals.

c) National/Continental Events

These events are most common in areas where the host country has land borders with or is particularly close, geographically or culturally, to other countries (eg. Europe, North America, Asia and Australasia). Essentially they are considered to be very large events in the area of the world in which they are being held, but *not necessarily* large on the world scale.

As with regional events, the number of *participants in national/continental events* can range from just a few up to several thousand, however, in certain circumstances this figure can reach upwards of one hundred thousand, for events such as major city marathons. While the *catchment area* for these events is such that most participants are primarily domestic in origin, however, it is not unusual to have a large international contingent.

Spectator numbers can range from fifty thousand up to approximately one million for those events which run for an extended period of time. The spectator *catchment area* for *national/continental* events is primarily national in nature but with the increasing international appeal of such events, they quite often attract some *primary purpose*⁴ international spectators.

Coverage in print and electronic news media for these events is particularly extensive in the host and participating countries, while coverage in neighbouring countries and those sharing cultural or historical ties with the host is not uncommon. *Demand* for extended live or delayed coverage of these events is considered high, especially in host and participating countries. The rights to extended media coverage typically require a bidding process involving a national governing body. As with regional events, these rights are often on-sold to international networks to be used as *content filler*⁵ rather than as a result of public demand.

Events which fit into the *national/continental* category include the Sydney Gay and Lesbian Mardi Gras, Oktoberfest, the Melbourne Cup, the Asian Games, and some international sporting fixtures such as Rugby Union Tests and Davis Cup Tennis fixtures.

d) Mega-Events

At the pinnacle of the event hierarchy are *mega-events* such as the Olympic Games, World Expositions and Wimbledon. The prefix *mega* is generally used to describe the scale of an object or occurrence, and in this instance could quite easily be replaced with terms such as *international* or *global*. However, when discussing events, *mega* is the term generally accepted to describe those events which have international or global appeal, and will be used as such for the purposes of this study. This should not be confused with events that might have similar words in their title, such as a *World Congress*, which do not automatically assume the stature of a mega-event based solely on this fact.

⁴ *Primary purpose* -the primary motivational factor for travel is to experience a specific event.

⁵ *Content filler*- television content designed to take up time, primarily on 24hr television channels.

While it has been suggested in the past that *mega-events* can be defined by various means, including volume of visitors, cost, reputation/prestige and the ability to attract international publicity (Marris 1987; Vanhove and Witt 1987), the *determinant factors* utilised for the proposed *Event Typology* are also considered appropriate for these largest of events.

The range of *participants* associated with *mega-events* is similar to that of *national/continental events* in that they usually number under ten thousand, while on occasions reaching upwards of one hundred thousand. The major difference between the groups is that the *catchment area*, for participants of *mega-events*, is more widespread and generally, the international participants outnumber the domestic.

For logistical reasons (location and ticket availability) the number of domestic spectators will continue to heavily outweigh, an although notable contingent of, international *primary purpose* spectators. Because of traditionally low international ticket availability for major events, it may be useful to consider *international demand* for available tickets as one dimension of an event's catchment area, which in the case of *mega-events* is extremely high. In other words, *mega-events* generate a level of attraction that motivates both large-scale domestic and international *primary purpose* travel. This enormous popularity results in these events drawing (in some cases limited by stadium size and length of event) anywhere from one hundred thousand to over a million spectators.

Mega-events command extensive levels of exposure in national and international print and electronic media, whilst there is a *very high demand* for extended *live* or *delayed coverage*. The rights to extended coverage of these events are considered to be at a premium, and typically require a bidding process involving an international governing body. Selling the rights to different forms of media coverage in these instances becomes an important factor in raising capital to host these events. If there was no governing body, public demand would dictate that one or more national broadcasting networks provide live or delayed coverage of an event.

Getz (1991:46) suggests that *local* events often act as activity outlets for tourists who are not in an area specifically for the purposes of attending an event. It may be argued, however, that this description could be extended to include the larger *national/continental* and *mega-events* in the hierarchy which, it could be argued, also provide activity options for tourists.

Two problems need to be addressed when attempting to create or outline an event typology. The first relates to the actual *frame of reference* that the observer uses for event comparison and categorisation. For example, the terms *local* and *regional* have very different connotations when used at a state or national level, as compared to when used at an international level. As such, it is necessary to specify the scale at which events in a typology will be categorised. For the purposes of this study, events will be examined from an international perspective.

The second problem relates to the invariably arbitrary nature of categorisation. Even though the *determinant factors* suggested; *participants* (number/catchment area), *spectators* (number/catchment area), and the *media* (coverage/ *live* demand) may help the reader conceptualise the different groups within the typology, there will always be instances where the decision, to include an event in one category over another, is discretionary. This may be a result of unavailable or unreliable figures for any one of the criteria, or because some event criteria may fall into one category and some into another.

For example, the decision to include an event in the *regional* rather than the *national/continental* category for the criteria of *spectators*, may be based on the argument that the event in question does not attract sufficient spectators from outside the host region to be included in the second category. However, as precise estimates of spectator numbers and origin at events are rare, a decision, whilst necessary can become quite arbitrary. As a result, none of the *determinant factors* should be viewed as being solely deterministic. Events are diverse by nature and as such, they will rarely fulfil all of the criteria proposed for a particular category, no matter how precise *or* flexible each

category may be. Rather, a more holistic approach needs to be taken, with an event required to fulfil the majority of criteria outlined in one particular category.

Therefore, it must be recognised from the outset that a typology such as this will not solve all of the problems associated with event categorisation; it will merely help to reduce them.

NON-DETERMINANT ATTRIBUTES

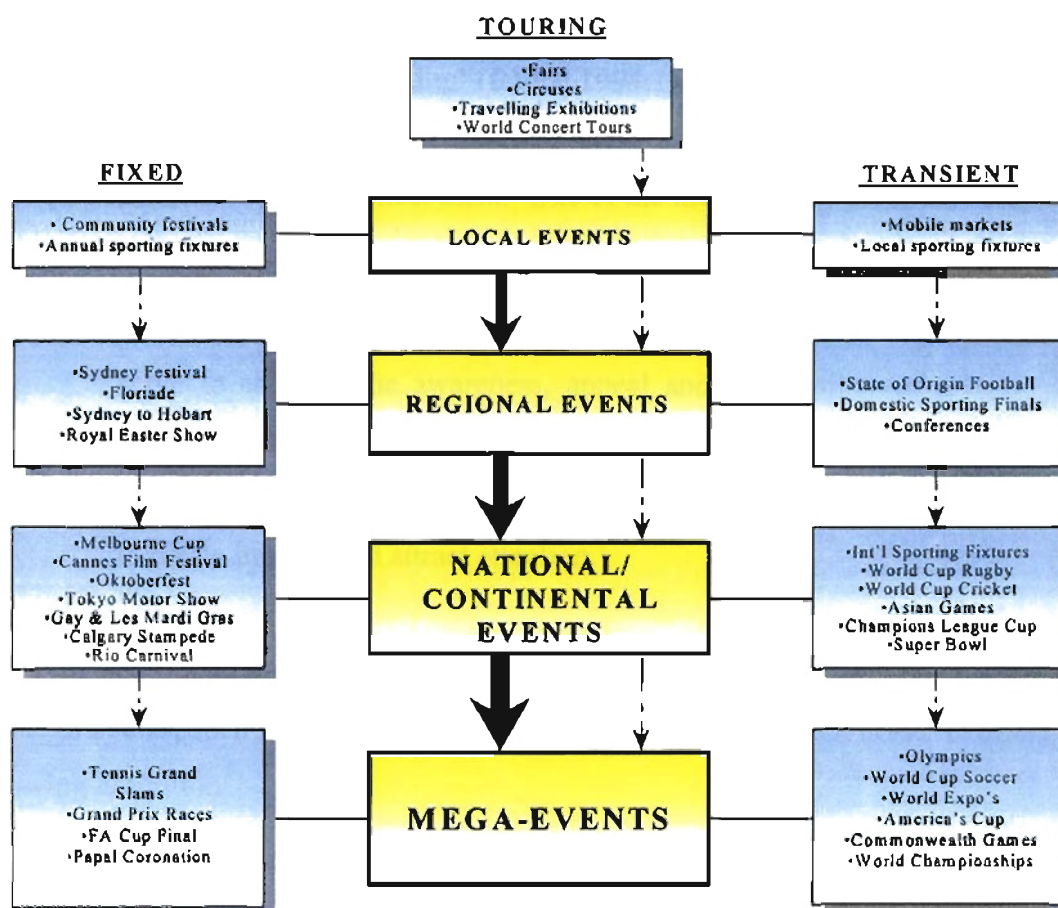
Whilst *determinant factors* (*participants, spectators, and media*) provide an overview of event characteristics within each event category (local, regional, national/continental, and mega-events), *non-determinant attributes* can be used as *filters* to more effectively determine specific examples of events within each category. Therefore, it may be suggested that the determinant factors offer a broad-brush approach, while the application of specific attributes provides the opportunity to more closely examine the individual categories within the typology.

Non-determinant attributes such as *catalysts to event production* (ie. the major reasons behind an event taking place), are of greater benefit when applied to individual event categories (Chapter 4 examines a variety of mega-events occurring as a result of different *catalysts to event production*). However, other attributes, such as an event's *mobile/temporal nature, activity type* (sporting/ cultural/ industrial/ religious/ or community etc.), and level of *participant expertise* (scientific and professional versus popular), are applicable to all categories within the event typology.

For example, it is possible to examine the *mobile/temporal nature* of events (whether fixed, touring or transient) by utilising the *event typology* to determine appropriate examples and provide a graphic illustration of findings (see Figure 2.2). For instance, *fixed* events are those which are held in the same location every year, such as the Melbourne Cup, or at least in the same location for several years in a row, such as the various Formula One Grand Prix races. *Fixed* events generally see the host community or region competing with other communities/regions in the same country (if at all) for the right to host the event.

Transient events on the other hand are held in different locations each time the event comes to production (for example every three or four years), such as the America's Cup or the Olympic Games. Generally *transient* events require competition between regions/countries around the world for the right to host an event. These events may initially require an informal *domestic* selection process to choose a representative for the more formal *international* selection process.

Figure 2.2: Application of the Event Typology



Touring events, ranging from fairs to world concert tours, due to their unique nature, also have their own category. However, it should be noted that depending on the individual scale of a particular touring event, it may be considered representative of any one of the four major event categories.

With this preliminary understanding of the event hierarchy, including the *determinant factors* and *attributes* that can be linked to individual event categories, it is now possible to more thoroughly examine the largest of these categories in isolation.

DEFINING MEGA-EVENTS

When a special event has the ability to focus national and international attention and attract large numbers of visitors, the city or region hosting such an event is affected in many ways, both positively and negatively (Getz 1991; Keys Young 1995; Ritchie 1984; Soutar and McLeod 1993; Syme *et al.* 1989; Witt 1988). In some cases, these special events reach such a size that their impacts on the communities that host them may become quite substantial. They are often associated with 'the creation of infrastructure and event facilities frequently carrying long-term debts and always requiring long-term use programming' (Roche 1994:1). The terms *hallmark*, *landmark* and *mega-event* have been used to describe these short-term events with long-term consequences for the cities that host them. One of the more readily accepted definitions of hallmark/mega-events is that put forward by Ritchie and Yangzhou (1987:20).

'Major one time or recurring events of limited duration which serve 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.'

In addition, Getz (1991:340) defines a *mega-event* as '..the largest and most visible of events, such as world's fairs and the Olympics', while Hall (1992:1) offers the following definition:

'Hallmark events, otherwise referred to as mega or special events are major fairs, festivals, expositions, and cultural and sporting events which are held on either a regular or one-off basis.'

The first requirement outlined in all three definitions is the need for an event to be *large* or *major* to qualify as a *hallmark/mega-event*, however, *major* is not quantified. Ritchie and Yangzhou's (1987:20) definition outlines that a hallmark/mega-event need be of *limited duration* and *serve to enhance the awareness, appeal and profitability of a tourism destination*. As events such as World Expositions last for

approximately six months and many mega-events, are not held solely for the purposes of tourism (eg. the Olympic Games), these requirements are clearly non-essential.

Hall's (1992:1) definition lists specific types of events that may be included as *hallmark/mega-events*, according to the major focus and activity involved, such as fairs, festivals, expositions, and cultural and sporting events. On closer inspection, however, it may be suggested that very few events could be excluded from this list except for perhaps political events such as elections and wars. In addition he states (as similarly noted by Ritchie and Yangzhou 1987) that *hallmark/mega-events* are *held either regularly or on a one-off basis*. As it may be argued that virtually all events within the event hierarchy are held either regularly or on a one-off basis, this dimension of the definition is not necessary. Indeed, events not covered by the definitions provided, that is events held *irregularly*, can clearly be mega-events, for example Papal coronations. Therefore, it would seem fair to presume that irregular events would not purposefully be excluded as possible mega-events. Essentially, therefore, Hall (1992:1) is suggesting that *hallmark/mega-events* are major events.

One result of the lack of consensus among definitions for mega-events, is that there is no universally accepted *process to production* or *hosting process* that can be applied to mega-events in general (see Chapter 4). The development of such a process has been hampered by the inclusion of questionable events under the umbrella of traditionally broad and unspecific definitions.

It may be argued that the apparent willingness to group *hallmark* and *mega-events* into the same category has been a result of convenience rather than necessity, and as such could provide part of the solution to this problem. While all *mega-events* could justifiably be considered *hallmark*⁶ events, the reverse, due partly to a distinct lack of reference to scale in the definition, is not necessarily the case. Whilst *mega-events* are the largest and most prestigious of all events, *hallmark events* could perhaps be more accurately described as those events that bring *renown* or *acclaim* to an area and can

⁶ Hallmark- 'distinctive feature, especially of excellence' (Turner 1987:481).

occur at any level in the event hierarchy (not only at the mega-event level) (Jago and Shaw 1998:29). Such events are often seen as the *hallmark* of a destination, facility or organisation (Getz 1997:5).

Therefore, an alternative definition for *mega-events*, based on the *event typology* and the limitations of those definitions examined, may be:

..an event which involves large numbers of people, either as participants or spectators (at least one hundred thousand, with a large international contingent), generates very high levels of national and international media exposure and a demand to experience the event either *live* or via some other medium (usually television).

Essentially, *mega-events* can be quite similar to *national/continental* events with regard to the number of participants and/or spectators involved, however, the difference generally lies in the make-up of this group. Typically, mega-events have higher proportions of international *participants* (and if not, they have high international appeal), which in turn influences the proportion of *live* international *spectators* and even more dramatically, the demand for extended *live* or *delayed* coverage of such events around the world. Therefore, it may be argued that it is the international nature of mega-events that is their major defining feature.

THE PROGRESSION OF THE MEGA-EVENT

Peters (1982:13) argues that during the second half of the nineteenth and early twentieth century, the term *world class* was not bestowed upon a city until it had successfully staged a world's fair/exposition (arguably the oldest of the modern *mega-events*). An international exhibition of this type was considered 'the centre of art and culture, indeed a place for visitors to *tour* the world without leaving the one site, see the latest inventions and trade products, sample exciting amusements, and leave with a vision of the future'. Peters (1982:15) follows on to suggest that, beginning in the 1930s and 1940s, the planning profession placed more emphasis on zoning and social issues and played a more prominent role in the planning process of such events. As a

result, events such as Worlds Fairs and Olympic Games began to look beyond the legacies of museums, parks and sporting facilities, and in turn were seen as an opportunity to fast-track redevelopment projects.

In the latter half of this century, the impetus for hosting mega-events has continued to evolve. The shift has been from that of a somewhat *ad hoc* approach, where cities would seemingly host mega-events with the *hope*, rather than the overt *intent*, of raising the profile of the host city/region, redeveloping unsightly areas, enhancing its image and attracting some tourists (chiefly domestic) along the way. Recent years have seen the emergence of a new and arguably more *sophisticated* planning approach. Mega-events have become an *essential* component of many individual tourism development programs (city, state and national), and urban imaging strategies, with an even greater emphasis than in the past placed on the redevelopment and revitalisation of urban areas, all of which may have substantial impacts on local communities (Hall 1995:385).

Finally, with the high profile of mega-events today, cities are using these events for both competitive and comparative purposes. There is a school of thought that if a city has the resources and abilities required to successfully host a world scale event, this should provide sufficient evidence to encourage investment from national and multinational corporations. This is particularly the case if the city in question has to compete with other large international cities for the right to host such an event. Mega-events are becoming a key component of planning strategies for many cities, as they:

‘...act as a catalyst for change by persuading people to work together around a common objective and as a fast track for obtaining extra finance and getting building projects off the drawing board. This is not without its problems, since some would argue that it gives priority to development issues over those of welfare. The physical aspect of this strategy is that it has been linked with inner city regeneration and in particular with that of the city centre.’

(Law 1993:107)

Examples of redevelopment projects associated with mega-events include the Seattle World Fair of 1962 where the fair was used to develop seventy-two acres of a publicly owned *blighted* area. The fair site was designed around an existing armory, high school stadium, and auditorium in a declining neighbourhood north of the downtown area. A civic centre had long been proposed in the city's master plan, and local leaders were forthright in stressing that the fair was primarily a tool for its development (Peters 1982:16). World Expositions in both Vancouver, in 1986, and Brisbane, in 1988, have also been used to redevelop waterfront areas for housing and urban leisure space, and to attract of tourists. Olympic bids, such as those by Melbourne, Toronto and Atlanta, and more recently Sydney, to host the 1996 and 2000 games respectively, all had, as a major component of their bid plans, massive urban redevelopment schemes (Hall 1995:386).

Cities hosting mega-events such as the Olympics have been and will continue to be burdened with the daunting task of juggling the unavoidable investment of human, financial and physical resources. This, in conjunction with the potential for both positive and negative impacts on the host community, is inherent in the process of hosting a mega-event. As a result, it is not surprising that community attitudes towards these potential impacts have begun to receive considerable attention both in the press and as a topic of discussion throughout the planning process for individual mega-events (Keys Young 1995).

THE PERCEIVED IMPACTS OF TOURISM, SPECIAL AND MEGA-EVENTS

Research in the field of special and mega-events has progressed in a similar vein to that of tourism in general. That is, research has followed a path initially concerned only with the economic impacts of events, and followed more slowly by the awareness that other impacts, both positive and negative, would be forthcoming (particularly on the host community). However, with the bulk of studies being undertaken in only the last decade, research has had to mature at a much faster rate to achieve an equivalent level of sophistication (Haxton 1993).

A review of the literature reveals that research regarding *community impacts and perceptions* of tourism developments has begun to concentrate more on special and mega-events in recent years, as reflected in conference papers and studies such as those by: Barney and Meier (1992, 1994), Burns *et al.* (1986), East Asian Architecture and Planning Program (1988), Mayfield and Crompton (1995), Ritchie and Lyons (1987, 1990); and Soutar and McLeod (1987, 1993). However, the greater majority of research has and still does very much focus on the field of tourism in general and includes such studies as: Allen *et al.* (1988), Ap (1990, 1992), Dogan (1989), Getz (1994), Johnson *et al.* (1994), King *et al.* (1993), Liu and Var (1986), Madrigal (1995), Milman and Pizam (1988), and Ryan and Montgomery (1994). For this reason it may be worthwhile, initially, to examine the history of community perceptions of tourism in the broader sense before focussing on the more specific field of special and mega-event research.

This review examines, in turn, the following topics: a) the impacts of tourism in general; b) resident response strategies to tourism; c) the impacts of special and mega-events, and; d) implications for the future.

A) TOURISM

As Jafari *et al.* (1990) have suggested, the scholarly community recognises that tourism is not an invention of the twentieth century, however, it only began receiving research attention as late as the 1950s. They follow on to argue that studies, particularly in the 1960s, attempted to emphasise tourism's positive impacts, especially on the economy of regions/nations. However, over time many research findings began to challenge the positive prospects envisaged in tourism. The critical analysis of tourism was intense in the 1970s and was limited not only to economic findings. Milman and Pizam (1988) note that, apart from the obvious potential for physical damage to the environment, it was finally recognised that tourism could contribute to social conditions that might lead to serious problems in the host society including changes in value systems, individual behaviour, collective lifestyle, traditional ceremonies or community organisation.

The past decade has seen a continuation and refinement of research into the area of possible tourism impacts. This research has taken a more holistic approach and has emphasised not only the economic, but physical, sociocultural, psychological and political impacts. We are perhaps beginning to see a thrust intended to expand the frontiers of knowledge by emphasising systematic and comprehensive research and scholarship (Jafari 1990).

Dogan (1989) argues that the social impacts of tourism may have both positive and negative consequences, the extent of which depends on the type of tourists, the level of institutionalisation of tourism, and the socioeconomic and cultural conditions of the host society. It follows, therefore, that the local inhabitants' *perceptions* of the impacts of tourism can take various forms.

The terms *perception* and *attitude* are sometimes used interchangeably, however, there is a fine distinction in meaning between the two. *Perception* represents the meaning that is attributed to an object, whereas *attitude* represents a person's enduring predisposition or action tendencies to some object (Kurtz and Boone 1984:206). However, *attitudes* are reinforced by *perceptions* and beliefs of reality, and are closely related to deeply held values and even to personality; unlike opinions, they do not change quickly (Getz 1994). Ap (1992:671) argues that use of the term *perception* is more appropriate in the resident-tourism context. This is because residents may attribute meaning to tourism impacts without necessarily having knowledge or enduring dispositions about them, and realistically it cannot be assumed that all residents have knowledge and hold beliefs about tourism impacts.

Research undertaken by Ap (1990) indicated that residents' perceptions of the social impacts of tourism are not universal. Although many of the impacts would appear to be transferable between communities, there is still a need for specific *host community-tourism development* research. Ap's research involved a review of four often-cited studies on the economic, social and environmental impacts of tourism and included Belisle and Hoy (1980), Liu and Var (1986), Milman and Pizam (1988), and Pizam (1978).

The results of these studies show that, in general: heavy tourism concentration on a destination area leads to negative resident attitudes towards tourists and tourism in general (Pizam 1978); residents employed in the tourism industry respond more favourably towards tourists than those not employed in the industry (Milman and Pizam 1988; Pizam 1978); residents' perceptions vary with the distance of the resident's home from the tourist zone (Belisle and Hoy 1980); residents strongly agree that tourism provides many economic and cultural benefits to a community (Liu and Var 1986); and the greater the length of residency in the community the more chance of negative perceptions of tourism (Liu and Var 1986; Pizam 1978). Residents' perceptions have also been shown to be influenced by the importance of the industry to the locality, and the type and extent of resident-visitor interactions (Murphy 1985).

In addition, a review of research examining residents' perceptions of tourism impacts by Perdue *et al.* (1990) supported the above findings, whilst adding that there was little evidence to suggest a difference in perceived tourism impacts by socio-demographic characteristics.

B) RESIDENT RESPONSE STRATEGIES TO TOURISM

There is currently only limited understanding of why residents respond to the impacts of tourism as they do, and under what conditions residents react to those impacts (Ap 1992). Several models have been developed in an attempt to help explain the impacts of tourism and subsequently, residents' perceptions of these.

Doxey's (1975:195), well documented, *Irridex* model was devised to serve as a gauge of irritation intensities between residents and tourists. The model is based on the premise that tolerance thresholds exist and in time, residents and tourists will, through persistent irritation, begin to express their feelings progressively more overtly. The *Irridex* model proposes that resident attitudes towards tourism evolve initially from *euphoria*, through *apathy* and *annoyance* to *antagonism*, as perceived costs begin to outweigh real or expected benefits. However, Rothman (1978) argued that communities with a long experience with tourism are better equipped to develop mechanisms to

accommodate inconveniences, which also suggests that resident perceptions might also change over time. Subsequently, it has been suggested that the sequential *Irridex* model should not be interpreted as being deterministic (Getz 1994).

While developing a model that examined relationships between residents' perceptions of tourism impacts and their support for tourism, Perdue *et al.* (1990:593) found that perceived positive impacts are much more closely related to personal benefits than perceived negative impacts. In addition it was found that support for further tourism development would be positively related to the perceived positive impacts of tourism and negatively related to the perceived negative impacts. They suggested that as a result, public relations programs aimed at improving tourism's image with local residents, are a possible means of increasing local support for tourism, particularly among those people who will not necessarily or directly benefit from such development. Finally, it was argued that resident support for tourism development might be something of a *doomsday* phenomenon, with residents appearing more likely to support tourism when the economy is perceived to be deteriorating (Perdue *et al.* 1990:597).

More recently, however, Social Exchange Theory (SET) has been mentioned as a potentially effective framework for attempting to develop an understanding of residents' perceptions of tourism (Ap 1990; Perdue *et al.* 1992). The major advantage of SET being that, as a model, it can accommodate explanation of both positive and negative perceptions, and can examine relationships at the individual and collective level (Ap 1992).

SET has its origins as a general sociological theory concerned with understanding the exchange of resources between individuals and groups in an interactive situation. Interactions are treated as a process in which *actors* supply one another with valued resources (Ap 1992:668). One such interactive situation is that of tourism in the community context- certain exchanges between *host* and *guest* (the actors in this situation) must occur for it to be sustained. Ap (1992:668) further argues that regardless of how tourism is introduced and developed in a community, residents play an important role at each stage in the process and can influence the success or failure of

the local tourism industry. Indeed, residents' can *make or break* a tourist's holiday simply through the type of reception they afford them. The model of the social exchange process outlines the processes by which residents become involved in, continue and disengage from tourism exchanges (Ap 1992:670).

The underlying theme of SET is that positive resident attitudes towards tourism occur when perceived rewards, as opposed to costs, are satisfactory and balanced. (Getz 1994:248). Ap (1990:614) argues that residents evaluate the expected benefits and costs that are realised, in exchange for the resources and services that their community provides for both developers and tourists. Local residents want to ensure that they receive fair and equitable returns for their participation in, or support of, tourism. If the exchange is thought to be fair, the exchange will continue and residents will more than likely retain positive perceptions. However, if the tourism industry is not perceived to be reciprocating fairly, then residents are likely to express dissatisfaction or anger, or both (Ap, 1992:677).

'There is a threshold of tolerance by hosts... As long as the numbers of tourists and their cumulative impacts remain below the critical level, and economic impacts continue to be positive, the presence of tourists in a destination is usually accepted and welcomed by the majority of the host population. Once the threshold has been exceeded, numerous negative symptoms of discontent appear, ranging from mild apathy and irritation to extreme xenophobia, and from grudging courtesy to open exploitation.'

Mathieson and Wall (1982:141)

It may be argued that the basic tenet of SET, the need to determine community attitudes and perceptions, results in such models being more readily applied in smaller communities, for the development of local tourism strategies, or for specific tourism projects such as resort developments (where, logistically, community input may be easier to obtain). However, this is not to suggest that such models can not be successfully applied to larger scale projects in metropolitan areas, if community attitudes and perceptions towards specific projects can be accurately obtained.

Allen *et al.* (1988) submit that comprehensive tourism planning should attempt to optimise not only the economic but also social and other benefits of tourism, in an attempt to minimise any perceived negative impacts. They argue that, for a tourism-based economy to sustain itself in a community, the residents must be willing partners in the process. Because of the frequency of interaction that residents have with the tourist, the goodwill and cooperation of hosts is critical to the success of tourism. Therefore, residents must be involved in the planning, they must be informed and consulted about the scope of development, and their attitudes towards tourism and perceptions of its impacts on community life must be continually assessed (Allen *et al.* 1988; D'Amore 1993; Dowling 1993; Murphy 1985; Paul 1987).

C) SPECIAL AND MEGA-EVENTS

Although the social impacts and community perceptions of special and mega-events are similar to those of tourism in general (Getz 1991), it is necessary, because of their unique attributes, to examine their specific impacts in greater detail.

It has been argued that the social and cultural benefits of special events relate to their roles in fostering community development and cultural traditions and in providing leisure opportunities (Getz 1991). It has been suggested that other potential benefits include: the long-term benefits of facilities and infrastructure; increased community pride and spirit; strengthening of traditions and values; greater participation in activities related to the event theme (a specific example being the increased level of participation in sports activities which might result from hosting a major sporting event); and, adaptation of new social patterns or cultural forms through exposure at the event (Ritchie 1984; Robin 1988). Other benefits might take the form of long-term increases in voluntarism, community group activity, inter-cultural interaction and cooperation and a boost to the local economy.

On the negative side, the possible impacts include: gaining a poor reputation if facilities and services are inadequate; negative reactions from existing enterprises worried by new competition for local labour and government assistance; development of

excess capacity in terms of labour and facilities; price increases and real estate speculation; and creation of unrealistic long-term expectations (Pyo *et al.* 1988; Ritchie 1984):- In addition to these potential negative impacts, mega-events, due to their high profile, are often recognised as prime targets for industrial action (eg. the public transport strike at the 1997 Australian Formula 1 Grand Prix held at Albert Park in Melbourne) and as an opportunity for special interest or protest groups to voice their opposition (eg. *The Friends of Albert Park*, again at the 1997 Australian Formula 1 Grand Prix). Both industrial action and demonstrations have the ability to tarnish the desired image of an event, one of an efficiently organised and well supported spectacle. Bad publicity for an event can eventuate if disgruntled locals have their objections voiced through protests and the media.

Following, are brief summaries of some of the more frequently cited research conducted in the area of *social impacts and community perceptions of mega-events*. A more comprehensive review of research concentrating specifically on the role of community involvement in the Olympic Games is undertaken in Chapter 7. Soutar and McLeod (1987; 1993) undertook a specific study of residents' perceptions concerning the impacts of the America's Cup Defence on Fremantle, Western Australia. The results, of which, indicated that based on the perceptions of the local residents, the America's Cup event actually improved the quality of life in Fremantle (in the short-term at least), and provided a foundation for significant long term improvements in the city's economic fortunes. These perceptions were sufficiently positive to suggest that most residents would like to see a similar event held in Fremantle in the future. Other benefits were thought to include more to do and the general carnival atmosphere, while the major negative impacts were judged by residents to be higher prices and congestion. After the event, however, it was found that neither the perceived level of economic activity nor the amounts of physical problems created were as high as they were predicted to be, prior to the defence.

A detailed evaluation of the first Australian Grand Prix in Adelaide revealed negative impacts such as noise, congestion and an increase in automobile accidents.

However, it was found that residents overwhelmingly supported the event and believed it provided significant benefits for the city (Burns *et al.* 1986).

Jeong *et al.* (1990) conducted a study concerned with assessing the impacts of the 1988 Seoul Olympics. To assess the perceived impacts, a selection of various Korean professionals were surveyed prior to the event. Results from the survey indicate that primary expectations for hosting the Olympics were an increase in international awareness of Korea as a tourism destination, a modification of Korea's, then distorted, image, and a strengthening of cultural values through the protection and presentation of a distinct Korean cultural image during the Seoul Olympics.

However, by far the most extensive research undertaken in this field was encompassed in the Olympulse Monitor I-VI (Ritchie and Aitken 1984; Ritchie and Aitken 1985; Ritchie and Lyons 1987; Ritchie and Lyons 1990). The Olympulse study was a series of periodic surveys designed to provide an understanding of the nature and extent of economic, social, cultural, environmental, tourism and other impacts associated with the 1988 Calgary Winter Olympics (Ritchie and Aitken 1985:28). A major part of this research involved the monitoring of residents' perceptions concerning several factors related to the hosting of the Games. The final results of this project indicated that residents, on the whole, believed the Games had positive impacts, not only in financial, but also social and cultural terms (Ritchie and Lyons 1990:23).

Longitudinal studies of this type can make a positive contribution to event planning because the monitoring of expectations, if commenced early enough, allows planning adjustments to be made to deal with specific concerns that may be identified (Soutar and McLeod 1993:581).

To gain a more comprehensive understanding of the ability that community involvement has to influence the mega-event hosting process, the following chapter will examine the process of planning in general and the impacts of community involvement on that process.

CHAPTER 3: PLANNING AND THE ROLE OF COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT

INTRODUCTION

This thesis is concerned with the process by which cities and governments plan for a major public event and the role which the public has played and ideally should play in that process, as perceived by the various stakeholders. It is appropriate, therefore, to initially examine the concept of planning in general and the influence that community involvement can have on that process.

More specifically, however, community involvement and its role in tourism and mega-event planning are examined, including the major approaches to mega-event production, a) Political and b) Planning. Finally, practical examples of both approaches to production are offered and implications for the future investigated.

WHAT IS PLANNING?

In its broadest sense, *planning* has been recognised by many as the process of organising the future to achieve certain objectives, and as such it is a process that may be undertaken by individuals as readily as by governments (Inskeep 1991:25). However, if planning is considered a process or activity that provides a framework for a discipline more specifically orientated towards social decisions and public policy development, then certain attributes of those planning activities can be identified (Eversley cited in Alexander 1992). In his analysis of *Approaches to Planning*, Alexander (1992:72) discusses in detail, planning theories, concepts and issues, and outlines some of the major distinctions between planning and non-planning activities, which are detailed below.

Firstly, Alexander proposes that *planning is not a purely individual activity*. Although undertaken by individuals, the primary purpose of planning is to affect the actions of groups, organisations or governments.

Planning cannot be routinised. Many problems are not unique, and as such can be approached with existing problem-solving techniques. However, this is not typically the case for problems that are often the focus of planning efforts.

Planning has little or nothing in common with trial-and-error approaches to problem solving. Planning can incorporate limited experimental approaches, however, only as part of a deliberate strategy.

Planning is not just the imaging of desirable futures. Simply thinking about strategies for social change, as for example many philosophers do, may be productive and have value. However, without the real *intent* or power to carry out the proposed strategies, it is not planning.

Finally, planning is not just the making of plans. Instead it must include the commitment and sufficient power to carry out any strategies, actions or programs to their successful conclusion.

Therefore, if planning is *none* of these things, as a corollary, it must be societal, future-orientated, non-routinised, deliberate, strategic, and linked to action. In line with these characteristics, Alexander offers the following definition (1992:73).

‘Planning is the deliberate social or organisational activity of developing an optimal strategy of future action to achieve a desired set of goals, for solving novel problems in complex contexts, and attended by the power and intention to commit resources and to act as necessary to implement the chosen strategy.’

MAJOR FORMS OF PLANNING

Apart from *private sector* planning, which, as the name suggests, is undertaken by the corporate or private sector, the great majority of detailed planning today is undertaken by a variety of government agencies. Major areas requiring planning by such agencies include *economic development, land use, infrastructural development, social facility provision, and parks and conservation* (Inskeep 1991:26). However, the area perhaps most often associated with the concept of planning is the *urban* setting.

URBAN PLANNING

Catanese (1979:4), in an examination of the *History and Trends of Urban Planning*, states that 'most urban planning techniques rely on the extrapolation of past trends from historical sources' and proposes three major precursory periods from which contemporary urban planning methods have evolved. These periods are *The Ancient World, Medieval to Renaissance, and The Industrial City*⁷.

There are many types and examples of contemporary planning models that may be applied in the urban setting. Alexander (1992:99-103) provides an easily understood and descriptive analysis of several generally accepted planning models. Three of the more commonly used approaches outlined in that analysis will be examined at this point.

Regulatory planning describes a desired end-state and regulates private decisions and actions to ensure that such end-states eventuate, typically by prohibiting those not within approved categories or limits (eg. zoning regulations). It requires that the body undertaking the planning and implementation process has the power to legislate and enforce the rules that make the plan's implementation possible, and this power must extend over the entire area included under the plan. Finally, there must be a commitment to enforcing any plan's provisions in accordance with its original intent and the social goals that motivated planning in the first place. However, the complexity

⁷ An in depth examination of these periods is not considered essential in the current discussion. For more information see 'History and Trends of Urban Planning' in *Introduction to Urban Planning* (Catanese 1979:4-29).

of most urban systems and interactions makes it almost inevitable that the limits of the regulating agency's control are too narrow to be effective.

The *comprehensive planning* model evolved from the *physical planning* model⁸ that prevailed in the 1920s and 1930s. The dominant planning model during the 1950s and 1960s, it is still widely applied. Comprehensive planning aims to take all relevant factors into account in a rational, analytic planning process. These factors include *economic development, land use, infrastructural development, social facility provision, and parks and conservation*. The comprehensive planning model is based on a technocratic ideology that accepts the scientific legitimacy of the planner's expertise, and has been criticised for what some believe to be an acceptance of the status quo, and support of the political establishment.

Indicative planning is perhaps the most common form of contemporary planning, whilst probably the least familiar to non-planners. This style of planning is reliant on the persuasive nature of solid information and analysis, appealing future scenarios and alternative strategies, and of evaluation criteria with which people who review the plan, and who are called upon to adopt its proposals, can identify. According to Alexander, interaction with stakeholders and their active involvement in the planning process is an important prerequisite in the implementation of indicative planning.

A GENERAL APPROACH

Individuals, households and groups all undertake planning of various forms on a regular basis. However, only planning decisions with a *range* of factors and decisions dependent upon them, such as *urban planning*, have the potential to cause widespread and long-lasting impacts for stakeholders. Those planning decisions, with potential *social consequences*, are typically made by larger organisations, both *public* and *private* (Veal 1994:48).

⁸ *Physical planning*- a model which deals with the land and the built environment (Alexander 1992:94)

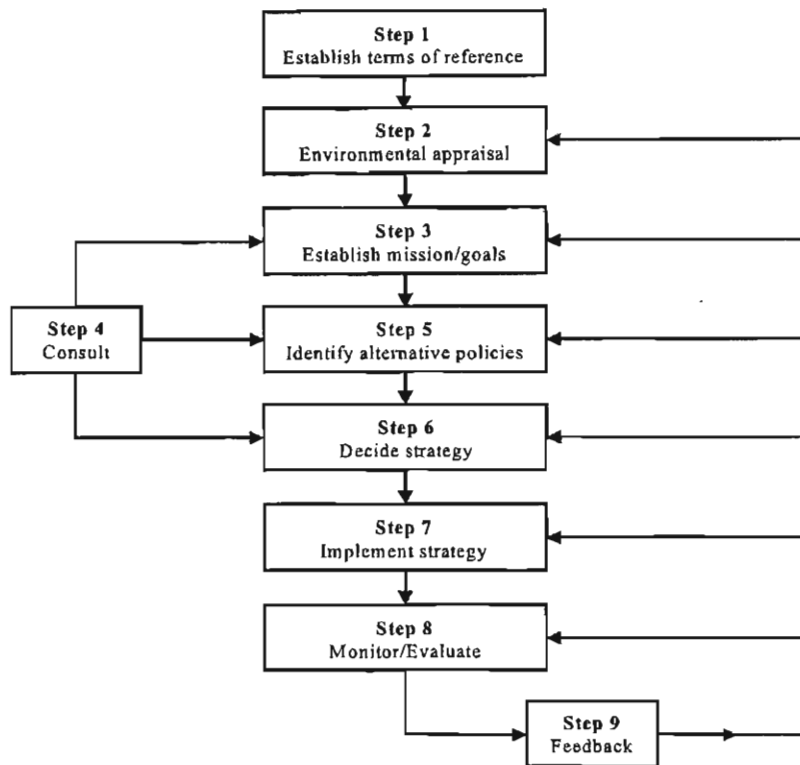
Up until recently, the methods by which *public* and *private* sector organisations made decisions to meet objectives and fulfil commitments to stakeholders, have differed quite substantially. In the case of *public* sector planning, democratic procedures have traditionally been implemented, resulting arguably in an over emphasis on the day-to-day management of projects. In the *private* sector, however, the prominent approach to planning and management 'seeks to ensure that medium to long-term goals are given prominence, and day-to-day management is harnessed to the achievement of those goals rather than displacing them with *ad hoc*, short-term objectives' (Veal 1994:48). It has been proposed that many areas of the *public* sector, and individual non-profit organisations, have recently adopted an approach more reminiscent of larger *private* corporations (Bryson 1995:5; Veal 1994:48).

In the past the emphasis in planning, in many instances, was placed on the preparation of a *master plan*, which was often found to be too rigid, and unable to take into account changing circumstances whilst also being unfeasible to implement over the long-term (Inskeep 1991:26). A more flexible and continuous form of planning was required to accommodate changing circumstances whilst still able to attain the desired objectives. While many models have been developed over the past twenty years to fulfil the required flexibility of modern planning, they all tend to have at least one similar characteristic. Alexander (1992:74) suggests that the common thread running between models is that most portray planning as 'a sequential, multi-staged process in which many of the phases are linked to their predecessors by feedback loops'. Examples of models that incorporate a multi-staged feedback approach to planning can be found in Certo and Peter (1991:14), Bryson (1995:23) and Veal (1994:51).

A common feature of the models outlined by these authors is the need for adequate levels of social responsibility in the planning process; due partially to the potential impacts major planning decisions can create. *Social responsibility* may be described as 'the managerial obligation to take action that protects and promotes organisational interests along with the welfare of society as a whole' (Certo and Peter 1991:21). Community involvement, often in the form of *consultation* with stakeholders, including the general community, is considered a vital component of this

process (Veal 1994:64). At this point we will examine in more detail that part of the planning process, which focuses on *public* or *community involvement* and in Figure 3.1 is represented by Step 4 (Veal 1994:51).

Figure 3.1: The Planning Process



COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT AND PARTICIPATION

While the terms *community involvement* and *community participation* are often used alternatively in existing planning literature a distinction will be made between the two at this point. The concept of *community involvement* in planning has been described as the general ability of communities to influence the outcome of development projects that may have an impact upon them (Drake 1991:134) and will be adopted as such for the purposes of this study. *Community participation*, on the other hand, may be described as the process through which this goal is achieved. In its simplest form, community participation incorporates 'all relevant and interested parties (local government officials, local residents, architects, developers, business people, and planners) in such a way that decision-making is shared' (Haywood 1988:106). If a

particular level of community involvement is the *aim*, then community participation of varying forms can be considered the *method* used to achieve this (Roberts 1995:224).

INVOLVEMENT VS DEMOCRACY

The first and arguably most important point to recognise when discussing the process of community involvement is that it can occur only within a clearly defined political structure (Abbot 1996:3). As such, the issue of involvement versus democracy is immediately raised. Two of the most common positions on the nature of democracy argue for either a representative or a participatory democracy (Fagence 1977; Roberts 1995). The representative democracy theory suggests that community involvement should be limited to the 'selection of representatives who are committed to known and favoured (by the majority) policies, and who will appoint competent professional and administrative staff to execute the democratically derived decisions; that is, executors should be accountable to the public through the elected representatives' (Fagence 1977:47).

However, the theory of participatory democracy represents a more contemporary school of thought. This theory suggests that as society has become more culturally and technologically sophisticated there has developed an insistence that decision-making be more refined and expert whilst at the same time incorporating a more democratic expression (Fagence 1977:2; Sewell and Phillips 1979). Fagence suggests that, as a result, the last few decades have seen modern society's increased desire for the simultaneous growth of participatory democracy and expertise in decision-making (1977:2). For this desire to be fulfilled to any significant degree requires a genuine interchange or collaboration between the public and planners. However, as Godschalk (*cited in* Fagence 1977:4) points out, the process is a two-edged sword; 'while planners must be open to the idea of working with the public, citizens must also be active and competent in planning'.

LEVELS OF INVOLVEMENT

The process of community involvement has a long history in general planning and policy development at various levels of government. Indeed in most statutory planning activities, in Australia and other western societies, consultation with affected

communities is now a legal requirement (Veal 1994:64). However, calls for even greater community involvement have more recently been presented formally in various government sponsored approaches to planning (Simmons 1994). Nevertheless, negative community attitudes are still often viewed by planners as merely *barriers to overcome*.

As a consequence of this lingering attitude, community involvement can be said to take a variety of forms, from *tokenism* to *total citizen control* (Arnstein 1969). More specifically, Arnstein proposed that the various steps in community involvement include *manipulation, therapy, informing, consultation, placation, partnership, delegated power, and citizen control*.

In a more concise categorisation of various potential levels of community involvement, Paul (1987) makes an effective distinction between four levels, ranging from *information sharing* to *initiating action*:

1. **Information sharing:** where project designers and managers share information with the public in order to facilitate collective or individual action.
2. **Consultation:** where the public is not only informed, but their views taken into consideration on key issues at some or all stages in a projects cycle.
3. **Decision-making:** where the public is involved in decisions about project design and implementation.
4. **Initiating action:** when the public takes the initiative in terms of actions and decisions pertaining to the project.

CONSULTATION

At present it is generally accepted that *consultation* with the public and other stakeholders is a vital component in any planning process that will affect the wider *community*. However, if not undertaken competently, far from broadening the inputs to the planning process, it can have a narrowing effect, particularly if special interest groups are permitted to *hi-jack* the process, which in turn could lead to a state of *non-planning* (Sandercock 1983; Veal 1994). Veal argues that different methods of consultation may vary in several ways including their *purpose*, the range and types of *people and organisations involved*, *form*, and *timing* (1994:65).

Purpose: Consultation may be undertaken to gather information; or as an integral part of the decision making process, involving opinions and attitudes of different groups concerning issues and proposals.

People and Organisations Involved: The general public, relevant organisations and their representatives, and the staff of organisations undertaking the planning are all usually involved in the consultation process.

Form: Consultation takes a variety of forms. Simmons (1994), in a study of community participation in tourism planning, suggests that some of the more commonly used consultation techniques include surveys, scenarios, role plays, and focus groups. An example of one particular focus group method being the *Nominal Group Technique* (NGT)⁹ which is used primarily as a consensus generating device.

Timing: If consultation is fully embraced it is likely to take place in *various* forms *throughout* the process.

Veal (1994:65)

Roberts (1995:224) argues that, while community involvement has focused primarily on *consultation*, with the process relying heavily on the use of education and information sharing, the use of more intensive *community participation*, allowing the public greater control and/or the opportunity to direct the process and results, has recently begun to emerge.

PARTICIPATION

Sandercock (1983), in her seminal study on public participation, makes a valid point when arguing that, while participation can potentially create as many problems as it solves, in some circumstances the actual *process* may be more important than the *product*.

⁹ NGT- 'A systematic approach designed to provide two specific types of output. First, it provides a list of ideas relevant to the topic in question. Second, the technique provides quantified individual and aggregate measures of the relative desirability of the ideas raised in the session' (Ritchie 1985:83).

‘People want to be informed. They want to know that they have a ready opportunity to complain. An open planning process, providing easy access to both information and to the planners, can reassure people that they are being thought of. Participatory mechanisms, even those involving no devolution of power, may make public authorities more honest, more humane, more considerate of the people they are serving than they would otherwise be: more thoughtful of broader issues than their single purpose functions, more sensitive in performing their duties. In addition, participation at local level may elicit informed and useful responses on questions of local detail, on issues that may not seem important to planners (who are, therefore, unlikely to think of them) but are usually of great importance in the lives of those suggesting them.’

Sandercock (1983:78)

Whilst the implementation of effective community participation programs, in an effort to attain a desired level of community involvement, may be considered the ideal situation, it is likely to be an elusive goal (Haywood 1988:106). Even if obstacles to participation, such as the perceived expensive and time consuming nature of the exercise, are overcome and a program of community participation is implemented, further obstacles exist. For example, *rational choice theory* proposes that individuals have a tendency to resist participating in collective decision-making (Renn *et al.* 1995:362). This tendency has been described as the *free rider problem*. It is believed that people, in general, are reluctant to participate in a process to deliver a collective good if they are reasonably assured that others will participate and be successful in obtaining the desired result (Renn *et al.* 1995:363).

In any case, the resultant participation process will have both potential costs and benefits. Sandercock argues that there are two major dangers associated with indiscriminate advocacy of *power to the people* (1983:84).

1. It might result in a weakening of government capacity to achieve even those objectives the advocates of *participation*, themselves, want attained.
2. More power is placed at the disposal of the best organisers, the middle class, and not the *people* the process claims or aims to represent.

However, if the public have full access to information regarding local issues and specific developments, it has been suggested that the benefits can be substantial (Drake 1991:134; Roberts 1995:224). Examples of advantages associated with participatory approaches to planning include (Drake 1991:134):

1. community participation functions as an early warning system, helping to avoid or plan for decisions that might otherwise cause conflict with the local population;
2. community participation fosters better planning and decision making. For example, conflicts may be revealed and resolved during the planning process;
3. ensuring local input (if heeded) legitimises the decision making process.

While the benefits can be quite substantial, increased community involvement/participation should not be seen as a *panacea* for planning (Roberts 1995:225). On some occasions in the past, *good participation* has corrected bad planning choices and improved the functioning of the political decision system, while on others *good planning* and a reasonable political decision system have been thwarted by *bad participation* (Sandercock 1983:87). Indeed, Fagence argues that, the critical question is whether the conditions necessary to promote and sustain a meaningful level of participation can be achieved within the existing decision system and, if not, would the possible changes to that system, resulting from increased participation, prove to be of greater benefit to the community as a whole (1977:356)?

Practical experience with public participation indicates that the process is predominantly issue-oriented and is able to operate most effectively when these issues are local and can be approached at an early stage in the planning process, before major commitments are made (Murphy 1978). Sandercock (1983:87) concurs, stating that 'participation is irrelevant at the level of major policy issues, and that participation is not a substitute for planning or for regular government. It is not an effective means of changing important policies'.

In addition, the aims and concerns of the locally defined community may differ from those of the community defined regionally or nationally. However, it is at the local level that people have to deal with the effects of national and/or regional development plans (Capenhurst 1994). In an attempt to develop a model that incorporates different spatial levels of community, Murphy (1985) suggested that there are different levels at which development may be planned: *national*, *regional*, and *local*. At each of these levels in the planning process there are different degrees of public participation, but it is at the *local* level where it should be at its greatest.

Sandercock (1983) suggests that whilst largely irrelevant to the everyday struggle of the underprivileged sectors of the community, the public participation process does have the ability to raise the awareness of urban inequalities within the community. This in turn may create a climate for acceptance of programs to deal with such inequalities in the future.

Nevertheless, in the long-term, the effectiveness of public participation programs will be dependent on two major factors: residents' adequate knowledge base of both general and project specific issues; and residents' positive perceptions of how their input (in terms of both *time* and *energy*) is influential in shaping decisions (Simmons 1994).

COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT IN PLANNING FOR MEGA-EVENTS

WHY IS IT NECESSARY?

One area that has received increased attention in planning in recent years is that undertaken for the purposes of *tourism* development. As suggested previously, tourism may be regarded as a set of inter-related components, cutting across many sectoral categories. Due greatly to its diverse nature, tourism is heavily dependent on the successful integration of both the *public* and *private* sectors. For example, the public sector may provide a combination of research, marketing, infrastructure and developmental guidelines that the private sector must take into consideration when producing tourism development proposals. The potential impacts associated with increased tourism, and tourism developments, in conjunction with tourism's complex

and inter-related nature ensure that while community involvement is warranted it is also potentially difficult. *Indicative planning*, mentioned previously as one of the more common approaches to urban and contemporary planning, is often used for the development of tourism plans.

Whilst not exclusively tourism phenomena, *mega-events* such as the Olympic Games and world fairs are major factors in tourism development, urban revitalisation, and urban imaging strategies (Hall 1996:366). Due to the sheer scale and profile of these largest of events, mega-events generally require the involvement of politicians directly. In addition, there is typically a great deal of media attention, and normal planning procedures are often bypassed by special legislation (Veal 1994:68). Veal suggests that the term *hallmark decision-making* be used to describe this particular approach to planning, which is often highlighted by an apparent decision to 'go ahead with the project *first*, then seeking ways of justifying it later' (1994:68). Veal's contention is supported by Hiller (1990:120), who argues that seldom is the decision to host a mega-event a democratic one; instead, it is an idea developed by the urban elite who then seek political support. He states that mega-events 'reflect the dominant ideology of the informal elite coalition that generates community support and approves of the message that the event conveys' (Hiller 1990:121).

The adoption of an approach such as that outlined above can often result in political and business interests restraining the level of community involvement and the associated participation process. In addition, Hall (1996:366) suggests that 'the government will often focus more on economic and employment benefits and the contribution to urban redevelopment and place promotion rather than on traditional welfare roles'.

Much of the publicised rationale for hosting mega-events, apart from encouraging economic, trade and tourism development, is based upon their purported benefits to the host community. Examples of such benefits include fostering community development and cultural traditions, the long-term benefits of infrastructure, greater participation in activities related to the event theme, community group activity,

inter-cultural interaction and cooperation, and provision of leisure opportunities in the post-event period (Getz 1991; Ritchie 1984; Ritchie and Lyons 1990; Soutar and McLeod 1987, 1993).

On the negative side, however, these benefits often come at a high price, if at all. Potential associated costs include gaining a poor reputation if facilities and services are inadequate, high construction costs of infrastructure which frequently carry long-term debts, temporary crowding problems, price increases and real estate speculation, creation of unrealistic long-term expectations and general inconvenience to the host community (Barney and Meier 1992, 1994; Haxton 1993; Pyo *et al.* 1988; Ritchie 1984; Soutar and McLeod 1987, 1993).

In addition, Ritchie (1984:9) states that 'if care is not taken to ensure that activities are compatible with the values of community residents, mega-events may contribute to social dissension and charges of cultural elitism'. Efforts must be made to facilitate access to, and participation in, opportunities related to the event. He argues that involving existing social and cultural structures of the community, rather than developing new ones, will help ensure that a major goal of mega-event hosting is achieved, namely, community development. Those events that permit an equal meeting or exchange between both hosts and guests are more likely to preserve positive attitudes on both sides, which should in turn help to enhance the long term benefits to the hosts (eg. increased tourism) (Ap 1992).

However, Getz (1991) indicates that the infrequent staging and short duration of most special and mega-events (particularly those with existing or reusable facilities/infrastructure), while perhaps creating temporary crowding problems, are likely to minimise their potential to directly cause lasting negative effects. It is instead the cumulative, longer-term impacts of event tourism or of a large number of events that is likely to cause any indirect changes in the host community. Accordingly, he argues that they have the potential to be viewed as *part* of the new wave of *community-based* tourism, which seeks to minimise negative impacts, contribute to sustainable development and foster better host-guest relations.

It may be argued that *ownership generates pride*, and that in very few instances is this pride more apparent than in a community which has participated in the successful hosting of a mega-event (Haxton 1993). Community support is one of the most critical factors in a city's bid to host a mega-event. For example, although technically and financially strong, Stockholm's bid for the 2004 Olympics had the spectre of low to medium levels of community support hanging over it. Worldwide attention to low levels of community support followed several acts of terrorism on facilities intended for Olympic use. It may be argued that this situation would not have enhanced the city's chances when the time came for IOC delegates to select the successful candidate for 2004.

The combined strength of these factors indicate that a successfully implemented program of community involvement has the potential to benefit both the host community and the organisers of an event. As such a closer examination of community involvement in the planning process for mega-events is warranted.

PLANNING APPROACHES TO MEGA-EVENTS

Throughout the history of community involvement commentators have noted that many agencies seemingly promoting involvement/participation may, in fact, employ a variety of strategies - manipulation, therapy, placation - aimed instead at retaining political or bureaucratic control and deflecting public involvement (Arnstein 1969; Simmons 1994). It may be argued that this practise is particularly common in the case of mega-events, and is a result of the approach to production adopted for individual events. Two major approaches to mega-event production have been identified in research to date, a) *political* and b) *planning* (Roche 1994).

a) Political Approach

At the level of ideology, mega-events illuminate competing notions of the public good (requiring a tremendous investment of human, financial, and physical resources, while promising widespread benefits for the communities that stage them). Not surprisingly, 'bidding for and staging a public festival on this scale can be a highly charged political exercise, requiring the most consummate skills of negotiation and

consensus building from those in leadership' (Kidd 1992:67). The word *political* here does not reflect the planning ideal of a democratic or community-based planning process, but rather the reverse. As Hall, one of the main proponents of a *political approach*, argues (1989:219):

'Hallmark events are not the result of a rational decision-making process. Decisions affecting the hosting and the nature of hallmark events grow out of a political process....'

The importance and prestige attached to hallmark events by governments often results in a commitment to *fast track* planning practices which ignore community resistance to either the hosting of the event or the construction of associated infrastructure (Roche 1991). An example of *fast tracking* is evident in the case of the Darling Harbour redevelopment project, which was the focal point of the 1988 Australian Bicentennial celebrations for New South Wales. In this instance there was an absence of consultation and community participation in the decision-making process (Hall 1994:161). All of this took place 'under a government whose own recent legislation explicitly enshrined community participation and provided for the dissemination of information through the publication of environmental impact statements' (Thorne and Munro-Clark 1989:156). As Premier Unsworth stated '...This is a national project, it's something for Australia, and we cannot have local government aldermen or anyone else frustrating our intentions to achieve one of the great features of 1988' (Campbell 1984:3).

Hall (1994) presents Sydney and New South Wales' successful bid to host the 2000 Olympics as another prime example of fast tracking. He states that 'despite a new state government which had promised greater participation in the development planning process, the Sydney bid and the impacts of associated infrastructure were not open to public debate. Media scrutiny of the costs of hosting the event or the voicing of negative opinions of the Games were subject to harsh criticism from the government and from members of the bidding team. People who were against the Games were regarded as *unpatriotic* and *unAustralian*, while the only community consultation was in the form of opinion polls' (Hall 1994:161).

With the *political approach* there is typically little democratic community input, except for perhaps the initial election of political representatives who subsequently make decisions on their behalf. Discussions are largely determined by the will and power of urban political leaders and/or other relevant and powerful urban elite groups. This essentially leadership-driven *autocratic* pattern, associated also with *civic boosterism* has often been identified in studies of prestige projects and mega-events (Roche 1994:6). In terms of Arnstein's (1969) criteria as discussed above, the typical event production process is *manipulative* or minimally participatory.

b) Planning Approach

Planning can be conceived of in a number of ways. At one extreme it is seen as a mainly technically or conventionally rational decision-making process, involving the systematic gathering of relevant data; data analysis and evaluation; and the application of such analysis and evaluation in decision-making (Lichfield 1975). Conversely, it may be conceived as a mainly democratic decision-making process, requiring consultation with the community during all stages of the planning process in order to optimise its input of information, views, resource, and legitimacy (Arnstein 1969).

Planning approaches, in principle, can identify and coordinate the numerous real factors involved in complex decision-making processes and systems; contain and utilise explanatory models and information; and identify and evaluate reasons and conditions for project failure or success. However, this practical or applied orientation may limit their usefulness as tools for the pursuit of the explanatory understanding of real-world event production, as compared with mainstream social sciences (Roche 1994).

Much recent work relating to community-based and event tourism is in response to the idea that the product or service provided for tourists is, to a large degree, the community as a whole. As such many writers on tourism and mega-event planning argue for the need to mix both technical rationality and democracy in planning (Getz 1991; Jafari 1990; Murphy 1985). Veal (1994) notes the existence of a variety of decision-making techniques, including *Mixed scanning*, *Economic Evaluation Techniques*, and the *Performance-Importance Technique*.

Toronto Olympic Commitment

A recent example of the *planning* approach to mega-event production was Toronto's bid for the 1996 Summer Olympic Games. In this particular instance, a social contract, known as the Toronto Olympic Commitment, emerged from public debate and significantly changed the character of the Toronto bid, transforming what began as the 'handmaiden of finance capital' into a project of social democracy (Kidd 1992:68). The idea of a social contract for the Games grew out of two currents. First was the social democratic belief that private initiative should serve public purpose, and secondly, that it could be accomplished as easily by regulation as social stewardship (for a more detailed examination of the Toronto Olympic Commitment see Chapter 7).

Although Toronto's bid was not successful, a number of IOC members who visited the city during the final year of bidding, from young and well established democracies alike, commented on how they admired the extensive public review process and how it served as a model for bid cities in the future (Kidd 1992).

Therefore, it may be suggested that for mega-events to fulfil their potential as examples of *community-based* development, community perceptions and input should perhaps be considered intrinsic to the planning process. The cancelled 1976 Olympic Games in Denver has been cited as an example of a lack of community involvement and support resulting in a non-event (Witt 1988).

IMPLICATIONS FOR THE FUTURE

Most mega-event proposals do not receive the same attention to detail with regard to community involvement as was the case with Toronto's bid or Sydney's post-bid planning for the 2000 Olympics (Keys Young 1995). However, community involvement of *any kind* in similar events would have been virtually non-existent as little as fifteen years ago. The available evidence suggests that the *political* approach to mega-event planning is still more prevalent than the *planning* approach.

As the public's right to become more involved in the planning of activities that affect their daily lives has become more widely accepted throughout the democratic world (Simmons 1994), there has begun a trend towards the *planning* approach. Entire communities are affected by the hosting of events such as the Olympic Games, and the calculation of social costs and benefits is not a simple task. Kidd (1992) suggests that at the very least, the decision to bid should be made in the context of full public information and widespread consultation. To do otherwise 'would be to risk the continuing spectre of protesters at the time of the Games and the very legitimacy of the Olympic project's humanitarian mission' (Kidd 1992:77).

It might be suggested that, as the trend towards a fully *planned* approach to mega-event production increases, so too will the weight that community perceptions of such events carry.

CHAPTER 4: THE MEGA-EVENT HOSTING PROCESS

INTRODUCTION

The growing acceptance of the public's right to greater involvement in the planning of activities that affect their daily lives is outlined in the previous chapter. This is particularly evident in the case of mega-events, which have the potential to impart major impacts, both positive and negative, on the communities that host them. Whilst the public's right to increased involvement in the planning and hosting of such events is accepted, discussion of when and in what form this involvement/participation takes is limited.

This chapter provides an examination of existing mega-event planning (rather than hosting) models and the major factors influencing the mega-event hosting process. Based upon these factors, and the limitations of existing models, a *Generic Model of the Mega-Event Hosting Process* is developed and discussed with an emphasis on the role of community involvement/participation at different stages in that process. Finally, the generic model is applied to several mega-events to highlight its usefulness as both a descriptive and planning tool.

EXISTING MODELS

In the existing literature, limited attention is paid to the overall hosting process of mega-events in general. Instead, attention focuses typically on specific types of mega-events such as *tourism hallmark events* (Sparrow 1989:250; Hall 1992:116) or *one-time events* (Getz 1997:76). Similarly, models designed for *events in general*, rather than mega-events, focus on the *management* process and in most instances provide a *checklist* for prospective event managers to follow (Badmin *et al.* 1992:111; Torkildsen 1993:7.15).

Whilst existing models do provide valuable insights into certain aspects of event/mega-event hosting procedures, limitations such as being *too specific*, and having no provision for a *bid process or post-event evaluation*, restrict their usefulness as

generic models to illustrate the mega-event hosting process (see Table 4.1). In addition, the unique nature, scale and potentially significant impacts (upon the *whole* community) associated with mega-events greatly reduces the usefulness of such *niche* models and once again highlights the need to develop a more generic model. Undertaking a more holistic approach will help provide a more comprehensive understanding of the mega-event hosting process. Subsequently, major stakeholders will be better able to identify and understand not only their own roles in the overall process, but more importantly those of other stakeholders (public, organisers, industry, researchers etc.).

Table 4.1: Analysis of Existing Models

Model	Developed Specifically for Mega-Events	Generic in Nature	Focuses on <i>Hosting Process</i> rather than Event Management	Provision for Bid Process	Provision for Post-Event Evaluation
Sparrow (1989:261)	Yes (Hallmark)	No (Tourism)	✓	✓	✓
Hall (1992:116)	Yes (Hallmark)	No (Tourism)	X	X	✓
Badmin <i>et al.</i> (1992:111)	No (Special Event)	Yes	X	X	✓
Torkildsen (1993:7.13)	No (Leisure)	Yes	✓	X	✓
Getz (1997:76)	Yes	No (One-time)	✓	✓	X

FACTORS INFLUENCING THE MEGA-EVENT HOSTING PROCESS

Why, therefore, has the development of a general mega-event hosting process been hampered? As suggested in Chapter 2, the problem may stem partially from the lack of consensus among existing definitions for mega-events and hence, the inclusion of questionable events under the umbrella of definitions that have been traditionally broad and unspecific. In response to this lack of consensus, a typology outlining four distinct event categories (local, regional, national/continental and mega-events) was proposed based upon certain *determinant factors* (participants, spectators and media). The ability to more accurately classify individual mega-events based upon these *determinant factors* allows a detailed examination of the associated hosting process to take place.

Therefore, with the ability to examine mega-events in isolation, several contributing elements to the restricted development of a general mega-event hosting process and model can be identified. Those considered *most* restrictive include variations in the *time-line* and the *number of stages* required in the overall hosting process for individual events. In turn, the mega-event *attributes* considered to have the most potential to influence both the *time-line* and *stages* of specific events may be referred to as *catalysts to event production*. It is argued that the status of individual mega-events is primarily dependent on one or a combination of the following *catalysts*:

- event history/tradition,
- demand to host event, and
- perceived event significance.

For example, those mega-events that occur on a regular basis at the same site and have done so for many years have a *history* or *tradition* of hosting the event in question. Events of this nature are *generally* held annually and may or may not have to follow guidelines outlined by a national or international sanctioning body. The longer an event is associated with an area the more it becomes part of its make-up and the more familiar organisers become with planning for and hosting the event, allowing them to streamline the hosting process where possible. Examples of mega-events owing a large part of their status to the associated *tradition* or *history* of the event include Wimbledon and the Monte Carlo Formula 1 Grand Prix.

The mega-events considered most prestigious to host, such as World Expositions, World Championships and the Olympic Games, create great *demand* on behalf of potential host cities to do so and, invariably owe much of their status to the extensive and competitive nature of their bid processes (often due to an event's history or tradition). As argued in Chapter 3, if a city is chosen over other *international* cities for the right to host a prestigious event this will often provide sufficient evidence of its capabilities and result in increased investment from national and multinational corporations whilst providing a boost for industries such as tourism. These mega-events *typically* require cities or areas wishing to be considered as potential hosts to *bid* to National, Regional, and/or International Sanctioning Bodies (NSB, RSB, ISB); a

process which can take several years to complete. As a result of involvement by independent sanctioning bodies, this particular type of event generally imposes pre-determined rules and characteristics on the host city/region, takes the longest time from inception through to production and has the most structured stages of all mega-events.

Finally, mega-events that obtain their status due to their *perceived significance* may take place at short notice (eg. funeral of eminent world figure) or after an extended planning period (eg. a royal wedding or the return of Hong Kong to China). Events occurring at short notice, such as Papal Coronations and funerals for eminent world figures, typically have an abbreviated number of stages in their planning processes due to the limited time available. It may be argued that, whilst obviously not undertaken for the traditional purposes of hosting a mega-event, they do have the ability to focus world-wide attention for a short period of time and as such should not be excluded from examination. Events occurring due to their *perceived significance* are also unique in that they are typically the only mega-events in which participants do so to honour a particular person or persons rather than measure personal achievement or encourage economic prosperity for their city/country.

Therefore, with the major variation in time-lines and stages associated with individual events, the difficulties in developing a general model of the hosting process for mega-events become increasingly apparent. A general model must be flexible enough to incorporate those events which eventuate as a result of unpredictable occurrences, whilst specific enough to accommodate events with pre-determined stages and stringent (and often lengthy) time frames.

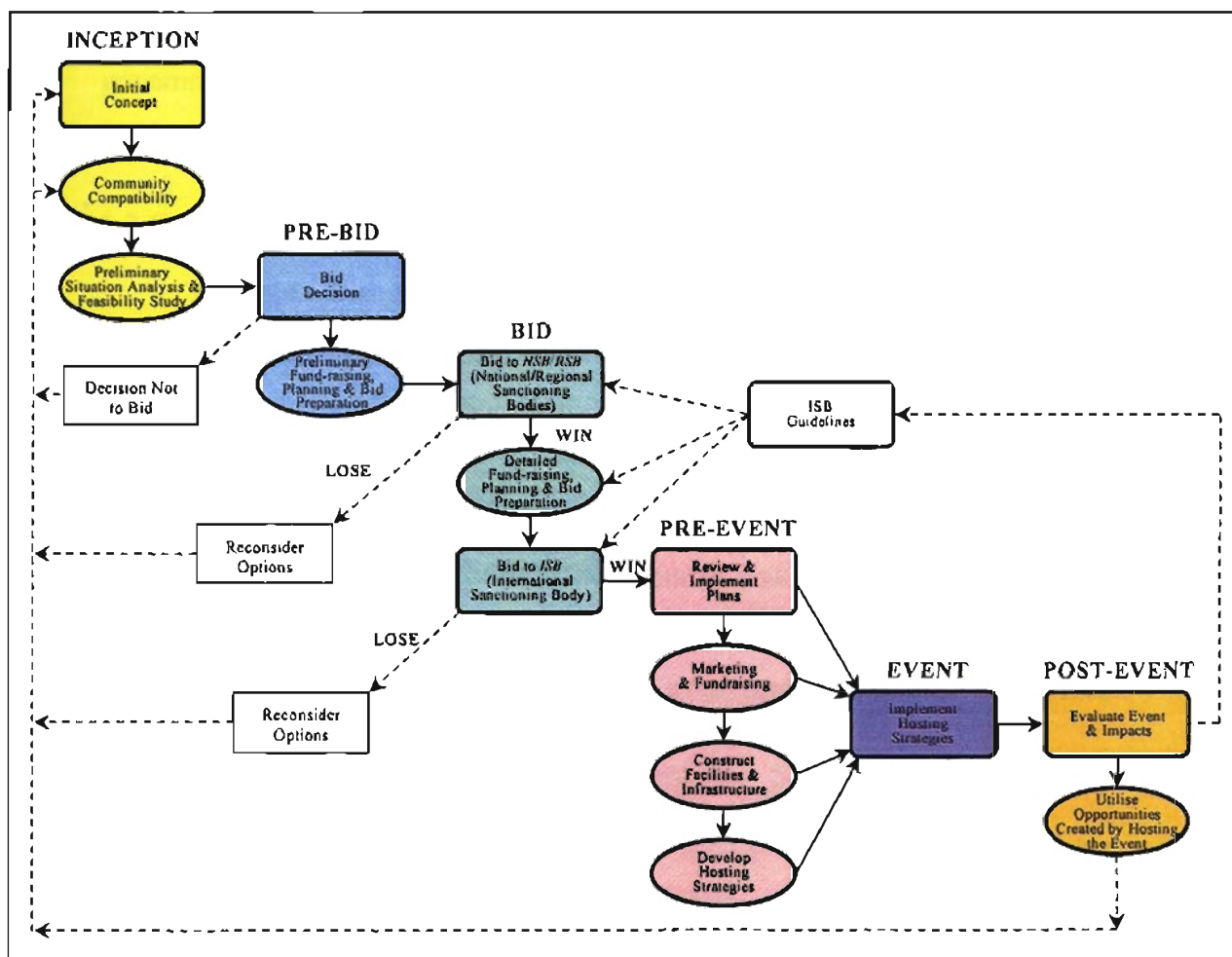
The remainder of this chapter outlines a proposed model of the hosting process that can be applied to *all* mega-events. As a result of its generic nature, it will be necessary to initially examine and develop a model based on those events with the lengthiest and generally most comprehensive of hosting processes. Subsequently, however, the modular nature of the model (different stages and steps in the process can be removed when necessary) will elucidate its relevance to those events requiring less time between inception and production and not strictly bound to pre-determined event stages.

GENERIC MODEL OF THE MEGA-EVENT HOSTING PROCESS

Many mega-events, both sporting and cultural, require a formal bidding process for the selection of a successful host city or region (eg. World Cup Soccer, Commonwealth Games and World Expositions). For events of this nature, several distinct stages in the overall hosting process can be identified. For the purposes of this thesis the general stages in a successful mega-event hosting process have been identified as (see Figure 4.1):

- 1) Inception Stage;
- 2) Pre-Bid Stage;
- 3) Bid Stage;
- 4) Pre-Event Stage;
- 5) Event Stage;
- 6) Post-Event Stage.

Figure 4.1: Generic Model of the Mega-Event Hosting Process



Each of the major hosting stages is now discussed in greater detail. However, it should be noted that due to the unique characteristics of mega-events outlined above, the hosting process and resultant model should be seen as guides rather than being deterministic.

1. INCEPTION STAGE

1.1 Initial Concept

The process begins at that point in time when the initial idea of applying to host an event is conceived. The genesis of the *initial concept* can, in most instances, be traced to an individual or group of politicians, prominent business-people or community leaders, with the major aim being host community development in some form. Alternatively, the idea may be promoted by enthusiasts or those professionally involved in the substantive field, eg. sports or the arts. At this initial stage, *concept initiators* recognise mega-events as potential catalysts for economic development, urban redevelopment, and as an opportunity to obtain funding from higher levels of government for perceived shortcomings in infrastructure and facilities relating to the event theme.

1.2 Community Compatibility

Concept initiators, before proceeding past this point, must examine the history of the proposed host city/region to determine whether the activities related to the mega-event in question are compatible with the culture and values of both residents and the government of the day. For example, would the event in question be close enough to the hearts of the proposed host community to gain sufficient support at the political level to warrant the devotion of both the resources and funds necessary to bid for and, if successful, host the event. Community input at this stage would be necessary if accurate levels of support or opposition to an event proposal are to be determined.

1.3 Preliminary Situation Analysis and Feasibility Study

The *preliminary situation analysis* is used primarily to determine whether the proposed city/region has adequate existing facilities and infrastructure necessary to host the event and if not, to determine what will be required. In addition, Getz (1997:77)

suggests that a community's track record for successfully hosting events and the availability of potential volunteers and event organisers should also be considered.

A *feasibility study* is undertaken to examine the potential economic, social, cultural and environmental impacts and viability of an event. Due to the uncertain nature of funding at this early stage in the hosting process, the *feasibility study* serves only as a rough assessment of the affordability and/or profitability of an event. This assessment includes an estimate of the likely costs (including the construction of facilities and infrastructure), expected revenues and the perceived ability to obtain financial support from both the public and private sectors. A more in-depth study may be required, and indeed be more beneficial, in the pre-bid or bid stages.

2. PRE-BID STAGE

2.1 Decision to Bid or Not to Bid

If the event proposal is put forward by an independent group, the concept must obtain the support of key local authorities for the process to proceed past this point. Support from this sector is often based upon the results of the preliminary situation analysis and feasibility study and may take into account *perceived* community support for the bid but may not necessarily be a true representation of it. However, obtaining support from this sector is not traditionally a problem if the government of the city or country has developed the proposal in question.

After taking all factors into consideration, a decision must be made to either proceed with the bid or not. As any bid would have difficulty succeeding without the full support of government, it is at this time that the potentially political nature of the process becomes apparent. There is the ever-present possibility that political support for a bid will be given based upon limited consultation and/or support from potential stakeholders. It may be argued that this scenario is even more likely to eventuate if the proposal is put forward by government, as there would be a desire to see its own idea succeed. Indeed political support may even ignore/defy public opinion if projected benefits to the community are deemed to outweigh the potential costs involved (eg. Melbourne Grand Prix). Therefore, even though community development is widely

promoted as one of the major goals of mega-event hosting (Ritchie 1984), the role of the community and community involvement in this process is unclear, even at the pre-bid stage.

After taking all factors into consideration, if it is decided that it would not be in the best interests of the city/country to bid for the event at this time, those involved in the initial concept must reconsider their options. The two major options are to cut-losses or try again at a later date. However, if the decision is made to go ahead with the bid, preliminary planning and marketing for the event will begin.

2.2 Preliminary Planning, Fundraising and Bid Preparation

Once the decision has been made to proceed with the bid process a preliminary bid group is established to oversee the development of necessary preliminary plans relating to facility and infrastructure development, tourism and other industries, and community consultation and involvement. In many instances informal social and Environmental Impact Studies (EIS) are undertaken to determine any likely undesirable impacts associated with the intended plans. In addition, due to the potentially expensive nature of the bid process, steps are taken to ensure that the event's *potential* is brought to the attention of prospective sources of funding, both public and private. Throughout this step preparations for a bid to the national/regional sanctioning body are in progress.

3. *BID STAGE*

3.1 Bid to National/Regional Sanctioning Body

At this point in the process, the appropriate sanctioning body (National or Regional depending on the geographical structure of the organisation) will select a representative host candidate to participate in the international selection process. Options for unsuccessful candidates fall once again into the broad categories of *cutting losses* or *trying again*. However, due to the cyclic nature of this type of event, and with the initial concept already established, the decision may not be made until just prior to the event's next *pre-bid* stage.

3.2 Detailed Planning, Fundraising and Bid Preparation

The typically competitive nature of the international selection process necessitates the establishment of a *bid committee* capable of producing and selling a highly professional bid to the relevant International Sanctioning Body (ISB). The major tasks of the bid committee in the lead up to the selection of a host destination are to refine preliminary planning and fundraising strategies set in the pre-bid stage, whilst preparing the bid it will present during the international selection process.

A full bid generally requires the development of a comprehensive budget. Although speculative, it is necessary to confirm to the bid committee, the host community and the ISB that the proposed host does have the resources to host the event. In addition, this stage typically represents the first *serious* attempt to measure and perhaps enhance community support. Petitions are popular tools as the local community is generally caught up in the atmosphere of the bid itself. This may occur with the majority of the community quite unaware of the specific details of the bid, including the potential costs and benefits associated with hosting the event.

Finally, apart from the purpose of obtaining funding and sponsorship, promotion of the proposed host destination may include familiarisation tours for representatives of the ISB, lobbying, and the recruitment of influential government officials as spokespersons (Getz 1997:76). Tours for ISB representatives may include visits to upgraded facilities, or those under construction, that will be used if the bid is successful in order to demonstrate a high level of commitment to the event.

3.3 Bid to International Sanctioning Body

After all proposed candidates have tendered their submissions to the appropriate ISB, the most suitable candidate is awarded the right to host the event in question. Once again, at some stage before the next selection process begins, unsuccessful applicants must decide whether to bid again or not. If a potential host city (or another city from the same region/country) has in the past put forward a quality bid/s for the event, this can have a positive influence on subsequent bids and as such may play a part in this decision.

4. PRE-EVENT STAGE

4.1 Review and Implement Plans

It has been argued that once a bid has been accepted, the scale and scope (including high levels of collaboration between public and private sectors) of the event necessitates the selection of a *group* to steer the process towards completion (Badmin *et al* 1992:116; Getz 1997:76; Sparrow 1987:259; Torkildsen 1993:7.13). This group is often referred to as the Event Organising Committee (EOC). One of the major tasks of the EOC in the period leading up to hosting the event is to refine, finalise and implement the plans established in the *bid* stage. This will include social, economic and environmental impact studies, undertaken to help maximise positive and minimise negative impacts, and revision of the budget on an ongoing basis. An important part of this task is to ensure the collection of funding promised at different stages in the process.

The community may be asked to play a part in the assessment of likely social impacts, however, with the right to host the event won, community involvement/participation does not typically play a major role in the pre-event stage (the Olympic Games is one exception and is discussed in Chapter 6). Indeed it is often limited to members of the local community being asked to *participate* as volunteers at the time of the event.

4.2 Marketing and Fund-raising

During the pre-event stage extensive lobbying of government bodies continues with the aim to maximise the availability of public funding. At the same time, promotion of the event is undertaken to increase the revenue from sources such as television rights and sponsorship. Whilst the majority of fundraising for the event takes place in the first half of the pre-event stage to allow budgets to be finalised, marketing is undertaken continuously in the lead up to the event.

Market research is used to determine the number and make-up of spectators (both domestic and international) likely to attend the event and as the two are inevitably linked, also to gauge levels of community support. Depending on the event or event

location, varying degrees of marketing are required to increase public interest. For example, due to the history and popularity of soccer in Europe, potential spectators needed little encouragement to attend the World Cup in France, compared to the 1994 World Cup which required extensive marketing to generate local interest due to soccer's relatively limited following in the USA. However, even if considered unnecessary, to increase ticket sales, extensive marketing of mega-events will in most instances still occur as a public relations exercise, to highlight the benefits of the event to the host community and as such increase community support. In addition, the marketing of major sponsors, if any, will always play a prominent role in the lead up to an event.

4.3 Construct Facilities and Infrastructure

The construction of event facilities and ancillary infrastructure is dependent to a large degree on the ability of event organisers to raise the necessary capital early in the pre-event stage and adhere to the final budget in the years leading up to the event. As mentioned previously, the budget submitted to the ISB in the bid stage could be described as speculative at best, as could the proposed facilities and infrastructure. The ability of the EOC to obtain promised funding influences directly the final plans for facilities and infrastructure, changing the focus from *what is ideal* to *what can be afforded*. The construction process often continues up until just prior to the event taking place and as such is one of the most tangible indicators of progress for the public.

4.4 Develop Hosting Strategies

Hosting strategies target a variety of issues. Those issues with the potential to significantly influence event production include staffing, the provision of accommodation (both visitor and residential), transport, protection of the environment, security measures, emergency procedures, VIPs, media and communications, ticket pricing and availability, and community involvement/participation (volunteers etc.) (Badmin *et al.* 1992:137; Getz 1997:88). Hosting strategies, which may initially be represented in the form of an operations checklist (Getz 1997:89), are reviewed and revised up until the actual event takes place.

5. EVENT STAGE

5.1 Implement Hosting Strategies

The hosting or *production* of the event represents a culmination of all planning and work undertaken in previous stages of the hosting process. With most events running for only short periods of time, there is typically very little scope for further planning to take place. Rather, organisers must implement the hosting strategies developed in the *pre-event* stage and have confidence that any possible contingencies have been considered and appropriate alternative strategies planned.

The role of community participation during the event itself is perhaps more obvious (to all stakeholders) and accepted (by organisers) than at any other point in the hosting process. At the *event stage* community participation may be grouped into the general categories of *spectator*, *volunteer* or *host* to visitors. Both *spectators* and *volunteers* (active participation) are critical to the economic viability and successful hosting of most events. In addition, however, it may be suggested that helping to create a friendly atmosphere and memorable experience for visitors (passive participation), can result in longer term benefits for the host community through repeat visitation etc.

6. POST-EVENT STAGE

6.1 Evaluate Event and Impacts

Both during and after the event has taken place, it is considered beneficial to evaluate the success and impacts of the event and the EOC as perceived by stakeholders (community, industry, welfare groups etc.). Whilst studies undertaken over the entire course of the mega-event hosting process, such as the Calgary Olympulse Monitor I-VI (Ritchie and Aitken 1984; Ritchie and Aitken 1985; Ritchie and Lyons 1987; Ritchie and Lyons 1990), are not common, those undertaken post-event are becoming more so. Examples of post-event studies include: *The Adelaide Grand Prix-the impact of a special event* (Burns *et al.* 1986); *Residents' Perceptions on Impact of the America's Cup* (Soutar and McLeod 1987; 1993); *Expectations of the 1988 Seoul Olympics: A Korean Perspective* (Jeong *et al.* 1990); and, *A Post-Event Evaluation of the Social Impacts and Community Perceptions of Mega-Events* (Haxton 1993).

As stated previously, the impacts of mega-events (economic, social etc.) are often long-term in nature and as such should be measured at short, medium and long-term intervals in the post-event period to attain a more thorough understanding of their consequences. Evaluation of an event's hosting procedures, success and subsequent impacts will prove advantageous when and if the host destination contemplates bidding for the same or similar events in the future.

However, whilst host cities are charged with the responsibility of physically producing a one-off mega-event, ISBs have a much longer involvement and concern for an event's long-term future. As such, the evaluation of events may be even more important for ISBs when reviewing their own bidding and hosting requirements, than for individual host cities. Any changes are typically passed on to NSB/RSBs and potential hosts during future *bid stages*.

6.2 Utilise Opportunities Created by the Event

As with the impacts of mega-events, the opportunities created as a result of hosting a mega-event may be perceptible for many years, even decades, to come. Examples of opportunities created as a result of hosting a mega-event include the long-term use of event facilities and related infrastructure such as new or upgraded transport systems, accommodation, and the redevelopment of unsightly areas (Hall 1995). Other opportunities may relate to increases in corporate investment, inbound tourism, community development as a result of exposure to diverse cultures and traditions, or increased participation in activities related to the event theme (Getz 1991; Ritchie 1984).

APPLICATION OF GENERIC MEGA-EVENT HOSTING MODEL

As suggested previously, the modular nature (the ability to omit unnecessary stages in the hosting process of any given event, whilst maintaining continuity) of the proposed mega-event hosting model facilitates its applicability to all mega-events. To illustrate this versatility, mega-events occurring as a result of different *catalysts to event production* are examined to ascertain the model's relevance as a tool for use by the

various stakeholders in the hosting process. The major *catalysts to event production* and examples of subsequent events to be examined are:

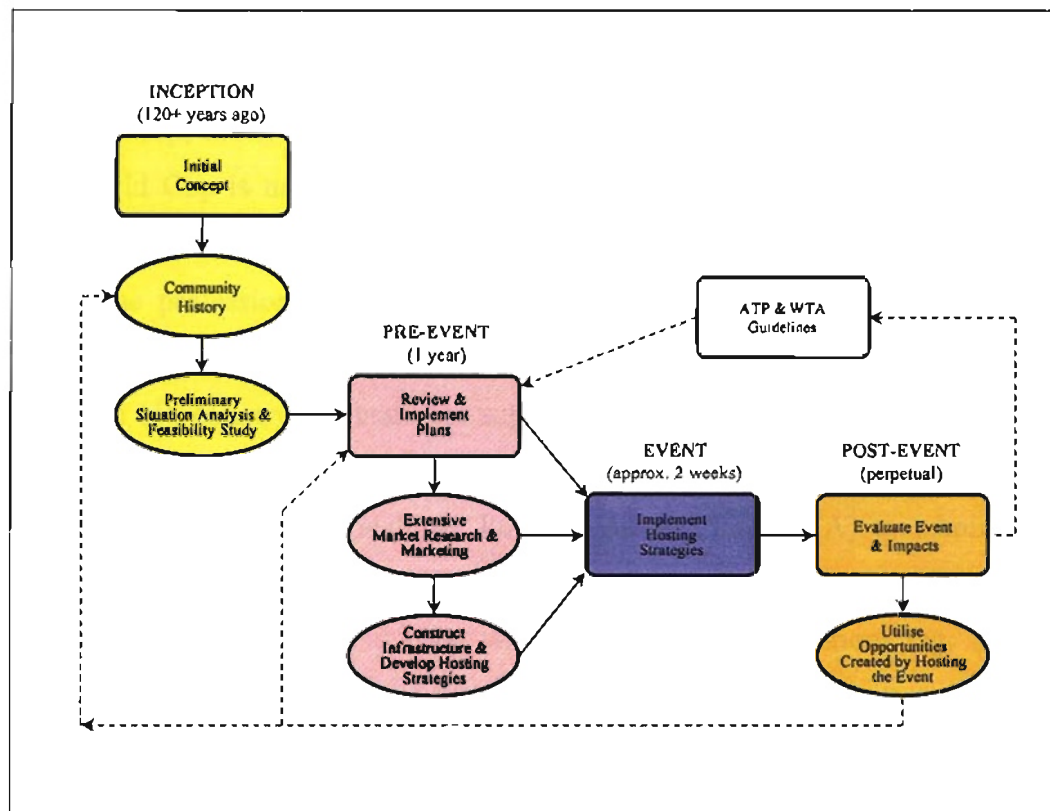
- event history/tradition $\implies$ 1) the Wimbledon Tennis Championships;
- demand to host event $\implies$ 2) the Soccer World Cup; and,
- perceived event significance $\implies$ 3) the funeral of Diana, Princess of Wales.

1. THE WIMBLEDON TENNIS CHAMPIONSHIPS

The Wimbledon Tennis Championships is an annual event that has taken place for over one hundred and twenty years. Events of an annual (or cyclic) nature are unique in that the initial concept for such events occurs only once, at some point before the *first* event is staged (see Figure 4.2). Therefore, the initial concept for the Wimbledon Tennis Championships would have taken place prior to 1877, with the first Lawn Tennis Championships generating only local interest (Little 1997). In the ensuing period the event has changed to one of regional, national and ultimately international significance. With the event moving to its current location in 1922 there is subsequently a long history and tradition of hosting the event within the community. As such, the hosting process for Wimbledon begins each year with an examination of this history and tradition and an analysis of current factors (often highlighted in an evaluation of the previous year's event) that may influence and even enhance the successful staging of the championships. Recently, one such analysis highlighted the need for new and improved infrastructure resulting in the construction of a new stadium.

As suggested previously, the longer an event is associated with an area the more it becomes part of its make-up, and the more familiar organisers become with planning for and hosting the event (including evaluating the attitudes and wishes of the local community), allowing them to streamline the hosting process where possible. As a result, organisers of annual events may find it necessary to re-evaluate *community history* and undertake a *situation analysis and feasibility study* on a less regular basis than for other types of mega-events.

Figure 4.2: Hosting Process for the Wimbledon Tennis Championships



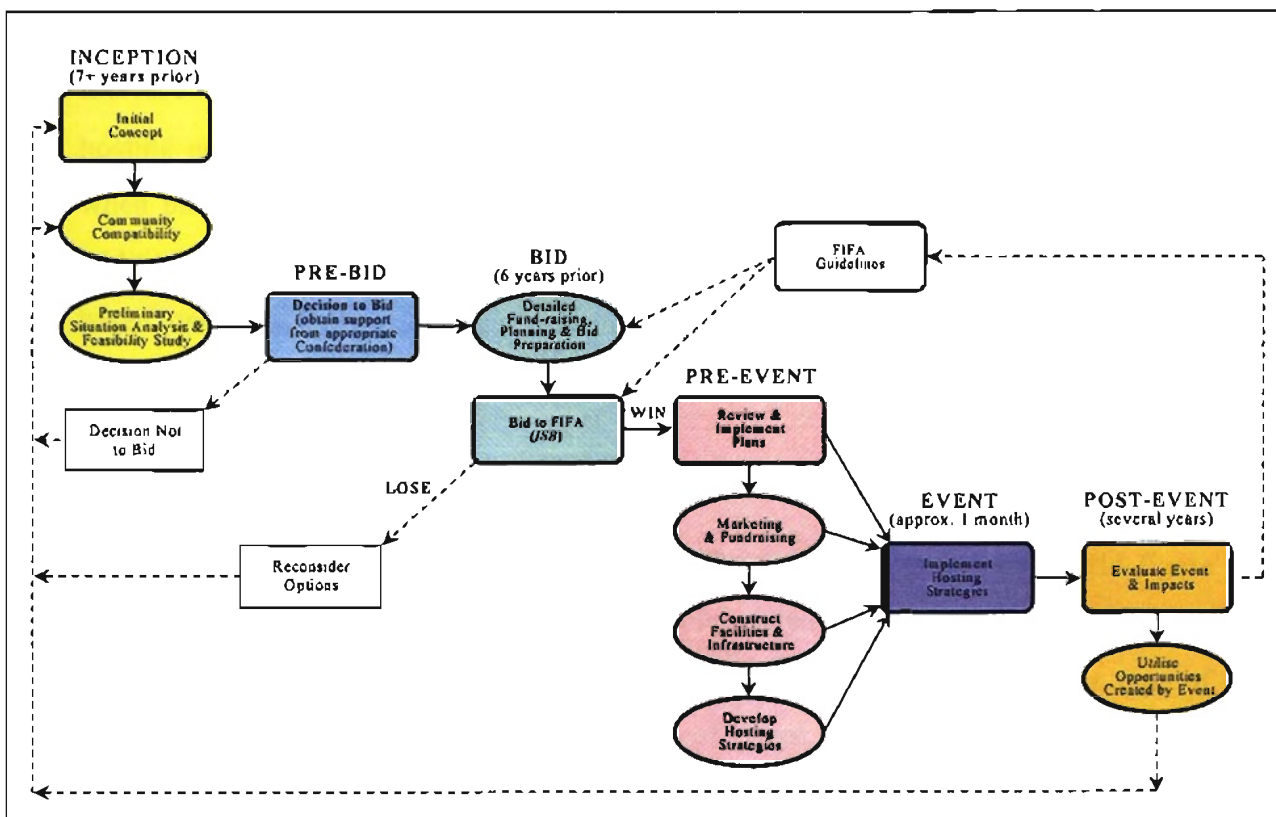
Each year the Lawn Tennis Association (LTA) and the All England Lawn Tennis Club (AELTC); organisers of the Championships, taking into consideration any necessary requirements set forth by the Association of Tennis Professionals (ATP) and the Women's Tennis Association (WTA), when reviewing and implementing plans and developing marketing strategies. Whilst the need to construct infrastructure is not a common occurrence, although stadia and facilities were upgraded recently, hosting strategies must be updated annually.

The Championships are held over a two-week period after which the relative success and impacts associated with the event are evaluated and opportunities such as increased tourism are utilised. It may be argued that the post-event evaluation becomes more important as the frequency of an event increases. For events such as Wimbledon, therefore, the link between evaluating and acting upon findings becomes much more important than for a one-off event, because it is to be repeated the following year.

2. THE SOCCER WORLD CUP FINAL

The Soccer World Cup, which attracted almost 32 billion viewers from 188 countries for the 52 matches in 1994, is a cyclic event hosted every four years by a different country, rather than an individual city (FIFA 1998). As the selection process for the World Cup is undertaken approximately six years prior to the event, concept initiation will generally take place at least one year prior to that (see Figure 4.3). However, the professionalism required to submit and market a competitive bid will generally necessitate a longer lead in period. The first step in the *Pre-Bid* stage is for the potential bid country to obtain the support of its regional soccer Confederation (it must be a member association of that Confederation), one of six around the world that help the Fédération Internationale de Football Association (FIFA) to administer the game (FIFA 1998). It is not an elimination process at this point, as any Confederation may support more than one bid from within its member associations (eg. Japan and Korea bidding separately and then jointly for the 2002 World Cup).

Figure 4.3: Hosting Process for the Soccer World Cup



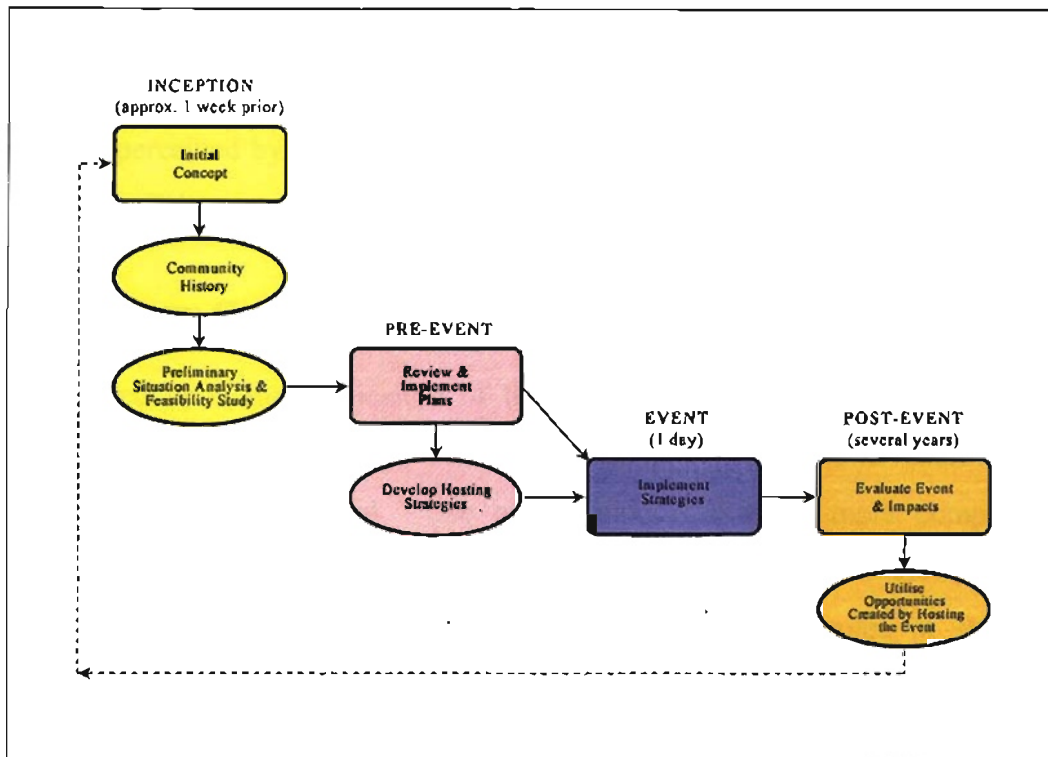
The venue of the final round of the World Cup is selected so the event isn't staged on the same continent on two successive occasions. Furthermore, the national association selected must be in a position to guarantee that the competition will be organised in accordance with the sports rules and financial regulations governing it (FIFA 1998b), with a level of community support that will ensure the availability of necessary volunteers. Success in the *Bid* stage will generally lead to a period of intensive planning, fundraising, marketing, and infrastructure and facility development for the host country in the lead up to the event. For example, the construction and upgrading of facilities is often required to adhere to the minimum standards set by FIFA, the ISB for the World Cup (FIFA 1998), whilst taking into consideration the long-term requirements of the host community.

The World Cup Final takes place over a one-month period in which all planning, marketing and hosting strategies will be implemented. However, it is only in the *Post-event* period, often several years after the event has taken place, that their success and subsequent impacts can be ascertained. Particularly if the event is perceived as being successful, this period provides the opportunity for the host nation to take advantage of increased international exposure and the economic and social benefits associated with hosting an event of this nature. Lessons learnt from this process can be called upon when bidding for similar events or planning for any large projects in the future. In addition the post-event period allows FIFA the opportunity to evaluate the event and, based upon its findings, review and implement necessary modifications to hosting requirements before the selection of the next host country.

3. THE FUNERAL OF DIANA, PRINCESS OF WALES

The sudden nature of an event such as the death of a prominent world figure necessitates a compressed time frame and an abbreviated number of stages and steps in the related planning process (see Figure 4.4). An example of this particular type of event was the recent funeral for Diana, Princess of Wales.

Figure 4.4: Hosting Process for the funeral of the Princess of Wales



The planning process for this particular *event* would have begun with the initial concept for the funeral taking place shortly after the death of the Princess (approximately one week prior to the funeral). An examination of community history would have highlighted both the accepted and expected protocol associated with the death and burial of a member of the British royal family. Based upon these protocols (which are historically present within institutions such as monarchies, churches, armed forces etc.) and an analysis of the unique national and international status and sentiment towards the Princess, a proposed plan for the funeral and an examination of its feasibility would have been produced. During the *Pre-event* period (the week leading up to the event) more specific plans for staging the funeral would have been developed and put into action (eg. avenues for mourners to pay their respects, the route of the funeral procession, who would speak at the funeral), whilst strategies regarding security and media access etc. were essential due to the anticipated levels of both public and media interest.

Whilst the funeral itself lasted only several hours, strategies necessary to successfully stage the funeral would have been implemented for at least the entire day of the event. Due to Diana's exceptionally high public profile, the initial *Post-event* period would have involved an evaluation of the acceptance and appropriateness of the funeral as perceived by the public, for future reference. Finally, opportunities to raise funds for the Princess' favourite charities have and will continue to be explored.

VALUE OF THE GENERIC MEGA-EVENT HOSTING MODEL

Based upon the application of the modular mega-event hosting model to a number of events with varying time-frames and hosting stages, its usefulness as a planning tool are highlighted. Use of the model allows a more comprehensive understanding of individual mega-event hosting processes, therefore, allowing the user the opportunity to more easily identify and understand the roles of the various stakeholders in the process.

In addition, the model helps the user conceptualise event stages within the hosting process, thus enabling individual stages to be examined at any desired level of detail. Alternatively, the model facilitates the closer examination and evaluation of event specific factors able to influence the hosting process. For example, in this thesis the model is used to provide a framework for the study of *community involvement* during the hosting process for a specific mega-event, the Olympic Games. As a result of the model's potentially broad practical applicability there is both the possibility and need for further development in the future.

SECTION 2

OLYMPIC GAMES – BACKGROUND AND THEORY

CHAPTER 5: HISTORY OF THE OLYMPIC GAMES

INTRODUCTION

Section 1 (Chapters 2-4) discussed and expanded upon some of the major theoretical concepts concerning *special and mega-events*, *planning and the role of community involvement*, and *the mega-event hosting process*. This section (Chapters 5-7), however, is concerned with the specific application of these concepts to the Olympic Games, arguably the largest of all mega-events. While the focus of this thesis is the Olympic Games of the modern era, and particularly the role that community involvement plays in the hosting process for such events, in order to obtain a more comprehensive understanding of the Olympic phenomenon and thus provide a context within which involvement can be examined, it is appropriate to explore the history of the Olympic Games in greater detail.

This chapter examines briefly the origins and ideologies of the ancient Olympics, whilst contrasting and comparing them to those leading to the revival of the modern Olympics in 1896 and its continuance through to the present day. The role of factors such as religion, class structure, politics, amateurism versus professionalism and the emergence of commercialism in the late twentieth century all warrant and receive attention. Finally, a summary reflecting on the theme of community involvement and the history of the Olympic Games is provided.

THE ANCIENT OLYMPICS

‘There are enough irksome and troublesome things in life; aren’t things just as bad at the Olympic festival? Aren’t you scorched there by the fierce heat? Aren’t you crushed in the crowd? Isn’t it difficult to freshen yourself up? Doesn’t the rain soak you to the skin? Aren’t you bothered by the noise, the din and other nuisances? But it seems to me that you are well able to bear and indeed gladly endure all this, when you think of the gripping spectacles that you will see.’

Epictetus, first-second century AD (in Swaddling 1980:6)

The precise origins of the Olympic Games are not known. However, it is known that every fourth year, for an unbroken sequence of over one thousand years (776 BC to AD 394), the pageantry of the Olympic festival attracted citizens from all over the Greek world (Powell 1994:16; Segrave and Chu 1988a).

The location of Olympia today may seem somewhat remote, however, its position on the north bank of the river Alpheios, which was navigable at the time of the ancient Olympics, ensured Olympia was easily accessible from both land and sea (Swaddling 1980:7). In the early years spectators and competitors came in their hundreds from neighbouring towns and city-states. Over time, however, the higher profile of the Olympics saw the catchment area expand to include colonies in Spain and Africa, with numbers increasing into the thousands (Powell 1994:63; Swaddling 1980:7).

What was it that encouraged people to cross such great and often trying distances to willingly endure the discomforts outlined by Epictetus? In addition to the Games themselves, and the art and cultural activities that developed in conjunction with them, the Olympics were held first and foremost in honour of the god Zeus and, as such, a visit to Olympia was also a pilgrimage to his most sacred place, the grove of Altis (Swaddling 1980:7). The German historian Deubner described the ancient Olympic festival as:

‘...sacred games, staged in a sacred place and at a sacred festival; they were a religious act in honour of the deity. Those who took part did so in order to serve the god....The Olympic Games had their roots in religion.’

(cited in Segrave and Chu 1988a:2)

ORIGINS

As noted by Segrave and Chu (1988a:1), religious, cultural and athletic festivals were held at Olympia and throughout Greece long before the 8th century BC. However, it was only through the ‘marriage of sacred and secular activities in the worship of Olympian Zeus’ that Olympia became the focal point of the Greek world and the

Olympic Games, one of the most spectacular and revered of all sporting festivals (1988a:1).

Swaddling's (1980:9) historical account of the possible origins of the ancient Olympic Games proposes several theories. One mythical representation of events suggests that Olympia was in essence created by Herakles, regarded as somewhat of a *super-human* in Greek mythology. In this version of events, he made a clearing in the grove, laid out the boundaries of the Altis and instituted the first games in honour of Zeus. It is more conceivable, however, that *formal* competitions, such as the Olympic, Nemean, Pythian and Isthmian Games, were developed from *informal* after dinner contests and funeral games which were held in honour of local heroes (Powell 1994:7). The Olympic Games were the oldest of these *formal* Panhellenic or national athletic festivals that made up the *periodos* or *circuit* games (Swaddling 1980).

The first recorded results from the Olympic Games occurred in 776 BC, however, competitions appear to have been held on at least an unofficial basis long before this (Swaddling 1980:9). In fact Aristodemus of Elis, who lived in the third century BC, claimed that it was only after the 27th Olympiad in 780 BC that victors' names were recorded (Powell 1994:9).

In support of this claim, it is alleged that in the ninth century BC, King Iphitos of Elis reinstituted the Olympic Games in an attempt to bring an end to the civil wars that were slowly destroying the land of Greece (Swaddling 1980:9). A priestess advised that he should restore the Olympic Games and declare a truce for their duration. Swaddling states that, despite whether this sequence of events is true or not, the resultant Olympic truce played a major role in the unification of the Greek states and colonies. Originally lasting for one month, and then extended to two and three months prior to each Games, the truce was designed to provide safe passage for those visitors coming from further afield. Failure to observe the truce resulted in the imposition of heavy fines (Swaddling 1980:9).

Therefore it may be surmised that, until first hand recollections of the early Olympic Games are discovered, the exact origins of this ancient event will remain shrouded in myth and legend. However, despite uncertain beginnings it is clear that, by the 4th century BC, Olympia had evolved into a religious, athletic, intellectual, and artistic centre of great popularity (Segrave and Chu 1988a:3).

AN OLYMPIC IDEOLOGY

For many centuries before the time of Christ, Greece was a collection of many small and independent states and cities often separated only by natural barriers (Powell 1994:6). There were constant feuds and wars between these communities, necessitating that Greek citizens be prepared for combat at any time. As a result, physical and mental readiness was considered both a normal and essential condition. With the perceived importance placed on these qualities it may be argued that it was only a matter of time before physical and mental prowess would be put to the test outside of battle, in the form of contests between individuals.

According to Segrave and Chu (1988a:1), although the most memorable expression of athletics in ancient Greece were attained in the Olympic Games, *sporting* contests played a prominent role in the cultural life of Greeks well before the first recorded Olympics of 776 BC. Indeed these contests are depicted in the epic poems of Homer, the *Illiad* and the *Odyssey*, highlighting a rich cultural heritage that included a love of athletics that emerged as part of everyday life and in association with the exploits of a warrior elite. They further note that the *Illiad* and the *Odyssey* also gave expression to a cultural ideal based on the principles of *physicality* and *intellectuality*. This combination provided the foundations for the athletic ideal of ancient Hellenism. In fact the pursuit of *arete*, the blend of moral, physical, and intellectual excellence inherent in Homer's cultural heroes, became the hallmark of classical Greek culture. Athletic festivals such as the Olympic Games eventually served as a podium for not only athletes themselves, but also intellectuals, philosophers, sculptors and poets (Segrave and Chu 1988a:3).

Powell (1994:6) argues that the various athletic festivals of ancient Greece developed over long periods of time rather than originating due to the actions of particular individuals. As such, the *Greeks* gave credit for their origins to their gods. In addition, he notes that Xenophanes was the first to suggest that gods were created by men in their own image rather than the reverse. Possibly as a result of this perception, many of the Greek gods were idealised and glorified athletes who had their own games, sports and festivals. With the gods gradually being brought down from the skies into the everyday life of sport, war and other activities, the Greeks grew to idealise victory, turning the victors into national heroes and, over time, supplanting to some degree the worship of gods with the worship of sporting victors (Powell 1994:7).

OLYMPIC PARTICIPANTS AND AMATEURISM

It is accepted that participation in the ancient Olympic Games was restricted to males from the various Greek states and colonies (Swaddling 1980:8). A separate event, the Festival of Hera, provided an opportunity for young girls and women to display their athletic prowess (Powell 1994). In addition, Powell points out that, whilst there has been a long-standing belief that spectating at the Olympic Games was an exclusively male affair, according to Pausanias, this was not actually the case, as 'maidens (virgins) were not debarred from looking at the games' (1994:12).

A somewhat more contentious issue, however, relates to the amateur versus professional status of competing athletes. According to Young (1988:27), the popular view of amateurism in ancient Greek athletics is quite fictitious. He believes that the myth was conceived by supporters of the nineteenth century Anglo-American amateur sports movement who wished to legitimise, with an ancient precedent, their own athletic system - a system which attempted to restrict sports participation to a wealthy, leisured class. Consequently, the founders of the modern Olympic Games then promoted the idea of the ancient amateur.

Young (1988:34) argues that ancient athletics were in reality, no different to modern professional sports. While many of the ancient athletes *were* wealthy and well born, on the stadium field, no class distinction existed. The noble and common would

have competed nude on the same ground for the same prize and the existing evidence suggests that, at least from the sixth century BC, those prizes often included large amounts of money. In fact, there would appear to be no evidence that the concept of amateurism was even known to the Greeks. However, Young also notes that, apart from the event prize, athletes from all backgrounds shared one underlying motivation, a love of competition and a desire to be victorious and this, he believes, was the principal force behind Greek athletics, not money (1988:35).

THE END OF AN ERA

As suggested by Swaddling (1980:78), while the Games began as a ceremony to honour the god Zeus, as time passed belief in the traditional religion faded and, as a result, by the fifth century BC the Games began to lose their religious significance. In many instances athletes were beginning to assume the sovereignty of the gods, crediting themselves and not Zeus with their victories.

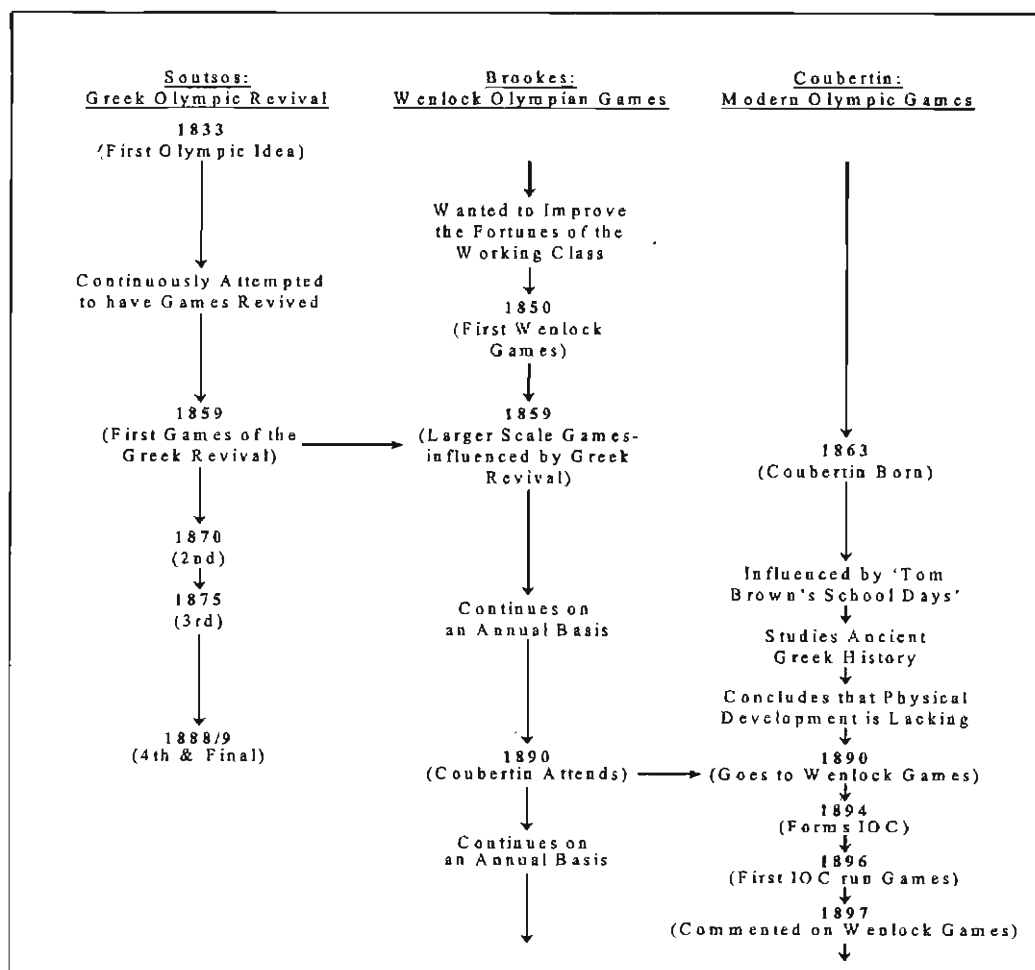
Scanlon (1988:37) notes that further changes evolved between 146 BC and the end of the Olympic era in 395 AD, the period in which Olympia was part of the Roman province of Greece. However, he argues that the widely held belief that the Games underwent a gradual moral decline, from high classical ideals to profit-minded professionalism during this period, is essentially incorrect. Rather, he suggests, the *ecumenical Olympics* were a vigorous, *new* creation with an added international flavour, whilst simultaneously retaining a strong Hellenic influence through centuries of radical political, economic and religious changes in the Roman Empire (Scanlon 1988:37).

It is not clear when the last Olympic festival took place, however it is unlikely that they continued after the Temple of Zeus was burnt down in approximately 426 AD, possibly in accordance with the edict of Theodosius II who ordered all pagan temples in the eastern Mediterranean to be destroyed. However, it is clear that, between the fifth and eighth centuries AD, different invaders laid waste the Altis, which in time was totally destroyed by earthquakes, floods and landslides (Swaddling 1980:79).

THE REVIVAL

The revival of the Olympic Games in the modern era is generally associated with the Frenchman, Baron Pierre de Coubertin. In fact, as noted by Young (1996:1), standard Olympic history credits de Coubertin with being not only the first to conceive the idea to revive the Olympics, but also basically achieving it single-handedly. However, he suggests that it would not be unreasonable to argue that some of de Coubertin's Olympic ideas were derived, at least in part, from other advocates of Olympic revival, such as the Greek poet Panagiotis Soutsos and the English philanthropist Dr William Brookes. Figure 5.1 illustrates how Soutsos and Brookes may have influenced the development of de Coubertin's Olympic ideas (Sources: Guttman 1992; Lucas 1988; MacAloon 1981; Redmond 1988; Young 1988,1996).

Figure 5.1: Modern Olympic Revival Time-line



PANAGIOTIS SOUTSOS AND WILLIAM BROOKES

According to Young (1996:2), Panagiotis Soutsos was only twenty-seven in 1833 when he began to form his idea to revive the Olympics. After Greece gained independence in the early nineteenth century, nearly four centuries after the institution of Turkish rule, Soutsos felt that there was a burden of ancient Greek history on his new nation. He believed that reviving the Olympics would help Greece to re-establish the culture and institutions for which the modern world held *ancient Greece* in such high regard. Not only would a revival restore the athletic games, but also represent a resurgence and celebration of education and culture. In addition, Soutsos believed that the Olympics had the ability to foster feelings of brotherhood between participants and as such could be a force for peace; not dissimilar to the Olympic ideology put forward by Pierre de Coubertin and the IOC towards the end of the nineteenth century (Young 1996:4).

However, Soutsos' dedication to the revival of the Olympics went unrewarded for twenty-six years, until in 1859, with the help and financial backing of Evangelis Zappas, a wealthy Greek businessman, the first Games of the modern era took place in Athens although they were not considered a great success (Young 1996:23). Subsequent celebrations of the *Zappas Olympics* took place in 1870, often regarded as the most successful, 1875 and 1888 or 1889 (Redmond 1988:78). Yet Young is of the opinion that the greatest importance to be attributed to this series of festivals lies in their influence on Dr William Brookes. Without them, he continues, it is doubtful that Brookes would have gone on to found the movement for International Olympics, into which he later drew Baron de Coubertin (1996:23).

Young (1996:8) argues that, although undertaking studies in Paris and Padua during the same decade and developing a similar Olympic passion, there is no indication that Brookes and Soutsos' paths ever crossed. It would appear that they formed their Olympic ideas independently. Young notes that after completing his education, Brookes began a program to improve the fortunes of the working class in his local area. This he achieved by forming the *Much Wenlock Agricultural Reading Society* (1840), to encourage working men to improve their minds, and the *Wenlock Olympian Class*

(1950) to encourage physical improvement. The remarkable similarities between Brookes' and Soutsos' ideas are evident when comparing the major aim of Brookes' Wenlock Olympian Games, 'the moral, physical and intellectual improvement of the inhabitants...', to that of Soutsos' Olympic Games (Young 1996:8).

The annual Wenlock Olympian Games, primarily a local event, were first held in 1850 and continue to this day (Young 1996:9). Young suggests that the Wenlock Games from 1850 to 1858 were relatively minor affairs, and it was not until 1859 and the Soutsos initiated Greek revival of the Olympic Games that Brookes was inspired to 'organise a far more ambitious, splendid, and *Olympic* festival than any of the previous meetings' (1996:24).

The eventual impact that Brookes and the Wenlock Olympic Games were to have on the international Olympic movement only began to surface for the first time in 1890 when de Coubertin attended the Games at the request of Brookes (MacAloon 1981:147). MacAloon suggests that de Coubertin was *utterly bemused and delighted by what he saw* and, in an 1897 article commenting on modern sport and gymnastic development, remarked that, 'In Wenlock only something of the past has survived; it is safe to say that the Wenlock people alone have preserved and followed the true Olympian traditions' (1981:147). Young (1996:11), however, argues that Brookes' major contribution to the modern Olympic movement was in forming an organisation named after the Olympics with what he perceived to be an ancient philosophy. Brooks then implemented athletic games with an Olympic name and based them upon that perceived philosophy, something that had gone unaccomplished up until this point.

BARON PIERRE DE COUBERTIN

Pierre Fredy, Baron de Coubertin, widely recognised as the founder of the modern *international* Olympic Games, was born in Paris on January 1, 1863 and died in Geneva in 1937 aged 74 years (Lucas 1988:89). Guttmann notes that de Coubertin was still a child when France suffered a humiliating defeat at the hands of the Prussians in 1870 (1992:7), and suggests that in the ensuing years de Coubertin, like many young Frenchmen of the time, attributed the defeat not to the arrogance of Napoleon III, but

rather to the physical inferiority of the French military. By the middle of the nineteenth century, in his chosen role as educator and propagandist, de Coubertin appealed to his countrymen to mend their ways so as 'to become as hardy as their perennial foes and steel themselves for the task of revenge' (1992:7) - a sentiment far removed from the notion of promoting international peace that he was to later advocate as a virtue of the Olympic Games.

Traditional representations of de Coubertin's burgeoning interest in the revival of the Olympic Games would have us believe that his fascination with the concept stemmed from two major and distinct sources. Firstly it is widely accepted that de Coubertin's disenchantment with the traditional French pedagogy was set in motion at an early age after reading a French translation of the English classic, *Tom Brown's School Days at Rugby* (Guttmann 1992:9). According to Lucas, it offered de Coubertin a 'somewhat distorted image of vigorous English youths, future leaders of the pervasive and powerful British Empire' (1988:90). In this manner, the sports-centred English *public* school system that prevailed during this period was to profoundly influence the Baron throughout the rest of his life (Redmond 1988). He was convinced that the system he observed in the late nineteenth century was the foundation on which the vast British Empire rested. So much so, in fact, that he championed its cause in France during the late 1880s and, due in no small part to his efforts, French physical education and sports began to flourish (Lucas 1988:91).

Secondly, Greek history was a major area of personal interest for de Coubertin, who read widely on the subject of Hellenic life and, as a result, began to idealise the ancient Greek culture, athletes and the Hellenic trinity of body, mind, and spirit (Lucas 1992:2). However Young (1984:59), in an analysis of de Coubertin's status as the founder of the Olympic Games, argues that in reality de Coubertin's 'knowledge of ancient Greek history, culture, and literature was superficial, at best'. In addition he argues that it seems more likely that the name and philosophy of the Baron's Olympic Games originated more from England, and in particular his trip to the Wenlock Olympian Games, than Greece.

Whilst there are obviously differing opinions on the subject, one thing cannot be denied: De Coubertin's belief in the Hellenic trinity of body, mind and spirit (regardless of its origins), in conjunction with an absolute faith in the character-building qualities of the sports-centred English public school system, 'formed the rationale for his dream of universal amateur athletics' (Lucas 1988:91). He embraced the virtues of the ancient Olympics, as he perceived them, and succeeded in presenting them on the international stage.

BEGINNINGS OF THE INTERNATIONAL OLYMPIC COMMITTEE

De Coubertin believed that to take physical education and athletics to the next level in France, to give them a truly national popularity and increase skill levels, a more expansive, international outlook was required. In 1892, de Coubertin decided that the best way to achieve true internationalism was to revive the Olympic Games, the most famous athletic festival in history (Guttmann 1992:10; Lucas 1988:92).

However, after a somewhat lukewarm response to his initial proposal, it was not until 1894 that substantial progress was made. At this time de Coubertin set about organising what was initially entitled the *Paris International Athletic Congress*, to be held in the Sorbonne, the primary purpose of which was to discuss the problem of amateurism. As the time approached, however, the title was changed to *The Congress for the Restoration of the Olympic Games*, the purpose of which was quite obvious (MacAloon 1981:170).

At the Sorbonne Congress, delegates voted unanimously in support of the restoration of the Olympic Games. They had followed de Coubertin 'almost without debate', as he himself put it, and furthermore suggested that they had successively voted for the fundamental principles that he had previously resolved in his own mind (MacAloon 1981:172). The principles agreed upon at the congress included four year intervals for the Games; a permanent International Olympic Committee whose members would represent the Olympic cause in their countries and not vice versa; and the passage of the Games from site to site (MacAloon 1981:172). Guttmann (1992) points out that, while Demetrios Bikelas from Greece was asked to serve as the first president of the

International Olympic Committee, the congress delegates empowered de Coubertin to choose the members.

As highlighted by Lucas, 'absolute independence for each member' was determined to be the fundamental basis of the IOC, a basis that has not changed to the present day. As such it was considered essential that this first group of fifteen men (there were no female members) valued internationalism over and above nationalism. De Coubertin believed that the self-recruiting nature of the Committee made it immune to all political interference and prevented it from being swayed by nationalism (1988:94). Lucas argues that, if the IOC had been chosen on the same democratic principles as other governing bodies, it would not have survived or at the very least would have been subject to endless and crippling disputes (1988:94).

Ultimately, the revival of the Olympics and the establishment of the IOC provided a medium through which de Coubertin (IOC President from 1896-1925) was able to pursue his quest to internationalise sport. He set about achieving this by promoting 'a philosophy that placed sport at the centre of a universal campaign for peace and international understanding', a philosophy he called *Olympism* (Segrave 1988:149). Interestingly however, it would appear that in this form de Coubertin's Olympic ideal was ostensibly counter to the ancient Greek ideal of physical excellence of the individual rather than the state, and the celebration of this gift in honour of the gods (Swaddling 1980).

Eligibility of Competitors

As suggested previously, the concept of *amateurism*, as it was then understood, was an invention of the Victorian middle and upper classes, whose purpose was to exclude the lower classes from the play of the leisure class (Guttmann 1992:12; Young 1988:27). In fact, Guttmann points out that, until the late nineteenth century, the rule banned the participation of any person who performed paid manual labour of any kind. Justification lay in the belief that the lower classes were incapable of acts of fair play and good sportsmanship (Guttmann 1992:12).

However, at the 1894 Congress at the Sorbonne, the Commission on Amateurism voted against this British restriction on manual labourers, and consequently (officially at least), against the exclusion of competitors on the basis of class (MacAloon 1981). In fact one of the most celebrated victories of the first IOC instigated Olympics in Athens was that of Spiridon Louys, a Greek peasant who won the world's first marathon (Guttmann 1992:19).

According to Guttmann, amateur athletes were eventually defined as those 'who competed for the intrinsic pleasures of the contest, not because sports provided them with the material basis of their existence' (1992:13). That the word *amateur* is derived from the Latin word for *love*, rather than the misplaced notion that athletes competing at the ancient Olympic Games did so for no reward, supports this definition. However, whilst this definition of the amateur rule was considered somewhat of an improvement over previous attempts, applied rigidly, many of the world's best athletes were considered to be professional for accepting payments that would have been 'inadequate to support them for more than one afternoon' (Guttmann 1992:13).

It would appear that, in essence, the Commission on Amateurism took a relatively soft approach to the topic of amateurism, not wanting to stray too far from its middle and upper class roots. As a result it settled upon a loose consensus rather than a strict amateur code, one that could not be agreed upon or imposed internationally (MacAloon 1981). It may be argued that taking such a vague stance initially contributed to subjective and often blatant misinterpretation of the rule by various countries in the following years, resulting in significant modification to the rules concerning amateurism in the last thirty years. Payment of athletes involved in Olympic sports, by governments and NOC's, is now commonplace and participation is open to professional athletes in nearly all events, boxing being one exception.

Interestingly, the *generosity* of the commission's decision not to discriminate on the basis of class does not appear to have been similarly extended to incorporate gender, as female athletes were not invited to compete in the Games until the second Olympics were held in Paris in 1900 (Guttmann 1992:24). In addition, the decision was made to

exclude competitions for children, unlike the ancient Greek Games, which did provide competition for young boys (MacAloon 1981:172). According to Chase (1992:28), throughout his tenure as President of the IOC, de Coubertin was a firm advocate that the Olympic program should exclude women and his efforts severely restricted the role of women in the Olympic movement. In fact, de Coubertin was once quoted as saying that 'Women have but one task, that of the role of crowning the winner with garlands...in public competitions, women's participation must be absolutely prohibited' (Fuller 1989:4.10).

THE MODERN OLYMPICS

Lucas (1992:4) states that one hundred years after de Coubertin's reign began, and the Olympic Games rationale was viewed through a 'romantic haze', the dream of 'Olympic fraternity, mutual respect among competitors and balanced patriotism among the media, athletes, and spectators still exists'. Whether the Olympic movement is any closer to achieving these lofty goals or whether in fact they *are* achievable remains unclear.

However, while the Olympic ideal remains essentially unchanged, the rules under which the Games operate have changed considerably. Firstly, the Games have grown substantially since 1896, when only 311 athletes from thirteen nations competed in nine sports (Verdaguer 1995:196; Wilson and Ghent 1992). At the Sydney 2000 Olympics some 10,000 athletes from some 200 countries are expected to take part in 28 sports. Hand in hand with this increase in size, the importance and influence of certain factors has become undeniable. The two that arguably possess the greatest potential to influence the Olympic movement at all levels are politics and the increase in commercialism, despite the IOC claiming independence from both. The former played a major role in the creation of the IOC and continues to play a prominent role to this day, while the latter has risen to prominence in the last two decades of the twentieth century. As stated by Miller (1992:3), the Olympic Games are 'inextricably linked with the changing face of global politics and...man's mounting preoccupation with money.'

THE ROLE OF POLITICS

Politics has been inseparable from the modern Olympic Games since their inception. Hill (1996), in an analysis of *Olympic Politics*, suggests that without Baron de Coubertin's political instincts the Olympic Games might not have been revived at all. Ever since de Coubertin's earliest manoeuvrings, almost every celebration of the Olympics has been fraught with politics (Hill 1996). For example, not even the so-called *Olympic Truce* could halt, even temporarily, World Wars I and II and hence the Olympics of 1916, 1940 and 1944 were cancelled.

Leiper (1988:341), in a discussion of *Politics and Nationalism in the Olympic Games*, contends that, as long as the Olympic Games have the ability to attract the attention of the world, more than any other sporting event, they will continue to be used by governments for propaganda purposes. In addition, Leiper suggests, use of the Olympics for political purposes can be based upon either sports-related or non-sports related issues. An example of sports-related political involvement in international sport is the exploitation of athletic achievements by governments, such as that experienced during the infamous *Nazi Olympics* held in Berlin in 1936. Indeed, when governments began to subsidise athletes heavily, 'only the most naive could have hoped that sport would not become a tool of international political one-up-manship' (1988:330).

Examples of non-sports related political involvement are numerous and include the boycotts of the Moscow and Los Angeles Olympic Games, arguably the two most damaging of all political actions to affect the Olympic movement (Leiper 1988:330). Another example occurred at the Munich Games of 1972 where Israeli athletes were murdered by Palestinian terrorists, resulting in the outgoing President of the IOC, Avery Brundage, proclaiming that 'the Games must go on' (Espy 1979). The isolation of South African sport, as a protest against apartheid, is also an example of the use of sport (or in this case the refusal to compete in sport) for political purposes (Hill 1996).

In discussing the influence of politics on an event such as the Olympics, Hill argues that 'it is impossible to keep politicians out of sport if they can discern some

advantage in making use of it' (1996:34). No sporting event provides politicians with a larger stage or more potential opportunities for self-promotion than the Olympic Games.

For example, as discussed in Chapter 3, the importance and prestige attached by governments to mega-events, such as the Olympics, is often the only rationale required to *fast track* planning practices which may ignore community resistance to either the hosting of the event or the construction of associated infrastructure (Roche 1991). The ideology behind this *political* approach to planning (see Chapter 3), would appear to reflect de Coubertin's turn of the century philosophy regarding the self-perpetuating nature of the IOC, which suggested that 'the best way to serve democracy did not always consist in a wholesale surrender to the electoral system' (Lucas 1988:94).

In addition to external political pressures, the Olympic Movement, consisting of the IOC, the International Sports Federations (IFs) and the National Olympic Committees (NOCs)¹⁰, is vulnerable to internal disputes. Hill (1996:69-75) argues that there is constant tension between the three groups over the balance of power, particularly regarding the selection of host cities (decided entirely by IOC members). And once chosen, the host city's organising committee for the Olympic Games (OCOG) enters the equation. The other major contentious issue is the distribution of funds via the Olympic Solidarity Fund, the IOC's fund for worldwide sports development. The IFs believe they should have some share in the IOC's sponsorship income, while some Third World countries are disappointed with their share (Hill 1996).

Whilst susceptible to external political pressure due to sheer size and exposure, the Olympics have remained resilient. Therefore, Hill (1996:247) suggests that, perhaps short of a world catastrophe, the greatest source of danger to the continuance of the Olympics may lie in the possibility of internal dissension, which could in turn result in fragmentation of the movement.

¹⁰ For further information concerning the role of IFs and NOCs see Chapter 6.

ADVENT OF COMMERCIALISM

It may be suggested that the seemingly one-way journey down the path to commercialism of the Olympics began in earnest at the 1984 Los Angeles Games. Whilst commercial sponsorship existed prior to this time, never before had the financial success of an Olympiad depended directly and solely upon it. In the wake of the disastrous financial experience in Montreal in 1976, only 34 per cent of Los Angeles residents declared support to host the Olympics if it would cost the taxpayer any money (Gruneau and Cantelon 1988).

Gruneau and Cantelon (1988:346) report that, in response to the public's wishes (and as Los Angeles was the only bid city), a compromise was brokered with the IOC. The subsequent agreement allowed the United States Olympic Committee and a private non-profit corporation to share joint responsibility for financing the Games, and not the host city as was typically the case. The Los Angeles Olympic Organising Committee was formed, which in turn established a \$500 million budget and designed a structured marketing program. The result was the institution not only of an official Olympic *soft drink* (Coca-Cola), but also an official Olympic *fast-food company* (McDonald's), an official Olympic *convenience store*, an official *snack food* and so on (Gruneau and Cantelon 1988:346), and the first nine figure (US\$225m) television rights deal in the history of the Olympics (Miller 1992:53).

However, it would appear that many people object to this apparent commercialism of the Olympic Games, a view supported by Sir Denis Follows, past Chairman of the British Olympic Association, whose comments, concerning increased sponsorship and the Olympics included: 'It is the ethical content of the Olympics which makes them a thing apart. Without that, and with the new overt commercialism, the Games could become just another fixture in the sporting calendar' (Miller 1992:43).

This does not appear to be a view shared by the IOC. For example, charges of excessive commercialism at the Atlanta Olympics were effectively answered, in the eyes of the IOC marketing department if not the public, by the Atlanta Olympic Organising Committee's statement that 'the commercialisation of sport is the

democratisation of sport' (Hill 1996:243). Sponsors also appear to be quite clear on their position. As suggested by the chairman of NationsBank, one of Atlanta's major sponsors, 'This isn't a charity. We've entered into a business transaction. We will make money...that's what it's all about' (Jennings 1996:289). While the commercialisation of sport *may* lead to its democratisation, it remains unclear whether overt commercialisation aids the democratisation of the process associated with *hosting* a sporting event.

The marketing program adopted at the Los Angeles Olympics was so successful that it opened the way to a future policy for the IOC of aggressively pursuing sponsorship from the private sector. Due to these initiatives, total Olympic revenue had increased by 300 per cent by the Barcelona Games of 1992 (Miller 1992:45). Miller indicates that by this time the two largest sources of revenue were television rights (50% - down from 95% in Los Angeles) and sponsorship (39%), with the remainder being made up of ticketing, coin souvenirs and other licensing. The IOC believed that the immense increase in revenue would provide them with the independence they so desperately wanted (Miller 1992:43-50).

There have been major increases in the amount of money being spent to secure the television rights to individual and combined Olympics. At the 1984 Games in Los Angeles, US\$225 million was paid for the American rights, a figure perhaps slightly inflated due to the Games being held in the USA (Miller 1992:53). However, this figure pales into insignificance when compared to the US\$1.25 billion paid for the same rights to the Sydney 2000 and Salt Lake City Winter Olympic Games of 2002 (Jennings 1996:291)

With the enormous sums of money being injected into the Olympics by the television corporations, they justifiably seek to maximise the returns from their investment. It may be argued that the major concern for purists in this situation is to ensure that this maximisation of returns is not achieved at the expense of individual sports or the athletes themselves. While the IOC insists that this will not occur and that television investment will not affect the Games, that may not be how the television executives view the matter (Jennings 1996:291).

For example, the current rights holders for the USA in 1996 and 2000, the NBC, in an effort to optimise economic returns, would ideally like more sports on the program that bring the entire family to the television sets. Indeed a senior executive has been quoted as saying that he would like the IOC to find a way to include more swimming and gymnastics in the Summer Games and more figure skating in the Winter Games (Jennings 1996:291). In addition at the recent Atlanta Olympics there was some concern that the marathon was run at a time more convenient to the television rights holder than the actual competitors, who, as a result, had to endure both the extreme Atlanta temperatures and the associated health risks.

Inextricably linked to the television rights holders are the Olympic corporate sponsors, often enticed by the prospect of exclusivity (Miller 1992:48). While not investing the same amounts of money as the major networks, they still have the ability to influence both events and individual competitors. For example, with the inclusion of beach volleyball at the Atlanta Games, a major controversy erupted over which players, from different beer sponsored leagues in the US, would be eligible to take part (Hill 1996:244). In another example of corporate sponsorship's ability to influence competition (if only indirectly), at the 1984 Los Angeles Olympics, many believe that Carl Lewis passed on the opportunity to attempt to break the long jump world record so as to avoid possible injury and, therefore, increase his chances of winning other gold medals *and* the sponsorship that would surely follow (Gruneau and Cantelon 1988:358).

Whilst the potential negative impacts associated with commercialism appear to be numerous, and their impacts tangible, there would also appear to be certain benefits. As suggested by Miller (1992:59), one undoubted benefit lies in the opportunity provided to create the Olympic Solidarity Fund. Taken by the IOC as a portion of revenue and profits, this fund offers financial assistance for the training of athletes and coaches, to emerging and under-funded NOCs around the world. Another arguable benefit lies in the subsequent flow of sponsorship deals to individual athletes, allowing them the opportunity to make a full-time living from their chosen sport - a situation that was not an option for many athletes prior to the current commercial climate.

As such it would appear that the apparent commercialisation of the Olympic Games, particularly in the past twenty years, whilst threatening to compromise both IOC control and the interests of the athletes (eg. the health risks associated with sponsor friendly scheduling of events), is considered both necessary and desirable by those very same parties.

CONCLUSIONS

When examined in the context of the current study, it may be suggested that throughout the history of the Olympic Games ordinary members of the host community have played a relatively minor role in the planning and hosting process. From its religious roots in ancient Greece, the Olympic Games were reinvented as a predominantly class based event established by wealthy members of an exclusive *club*, the IOC. It would appear that community involvement was linked directly to the societal values and structure of the time. Thus, the only opportunities available, for involvement or participation, to ordinary members of host communities, for both the ancient and early modern Olympic Games, were by competing in or attending the Games as spectators.

Over the past one hundred years, however, there have been many changes in the social, political and economic values in most developed societies. As suggested in Chapter 3, one of the major changes related to societies becoming more culturally and technologically sophisticated, developing a desire for the simultaneous growth of participatory democracy and expertise in decision-making, particularly in recent decades (Fagence 1977:2). In addition, it may be argued that, due to their lengthy and somewhat mythical history, the Olympic Games have been accepted as a major part of western culture, leading to a widespread sense of communal ownership. As a result, it is likely that issues concerning community involvement and the Olympic Games are today viewed as holding greater significance than for events without a similar sense of ownership. An interesting situation when one considers that, given its historical origins, the IOC was never democratically established and as such democracy and community involvement have traditionally not been to the fore in its thinking.

During this same period both the *costs* and *benefits* associated with hosting individual Olympic Games have increased dramatically. This combination has provided the basis for a near symbiotic relationship between the IOC, potential host cities, television networks and corporate sponsors. The IOC needs cities to host the Games; cities (perhaps more accurately, their governments) envisage great benefits from hosting them and therefore are willing to provide the infrastructure; while television networks and sponsors desire the exclusive exposure that they offer, and provide a great deal of the money required to *put on the show*.

Many potential host cities view the Olympics as a perfect opportunity to enhance both tourism (city, state and national) and urban imaging strategies, with an emphasis often placed on the redevelopment and revitalisation of urban areas (Hall 1995): all of which have the ability to substantially impact upon local communities. As discussed in Chapter 3, this situation often results in the apparent decision to 'go ahead with the project *first*, then seeking ways of justifying it later', a process which may be referred to as *hallmark decision-making* (Veal 1994:68). In support of this contention, Hiller argues that seldom is the decision to host a mega-event a democratic one; instead, it is an idea developed by the urban elite who then seek political support (1990:120).

The resultant combination of an often *Olympics at all costs* mentality on the behalf of potential/host cities and a desire for increased involvement on the behalf of the community involved provides an interesting scenario - a scenario which has seen the role of the host community in certain instances expand from that of passive spectator to having a substantial influence on the decision making process, as evidenced during Toronto's bid for the 1996 Olympics (see Kidd 1992). However, these examples are isolated and in reality the scenario is continually evolving.

CHAPTER 6: THE OLYMPIC GAMES HOSTING PROCESS

INTRODUCTION

As suggested in Chapter 4 various elements have contributed to the restricted development of a generic model of the mega-event hosting process in the past. Those elements considered *most* influential include variations in the *time-line* and *stages* associated with individual events. Whilst it was argued that these variations can be attributed to *general* factors such as the *catalysts* to mega-event production, it may be beneficial, when analysing specific events in greater detail, to also examine *event-specific factors*; those factors capable of influencing the hosting process of a particular mega-event. This would assist in gaining both a better understanding of the hosting process as a whole and the role of individual factors at different stages of the event in question.

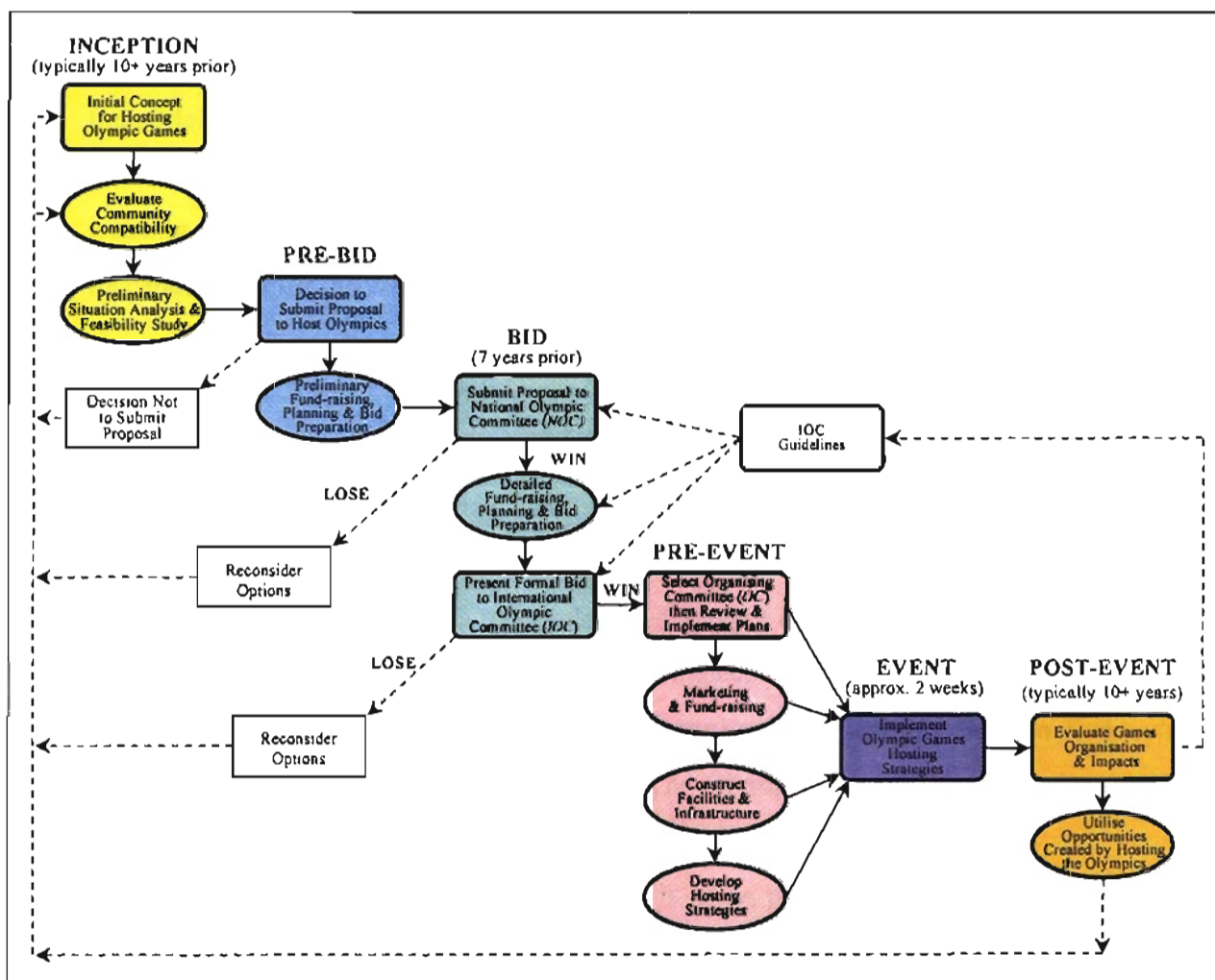
For example, the Olympic Games owe much of their status to a combination of *event history/tradition* (prestige) and *demand* to host the event (economic and social benefits). These factors have resulted in the establishment of a lengthy and structured hosting process predetermined primarily by the International Olympic Committee (IOC), the International Sanctioning Body (ISB) for this event. Whilst the Olympic Games Hosting Model outlined in this chapter provides a general representation of the Olympic Games hosting process, to gain a more thorough understanding, it is necessary to then consider the roles of event-specific factors, such as *politics*, *sporting bodies*, *community involvement*, *culture*, and the *environment etc*, in the hosting process. While many of these factors play a part in the hosting process of various mega-events, their respective roles in each are unique and determined in part by an individual event's *time-line*, and *stages*.

This chapter focuses on the *Olympic Games Hosting Process*, providing a brief discussion of the unique *Olympic time-line and stages* and *event-specific factors* influencing the process. This is designed to provide a more holistic picture of the Olympic hosting process, highlighting its interrelated nature and identifying those *factors* that could perhaps play a more prominent role at various stages in the overall process.

OLYMPIC TIME-LINE AND HOSTING STAGES

In Chapter 4 it was proposed that there are six distinct stages in the mega-event hosting process with a generic model outlining these stages and the overall process provided (see Figure 4.1). In this chapter the generic model is adapted to suit the hosting process for the Olympic Games. Each of the major stages, including *Inception*, *Pre-Bid*, *Bid*, *Pre-Event*, *Event* and *Post-Event*, and their subsidiary steps, displayed in Figure 6.1, are discussed in greater detail below.

Figure 6.1: Model of the Olympic Games Hosting Process



INCEPTION STAGE

The first stage of the Olympic Hosting Process, or *initial concept*, is conceived at least nine years prior to the event. As outlined in the *Manual for Cities Bidding for the Olympic Games* (IOC 1992:10), the International Olympic Committee (IOC) invites

National Olympic Committees (NOCs) to present names of candidature cities (those cities to be involved in the international bid process) approximately nine years prior to the opening date for any given Olympics. Therefore, it is generally necessary for concept initiators, typically political or influential business leaders/groups, to establish contact with their respective NOC well before this time.

Some cities and countries have a much longer history of interest in hosting the Games, with many presenting proposals or bids on a number of occasions. As noted by Jobling (1994:50), the Australian Olympic Committee (AOC) offered their support for a Sydney 2000 bid in the knowledge that there was a residue of goodwill within the International Olympic community created firstly by Brisbane bidding for the 1992 and then Melbourne for the 1996 Olympics. They believed this provided the Australian candidate city with 'a momentum that other cities would be pressed to match'. There is a strong argument that Sydney benefited greatly from these previous bids as it prepared its candidature for the 2000 Olympics.

In other instances the initial concept may have been formulated decades prior to a serious attempt being made. For example, in 1970, Nicholas Shehadie, the then Deputy Lord Mayor of Sydney, chaired a committee to examine the possibility of Sydney developing a proposal for the 1988 Games during Australia's Bicentenary year. In this instance, the initial idea to develop an Olympic complex close to the city centre was abandoned after strong community resistance. However, a subsequent report recommended the development of a sports complex at Homebush Bay, in Sydney's inner west, which would be capable of hosting an Olympic Games (McGeoch 1994:29).

The concept of hosting an Olympics is often prompted by the perception that doing so will provide an opportunity to promote economic development and urban redevelopment, fast track the development of sporting facilities and other infrastructure, and provide a legacy of sport and recreation opportunities for locals. All of these perceived benefits are promoted as contributing to overall community development, one of the major aims of mega-event hosting. Following the floating of the initial idea, the model suggests that concept initiators examine the proposed host city/region to

determine the compatibility of hosting the Olympics with the history, culture and values of the potential host community. If considered compatible a *preliminary situation analysis* may be undertaken and used, for example, to determine levels of community support and the facilities and infrastructure required to successfully host the Games. In addition a *preliminary feasibility study*, examining aspects such as the potential economic, social, cultural and environmental impacts, may also be prepared. Such a study also serves as a rough assessment of the affordability or profitability of hosting the Games.

PRE-BID STAGE

The pre-bid stage initially involves the process of deciding whether to proceed with the bid. If support from local authorities is forthcoming, study findings are congruent with the long-term needs/plans of the city and community support is considered to be at a sufficient level (or as in many cases, opposition is not considered significant), then concept initiators are likely to decide to submit a proposal for candidature to their NOC. If, conversely, it is decided that a continued effort would not be in the best interests of the city and region at that particular point in time, or opposition is considered too strong, the bid would not proceed and those behind the proposal must reconsider their options. This decision-making process can be quite lengthy, depending on the political balance of support and opposition to the proposal.

After deciding to submit a proposal, one of the first steps at this stage in the process is to establish a candidature committee, part of whose responsibility it is to present the city's proposal to the relevant NOC. Due to the potentially expensive nature of the international bid process in the subsequent *bid stage*, one of the major tasks of the committee is to ensure that the event's *potential* short and long term benefits are brought to the attention of prospective sources of funding, both public and private.

In addition the committee undertakes or commissions *preliminary planning* for key issues such as event facility and infrastructure development, tourism and other industry involvement, accommodation, transport, access routes, telecommunications and community consultation and involvement. Throughout this stage, preparations for

submission of the proposal to the NOC are in progress. In conjunction with preliminary fund-raising and planning details, the eventual presentation is likely to include details of community and government support (at all levels), and findings from the preliminary situation analysis and feasibility study from the *pre-bid stage*.

BID STAGE

Only a city whose candidature has been approved by the NOC of its country may submit this candidature to the IOC. With the prestige and potential benefits associated with hosting an event such as the Olympics, it is not uncommon for several cities to be involved in a domestic selection process that occurs approximately eight years prior to the Olympiad in question (IOC 1992:10). At this point in the process, the NOC will select one host candidate to participate in the international selection process undertaken by the IOC. Unsuccessful candidates may or may not choose to resubmit a proposal to their NOC for the next or subsequent Olympics, however, with the initial concept already established, the decision may not have to be made until just prior to the next *bid stage*.

After gaining the support of the NOC, detailed preparation of the bid begins in earnest for the successful candidate city, with the selection process typically only one to two years away. The selection of the host city by the IOC takes place seven years prior to the Games themselves and, once again, generally involves a competitive bidding process. However, this was not always the case. In fact, during the relatively recent selection process for the 1984 Olympics, Los Angeles was the only city to officially bid for the Games (Hill 1996:138). It may be argued that this situation was due, in part, to problems experienced at previous Games including Munich 1972 (terrorism) and Montreal 1976 (financial).

The process begins with the establishment of a bid committee to produce and *sell* the bid to the IOC. The major task of the bid committee is to oversee the revision and refinement of the preliminary fund-raising and planning strategies outlined in the pre-bid stage so as to meet IOC requirements, and preparing the bid documents to be presented for the international selection process.

To assist candidate cities in bid preparation the IOC provides a *Manual for Cities Bidding for the Olympic Games* providing a candidature guide and a questionnaire to be completed by the candidate city (IOC 1992:2). The candidature guide is arranged in chronological order and provides information regarding (IOC 1992:8):

- Preliminary stages prior to declaration of the candidature.
- Official registration of the candidature.
- Official promotional campaign.
- Preparation of the technical candidature file.
- Forwarding of the file to the IOC, study of the candidature and visit by the IOC Study Commission.
- Presentation of the candidature at the IOC Session which elects the host city of the Olympic Games.
- Constitution of the OCOG
- Organisational chart for the preparation of the Olympic Games.

As part of the candidature process a questionnaire, to be completed by each candidate city, is designed to obtain information concerning twenty-three specific themes (see Appendix 1 for a comprehensive list). The information provided in the completed questionnaire constitutes the major contents of a *candidature file* used in the selection process (IOC 1992:22).

Arguably one of the more important themes to be addressed in the candidate file questionnaire is that concerning the ability to *finance* the Games. As outlined by the IOC all candidate cities must supply financial guarantees that are considered to be satisfactory by the IOC Executive Board (IOC 1992:65). Other information required by the IOC includes:

- Inflation rates (past five years and future forecasts)
- Financial status of the city over the past five years
- Intended price control measures (eg. hotel rates)
- Detailed budget (expenditure for investments/operating costs, expected income and profit/loss)

To fulfil these requirements, candidate cities produce comprehensive yet obviously speculative budgets (due to the time frame involved). This is done not only to assure the IOC, but also the host community and the bid committee, that the city has access to both the economic and other resources necessary to host the Games.

The bid stage traditionally represents the first serious attempt, on behalf of the candidate city, to measure and potentially enhance the level of community support. Petitions are popular tools at this stage in the hosting process due to their ease of application and the fact that the local community is generally caught up in the atmosphere of the bid itself. As such, it is possible to obtain positive results even though a large proportion of the community *may* be quite unaware of the specific bid details, including the potential costs and benefits associated with hosting the event. Attempts to increase or enhance community support in the period leading up to the selection process may utilise techniques such as intensive marketing and merchandising of Olympic products. A detailed examination of the community involvement and consultation processes associated with various Olympics are provided in Chapter 7.

However, the high profile lobbying and promotion associated with an Olympic bid is designed not only as a tool to help focus community support but also as a means to gather support from the International (sports) Federations (IFs) and IOC delegates.

‘All things being equal, people will buy from a friend. All things being not quite so equal, people will *still* buy from a friend. Make friends.’

McCormack cited in McGeoch (1994:78)

McGeoch suggests that the Atlanta bid set new standards on how to bid for the right to host an Olympic Games. Up against the then favourite, Athens, the Atlanta Bid Committee for the Olympic Games set out with a simple but effective strategy of forging good personal relationships with all members of the IOC. They argued that most modern cities of the world probably had the capacity to host an Olympic Games, therefore, the important task was to establish a good rapport with the people who would make the decision, that is, the IOC members themselves (1994).

Jennings (1996:182), however, offers an alternative and altogether less flattering description of the bid process. He argues that, while the IOC has publicly tightened the bid rules in recent years, banning expensive gifts to IOC members and outlawing long, leisurely and repeated visits to bid cities, in reality little has changed. He states that bid cities continue to ‘lay on gargantuan free lunches, dinners, trips and presents while some members of the Olympic family take advantage to seek business deals...’ (Jennings 1996:55). Jennings further argues that the representatives of bid cities are willing to ‘bow and scrape to win over a majority of the committee, as around fifty votes will put their city on the world map’ (1996:55).

As outlined by Hill (1996:92), selection of the host city for an Olympic Games takes place at the IOC Session (annual meeting) seven years before the year in which it is to be held. Following approximately a week of intensive lobbying, on the day of the vote, candidate cities are given the opportunity to give final presentations and field questions from the IOC members (McGeoch 1994:292). Once the selection process is underway, if no city gains a majority in the first round of voting the one with the fewest votes is eliminated and a second vote taken (Hill 1996:93). This procedure continues until one city obtains a majority of the votes and is awarded the right to host the next Olympic Games. An example of the voting procedures, shown in Table 6.1, highlights that the voting which resulted in Sydney’s selection for the 2000 Games involved five cities and took place over four rounds (adapted from McGeoch 1994:303).

Table 6.1: 1993 IOC Session Voting

1993 IOC Session: Monte Carlo	Round 1	Round 2	Round 3	Round 4
Sydney	<i>30</i>	<i>30</i>	<i>37</i>	<i>45</i>
Beijing	<i>32</i>	<i>37</i>	<i>40</i>	<i>43</i>
Manchester	<i>11</i>	<i>13</i>	<i>11</i>	
Berlin	<i>9</i>	<i>9</i>		
Istanbul	<i>7</i>			

At some point before the next selection process begins, unsuccessful applicants must decide whether or not to resubmit a proposal for candidature to their NOC. If a potential host city (or another city from the same region/country) has in the past put forward a high quality bid/s, this can have a positive influence on subsequent bids and as such may have a positive influence in this decision.

PRE-EVENT STAGE

If successful in the *bid stage*, the city must form an Organising Committee for the Olympic Games (OCOG) within six months of the decision, and this committee, not any federal or provincial government body, is required to enter into a legal agreement, known as the Host City Contract, with the IOC to host the games (Lenskyj 1994). The IOC stipulates that the OCOG must include the IOC member/s from the host country, the President and Secretary General of the NOC, and at least one member representing and nominated by the government of the host city. From the time of its constitution approximately seven years of preparation ensues for the OCOG. During this period the OCOG must comply with the Olympic Charter, the Host City Contract and the instructions of the IOC Executive Board (IOC 1998).

. One of the major tasks of the OCOG, in the period leading up to hosting the event, is to refine, finalise and implement the plans outlined in the *bid*. These include plans to successfully achieve the proposed targets for relevant themes addressed in the candidature questionnaire (see Appendix 1). Matters such as proposed competition sites/facilities, environmental protection, security, provision of athlete and other accommodation, transport, media, marketing and finance/budget, are revised by the OCOG on an ongoing basis (IOC 1992:22). For example, under the SOCOG act of 1993, SOCOG is specifically responsible for (OCA 1996:3):

- organising the sports program, including preparing and operating all venues and facilities for the Games;
- organising accommodation and transport for competitors, team officials and personnel, and media;
- establishing a marketing program in consultation with the IOC and the Australian Olympic Committee;
- arranging and making available host broadcaster and media facilities, and other information services; and,
- organising the cultural program.

During the pre-event stage extensive lobbying by the OCOG, of government bodies at all levels, continues with the aim being to maximise the availability of public funding and other assistance (provision of land and security services etc.). At the same

time, marketing of the event is initiated to maximise the revenue from several sources. The sale of television rights remains the largest sources of income for the OCOGs and although they play a prominent role in the process, negotiations, usually held four years prior to the Games are under the direction of the IOC (IOC 1992:67).

While the IOC does not stipulate that OCOGs necessarily include specific government representatives, they do *encourage* the inclusion of both government representatives and their appointees (IOC 1998b). For example, members on the SOCOG Board of Directors are appointed by the Governor of New South Wales on the recommendation of the NSW Minister for the Olympics and in consultation with the President of the Australian Olympic Committee and the Prime Minister of Australia (SOCOG 1997).

Income from sponsors is typically the second largest source of revenue with the two basic sponsor programs being the TOP program, for a small number of international companies (under the direction of the IOC), and the national sponsors program, which is negotiated and managed by the OCOG and may include ten to fifteen national sponsors. Sponsors provide not only considerable financial support, but also support *in kind*, including the technical competence required in various aspects of Games organisation (eg. computer systems) (IOC 1992:67). It should be noted that revenue from Olympic sponsors is only available for use by the organising committee to stage the event, not for building required facilities and infrastructure, which is the responsibility of the host city and government (Korporaal 1995:2). As a result, the major source of funds is usually general government, unless perhaps existing facilities are used, as in Los Angeles in 1984 (Hill 1996:141). Whilst the process of obtaining sponsors takes place predominantly in the first half of the pre-event stage, to allow budgets to be finalised, marketing is undertaken continuously in the lead up to the event.

Olympic organisers are required to set aside a significant proportion of available tickets for the use of both the IOC and sponsors. Therefore, a combination of traditionally high demand and limited availability reduces the need for marketing to increase local ticket sales. Particularly for the high profile sports/events, demand

typically exceeds supply. However, marketing may be necessary to sell tickets for lower profile sports. In any case both marketing and public relations play a prominent role in the lead up to the Olympics to both highlight major sponsors and increase community support.

With the uncertain nature of funding during the bid stage, the preliminary plans for facilities and infrastructure submitted to the IOC are necessarily tentative and often constitute a *best case* scenario. After budgets and plans are finalised in the pre-event stage this focus changes from *best case scenario* to *what can actually be afforded*.

With plans finalised, construction of required sporting facilities and additional infrastructure (eg. transport and accommodation) can begin. With test events held approximately a year prior to the Games, as part of the preparatory program, facilities are required to be finished before this time (IOC 1992:50). However, the construction process for infrastructure and some facilities often continues up until just prior to the event taking place (eg. last minute painting of the Atlanta Olympic Stadium). As a result, the construction of facilities and infrastructure is one of the most tangible indicators of progress for the host public.

The last of the major steps in the pre-event stage is the development of specific hosting strategies to ensure a smoothly run Olympic Games. These strategies target a variety of issues with the potential to significantly influence event production and include accreditation, staffing, accommodation (both visitor and residential), transport, protection of the environment, security, emergency procedures, media and communications, ticket pricing and availability, and community involvement/participation (volunteers etc.). Hosting strategies are traditionally reviewed and revised up until the Olympics conclude and aim to provide procedures for both expected and unexpected incidences.

For example, at the Sydney 2000 Olympic and Paralympic Games, organisers expect that upwards of 50,000 volunteers will be required to fulfil a variety of tasks including driving, ticket-collecting, ushering, marshalling, tour guiding and sports

officials (SOCOG 1998¹¹). SOCOG states that in the past the 'successful staging of the Games has hinged on the Volunteer Program....whilst *ensuring* community involvement in the event' (SOCOG 1998). Recruitment and training of volunteers is undertaken in the *pre-event* period.

Another major form of participation available to members of the host public is involvement in the Torch Relay which, for the Sydney Olympics, will last for one hundred and twenty days prior to the Games (one hundred days in Australia), require approximately ten thousand torchbearers and pass through one thousand Australian towns/cities (Moore 1998:3). However, perhaps the most obvious form of participation available relates to the opportunities provided to attend Olympic events as spectators. While organisers may argue that the *event stage* is the period in the hosting process best suited to encouraging and providing an opportunity for community participation, problems invariably arise with relation to ticketing at the *pre-event stage*. The major issues relate to the inability or difficulty residents' experience in securing tickets, particularly to the higher profile events, in the period leading up to the Games (Huxley 1996:3; Vass and Huxley 1996:3). The difficulties relate to a combination of factors, all of which appear to create great angst or feelings of betrayal within the host public, and include:

- demand for tickets exceeding supply (particularly for high profile events);
- large numbers of seats dedicated to the Olympic Family and sponsors; and,
- tickets considered too expensive.

It is particularly interesting to note that two of the most popular Olympic events for spectators, the opening and closing ceremonies, are not sporting events. Apart from the spectacle that they provide, it may be argued that these extravaganzas have gained significance due to their symbolic nature – they signify the beginning and end of perhaps the largest event in the world for that year and possibly *ever* for the host city. As a result, they are two events about which access concerns invariably arise. As all competing teams and large numbers of sponsors attend these events they typically have a relatively *small* proportion of tickets available for the host public.

¹¹ <http://www.sydney.olympic.org/index/volunteers>

Promoted as ‘the best way for all Australians to share the spirit and experience of the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games’ the *Olympic Club* was a recent SOCOG initiative which attempted to increase community involvement, whilst raising funds, in the lead up to the Sydney Games (Moore and Aylmer 1998:14). Under the program *Olympic Club* members would receive Olympic information kits, access to Australian athletes and the opportunity to win tickets to events, however, with a joining fee of between \$180 and \$300 the affordability and value of memberships were considered questionable (Moore and Aylmer 1998:14).

Organisers may also take the opportunity during the *pre-event* period to incorporate the host public and/or community representatives/social welfare organisations in an assessment of the likely social impacts. For example a Preliminary Social Impact Assessment (Keys Young 1995), including an opportunity for public submissions, was undertaken after Sydney was selected to host the 2000 Olympics. Since that time the Sydney Olympic Coordination Authority (OCA) has established a Social Impacts Advisory Committee, which includes representatives from a variety of local welfare organisations, to provide advice and recommendations on a broad range of social issues (OCA 1996:41). However, as mentioned in Chapter 4, the most visible form of host public involvement during the pre-event period typically involves residents being encouraged to *participate* in associated volunteer programs.

Therefore, it may be suggested that regardless of the formal level of community involvement in the early stages of the hosting process, the issue of community involvement inevitably arises in the *pre-event stage* as various social impacts become more apparent. These take many forms including:

- construction of event facilities and ancillary infrastructure;
- assessment of community impacts (eg. impacts on housing);
- general marketing/public relations (fundraising, merchandising and the emergence of *Olympic Clubs* etc.);
- the volunteer program;
- increased coverage in print and electronic media (including monitoring of public opinion);

- ticket availability and affordability;
- increased politicisation of the process (government vs opposition vs lobby groups – eg. environment);
- various forms of economic monitoring;
- academic interest/involvement; and,
- regular visits from IOC representatives.

EVENT STAGE

Ten years of planning culminates in approximately two weeks of Olympic competition, with the success of the event depending primarily upon those decisions made over the course of the hosting process and in particular the implementation of hosting strategies developed in the pre-event stage.

It may be argued that the sheer scale and expense associated with hosting the Olympics both accommodates and necessitates community participation in a variety of forms at the *event stage*. Community participation at this point may be grouped into the two general categories of *active* and *passive* participation. Different forms of *active* and *passive* participation include:

Active Participation

- Volunteers
- Spectators
- Economic contribution

Passive Participation

- Hosts to visitors/tourists
- Associated *party* atmosphere

Members of the host public, particularly *volunteers* and *spectators*, make a critical *economic contribution* to the hosting of an Olympic Games. By providing their services free of charge, volunteers not only help to provide a smoothly run Games but, perhaps just as importantly, save the organising committee large sums of money. More directly, however, spectators contribute to the economic viability of the Games through revenue generated from ticket sales.

Forms of passive participation available to the host public include helping to create a friendly atmosphere and memorable experience for tourists to the city. In this fashion residents can enhance the prospects of longer-term benefits for the host

community and city by increasing the chances of repeat visitation etc. In addition, the general *party* atmosphere that seems to envelop the host city during the Olympics may also be considered a form of passive participation. The enjoyment and satisfaction derived by the host public in such instances has been referred to as the *psychic* value of the event, the impact of which can be quite substantial and last well into the *post-event stage* (Darcy and Veal 1994:10; Haxton 1993). Indeed, Burns *et al.* (1986) determined that the estimated *psychic* value of the Adelaide Grand Prix to the residents of Adelaide was greater than for all other benefits.

However, whilst there are several avenues for participation during the *event stage* of the hosting process, the question of whether the host community considers this level of participation to be constructive, or rather a superficial attempt on behalf of event organisers that they can use to justify the decisions/actions taken in the period leading up to the Games, remains unanswered.

POST-EVENT STAGE

The *post-event* time period for the Olympic Games varies in terms of both its length and effects on the host community, and therefore is difficult to assess. For example, the lifespan of the stadia, facilities and infrastructure constructed as a result of hosting an Olympics will be considerable (and similar for all hosts), whilst the period of time over which less tangible impacts are evident (eg. resultant trends in sports and leisure activities, tourism) can vary substantially from one host city to another. In addition, impacts such as any potential sporting legacy may be dependent on factors including the success of local athletes and particularly whether any *stars* emerged during the Games. Other important factors include the suitability and practicality of facilities (including design features) for the *post-event* host city environment, the subsequent management of those facilities and the ability of the host city/region to attract major events in the future to maximise benefits.

With the impacts (economic, social, etc.) of mega-events such as the Olympics often being long-term in nature it would be beneficial if they were measured at short, medium and long-term intervals, in the post-event period, to ascertain more thoroughly

their consequences on the host city and community. However, post-event studies have, in the past, generally been limited to the short and medium-term post-event period (Haxton 1993; Jeong *et al.* 1990; Ritchie and Lyons 1990). In addition, it has been suggested that post-event studies, concerning the social impacts (including the associated psychic value) and community attitudes of such events, should continue for at least two to four years in the post-event period so as to obtain less emotive and more reflective responses from members of the relevant host publics (Haxton 1993). Evaluation of an event's hosting procedures, success and subsequent impacts will prove advantageous when and if the host city/country contemplates bidding to host the Olympics or a similar event in the future, whilst providing a contribution to the knowledge of events in general.

However, whilst Olympic host cities are given the responsibility to produce the Olympics on a one-off basis, the IOC has the long-term future of the Olympics as its responsibility. With the IOC mission of spreading *Olympism* throughout the world by having the Games at a different site each time, an evaluation of each Olympic Games by the host city is required by the IOC, in order to identify problems in the overall hosting process that may be altered for future editions of the Olympics (IOC 1998¹²). Any modifications to required procedures are typically passed on to NOCs and host candidates during the following or subsequent bid stages. Therefore, it may be argued that post-event studies concerning individual Olympics are of equal or greater benefit to the IOC than the individual host cities involved.

As with the impacts of mega-events (discussed in greater detail in Chapter 3), the opportunities created as a result of hosting a mega-event may be perceptible for many years, even decades, to come. Examples of opportunities created as a result of hosting an Olympic Games include the long-term use of sporting facilities and related infrastructure (Hall 1995). Other opportunities may relate to increases in corporate investment, inbound tourism and increased participation in those sports featured in the Olympics (Getz 1991; Haxton 1993; Ritchie 1984).

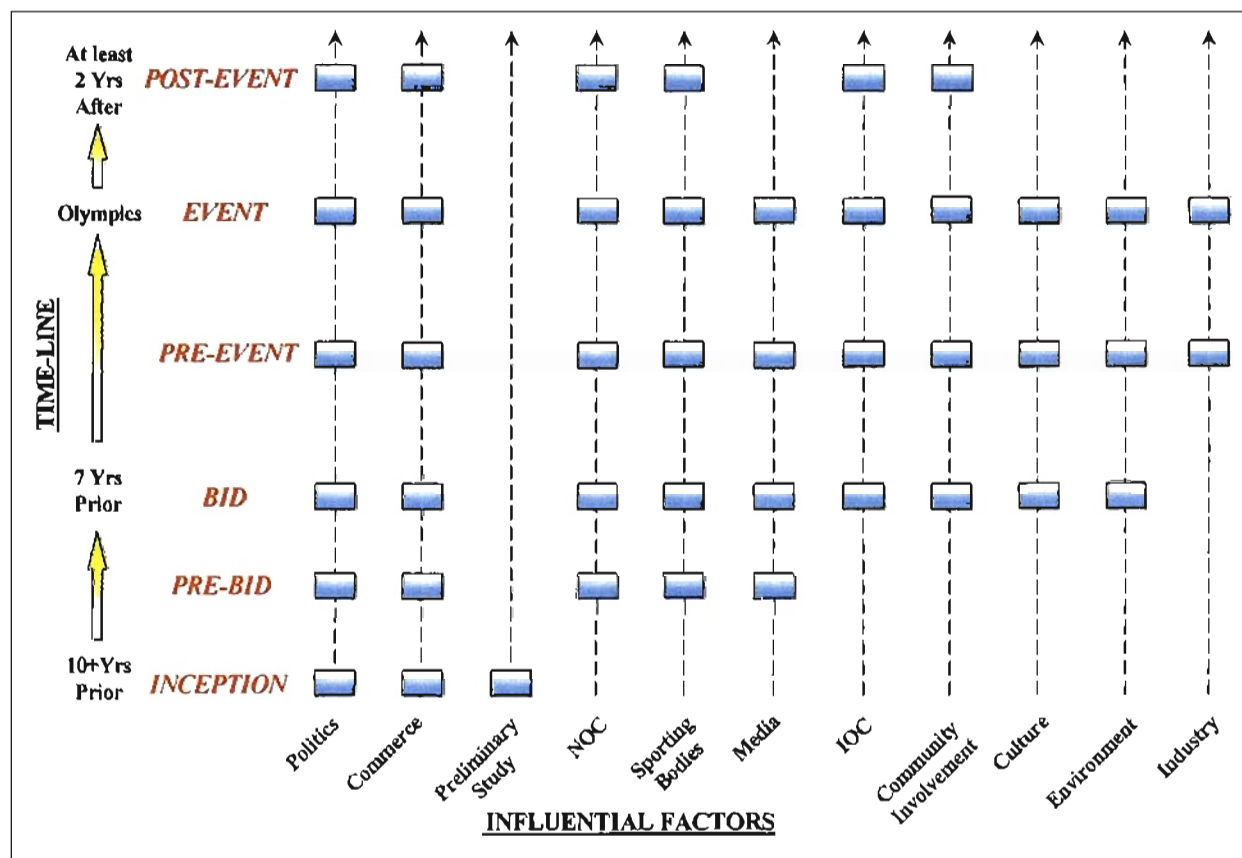
¹² <http://www.olympic.org/map/index.html>

EVENT-SPECIFIC FACTORS APPLIED TO THE OLYMPIC HOSTING PROCESS

In addition to the specific time-line and hosting stages, the other major influence contributing to variations in the hosting process of individual mega-events could be described as *event-specific factors*. Following is a discussion of the factors that play a major role at different stages in the Olympic Games hosting process.

Although factors such as *politics, sporting bodies, community involvement, culture, and the environment*, play an important role in the hosting process of many mega-events, their roles in the Olympic Games hosting process are unique when examined in the context of the Olympic time-line and the various steps required at each of the six hosting stages. Figure 6.2 provides a representation of event specific factors in the Olympic context.

Figure 6.2: Event-Specific Factors Applied to the Olympic Hosting Process



POLITICS

The role of politics in the Olympic movement is an issue of particular importance to the Olympic hosting process and as such is discussed in greater detail in Chapter 5. During this discussion it was noted that politics has the ability to influence the Olympic movement at all levels in its hierarchy. Coates, the IOC member representing Australia (cited in Phillips 1995), argues that in an attempt to reduce the possible influence of politics on the production of the Olympic Games, the Olympic Charter addresses this problem directly. He suggests that the Charter is very clear and straightforward in emphasising to all NOCs the importance of preserving autonomy and resisting pressures of any kind, including those of a political, religious, or economic nature, whilst maintaining co-operation with governmental and non-governmental authorities. However, the NOCs' reliance on provincial and federal government assistance, to successfully bid for and host an Olympic Games, necessitates early and continued political involvement throughout the hosting process.

A consequence of continued political involvement throughout the hosting process is that unless blatant miscalculations with regard to the Olympic budget, ticketing, etc., have been made (such was the case in Montreal), the *post-event* period has the potential to become merely a forum for self-congratulation and political promotion. For this reason academic research can play an important role in the period subsequent to the hosting of any major event, to help encourage an accurate disclosure of associated impacts.

It should also be noted that, as discussed in Chapter 3, politics is inextricably linked to the levels of community involvement and participation incorporated into the planning process for events such as the Olympic Games. Indeed, it was suggested that, the first and arguably most important point to recognise when discussing the process of community involvement is that it can occur only within a clearly defined political structure (Abbot 1996:3). As a result, the issue of involvement versus democracy is immediately raised, an issue which was explored in greater depth in Chapter 3.

COMMERCE

In recent years, mega-events such as the Olympics have been approached in a more business-oriented manner and are often undertaken for the commercial/economic opportunities that they provide. Opportunities, such as increased investment and commercial activity in the host region, increased expenditure and inbound tourism, all provide positive impacts on the local and national economies.

With increased economic activity being one of the major benefits associated with the hosting of the Olympics, commercial involvement in the early stages of the bid process is not unusual. For instance, the Committee for Economic Development of Australia (CEDA) (1995), estimated that 449,000 extra tourists will visit Sydney in 2000 due primarily to the Olympics. In addition, there will be a progressive build-up of tourism in the years leading up to 2000, resulting in total visitor numbers estimated at between 1.5 and 2.1 million. The national economic benefit from Games-related tourism is estimated at \$7.3 billion over a ten year period.

In addition, the impact and opportunities for domestic manufacturing and service suppliers can be quite substantial, with the need for state-of-the-art equipment and services providing a unique opportunity to showcase local products and skills (CEDA 1995).

PRELIMINARY STUDY

Initiated by political or influential business leaders/groups, the preliminary study typically incorporates a preliminary situation analysis and feasibility study. These studies are used to determine what facilities and infrastructure the proposed host city/region will require in order to host the Games, and the potential economic, social, cultural and environmental impacts and viability of the event. It is usually based upon these studies that the decision to continue with the bid or not is made and as such, it is a critical step in the Olympic hosting process.

IOC

There are several levels in the Olympic movement, all of which come under the umbrella of the self-perpetuating oligarchy known as the IOC. The *Olympic Family*, which promotes the Olympic movement on a worldwide basis, consists of several levels (IOC 1998):

- International Olympic Committee (IOC)
- National Olympic Committees (NOCs)
- International Sports Federations (IFs) recognised by the IOC
- Organising Committees of the Olympic Games (OCOGs)

The official role of the IOC in the hosting process begins in the bid stage with the setting of guidelines for the bid process¹³, however, it may provide advice or information upon request to potential candidate cities before this time. After receiving official nominations of candidature from individual NOCs, fulfilling all necessary requirements outlined in the bidding manual, the IOC chooses one city to host the Olympics in question. The IOC's involvement continues throughout the remainder of the hosting process as it works in conjunction with each level of the Olympic movement (NOC, IFs, OCOG) to ensure that facilities and infrastructure are adequate and completed on schedule, and that the two weeks of competition runs smoothly. In general, IFs and NOCs do not have direct representation on the IOC. Relationships between these bodies are conducted through bi-lateral negotiations and joint meetings. The basic structure of the Olympic movement is summarised in Figure 6.3 (adapted from Toohey and Veal 1999:36).

NOC

The NOC's official involvement in the hosting process begins with the selection of a candidate city to bid to host the Games, the first step in the *bid* stage. As with the IOC, individual NOCs may provide advice and/or information to potential candidate cities during the *inception* and *pre-bid* stages if requested. If the candidate city is successful in its bid to host the Games, the NOC works in conjunction with the IOC and

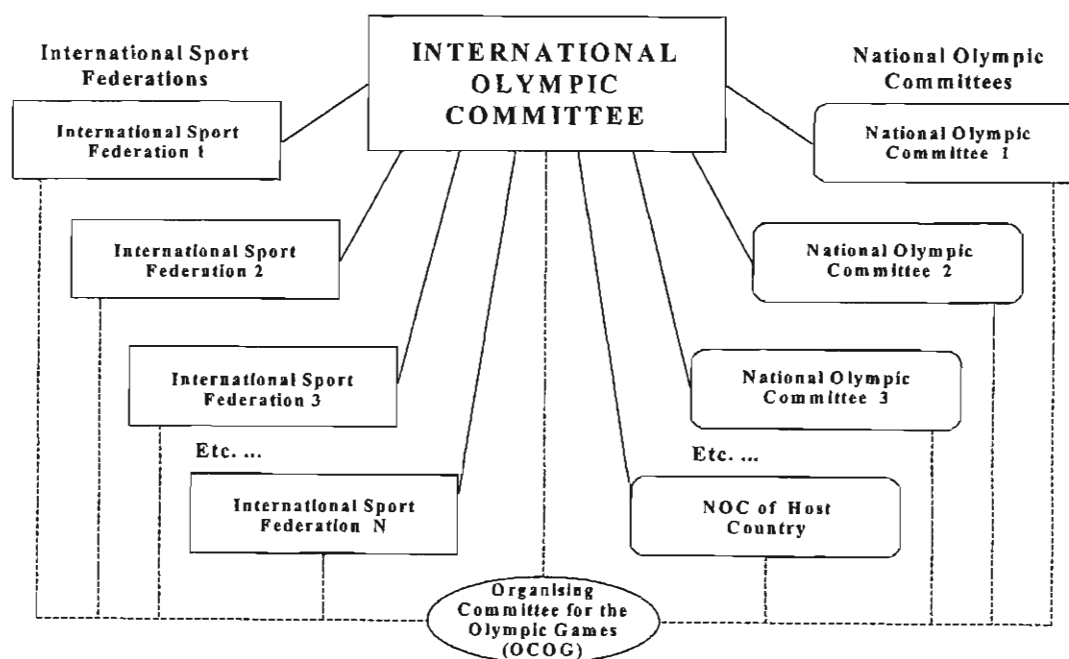
¹³ *Manual For Cities Bidding for the Olympic Games* (IOC 1992)

all levels of the Olympic movement within the host country, as well as appropriate government bodies throughout the hosting process to ensure the success of the Games.

In many ways, the structure of the Olympic Movement at the national level is similar to that at the international level. Using the Australian model as an example, a typical national structure is:

- the Australian Olympic Committee (AOC)
- Sydney Organising Committee for the Olympic Games (SOCOG)
- the National Sports Federations (NFs)
- the State Olympic Councils (SOCs).

Figure 6.3: International Structure of the Olympic Movement



SPORTING BODIES

International Sporting Federations (IFs) and their National representatives (NFs) are lobbied for support throughout the bid process, particularly as some of the larger federations (eg. IAAF¹⁴ and FIFA¹⁵) have the potential to influence the bid decision. As the Olympics are first and foremost a sporting event, it is necessary to have the full

¹⁴ International Amateur Athletics Federation

¹⁵ Fédération Internationale de Football Association

support of these groups from as early as possible in the process, typically the *pre-bid* stage. As the IFs assume responsibility for the supervision and technical management of their sport at the Olympic Games (SOCOG 1994), close communication between the organising committee and IFs is maintained up until the time the Olympics takes place.

It may be argued, however, that from a long-term use-programming perspective, determining the needs of local and regional sporting bodies early in the process may be equally important and help to ensure optimal post-event usage of Olympic facilities. This involvement/consultation with local sporting bodies should not necessarily be limited to those events directly affiliated with the Olympic movement and should include traditional national sports etc.

MEDIA

The ability of the media to influence host populations' perceptions of an event has been well documented (Jackson and McPhail 1989; Kidd 1989; Leiper 1988; Reich 1989). Indeed the media can play a critical role in creating a positive or negative climate for both the bid and subsequent hosting stages. Therefore, a major decision for the organisers of Olympic Games relates to specific press policies, including information dissemination and, accordingly, several philosophies can be adopted.

As suggested by Reich (1989:4-3), there was a pronounced feeling among staff of the Los Angeles Olympic Organising Committee (LAOOC) that the press was a hindrance and that, in order to *pull off* a big event like the Olympics successfully, it was necessary to keep the media as far away and, often, as uninformed as possible. As a result of this stance, under committee rules, no one, other than president and managing director Peter Ueberroth, was to be interviewed without a Press Department aide present, with no social contact to take place, even with members of the Press Department staff, without Ueberroth's personal approval (Reich 1989).

The dissemination of information (or lack of) to press was also very much an issue with media at the Atlanta Olympics in 1996. The problems in this area became particularly evident in the wake of such incidents as the derailment of an empty rail

carriage, and the terrorist bombing in Centennial Olympic Park, when press claimed difficulties in obtaining specific information (Korporaal 1996:9). This, in addition to reputedly inefficient and inadequate transport for the media, were two of only several issues which contributed to what may arguably be described as *unflattering* coverage by the international media in particular.

At the other end of the spectrum, the relationship between the bid committee for the Sydney 2000 Olympics and the media may be described as pro-active in comparison. For example, early in 1991, the then Premier Nick Greiner invited senior media representatives to his office, told them frankly that a bid could not succeed if the media played their normal *knocking role*, as he saw it, and that he was not prepared to commit the taxpayers' money unless he had their support (Hall 1995:388). Both major Sydney newspapers subsequently went out of their way to ensure the bid received *fair*, perhaps even *favourable*, treatment. The electronic media also joined in the *sense of community purpose* (Hall 1995:388).

However, the resulting lack of local critics during the Sydney bid process eventually aroused suspicion about the independence of the media, with a freelance journalist later claiming that critical articles had been rejected by several newspapers (Kjaerbye 1993). Darcy and Veal (1994:7) argue that whether or not it was the result of a media/government conspiracy or a genuine desire on all sides not to jeopardise the bid, criticism of the Sydney bid was muted.

COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT

'The selection of the host city cannot be made purely on technical grounds. Any city wanting to host the Olympic Games must first convince the IOC that the Games will be welcome in their community, that they can be organised efficiently, that they will respect the environment and that they will leave a positive legacy.'

Juan Antonio Samaranch, IOC President (IOC 1997¹⁶)

¹⁶ <http://www.olympic.org/efhos.html>

As argued in Chapter 4, community involvement in the earliest stages of the hosting process would be beneficial in determining levels of support to the concept of bidding for the Olympics, however, in most instances involvement of any significance does not begin until the *bid* stage. Petitions are popular tools at this stage in the hosting process due to their ease of application and their ability to effectively highlight to the IOC levels of community support.

During the *pre-event* stage the local community and/or community representatives/social welfare organisations may be incorporated in an assessment of likely social impacts and possible reservations, which may be taken into account in the planning process. However, community involvement in the *pre-event* stage is typically limited to *information sharing* on behalf of the organising committee, residents being encouraged to attend, or *participate* in, associated lead up events such as the *torch relay* and the recruiting and training of Olympic volunteers.

Actual *community participation* in the *event* stage may be grouped into the general categories of *active* (spectator, volunteer, economic contribution) or *passive* participation (host to visitors, party atmosphere). As stated previously, *spectators* and *volunteers* are both critical to the short-term *economic* viability and successful hosting of the Olympics, whilst acting as *hosts to visitors* typically has more positive long-term consequences.

Finally, community perceptions of the Olympics and its impacts are often sought in the *post-event* period in an effort to evaluate the success of the event and the overall hosting process. The results of these studies are utilised by both the host city/country, if bidding for mega-events in the future, and the IOC in an effort to enhance the image of their product.

CULTURE

The history of the proposed host city/region is typically examined to determine whether the activities and costs associated with hosting the Olympic Games are compatible with the culture and values of the host community. If considered compatible, the cultural heritage of a country can play an important role in bidding for the Games, as did Australia's Aboriginal heritage throughout the bid for the 2000 Olympics.

With the IOC now claiming to afford *culture* equal status to both sport and the environment in the hosting of an Olympics, a cultural program to run in conjunction with the Olympics itself is one of the requirements stipulated by the IOC for potential host cities to accommodate (IOC 1998¹⁷).

The four-year cultural Olympiad for the Sydney 2000 Games began in 1997 with *The Dreaming*, described as a celebration of the world's indigenous cultures, and particularly that of Australia's Aborigines and the indigenous peoples of Oceania. In 1998 *A Sea of Change* will focus on historic global movements of exploration and settlement, while 1999's *Reaching the World* will take the best work of Australia's creative artists and performers to other countries. The largest portion of funding will be spent on the year 2000 festival, *Harbour of Life*, described as a *great festival of nations* and scheduled to run during the Games themselves (Turner 1995:13).

ENVIRONMENT

With a growing international awareness of environmental concerns, the IOC has, since the Lillehammer Winter Olympics, included as part of the Olympic charter a requirement that bid cities attempt to address these concerns where possible, to minimise any negative environmental impacts produced as a result of hosting the Olympics. As such this requirement has the potential to impact upon the great majority of stages in the Olympic hosting process.

¹⁷ <http://www.olympic.org/home.html> then OCOG then Organising Committees for the Olympic Games

For example, for the Sydney 2000 Olympics, Greenpeace won the right to help create an Olympic village based on current environmental concerns that would then serve as a showcase suburb housing up to 5000 people. The design promised features such as solar power, water re-cycling, public transport, limited use of plastics and re-cyclable building materials, and was to represent urban living of the future (Mills 1995).

INFRASTRUCTURE

Major infrastructural developments may include event facilities, transportation networks, and accommodation for the *Olympic Family*, spectators and increased numbers of tourists in the lead up and post-event period. Urban revitalisation projects designed to provide leisure and recreational opportunities for locals and visitors, whilst enhancing the image of the city are not uncommon. The construction of necessary infrastructure provides an opportunity to showcase local technological, logistic, design, and other capabilities. The critical nature of these developments to the successful hosting of the Olympics highlights both the need to ensure they are finished on schedule, and the obvious problems that not achieving this goal would cause.

SUMMARY

The model of the Olympic Games Hosting Process, outlined in Chapter 6 is effective in providing a general representation of the overall Olympic hosting process. However, the application of event-specific factors to the stages and time-line helps to provide a better understanding of the roles of the individual factors and their interrelated nature, and identifies those *factors* that could perhaps play a more prominent role at various stages in the overall process.

Although the model would be generally applicable to most western or democratic societies it may not necessarily be an accurate representation of, for example, the hosting process of the Moscow Olympics or a successful Chinese bid, due to, for instance, the alternative political regimes of those countries.

One example of such a model's usefulness becomes evident when examining the role of community involvement. In the past, *community involvement*, of any kind, generally has not been initiated until the *bid* stage in the Olympic hosting process, when common sense and relevant literature (Getz 1991; Jafari 1990; Kidd 1992; Lenskyj 1992, 1994; Murphy 1985, 1994; Veal 1994;) might suggest that it would be more conducive to a successful outcome if more systematic community involvement was included earlier in the process. This point is highlighted when considering that one of the major goals of mega-event hosting is in fact community development (Ritchie 1984).

CHAPTER 7: COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT AND THE OLYMPIC GAMES - A REVIEW OF RELATED RESEARCH

INTRODUCTION

As outlined in Chapter 3 and Chapter 6, there are two major theories regarding the issue of community involvement versus democracy in the area of general planning. The first suggests that community involvement should be limited to the selection of representatives who then appoint professional and administrative staff to execute democratically derived decisions. Whereas a second, and arguably more contemporary theory, advocates that as modern (particularly western) society has become more culturally and technologically sophisticated, there has developed an increased desire for the simultaneous growth of participatory democracy and expertise in the decision-making process (Fagence 1977).

This apparent shift towards a desired *increase* in the level of involvement on behalf of the community has followed a similar course in the planning of mega-events, including the Olympic Games. The more traditional *political approach* to mega-event production typically allows little democratic community input apart from the initial election of political representatives (Roche 1994). This approach is often exemplified by the adoption of what Veal refers to as *hallmark decision-making*, where the decision to proceed with a project is made *first*, with attempts to justify it made at a later date (1994:68).

More recently, the *planning approach* to mega-event production has emerged as an alternative, striving to mix both technical rationality and participatory democracy in the overall planning process (Getz 1991; Jafari 1990; Murphy 1985). However, due to its very nature, and the politically charged atmosphere surrounding the organisation of many mega-events, the *planning approach* is arguably more difficult to implement and as a result, is less frequently adopted, or adopted in name only. However, examples of its successful implementation do exist, such as Toronto's Bid for the 1996 Summer Olympic Games, which will be discussed in greater detail in this chapter.

In light of, or perhaps despite, the difficulties associated with adopting a participatory approach, it is noteworthy that community involvement as an issue in the planning of mega-events has continued to gain attention. Why is this the case? In addition to the *general trend* towards increased involvement in planning outlined above, several factors have seemingly contributed to create this situation.

For example, it may be argued that the perceived desire for increased involvement has emerged in direct response to growing community concern over both the potential benefits/impacts of hosting events of this type and the apparent willingness of many event planners to adopt *hallmark decision-making* practises. Potential host communities appear to be questioning whether in fact the purported benefits are realistic and whether they outweigh the potential negative impacts. This is particularly the case for events requiring a very large capital outlay (eg. Olympic Games), which inevitably leads to a diversion of funds from other areas (eg. welfare). Consequently it is not surprising that increased involvement in the planning of those mega-events utilising established facilities (eg. Wimbledon) has apparently not developed as such a contentious issue.

The remainder of the chapter discusses briefly those factors contributing to the emergence of community involvement as an issue in the planning/hosting of recent Olympic Games, providing examples of related research. In addition, those studies focusing primarily on the issue of community involvement in either bidding for or hosting an Olympic Games are examined in greater detail. Individual studies are categorised according to the Olympics/bid they pertain to. Finally, the body of research as a whole is summarised with limitations addressed and reasons for the current study highlighted.

COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT AND THE OLYMPIC GAMES

In the case of the Olympic Games, apart from encouraging economic, trade and tourism development, much of the publicised rationale for hosting these largest of events is based upon the potential benefits they offer to the host community. As discussed in Chapter 2, examples include the long-term benefits of event facilities and

infrastructure, fostering community development and cultural traditions, greater participation in Olympic sports, and increased employment and local business opportunities. In contrast, potential negative impacts include high construction costs for facilities and related infrastructure (frequently carrying long-term debts), temporary crowding problems, general price and rental increases, environmental concerns and general inconvenience to the host community. Examples from the relatively limited body of research concerning such impacts (excluding economic impacts) are outlined in Table 7.1.

Table 7.1: Olympic Impact Studies

Games/bid	Studies	Issues Covered
Montreal, 1976	Robin (1988)	Benefits to sport and culture
Calgary, 1988	Ritchie and Aitken (1984, 1985) Ritchie and Lyons (1987, 1990) Hiller (1989, 1990) Haxton (1993) Mount and Leroux (1994)	Various Various Urban impact/Community involvement Community impacts/perceptions Business impact
Seoul, 1988	Kang (1988) Jeong <i>et al.</i> (1990)	Urban impact Various
Albertville, 1992	May (1995)	Environment
Lillehammer, 1994	McIntyre (1995)	Various
Toronto bid (for 1996)	Lenskyj (1992, 1994*, 1996*) Kidd (1992)	Community involvement Community involvement
Atlanta, 1996	French and Disher (1997)	Various
Sydney, 2000	Cashman and Hughes (1998) Cashman and Hughes (1999) Waitt (1999) Darcy and Veal (1994) Booth and Tatz (1994) Lenskyj (1994*, 1996*) Hall (1995, 1996)	Community impacts Various Community support Various Various Community involvement Urban imaging

*same studies

In addition, it may be argued that the Olympic Games are more than just a sporting event and, apart from the potential impacts outlined above, they have the ability to influence international opinion and may be used in a similar political fashion to Centennial and Bicentennial celebrations (eg. USA and Australia) in the past. An argument that is particularly difficult to debate when one considers that the estimated television audience for the Barcelona Olympics was 3500 million people (Verdaguer 1995:198). Spillman (1997:136), in a study titled *Nation and Commemoration*:

Creating national identities in the USA and Australia, states that, through these celebrations, 'Americans and Australians answered for themselves the questions of where they stood in the world and what they shared as they expressed their national identities'. The focus of the world's attention for two weeks, the Olympic Games provide an ideal opportunity for host countries to similarly project a desirable international image, allowing host cities to position themselves against other major cities of the world, and galvanising the nation as a whole (Walle 1996:118). Indeed Kang (1988:29), commenting on the impacts of the Seoul Olympics, proposes that hosting an event of this nature, in essence, challenges the host society to reveal its inner self, reflect on its condition and express its aspirations for the future.

Therefore, with the rising cost and uncertainty surrounding both promoted benefits and possible costs, it is perhaps not surprising that groups within host communities have begun to query the wisdom of undertaking such a risky assignment, or at the very least have begun to show a form of *public ownership*. Ownership expressed as a *desire* to ensure that the image portrayed to the world is one with which they are comfortable and even more importantly to ensure that a *white elephant* is not the only legacy left after hosting an Olympic Games.

As community involvement (of any consequence) in the planning for individual Olympic Games is only a relatively recent phenomenon, it is to be expected that research in this area and particularly that available in English, is somewhat limited (see Table 7.1). Indeed, the majority of available research focuses on community involvement in Toronto's *bid* for the 1996 Olympics and not the lead up to an *actual* Olympics as such. While it is possible that community involvement has been an issue for past Olympics, it would appear that no independent researcher/s have shown sufficient interest at the time to record and analyse events concerning involvement specifically. Official reports of individual Olympics (commissioned by NOCs) tend to concentrate on the *event* stage of the hosting process rather than those leading up to the Games themselves. There is no incentive for official bodies to commission a record of any difficulties associated with the planning of the Games. Thus the emergence of any research in this area has been somewhat fortuitous.

RELATED RESEARCH

CALGARY 1988 WINTER OLYMPICS

In an article titled *the Urban Transformation of a Landmark Event: The 1988 Calgary Winter Olympics*, Hiller (1990) adopts a qualitative approach in examining the sociological dynamics of the Calgary Olympics as an urban experience, including the effects of urban resident involvement on community acceptance of a mega-event (landmark event).

Hiller argues that, in the past, the urban impacts of mega-events have been evaluated from four different perspectives. First, the facilities and support services provided for the events can be viewed as a legacy to the city for future use. Second, mega-events can be assessed in terms of their economic costs and benefits. Third, events can be evaluated for their contribution to increased tourist activity both during and after the event. Fourth, an impact that can be both economic and sociopolitical in nature pertains to the desire of civic boosters to use the event as a tool of economic development and as a means to enhance the global image of a city for further economic growth (1990:119).

However, he argues that in general, the human dimension is ignored in each of these perspectives by neglecting the reaction of urban residents themselves and how they interact with the event. Hiller provides several common criticisms that prompt the need to assess residents' reactions and highlights the threat of increased taxes to pay for the event as perhaps most noteworthy. In addition, mega-events may be controversial if residents perceive them as elitist events that will be enjoyed only by those few who can afford or who have an interest in the event. A third criticism relates to the destruction or disturbance of existing communities when capital projects are built or when residents are displaced as a consequence of redevelopment. While a fourth focuses on negative impacts such as increased housing costs, noise and traffic, and generally changing the style and standard of living.

Hiller argues that criticism such as these 'strike at the heart' of why mega-events are seldom embraced as 'windows of opportunity' without opposition (1990:120). In fact he suggests that most of the positive reasons for hosting such events have little tangible, direct benefits for the average urban citizen and as such the key to understanding the success or failure of mega-events may lie in the perceptions of residents. He suggests that by focusing on the sociological dynamics of the event as an urban experience, rather than the economic implications, an insight into what contributes to the success or failure of individual events, in the eyes of urban residents, may be gained.

In discussing the concept of *elitism versus populism*, Hiller highlights that the focus on the reaction of urban residents is particularly significant given the roles of elites in initiating the hosting of a mega-event. Suggesting that these events reflect the dominant ideology of the informal elite coalition that generates community support and approves of the message that the event conveys. He proposes that the traditional political economic approach to event production (similar to the *political* approach outlined in Chapter 3) is a 'top-down perspective that marks the majority of urban residents as passive recipients of the ideas of elite interests'. An approach he suggests has traditionally been considered necessary because, while events of this type undeniably support the interests of the elite and are initiated outside normal democratic processes, residents must eventually be persuaded and convinced that they will participate in the benefits of the event- either directly or indirectly. However, Hiller argues that in place of this top-down approach, a more balance dynamic sociological model is preferable. One in which the importance of elite interests is recognised, while the reaction and interaction of urban residents are also incorporated (1990:122).

Hiller makes reference to a study undertaken by Ritchie and Lyons (1987)¹⁸ in which the high level of resident satisfaction with the overall Calgary Olympic experience is highlighted (95% stated they were satisfied). Rather than explaining this result in purely economic and organisational terms, Hiller's thesis is that 'the Calgary

¹⁸ Part of the Olympulse Monitor- a series of periodic surveys designed to provide an understanding of the nature and extent of the various impacts associated with the 1988 Calgary Winter Olympics (see Chp 2).

Olympics was successful from the perspective of urban residents because the event was transformed from an elitist athletic event to an urban festival' (1990:123). Furthermore, he proposes that, the resultant transformation was partly planned by the Olympic Organising Committee (OCO) and corporate sponsors and partly spontaneous, which effectively made the Olympics a significant urban experience for residents and guests alike.

He dedicates the remainder of the study to highlighting those different forms of citizen participation evident during the hosting process (both pre and post-bid) as people interacted with the Olympics and created as he describes it, 'a special atmosphere'. He suggests that the Calgary Olympics was transformed from an elitist athletic event into an urban celebration with the factors most influential in facilitating this transformation including *a focus on the downtown core*, with one of the most significant legacies of the Calgary Olympics being the construction of a permanent Olympic Plaza on land desired by developers for a shopping mall. The importance of this site to residents', even in the post-event period was reinforced in a separate study undertaken by Haxton (1993)¹⁹, in which over 95 per cent of respondents maintained that the Olympic Plaza was of either great or moderate benefit to the host community. In addition, *a celebratory atmosphere*, *the negation of elitism*, *the breakdown of anonymity*, *high formal participation* (more than 20,000 people were involved directly in the Olympics or Olympic-related events in some way) and *the media as provocateur of urban self-reflection* were all discussed with sociological arguments and anecdotal examples of each factor provided.

In conclusion, Hiller argues that the Calgary experience is instructive because it demonstrates how various forms of citizen participation can not only create acceptance for mega-events but also transform them into something with which urban residents feel comfortable and in which they can become involved. A point once again supported by Haxton's (1993:48) study, in which levels of satisfaction with the Olympic experience were significantly higher for those respondents who felt they had contributed to the success of the Games in some way.

¹⁹ 'A Post-Event Evaluation of the Social Impacts and Community Perceptions of Mega-Events' using the Calgary Winter Olympics as a case study.

Hiller provides a comprehensive examination of citizen participation, from a sociological standpoint, and its ability to influence or transform an individual mega-event from an elitist event into an urban festival and as such helps to fill a void in the existing literature. The study provides sound arguments supported by an extensive body of literature/research (mostly qualitative) and appropriate anecdotal examples. In addition, areas requiring further examination in the future are outlined. One criticism or question that does arise relates to Hiller's specific focus on the urban community. It is fair to assume that the majority of impacts over the period of the Games and after the event would focus on the City of Calgary and its residents. However, the fact that events were spread over such a wide geographical area and that Calgary acted/acts as a hub for rural residents and inhabitants of satellite towns, would ensure that people other than the urban population would also derive benefits from the increased involvement. It may have been more appropriate to discuss the benefits of the transformation in terms of a defined host community.

TORONTO'S BID FOR THE 1996 OLYMPICS

At the First International Symposium for Olympic Research, held at the Centre for Olympic Studies in Ontario, Canada, two researchers, Bruce Kidd (1992) and Helen Lenskyj (1992) presented papers focusing on community involvement and its influence on Toronto's bid for the 1996 Olympics. This is considerably greater attention than the subject is normally afforded, particularly considering that the bid in question was unsuccessful. While brief mention was made of these studies in Chapter 3 in providing a practical example of the *planning* approach to mega-event production, both will now be discussed in greater detail. In addition, Lenskyj (1994, 1996) has produced two other studies concerning community involvement in both the Toronto and Sydney Olympic bids, and these will be discussed under the heading of the Sydney 2000 Olympics later in this chapter.

Kidd's (1992) study entitled *The Toronto Olympic Commitment: Towards a social contract for the Olympic games* is a qualitative assessment of the nature and outcomes of the public debate surrounding the Toronto bid. A process that, he argues,

significantly changed the character of the bid, transforming what began as the 'handmaiden of finance capital into a project of social democracy' (1992:68).

At the outset, Kidd notes that mega-events like the Olympic Games require a considerable investment of human, financial and physical resources from the communities that stage them. As such, he suggests that staging a public festival of this scale can be a 'highly charged political exercise, requiring the most consummate skills of negotiation and consensus building from those in leadership' (1992:67). He cites as examples the problems faced by organisers in the lead up to both the Montreal Olympics and Edmonton Commonwealth Games. However, he suggests that organisers of the Toronto bid perhaps underestimated the power of public debate and as such, after concentrating on winning overseas support (IOC), were 'thrust into a time-consuming, often bitter public consultation process, fuelled by mounting media criticism' (1992:65). A process which many people involved in the bid are convinced cost Toronto the Games.

Before discussing in greater detail the Toronto Olympic Commitment and the subsequent role of public participation in the bid process, Kidd briefly outlines the chiefly private sector origins of Toronto's bid for the Games, and the emergence of both the Olympic Task Force (OTF) and the Bread not Circuses (BNC) coalition in 1988. He suggests that the OTF, composed of Council department heads and chaired by the commissioner of Parks and Recreation and the BNC coalition, consisting of a group of inner-city social housing activists, church groups and labour organisations, were created primarily as a result of the downturn in the economic climate. Whilst the OTF assumed the role of reviewing the Toronto Ontario Olympic Council's (TOOC) plans in behind the scenes meetings and lengthy reports, BNC took to the streets to shift the focus of the city's politics away from mega-projects and unchecked development to the challenge of poverty and homelessness. Kidd argues that by the spring of 1989, the bid that had once been a closed question had suddenly become a raging debate (1992:71).

The idea of the Toronto Olympic Commitment and referred to as a 'social contract for the Games', Kidd suggests, grew out of two distinct currents. First the

social democratic belief that private initiative should serve public purpose, and second, that it could be accomplished as easily by regulation as social ownership (Kidd 1992:72). The Olympic Commitment identified a number of requirements that the Toronto Olympics would be expected to achieve. These included that all Olympic housing be *affordable* by provincial standards, that no resident be displaced because of visitors to the Games, that facility renovation and construction be designed to improve affordable recreation and that subsidised tickets be available for low-income families.

Kidd proposes that the bid was subsequently amended based upon the requirements of the Olympic Commitment and offered for public scrutiny via a social impact assessment and a series of public meetings. Indeed, in the three months leading up to the final decision to submit an official bid to the IOC, fifteen public meetings were held throughout the city, while representatives of special populations and community groups were invited to workshops to contribute to the social impact assessment. In addition, he makes brief mention of intervener funding, which was made available, upon application to non-profit interest groups to investigate the probable impacts of the Games upon their constituents (a topic that is discussed in greater detail in Lenskyj's article to follow). However, only after obtaining firm financial guarantees from the senior levels of government, and an agreement on the abandoned downtown railway lands designated for the Olympics Village, was the final bid contract for the IOC signed.

In closing, Kidd argues that, while some have suggested that public debate harmed Toronto's chances of winning the Games, in reality the social impact assessment and associated public discussion actually won a measure of support for Toronto. Indeed, he indicates a belief that, if the Games had been awarded to Toronto, valuable lead-time would have been gained and a broad public consensus concerning what needed to be achieved would already be in place (Kidd 1992:76). With regard to cities bidding for the Games in the future, Kidd suggests that the IOC should require each candidate city to conduct a social impact assessment and extensive public consultation before submitting a bid. To do otherwise, he suggests, is to risk the very legitimacy of the Olympic project's humanitarian mission. In other words, he believes IOC must ensure that a Games bid represents more than the elites of a city.

Lenskyj's (1992) study is entitled *More Than Games: Community Involvement in Toronto's Bid for the 1996 Summer Olympics*. This paper reported the findings of a study concerning the nature of community involvement in Toronto's bid to host the 1996 Games. Lenskyj's qualitative analysis is based upon documents obtained from the Toronto Olympic Task Force, reports from seven funded intervener groups (Canadian Folk Arts Council, Citizens for a Safe Environment, Federation of Metro Tenants' Associations, Metropolitan Toronto Waterfront Coalition, Supportive Housing Coalition of Metropolitan Toronto, Women Plan Toronto and People United for Self-Help) and material from other community groups.

Lenskyj contends that events surrounding the bid by the City of Toronto to host the 1996 Summer Olympics reveal diverse and often conflicting views concerning the nature of community involvement in planning for the event (1992:78). Lenskyj's review of the documentation outlined above focuses on several key issues. Firstly, the historical role of community involvement in the debate of political issues concerning the City of Toronto is provided with examples of successful grassroots action dating back several decades. Given this history of community involvement, she suggests that it is not surprising that many community groups placed the Olympics on their political agendas after the City of Toronto announced plans to bid for the 1996 Summer Games.

Secondly the separate roles of the IOC and Toronto Ontario Olympic Committee (TOOC) are discussed and Lenskyj notes that little if any provision for community involvement is allowed for in the Olympic Charter, with the possible exception of volunteer participation in both the sporting and cultural festivals. However, it is suggested that volunteer participation does not necessarily equate to a meaningful level of community involvement in planning and the decision-making process (Lenskyj 1992:79).

An indirect route through which Toronto residents *could* participate in the process was via their elected representatives in the City Council, as any recommendations made by TOOC had to be approved by the Council before they were

implemented. Lenskyj points out, however, that although TOOC initially purported to be in favour of public participation, stating in a letter to Council that 'working together with all segments of our diverse society can only enhance the quality of life for all residents of this unique city', their dedication to the process appeared to diminish over time. Indeed, in subsequent correspondence, TOOC ensured the Council that, whilst monies had been set aside 'to ensure that the citizens of the region were kept informed by means of a brochure...', more in-depth public participation was not considered necessary at that time (Lenskyj 1992:80).

Lenskyj briefly outlines the formal public participation requirements of the Toronto Olympic Commitment, a social contract adopted by the Toronto City Council, highlighting those objectives that needed to be met before the bid could proceed. Key points associated with public participation in the Olympic Commitment included the following (Lenskyj 1992:81):

- a series of evening public meetings;
- descriptive information (multilingual);
- community meetings in neighbourhoods where venues were proposed;
- a commitment to achieve a representative organising committee;
- intervener funding; and a full social impact study focusing on ethnocultural groups, people with disabilities, the homeless, young people, the sporting community, the native community, people of fixed incomes, and the business community.

The intervener funding mentioned above, relates specifically to moneys provided by developers or event organisers to community/lobby groups, essentially affording them the opportunity to produce, often expensive, arguments or reports outlining particular concerns related to any proposed development. Funding was to be provided to 'properly established not-for-profit organisations' who were able to demonstrate the intent to serve clearly identifiable and recognisable community needs (Lenskyj 1992:82). Groups successful in obtaining intervener funding included Citizens for a Safe Environment, Federation of Metro Tenants' Associations, Supportive

Housing Coalition of Metropolitan Toronto, Women Plan Toronto and People United for Self-Help.

Lenskyj notes that no intervener report gave unqualified support to the bid- a finding that many would not regard as surprising considering that one of the major aims of intervener funding was to allow groups to raise concerns. In addition, she highlights that many community groups experienced difficulties producing an adequate proposal in the ten days provided and indeed many groups receiving no funds at all, perhaps a wasted opportunity considering that \$30 000 of the \$100 000 intervener fund was not allocated. However, of those groups that did receive funding most subsequent reports expressed concerns about neglected issues (eg. gender equity in the Olympics) and negative social impacts on, for example, already disadvantaged groups such as the homeless and those living in poverty. In addition, Lenskyj notes that those residents not affiliated with any group repeatedly expressed their 'substantive concerns' about the social impact of the Games, as well as their dissatisfaction with the public participation process (1992:83).

Although the role and impact of community/welfare groups has not been well documented in the past, Lenskyj argues that the Toronto experience offers an example of the great potential they have to influence the bidding process for an event such as the Olympic Games. For example, Bread Not Circuses (BNC), a group of inner-city social housing activists, church groups and labour organisations were able to shift the focus of the city's politics away from mega-projects and unchecked development to the challenge of poverty and homelessness. Despite media hostility and some public resistance to any critique of the Olympics, BNC did much to raise Toronto residents' awareness of the potential problems associated with hosting the Olympics (Lenskyj 1992:86)

In conclusion, both of the studies examined above (Kidd 1992; Lenskyj 1992) provide practical and contemporary examples of the move towards greater involvement through increased participation in the planning of individual Olympic Games in Western society (outlined in Chapter 3). In addition they demonstrate in a practical

fashion that the Olympics are increasingly being viewed in the context of a complex set of social issues, rather than simply a sporting event. It may be argued, however, that the similar nature of the studies resulted in certain areas being unnecessarily duplicated. This may have unintentionally restricted the depth or scope of research that could have possibly been undertaken on this interesting case study. In fact this particular situation provides an example where increased communication between researchers would have been mutually beneficial.

ATLANTA 1996 OLYMPICS

In an article titled *Atlanta and the Olympics: A one-year retrospective*, French and Disher (1997) adopt a qualitative approach in examining the post-event impacts of the Atlanta Games. They suggest that the experiences of Atlanta offer important lessons for other cities considering Olympic bids, or similar large-scale events, particularly if the main aim is to encourage redevelopment. The article sets out to highlight 'the different types of purposes that a city can reasonably expect to achieve in association with a large-scale event', and in particular the types of redevelopment goals that are more difficult to accomplish.

French and Disher suggest that in recent years the Olympics have taken over from World Fairs and Expositions as the event considered most able to spur promotion and development. They suggest four major types of benefits associated with the staging of large-scale events such as the Olympics, namely short-term economic stimulus, a legacy of sports facilities, a highly visible marketing opportunity and significant urban redevelopment. As an example they refer to the US\$8.1 billion of investment in infrastructure and housing that significantly revitalised Barcelona's Mediterranean seafront after the 1992 Games. However, no references for this figure or the resultant benefits are provided.

At the outset, they provide a description of the City of Atlanta and surrounding regions, highlighting the fact that a large proportion of City residents were of lower-income and predominantly African American heritage. In addition they point out the strong role that the business community has played in guiding the development of the

city over the past fifty years and more recently in its (financial) support of the 1996 Games. They argue that Atlanta's contemporary leaders saw the Olympics as 'an opportunity to attain national and international recognition and to achieve their goal of becoming the *next great international city*.'

Before discussing in greater detail the neighbourhood redevelopment implications associated with the Atlanta Games, the study briefly outlines those steps taken by the City Council and organisers during the process of winning the right to host the Games and preparing the city's sporting facilities (existing and new) and infrastructure. It points out that, while the Games were seemingly privately funded, significant public funds *were* required to prepare the city (eg. repairing the city's infrastructure) and host the Games, however, there was no direct public funding of Olympic facilities or operating expenses.

French and Disher argue that the assurance of private funding for all Olympic development was 'important in generating and maintaining public support for the Games' (1997:381). As such, early in the planning process, a 'no new taxes' policy was instituted by Olympic organisers, promising that the Atlanta Olympics would not require any taxpayer subsidies. However, whilst the host community may have derived some comfort or confidence from this policy, the lack of public funds inevitably meant that public involvement in planning for the Olympics was limited. An example being that the opportunity cost of the investment in sports facilities (valued at over US\$400 million) was never publicly debated. However, the argument is put forward that the Games did provide the city with sufficient incentive to initiate repairs on an aging infrastructure 'beset with problems resulting from decades of deferred maintenance'.

They propose that the most difficult task facing the city was that of using the Olympics as a catalyst for the redevelopment of some of the city's poorest neighbourhoods. To undertake redevelopment projects and urban design improvements, the city and business community formed the Corporation for Olympic Development in Atlanta (CODA), a public non-profit corporation. The inclusion of local business people on the board of CODA, provided what appeared to be one of the very few

opportunities for members of the community to become involved in the planning for the Games.

CODA's mission was to spread the benefits of the Olympics to poor neighbourhoods and create a physical legacy of urban design improvements. After conducting a detailed survey of housing conditions in the area, redevelopment plans for five neighbourhoods had been completed and adopted by council, however, there was little funding available to implement the plans.

French and Disher argue that due primarily to the high visibility and close proximity to Olympic precincts, redevelopment was particularly successful in two of the five neighbourhoods. They suggest that one of the major obstacles to CODA successfully implementing its redevelopment plans included its separation from the city's planning and housing departments. This situation often necessitated that CODA plan from scratch and as a result often missed the short-lived window of opportunity; 'once the Games ended, the short-term motivation for decisive action largely evaporated'. In addition, the argument is put forward that CODA also found it difficult to obtain funding for the large-scale redevelopment efforts originally envisioned due to high crime, poor schools and a history of failed attempts at urban renewal in the targeted areas. In contrast however, CODA had greater success with urban design projects (trees, street furniture etc.) 'designed to enhance the image of the city for Olympic visitors and improve pedestrian access from rail transit stations to Olympic venues'.

In conclusion, it is argued that, while the 1996 Olympics were very successful in creating short-term economic stimulus, a legacy of sports facilities and marketing for tourism and business relocation, there was minimal redevelopment in low-income areas. French and Disher state that 'initial expectations of how the Olympics would benefit the city, and particularly its low-income residents, may have been too high' (1997:379). They also suggest that a reliance on private funding and a fragmented organisational structure were key factors that limited Atlanta's ability to use the Olympics as a vehicle for redevelopment. Finally, they argue that when planners and elected officials

contemplate bidding for the Olympics it must be remembered that such events are not a panacea for the range of problems confronting a city.

Whilst providing a generally detailed and well balanced account of the logistical problems surrounding neighbourhood redevelopment associated with events such as the Olympics, several issues from the perspective of the communities involved were not touched upon. For example, there was no mention of any studies (or the lack of) being undertaken to determine what improvements existing residents' might have considered beneficial. Nonetheless, the study does offer event organisers a basic overview of this complex situation and researchers, further opportunities for study. For example, would the levels of support for the Games have been affected if the community had been aware beforehand that the levels of redevelopment would have been so much lower than anticipated/promoted?

Based upon these findings it may be suggested that the benefits to the host community in Atlanta, particularly with regard to neighbourhood redevelopment, were inextricably linked to those developments considered most important to the successful staging of the Olympics. As such it may be argued that CODA's actions, intentional or otherwise, rather than providing an example of successfully incorporating members of the host community into the planning process, provided an example of *stifling community opposition by promoting potential benefits*.

SYDNEY 2000 OLYMPICS

At the Second International Symposium for Olympic Research, held at the Centre for Olympic Studies in Ontario, Canada in 1994, Lenskyj presented a paper entitled *Buying and Selling the Olympic Games: Citizen Participation in the Sydney and Toronto Bids*. This study continued her qualitative analysis of community involvement and as she describes it, the subsequent *manufacture of consent*, by reviewing media coverage of the Sydney 2000 bid and comparing issues to those experienced in Toronto (1994:70). This analysis was re-emphasised and expanded upon somewhat in the 1996 article entitled *When Winners are Losers: Toronto and Sydney Bids for the Summer Olympics* and will be examined in greater detail at this point.

Lenskyj's 1996 paper focuses specifically on the role of the corporate sector and the media in attempts to manufacture public consent and individual and group accommodation and resistance to such attempts. With the central theme of the analysis being the explicit politicisation of sport by both critics and supporters of the Olympic bid, Lenskyj assumes the basic principles of participatory democracy (discussed in Chapter 3) in drawing conclusions. She contends from the outset that the two bid campaigns illustrate winning and losing strategies for organising consent, with the losers (Toronto) paradoxically being the winners when judged by the criterion of participatory democratic decision making (1996:392).

After explaining the methodology adopted in undertaking the study, Lenskyj discusses the history of community activism in both Toronto and Sydney. She points out that while Sydney has a history of successful community-based movements involving a variety of special interest groups, the city 'lacks some of Toronto's formal structures within municipal government that facilitate community involvement on issues such as public education and neighbourhood renewal' (1992:393). Booth and Tatz (1994:10), in a separate analysis of Sydney's bid and the potential opportunities resulting from hosting the Games, put forward a somewhat different argument. They suggest that organised criticism of Sydney's bid was primarily limited due to either a general scepticism of Sydney's chances based on past experience *or* the deceptive promise of a Games-led economic recovery, which engendered hope in the community.

Lenskyj suggests that in order to understand the specific mechanics of the bid process, it is first necessary to provide some background information on the IOC guidelines to candidate cities. For example, she highlights the Olympic Charter requirement that the IOC have supreme authority and jurisdiction over 'every person or organisation that plays any part whatsoever in the Olympic movement'. Indeed, all contracts affecting the Games must be approved by the IOC (Lenskyj 1996:394). In addition, Lenskyj notes that, the IOC requires guarantees that 'no political meeting or demonstration will take place in the stadium or on any other sports ground or in or near the Olympic Village(s) during the Games' (1996:395). She contends that the pressure to suppress public protest may in fact contribute to its escalation, as citizens' protest the

suspension of their right to public assembly and freedom of speech. However, no examples of such occurrences are provided.

At this point in the article Lenskyj discusses the Toronto and Sydney bid processes in greater detail. More specifically issues including decision-making processes and structures, media and public relations, and accommodation and resistance. As the great majority of information concerning the Toronto bid has already been covered in detail previously in this chapter (Kidd 1992; Lenskyj 1992), the remainder of this review will focus on the Sydney bid process.

To begin Lenskyj notes that unlike TOOC, which was formally accountable to the Toronto City Council, the Sydney 2000 Olympic Bid Limited was an independent, incorporated company that was not representative of, or accountable to, the community. Indeed, while several elected officials, from all levels of government, were among its members, the company was not accountable to an elected body, unlike in Toronto (Lenskyj 1996:401). She suggests that while the Sydney bid demonstrated substantial concern for the natural environment, it largely neglected the human environment. As an example Lenskyj cites Darcy and Veal's (1994) article, entitled *The Sydney 2000 Olympic Games: The story so far*, when suggesting that a *social impact report*, providing a framework and guidelines, was produced (although not published until after the decision), even though no *social impact study* was actually conducted.

With regard to the economic impacts, Lenskyj suggests that although supporters took comfort from the fact that about 70 per cent of facilities were already in place, the omission of these infrastructure items from the Olympic budget cast doubt on the accuracy of any official figures (1996:402). However, it may be suggested that Lenskyj draws a long bow in claiming that there was a hidden agenda behind major public works programs, planned well before the bid process began, including the third runway at the international airport, the Parramatta River ferry service and particularly the Sydney Harbour Tunnel. This argument, based solely upon the fact that the bid process has its informal beginnings many years before it is formally constituted, is fanciful at best.

In discussing the role of the media and public relations in Sydney's bid for the 2000 Games, Lenskyj argues that the Sydney 2000 Bid Company mounted a costly and high profile advertising campaign (1996:403). She states that in 1993, the year of the IOC decision, the Sydney 2000 logo 'adorned every available surface, from chocolate bar wrappers to the entire length of Sydney Transit buses', while current and former government officials (and their spouses) had high media profiles throughout the Sydney bid (Lenskyj 1996:403-404).

Lenskyj notes that during the bid process the relative lack of local critics aroused some suspicion concerning the independence of the media, suggesting that a freelance journalist later claimed that several newspapers had rejected critical articles. It has been suggested that the favourable treatment by the local print media may have resulted from 'a genuine desire on all sides not to jeopardise the bid by providing competing cities with critical ammunition' (Darcy and Veal 1994 cited in Lenskyj 1996:405). However, Lenskyj argues that it is more likely that local media campaigns, in both Toronto and Sydney, were used primarily to strengthen support from citizens who would ultimately carry the financial burden of any Games deficit.

Lenskyj follows on to state that there was 'little need for state intervention in the *manufacture of consent*, as the value of international sporting competitions was accepted as *common sense* in most sectors of Australian society'- a statement, which is both obvious and contrary to her general thesis (1996:406). However, she does highlight Aboriginals as one of the few groups to mount organised opposition to the Sydney bid, threatening to co-ordinate a boycott of the Games to force the federal government to rewrite the land rights legislation. The mainstream media, she suggests, 'responded with outrage to this *stunt* that threatened *Australia's dream*' (Lenskyj 1996:407).

In conclusion, Lenskyj argues that events surrounding the Toronto and Sydney bids cast doubt on the validity of the bid process itself. She states that 'there appears to be *dramatic differences* between IOC perceptions of community involvement and those of grassroots groups, especially at a time when Australia's and Canada's indigenous

populations are fighting for land rights and self-determination, and unemployment and poverty are rampant' (Lenskyj 1996:408). In purely pragmatic terms, she argues that both campaigns provide examples of winning and losing strategies for organising consent around the issue of hosting the Olympic Games and that paradoxically, the losers (Toronto) are in fact the winners when judged by the criterion of democratic decision making (Lenskyj 1996:407).

In a similar vein to her 1994 article, Lenskyj's present study provides a practical and contemporary example of, in this instance, the possible *obstacles* to increased community involvement in the planning for an Olympic Games. However, whilst providing a valuable contribution to the still relatively limited body of research concerning community involvement and the Olympics, it might be suggested that despite the examples provided by Lenskyj, some media coverage of the Games in Sydney has been quite critical, particularly that emerging in 1998/99 in response to a range of IOC and SOCOG problems that came to light.

SUMMARY

Whilst the body of research examined in this chapter is by no means a comprehensive representation of that undertaken in the area of the community involvement in the Olympic Games, it does include some of the major studies concerning this topic area. These studies provide examples of the ability that successful community involvement has to influence the various stages in the Olympic hosting process, whilst providing examples of both missed opportunities and what may be considered non-involvement.

More significantly, however, this selection of articles emphasises the need for further empirical research into firstly, the potential long-term benefits and costs associated with the Olympics. Without accurate information concerning the likely benefits and costs it is difficult if not impossible for either organisers or the host community to weigh one against the other in an attempt to determine their levels of support for the concept of hosting such an event. Secondly, studies such as those undertaken by Lenskyj (1992, 1994, 1996), Kidd (1992) and Hiller (1990), offer

preliminary insights into the role and ability of community involvement (primarily community/welfare groups) to influence the *bid* and *event* stages of the Olympic hosting process. However, the host community's role in the remaining stages of the hosting process and particularly community perceptions regarding involvement remain essentially unexplored.

The purpose of the present study is to begin to fill a void yet to be addressed in the body of available literature. A number of approaches might have been adopted in the study, including an in-depth historical study of the experience of one or more Olympic cities in hosting the Games or an exploration of some of the theoretical ideas about the cultural and political roles of the Games, as put forward by commentators such as Roche (1994) or Whitson and MacIntosh (1993). It was decided, however, to take the opportunity to undertake an empirical study of community attitudes linked to the model developed in Chapter 4. In particular the study sought to determine the *actual* and *ideal* levels of community involvement, at different stages in Olympic hosting process, as *perceived* by the *host public*, *community/welfare groups* and *bid/organising committees*, and determining whether or not increased community involvement would lead to a feeling of increased *ownership* and *support* for the Games. This is achieved by undertaking an empirical study examining the perceptions of the *host public*, *community/welfare groups* and *bid/organising committees* from both the Atlanta and Sydney Olympics. The following chapters examine in greater detail the specific research questions and issues to be addressed and the methodology employed to successfully complete the study.

SECTION 3

EMPIRICAL STUDY

CHAPTER 8: RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND ISSUES

INTRODUCTION

The major aim of this chapter is to highlight the questions and issues arising from sources such as the existing literature that the current study seeks to address. In order to contextualise the questions and issues of import, the chapter begins with a discussion of the major *purpose* and *aim* of the study. With the purpose of the study clearly defined, the remainder of the chapter defines the *major* and *subsidiary research questions* to be addressed and the particular groups from which the information required to fulfil the aim of the study is sought.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

As stated in Chapter 2, the term *mega-event* has been used to describe those short-term events with long-term consequences for the cities and communities that host them (Ritchie 1984; Roche 1994). In addition, it has been noted that much of the publicised rationale for hosting mega-events such as the Olympics, apart from encouraging economic, trade and tourism development, is based upon their purported societal benefits.

Examples of benefits include the fostering of community development and cultural traditions, the long-term benefits of infrastructure, greater participation in activities related to the event theme, increased community group activity, the promotion of inter-cultural interaction and cooperation, and the provision of leisure opportunities both during and after the event (Getz 1991; Ritchie 1984; Ritchie and Lyons 1990; Soutar and McLeod 1987, 1993). All this is in addition to the enjoyment in hosting the event which is likely to be experienced by the host community. More specifically, Burns *et al.* (1986:28) argue that *psychic* benefits such as general excitement, increased pride, and pleasure in *experiencing* the event may be derived.

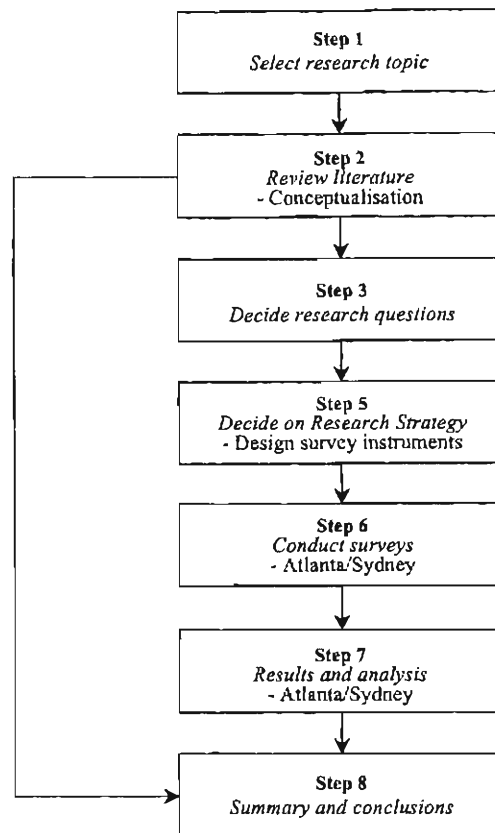
On the negative side, however, these benefits can often come at a high price and may include such costs as: gaining a poor reputation if facilities and services are

inadequate; high construction costs of infrastructure and event facilities which frequently carry long-term debts; temporary crowding problems; price increases and real-estate speculation; the creation of unrealistic long-term expectations regarding the proposed benefits; and general inconvenience to the host community in the lead up to and during the event (Barney and Meier 1992, 1994; Haxton 1993; Pyo *et al.* 1988; Ritchie 1984; Soutar and McLeod 1987, 1993).

With such great potential for both positive and negative impacts on the host community, it is perhaps surprising that there are very few studies which specifically examine such impacts *or* the role of the host community in the overall event hosting process. Chapter 7 provided examples of research conducted in the general area of *social impacts and community perceptions of mega-events* while studies concerning *community involvement/participation in the planning and hosting of the Olympic Games* were examined in greater detail.

A combination of factors led to the current study being undertaken. These factors included the observation that there is a general lack of literature examining community involvement in the mega-event hosting process *and* that there is an apparent discrepancy between *actual* and *ideal* (and some may say necessary) levels of community involvement in this process. The purpose of the study is to investigate the perceived roles of community involvement in the mega-event hosting process. By using the Atlanta 1996 and Sydney 2000 Olympic Games as case studies, the study seeks to identify any discrepancies between the perceived roles and levels of community involvement as seen by the *host public, community/welfare groups* and *organisers* in both locations and whether the level of perceived involvement influences support for the Games. The aim of the study is to make a contribution to existing methodology concerning the study of mega-events which, in the long-term, it is hoped, will help to enhance the overall hosting process of mega-events. The remainder of the chapter outlines more specifically the research questions that are addressed in order to fulfil the major purpose and aim of the study. A diagrammatic representation of the research process adopted for this study is provided in Figure 8.1.

Figure 8.1: Research Process for Current Study



RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND ISSUES

MAJOR RESEARCH QUESTION

The major research question posed in this study is as follows.

‘Is there a detectable relationship between *perceived* actual and ideal levels of host community involvement during the mega-event hosting process and levels of support for hosting such an event?’

Definition of Terms

The following are definitions of significant terms in the major research question, which are applicable in the context of this particular study.

- *Perceive*: To be aware of (something) through the senses; recognise or observe (Hanks 1986).

- *Host Community*: For the purposes of this study, the term host community encompasses both the host public *and* community/welfare groups from the host city and surrounding regions.
- *Host Community Involvement*: The ability of host communities (host public and community/welfare groups) to influence the outcome of development projects that can have an impact on them (Drake 1991:134).
- *Mega-Event Hosting Process*: That period of time from an event's *inception* through to and including the *post-event* period, and the associated tasks and processes.
- *Host Community Support*: The proportion of the host community (host public and community/welfare groups) who are in favour of hosting an event.

SUBSIDIARY QUESTIONS

Perceived involvement and perceptions concerning the community involvement process in general are likely to vary within and between the host community and organisers of a mega-event, and be dependent upon the specific stage in the overall hosting process. In order to obtain a better understanding of these perceived roles and the major factors influencing them, and ultimately answer the major research question, several subsidiary questions need to be addressed. The subsidiary questions relate to three major stakeholders in the Olympic hosting process, namely the *host public*, *community/welfare groups* and the *bid/organising committees*.

Host Publics

The information sought specifically from the *host public* is designed to answer the following questions:

- 1.1 What are the levels of public support at different stages in the hosting process and reasons for any changes in the level of support?
- 1.2 What are perceived to be the actual and ideal levels of community involvement at different stages in the Olympic hosting process?
- 1.3 What forms of community participation were/are respondents aware of, which have they utilised and did this affect their level of support?

- 1.4 Does the number of events attended or hoped to attend, by members of the host public, affect support for the Olympic Games?
- 1.5 What type of contribution has the host public provided throughout the hosting process?
- 1.6 Which Olympic related issues arising during the hosting process are the host public most concerned about and is there a relationship with levels of support shown?
- 1.7 What were/should be the major reasons for hosting the Olympic Games?
- 1.8 What importance does the host public place on community involvement and the associated benefits/costs of hosting the Olympic Games?
- 1.9 Is there a detectable relationship between demographic characteristics of respondents and levels of public support, perceived community involvement or other key variables?

Community/Welfare Groups

As discussed in Chapter 3, the influence of *community/welfare groups* during the hosting process has, in recent times, become more substantial. For example, during Toronto's bid for the 1996 Olympics, several lobby groups played a large part in changing the entire character of the bid from, as Kidd (1992) described it, 'a handmaiden of finance capital into a project of social democracy'. Indeed it may be suggested that these groups have taken on the role of the not so silent social conscience of the community, often representing those groups who would otherwise find it very difficult to be heard (eg. homeless, welfare recipients). Consequently, the study seeks to obtain the perceptions of *community/welfare groups* in both Atlanta and Sydney regarding the role of host community involvement in the overall hosting process. Specifically, answers to the following questions were sought:

- 2.1 Do community/welfare groups' perceptions of actual and optimal levels of community involvement differ from those of the host publics and bid/organising committees?
- 2.2 What forms of community participation were/are community/welfare groups aware of and which, if any, have they utilised?

- 2.3 What type of contribution do members of community/welfare groups believe the host community provides throughout the hosting process?
- 2.4 Which Olympic related issues, arising during the hosting process, are community/welfare groups most concerned about?
- 2.5 What do community/welfare groups perceive to be the major reasons for *or* benefits to be gained from hosting an event such as the Olympic Games?

Bid/Organising Committees

Information sought specifically from *members of the Atlanta and Sydney bid and organising committees* was designed to obtain a better understanding of the rationale behind bidding for and hosting an Olympic Games and in particular perceptions regarding community involvement in the overall process. In particular, answers to the following questions were sought:

- 3.1 Do the bid/organising committees' perceptions of actual and optimal levels of community involvement differ from those of the host community?
- 3.2 What forms of community participation were/are formally made available to the host community during the hosting process?
- 3.3 Are the host community believed to provide a positive contribution during the hosting process of an Olympic Games and if so how?
- 3.4 Which Olympic related issues arising during the hosting process do organisers believe that host communities are most concerned about?
- 3.5 What do organisers perceive to be the major reasons for *or* benefits to be gained from hosting the Olympic Games?

It is envisaged that the process of obtaining the views of various stakeholder groups, in order to identify differences in the perceived roles of community involvement, will contribute to an improved understanding of the relationship between the stakeholder groups and the event hosting process. It is believed this will help to ensure that future mega-events, such as the Olympic Games, maximise positive and minimise negative impacts for the host communities involved.

While this chapter has highlighted the specific research questions that the present study aims to answer, the ensuing chapter discusses the methodology employed to carry out the empirical aspect of the study. In essence, Chapter 9 examines how the information to answer the specific research questions outlined in this chapter was obtained.

CHAPTER 9: METHODOLOGY

INTRODUCTION

The following chapter begins by providing a brief *overview* of the empirical aspect of the study, including a description of the different populations sampled. The overall *research design* and individual *survey instruments* are described, including a discussion of *questionnaire content and design, sample and data collection procedures, reliability, validity* and the *analysis* undertaken. Finally, the *representativeness* and *demographic characteristics* of the *samples* obtained are detailed.

OVERVIEW

As outlined in Chapter 8, the current study seeks to examine the perceived roles of community involvement in the mega-event hosting process by examining the Olympic Games as a case study. As the mega-event hosting process encompasses that period of time from *inception* through to and including the *post-event period* (typically ten years or more, see Chapter 4), it was considered both practical and beneficial to examine the Atlanta and Sydney Olympic Games concurrently. The overlap in the time-lines of these events enabled information to be gathered concerning all but the post-event period. For example, if the study had focused solely on the Sydney Olympics, due to time restrictions it would not have been possible to obtain data relating to the last two years in the lead up to the actual event. Incorporating Atlanta into the study solved this problem.

In discussing the use of the case-study as a research strategy, Yin (1989:13) proposes that the case-study is an empirical inquiry that:

- investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context; especially when
- the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident; and
- it relies on multiple sources of evidence.

Yin (1989:13) further suggests that the case-study method is particularly useful if the researcher wishes to deliberately address contextual conditions, believing that they might be highly pertinent to the phenomenon of study, as is the case for the present study. However, as case-study research may involve the examination of only a few cases, the method does not seek to produce findings that are universally applicable, but rather to explore various possibilities, produce propositions and, where possible, test the applicability of existing theories. Indeed, rather than confirming or raising doubts concerning existing theory, the case-study may instead be used to suggest possible theory when none exists. Therefore, based upon the accepted definition of the case-study, and the limited research and theory concerning community involvement in the mega-event hosting process, the adoption of a case-study strategy, focusing on the Atlanta and Sydney Olympics, is considered appropriate for the current study.

In order to obtain the desired information regarding the perceived roles of community involvement, a research methodology utilising a quantitative approach was adopted. Questionnaire surveys were utilised as the major method of data collection and were designed to obtain the opinions of organisers, host publics and community/welfare groups associated with both the Atlanta and Sydney Olympics. The views of Olympic organisers and the host publics were sought for obvious reasons, while community/welfare groups were included due to their ability to represent special interest and minority groups within the community, those who otherwise might find it difficult to have their opinions heard.

Obtaining the views of these particular stakeholder groups allows the identification of expected *gaps* in expectations, with regard to *perceived* actual and ideal levels of community involvement, and assist in determining how any *gaps* might be reduced. Ultimately it is envisaged that the insights obtained through this process will help to maximise the positive and minimise the negative impacts for the communities involved in hosting an event such as the Olympics in the future.

SUBJECTS

The samples for this study were drawn from six distinct populations, three from the Atlanta region, and three from the Sydney region. In each city they were the host community (host public and community/welfare groups) and the bid/organising committees.

ATLANTA REGION

Host Public: For the purposes of this study the host public was deemed to include those residents of Atlanta and Georgia, aged 18 years and older, who had lived in the state for at least four years. This was to ensure that potential respondents had been exposed to a large part of the hosting process and were of an age that would allow them to recall and comprehend the consequences of the process.

Community/Welfare Groups: As the principal means for facilitating public participation in the City's planning process (City of Atlanta 1996:59) the Neighbourhood Planning Units (NPUs) provided an appropriate and convenient population for this section of the study. The elected representatives of the twenty-four Neighbourhood Planning Units (NPUs) located throughout Atlanta were asked to respond on behalf of their NPU.

Bid/Organising Committees: Those people who were members of the Atlanta Bid and Organising Committees and would, therefore, be familiar with policies concerning community involvement during the hosting process.

SYDNEY REGION

Host Public: The population studied included those residents of Sydney and surrounding areas (Newcastle/Hunter Valley, Central Coast and Wollongong) aged 18 years and older, who had lived in New South Wales for at least four years at the time of data collection. As with the Georgia study population, this was to ensure that potential respondents had been exposed to a large portion of the hosting process and were of an age that would allow them to recall and comprehend the consequences of the hosting process.

Community/Welfare Groups: In order to obtain advice and recommendations for appropriate strategies and actions regarding the assessment and management of Games related social impacts, the Olympic Co-ordination Authority (OCA) established the Social Impacts Advisory Committee (OCA 1996:41). The community/welfare groups represented on the Committee provided an appropriate base population for this section of the study. The representatives elected to the Committee were asked to respond on behalf of their community group.

Bid/Organising Committees: As with the Atlanta study, this included those people involved in an official capacity during the bidding and planning process for the Sydney Olympics. More specifically, they included, those people who were *or* had been members of the Sydney Bid and Organising Committees and would be familiar with policies concerning community involvement at different stages in the hosting process.

RESEARCH DESIGN

Several survey instruments were utilised during the course of the study. The purpose of this design was to allow comparisons to be drawn between responses from host publics, bid/organising committees and community/welfare groups, with regard to community involvement during the various stages in the hosting process for the Atlanta and Sydney Olympic Games. In order to facilitate comparisons being made, all survey instruments (six) contained a basic core of questions, including several open-ended questions to allow respondents the opportunity to provide reasons for their attitudes and give opinions. In addition, the lengthy Olympic hosting process and the subsequent overlap in the time-lines of the Atlanta and Sydney Games provided an opportunity for information to be gathered concerning all stages in the process apart from the post-event period.

SURVEY INSTRUMENTS

Self-completed questionnaires were utilised to collect data from the Atlanta host public, whilst mail questionnaires were utilised for the other two populations, and in

Sydney mail questionnaires were utilised to collect data from all three populations. Questionnaire-based surveys are considered appropriate when the major requirement of the survey instrument is to obtain quantified information concerning specific populations and where individuals' own accounts of their attitudes and perceptions are acceptable as a source of information (Veal 1997:72). Both of these criteria are fulfilled in the current study. In addition, it was believed that the use of self-completed, and particularly mail questionnaires, would help to reassure respondents that their anonymity would be guaranteed and hence increase the likelihood that potential respondents would agree to participate.

In-depth personal interviews may have proved beneficial in the case of *community/welfare groups* and *bid/organising committees*, due to the small populations, however, their practicality was hindered by two major factors. Firstly, ensuring anonymity was considered of crucial importance in attempting to elicit the views of subjects from the Atlanta and Sydney *bid and organising committees*. While accepting the view that lower response rates are typically experienced when using mail questionnaires (Veal 1997:149), it was believed that guaranteeing confidentiality would provide the best chance of obtaining co-operation. Secondly, the need to undertake *host public* data collection during the period of the Atlanta Games precluded the possibility of arranging meetings with representatives of these groups due to their restricted availability and as such was not seen as a viable option for Atlanta. In order to maintain consistency in the type of data collected and ensure anonymity, self-completion questionnaire surveys were also used in the Sydney region for these populations. In addition, this method of data collection was considered advantageous as it allowed the possibility of contacting 100 per cent of the target populations in both areas.

PILOT QUESTIONNAIRE

Before the host public survey was undertaken in Atlanta, a pilot study was administered in Australia. The major purpose of the pilot study was to test questionnaires for any ambiguity and approximate length of time for completion. This process helped to ensure that the questionnaires were easily understood, set out in a clear manner, and of an acceptable length (completion time 10-15 minutes). Ten

questionnaires were completed and returned by the pilot group with only minor suggestions for change. As a result, adjustments were made where appropriate, however, the final draft of the questionnaire remained essentially the same as that used in the pilot study. After minor difficulties were experienced, during data collection for the Atlanta host public survey, appropriate alterations were again made in designing the questionnaires for the subsequent surveys.

QUESTIONNAIRE CONTENT AND DESIGN

The structured questionnaires used in the study incorporated a majority of closed and some open-ended questions. Where considered appropriate, a five point Likert-type scale was utilised, while open-ended questions afforded respondents the opportunity to qualify their stated attitudes or perceptions and give opinions on various topics. As questionnaires distributed to *bid/organising committees* and *community/welfare groups* were designed to obtain more in depth information, due to the smaller populations and expected greater familiarity with the topic, extra space was provided for more expansive responses to open-ended questions.

Thus the questionnaires, whilst easy to complete, provided a balance of *nominal*, *ordinal* and *ratio* data that allowed statistical analysis to provide answers to the research questions. The ways in which various survey instruments were designed to address the research questions outlined in Chapter 8 are discussed below. Copies of the questionnaires are provided in Appendix 2 for *host publics*, Appendix 3 for *community/welfare groups* and Appendix 6 for *bid/organising committees*.

Host Publics

Major Research Question: *'Is there a detectable relationship between perceived actual and ideal levels of host community involvement during the mega-event hosting process and levels of support for hosting such an event?'*

1.1 What are the levels of support at different stages in the hosting process and reasons for any changes in the level of support?

Respondents' levels of support for hosting the Olympics were determined at three stages in the hosting process: at the time of the survey; when the host city was bidding for the right to host the Games (pre-bid); and, in the period of time between winning the right to host the Games and the time of the survey (post-bid). In addition, the *reasons* for the level of support at the time of the survey and any *change* in support over the hosting process were sought (Atlanta - Q1, Q2, Q3; Sydney - Q1, Q2, Q3).

1.2 What are perceived to be the actual and ideal levels of community involvement at different stages in the Olympic hosting process?

Respondents' perceptions were obtained concerning actual and optimal levels of community involvement during both the bid process and the period of time between winning the right to host the Games and the time of the survey. Respondents were asked to choose between five levels of possible community involvement adapted from the four levels suggested by Paul (1987) and discussed in Chapter 3 (Atlanta - Q5, Q6; Sydney - Q6, Q7).

Having determined respondents' levels of support and perceived levels of actual and ideal involvement at different stages in the hosting process, it was then possible to address the major research question, which seeks to determine whether there is a detectable relationship between the two. In order to do so, one-way ANOVA and correlations were produced using involvement and support data to determine whether there is indeed a relationship. In addition, respondents were asked directly if they believed being more involved in the planning/hosting process would have affected their support for the Games (Atlanta - Q11; Sydney - Q14).

1.3 What forms of community participation were/are respondents aware of, which have they utilised and did this affect their level of support?

The subject of community participation was explored in several ways. Firstly, respondents were asked to choose, from a list of different forms of participation, those that they had become aware of over the course of the hosting process. Secondly, they were asked which, if any, they had taken advantage of over that period. Thirdly,

reasons were sought to explain why the forms of participation aware of were utilised or not. (Atlanta - Q9, Q4; Sydney - Q10, Q4, Q5).

In light of the difficulties many Atlanta respondents had in answering this part of the questionnaire, and in view of the difference the difference in the stage the two cities were at in the hosting process at the time of the surveys, this sequence of questions was simplified in the Sydney version of the questionnaire.

1.4 Does the number of events attended or hoped to attend, by members of the host public, affect support for the Olympic Games?

To examine one of the basic yet arguably major forms of community participation, respondents from Atlanta were asked how many events they *had* or *intended* to go to. Sydney respondents were asked how many events they *would realistically like to attend* **and** *how many they actually believed they would get to see* (Atlanta - Q4; Sydney - Q4, Q5).

1.5 What type of contribution has the host public provided throughout the hosting process?

For the Atlanta questionnaire respondents were asked if they believed they had contributed to the planning/hosting of the Games, and if so how? For the Sydney survey the question was revised slightly to ask respondents what level of contribution they believed the host public had provided during the process, and why they believed that. In addition, Sydney respondents were asked what level of influence the host public *has* displayed and *should* display during the hosting process (Atlanta - Q10; Sydney - Q11, Q12, Q13).

1.6 Which Olympic related issues arising during the hosting process are the host public most concerned about and is there a relationship with levels of support shown?

A list of seven generic issues relating to the hosting of the Olympic Games was presented to respondents. The issues included *impact on lifestyle, cost of infrastructure, welfare issues, ticket availability and affordability, community involvement, enjoying*

the event and use of facilities after the event, and were those considered most important by the residents of Calgary in Haxton's (1993) study entitled *The Social Impacts and Community Perceptions of Mega-Events*. Respondents were asked to rank the issues from *most important* to *least important* (Atlanta - Q7; Sydney - Q8).

1.7 What were/should be the major reasons for hosting the Olympic Games?

Open-ended questions were used to obtain respondents' perceptions of the *actual* reasons behind their City's bid for the Olympics. In addition, respondents were asked to provide what they believed *should* be the major reasons (benefits to be gained) to bid for such an event (Atlanta- Q8; Sydney- Q9). It was believed that the range and variety of expected responses warranted the use of closed-ended questions in this particular instance.

1.8 What importance does the host public place on community involvement and the associated benefits/costs of hosting the Olympic Games?

In order to obtain a more thorough understanding of host public perceptions concerning community involvement/participation and its importance, and the Olympic hosting process in general, respondents were presented with a selection of nine statements concerning a variety of topics. The topics included: *organisers' efforts and success in incorporating the community; benefits vs costs; services for the disabled community; role of community/welfare groups; and, desire to feel greater involvement*. In addition, it has been suggested that several advantages associated with a participatory approach to planning are that *community involvement functions as an early warning system, community involvement leads to better planning and community input helps to legitimise the decision making process* (Drake 1991:134) (see Chapter 3). As such, statements concerning these topics were also included to ascertain levels of host public agreement. For each of the nine statements, respondents were asked to provide their level of agreement from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree* (Atlanta - Q12; Sydney - Q15).

1.9 Is there a detectable relationship between demographic characteristics of respondents and levels of public support, perceived community involvement or other key variables?

Questions were included in the questionnaire to gather information concerning respondents' region of residence, years lived in region, income, age, occupation and gender. In order to determine whether there are any detectable relationships between these demographic characteristics and levels of support, involvement or other selected variables, where appropriate one-way ANOVA and correlations were produced using these data (Atlanta- Q4, Q2, Q5, Q6, Q13-18; Sydney- Q1, Q2, Q6, Q7, Q16-21).

Community/Welfare Groups

2.1 Do community/welfare groups' perceptions of actual and optimal levels of community involvement differ from those of the host publics or bid/organising committees?

In order to allow comparisons to be made, community/welfare groups' perceptions concerning actual and ideal levels of community involvement during the hosting process were explored in the same manner as for the host public's (Atlanta - Q4, Q5; Sydney - Q4, Q5).

2.2 What forms of community participation were/are community/welfare groups aware of and which, if any, have they utilised?

As with the host public surveys, representatives of community/welfare groups were asked which forms of community participation their groups had been made aware of during the course of the hosting process. They were then asked which, if any, they had taken advantage of over that period and why (Atlanta - Q8; Sydney - Q8).

2.3 What type of contribution do members of community/welfare groups believe the host community provides throughout the hosting process?

Respondents were asked firstly what type of contribution they believed their community/welfare group had provided during the hosting process of the Games, and why they believed this to be the case. Secondly, respondents were asked what type of

role the host public and community/welfare groups *have* and *should* play during the hosting process (Atlanta - Q9, Q10, Q11; Sydney - Q9, Q10, Q11).

2.4 Which Olympic related issues, arising during the hosting process, are community/welfare groups most concerned about?

A list of seven generic issues relating to the hosting of the Olympic Games was presented to respondents and they were asked to rank the issues, on behalf of their community/welfare group, from *most important* to *least important* (Atlanta - Q6; Sydney - Q6).

*2.5 What do community/welfare groups perceive to be the major reasons for **or** benefits to be gained from hosting an event such as the Olympic Games?*

As with the host public questionnaires, open-ended questions were used to obtain respondents' perceptions concerning the *actual* reasons for their City's Olympic bid *and* what they believe *should* be the major reasons (benefits to be gained) behind bidding for such an event (Atlanta - Q7; Sydney - Q7).

Bid/Organising Committees

3.1 Do the bid/organising committees' perceptions of actual and optimal levels of community involvement differ from those of the host community?

In order to allow comparisons to be made, bid/organising committee members' perceptions concerning actual and ideal levels of community involvement during the hosting process were explored in essentially the same manner as for the host publics (i.e. respondents were asked to choose between five levels of possible community involvement). In addition, however, respondents were asked to provide reasons for their opinions concerning ideal levels of involvement (Atlanta - Q4, Q5; Sydney - Q4, Q5).

3.2 What forms of community participation were/are formally made available to the host community during the hosting process?

Firstly, respondents were asked to choose, from a list of different forms of participation, those that had been provided for the benefit of the host public and

community/welfare groups over the course of the hosting process. Secondly, they were asked which form(s) are/were most effective in helping to achieve a level of participation most beneficial to the hosting process and why (Atlanta - Q4, Q5; Sydney - Q4, Q5)?

3.3 Are the host community believed to provide a positive contribution during the hosting of an Olympic Games and if so how?

In order to help determine the value organisers place on the contribution of the host public and community/welfare groups during the hosting process, respondents were asked firstly what type of contribution they believed both groups had provided thus far, and why they believed this to be the case. Secondly, respondents were asked what type of *role* they believe the host public and community/welfare groups *have* and *should* play during the hosting process (Atlanta - Q9, Q10, Q11; Sydney - Q9, Q10, Q11).

3.4 Which Olympic related issues arising during the hosting process do organisers believe that host communities are most concerned about?

The same list of seven generic issues relating to the hosting of the Olympic Games that were included in the *host public* and *community/welfare group* questionnaires were also presented to members of the bid/organising committees. Respondents' were asked to rank the issues from *most important* too *least important* (Atlanta- Q6; Sydney- Q6).

*3.5 What do organisers perceive to be the major reasons for **or** benefits to be gained from hosting the Olympic Games?*

As with the host publics and community/welfare groups questionnaires, open-ended questions were used to obtain views of organisers' concerning the *actual* reasons for their City's Olympic bid *and* what they believed, based on their experiences, *should* be the major reasons (benefits to be gained) behind bidding for a similar event in the future (Atlanta - Q7; Sydney - Q7).

SAMPLE SELECTION AND DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE

ATLANTA REGION

Host Public Survey

Initially it was envisaged that the sample would be obtained during the fourteen days of Olympic competition, to enable respondents to reflect upon being exposed to the full impacts of a mega-event (the *event* stage of the *hosting process*). Ten locations in and around Atlanta, including event venues, malls, and suburban areas, were to be used to obtain the required sample. At each location, every 20th person to pass a set sampling point was to be selected and these persons would be asked to participate in the survey. Respondents would then be asked to return completed questionnaires to a *return box* and this process was to continue until a total of 400 responses were obtained. A sample of this size was considered a suitable compromise between the demands of the planned detail of analysis, acceptable level of precision (95% confidence interval of $\pm 4.9\%$ for a finding of 50%), and resources (time/budget) available to the researcher.

A contingency plan was developed in the instance that residents found the self-completion questionnaire too difficult to complete without assistance, however, this was not anticipated to be a problem. If serious problems were encountered, face to face interviews were to be undertaken, with the interviewer completing the questionnaire. In this instance, a reduced sample of approximately 250 would then have been the target.

As expected, no serious problems were experienced with regard to respondents successfully completing questionnaires. However, the first three days of data collection in Atlanta revealed several hindrances to proposed procedures that necessitated substantial changes. The major problems experienced stemmed from *no soliciting* policies at many of the shopping centres (or *malls*) and housing estates where attempts were made to administer the survey instrument. In an attempt to overcome this situation, smaller shopping centres and other communities were approached. However, it was found that the smaller shopping centres did not attract a sufficiently high patronage to make the process time-efficient. Attempts to go door to door in suburban areas proved largely unsuccessful and was not time-efficient.

Therefore, with only eleven days remaining for data collection, several adjustments to the methodology had to be made, whilst ensuring that the sample remained as representative as possible. After considering possible options, it was decided that it would not be possible to obtain the desired 400 completed questionnaires at ten sites in and around the city, as had been originally planned. Of the alternatives considered, it was concluded that the most feasible was to collect the data in Centennial Olympic Park, located in downtown Atlanta, where access to large numbers of potential respondents was available, and permission to conduct the study had been obtained.

The decision to collect data in Centennial Olympic Park posed certain problems, while at the same time offering solutions to others. The major problem was seen to be that the sample collected could be biased to a degree. This was due to the likelihood that the majority of visitors to the park would have positive feelings towards the Olympics. However, while this is acknowledged as a weakness in the methodology, Centennial Park did offer access to a greater cross-section of Georgian residents than if initial data-collection procedures had been adhered to, which would have included primarily Atlanta residents.

Four locations within Centennial Olympic Park (North, East, South, and West) were chosen to approach members of the target population. As initially planned, every 20th person who passed a nominated sampling point was asked to participate in the study. However, as a result of the reluctance of potential respondents to stop/participate changes were once again made to data-collection procedures. In an effort to overcome this situation, the focus of attention was changed to concentrate on those people making use of the many benches provided throughout the park. In each of the four locations, the person sitting closest to the left end of a bench (as approached by the interviewer) was approached. After determining potential respondents' willingness to participate, each was asked if they were residents of Georgia and if so, if they had been for at least four years. This process was repeated, from bench to bench, alternating between the person sitting closest to the left end and then the person sitting closest to the right end. Using this particular technique, a *return box* was not seen as an efficient option, therefore, after every four questionnaires were handed out, the interviewer stayed in

close proximity to the respondents, to allow completed questionnaires to be collected. Four questionnaires at any one given time was determined to be the limit which the interviewer could successfully and efficiently monitor individually.

Rather than setting target numbers for each of the four designated locations around Centennial Olympic Park, data collection sites were rotated each day between the four, in an attempt to ensure as even a spread as possible. Finally, at each location, a record was kept of completions, rejections and those people who were ineligible to participate in the study (see Appendix 7 for copy of form). After eleven days of data collection, 234 questionnaires had been collected from respondents at a response rate of 77.5 per cent.

Community/Welfare Group Survey

As suggested previously, the City of Atlanta's Neighbourhood Planning Units (NPU's) provided an appropriate and convenient population for this part of the study. Information regarding individual NPUs (names of elected representatives, contact addresses etc.) was obtained from the Atlanta City Council. Questionnaires were sent to elected representatives of the twenty-five NPUs, with a cover letter describing the present study and highlighting the importance of their views on the matter. Procedures adopted to maximise the response rate included the provision of postage-paid envelopes and international return mail coupons. In addition, polite reminder letters were sent two weeks after the initial mailing, followed by another reminder letter accompanied by a second copy of the questionnaire after a further two weeks.

Veal (1997:197) argues that reminder and follow-up procedures are necessary to achieve satisfactory mail survey response rates. While the data collection procedures employed in this instance were considered appropriate, the response rate was poor. After all reasonable avenues were explored, including a third reminder letter sent two weeks after the second questionnaire, only three questionnaires were eventually returned. No reason has been established for this result. The consequences of this situation were that the Atlanta *community/welfare group* section of the study had to be

dropped, which meant that comparison with the other samples in the study was not possible.

Bid/Organising Committee Survey

Whilst in Atlanta, attempts were made to acquire a mailing list consisting of past and present members of the Atlanta Bid Committee and the Atlanta Organising Committee for the Olympic Games (ACOG). Several approaches were made to the ACOG head office in the hope of obtaining the required information. However, due partially to high levels of security, contact could only be made with the front desk at reception at any given time and attendants were unable to assist with enquiries. In addition, there appeared to be no literature concerning ACOG, or the Olympics in general, available to the general public either for free or for purchase. In contrast, similar literature provided by SOCOG and its agencies in Australia often contains such information.

In light of the difficulties encountered, direct correspondence was entered into with ACOG immediately upon return to Australia in an effort to remedy the situation. Originally it had been planned to send questionnaires in October 1996, approximately two months after the Games had finished, in the belief that committee members would have more time to respond. However, by this time no response had been forthcoming from ACOG after several requests had been sent by fax and mail. In response to this situation, attempts to communicate directly with Billy Payne, the President and CEO of ACOG and the Bid Committee, were made before and after the disbandment of ACOG (approximately six months after the Games). Included in this correspondence were cover letters explaining the current study and a copy of the proposed questionnaire. Once again, however, no response was forthcoming after several attempts were made. It was at this point that the decision was made to cease attempted communication and abandon the survey of the Atlanta *bid/organising committee*. The consequences of this sequence of events were, as with the unsuccessful *community/welfare group* survey, that comparison with the other samples in the study was not possible.

SYDNEY REGION

Host Public Survey

The *host public* survey was undertaken approximately one year after the Atlanta Olympics (the *pre-host* stage of the hosting process), as this period of time would afford potential respondents the opportunity to reflect upon any developments arising directly or indirectly as a result of the Atlanta Games. In order to obtain the most representative sample possible from the *host public* in the Sydney region, the collection of data via a mail survey was determined to be the most practical course of action as opposed to the method used in Atlanta. A similar sample size to that obtained in the Atlanta *host public* survey, or approximately 250, was considered a reasonable compromise between the planned detail of analysis, the acceptable precision, and resources (time/budget) available to the researcher.

A mailing list of 600 names and addresses of householders was purchased from a company specialising in the provision of that service. Of the 600 names, it was requested that 400 be from the *Sydney metropolitan area*, with the remaining 200 from the combined *Newcastle, Central Coast and Wollongong* region. The list was randomly generated using postcodes to identify the specific regions and then telephone numbers of residents in the areas covered by individual postcodes.

Questionnaires were sent to those people on the mailing list with a cover letter describing the present study and highlighting the importance of their views on the subject. Procedures adopted to maximise the response rate included the provision of postage-paid envelopes using real stamps rather than business reply-paid, which it has been suggested may produce a better response rate (Veal 1997:196). In addition, polite reminder letters were sent ten days after the initial mailing, followed by another reminder letter accompanied by a second copy of the questionnaire, *in case the first did not arrive or was misplaced*, after a further ten days. Upon the completion of data collection, 246 completed questionnaires had been returned and a response rate of 41 per cent was achieved.

Community/Welfare Group Survey

The *community/welfare groups* represented on the Social Impacts Advisory Committee, established by the Olympic Co-ordination Authority (OCA) provided an appropriate and convenient base population for this part of the study. Information regarding *community/welfare groups* represented on the committee (elected representatives, contact addresses etc.) was obtained from the OCA. Questionnaires were sent to the representatives of ten *community/welfare groups* on the committee and ten other prominent organisations not represented (see Appendix 4 for mailing list), with a cover letter describing the present study and highlighting the importance of their views on the matter.

Procedures adopted to maximise the response rate were the same as those implemented for the Sydney region *host public* survey. Upon the completion of data collection, ten of the twenty questionnaires had been completed and returned by respondents resulting in a response rate of 50 per cent. While a higher response rate would have been preferred, it is believed that the results from this survey allow very *broad* qualitative conclusions to be drawn and comparisons with the other samples to be made.

Bid/Organising Committee Survey

Questionnaires were sent to the past members of the Sydney Bid Committee (n=36) and the current Board of Directors for the Sydney Organising Committee for the Olympic Games (SOCOG) (n=14), with a cover letter describing the study and highlighting the importance of their views and potential benefits of the study. Every effort was made to ensure respondents that their anonymity was assured and that confidentiality would be maintained.

Procedures adopted to maximise the response rate were the same as those implemented for the Sydney region *host public* survey. Upon the completion of data collection, ten of the fifty questionnaires had been completed and returned by respondents resulting in a response rate of only 20 per cent. As for the *community/welfare groups*, while a higher response rate would have been preferred, it is believed

that the results from this survey allow very *broad* qualitative conclusions to be drawn and comparisons with the other samples to be made.

IMPLICATIONS FOR THE STUDY

The implications of the problems faced during various stages of the data collection process were that comparisons could clearly not be made between the three samples in the Atlanta region as originally proposed. However, the results from the *host public* surveys in both the Atlanta and Sydney regions provided perceptions concerning community involvement in all stages apart from the *inception* and *post-event period* of the hosting process. This included the identification of any discrepancies between actual and optimal levels of community involvement in this process, as perceived by the respondents. In addition, while only small samples were drawn from *community/welfare groups* and *bid/organising committees* in the Sydney region, *broad* qualitative comparisons with the Sydney *host public* remained possible.

RELIABILITY

Reliability may be referred to as ‘the extent to which research findings would be the same if the research were to be repeated at a later date or with a different sample of subjects’ (Veal 1997:35). This is an uncommon occurrence in the social sciences, ‘because they deal with human beings in ever-changing social situations’ (Veal 1997:36). Attempts were made to test the reliability of the two *host public* samples using the test for Cronbach’s Alpha Coefficient in SPSS, however, the sample size in both cases was not large enough for the application of the test. As a result, due caution has been exercised when making any general statements on the basis of the survey findings.

VALIDITY

The extent to which questionnaire based data accurately reflect what they are meant to, otherwise referred to as their *validity*, is a constant source of concern in the social sciences (Veal 1997:186). Measures taken to highlight the possible occurrence of this problem in the current study included placing similar questions in different parts of each survey instrument. For example, early in the Sydney *host public* questionnaire (Q6, Q7), respondents were asked to choose from a list, the actual and optimal levels of

community involvement during the hosting process. Responses were compared for consistency (manually) with responses to agree/disagree statements, which asked if respondents agreed that *community involvement does not lead to better planning and decision making* and if *organisers were successfully incorporating the residents of Sydney and NSW into the planning process*.

In addition, the various lists of *agree/disagree* statements included in each questionnaire had both positively and negatively worded statements to ensure that respondents had to read each question carefully to obtain an understanding of what was inferred. For example, respondents were presented with the following statements in Q15 of the Sydney host public questionnaire:

	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Neither	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
c) Community involvement does not lead to better planning and decision making for events such as the Olympics.	1	2	3	4	5
d) Community involvement functions as an early warning system, helping organisers to avoid or plan for decisions that might otherwise cause conflict with the host community.	1	2	3	4	5

Therefore, it was obvious when checking responses if respondents had simply assumed that all statements were either positively or negatively slanted and had therefore chosen *strongly agree or strongly disagree* for all statements. Subsequent analysis of the data revealed no obvious problems in the area of validity.

ANALYSIS

Data analysis was undertaken using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Methods of analysis employed included univariate analysis, which provided descriptive information including measures of central tendency (mean, median and mode) and dispersion (standard deviation). In addition, ANOVAs and correlations were used where appropriate:

- to determine whether there is a detectable relationship between *perceived levels of community involvement* during the mega-event hosting process and *levels of support* for hosting such an event;

- to determine whether there is a detectable relationship between *levels of support* or *perceived community involvement* during the Games and other variables, including demographic characteristics.

SAMPLE SIZE AND CHARACTERISTICS

The sample sizes and response rates for the four samples utilised in the remainder of the study are shown in Table 9.1.

Table 9.1: Individual Sample Characteristics

Samples	Number contacted	Number responding/ usable	% Response rate
Atlanta host public	302	234	77.5
Sydney host public	600	246	41
Sydney community/welfare	20	10	50
Sydney bid/organising	50	10	20

All sample surveys are subject to a margin of statistical error (Veal 1997:215). The margins of error, or *confidence intervals*, for the Atlanta and Sydney surveys are presented in Table 9.2:

Table 9.2: Confidence Intervals

Findings from each survey	95% confidence intervals	
	Atlanta	Sydney
50%	$\pm 6.6\%$	$\pm 6.4\%$
40/60%	$\pm 6.4\%$	$\pm 6.3\%$
30/70%	$\pm 6.0\%$	$\pm 5.9\%$
20/80%	$\pm 5.2\%$	$\pm 5.1\%$
10/90%	$\pm 3.9\%$	$\pm 3.8\%$
5/95%	$\pm 2.9\%$	$\pm 2.8\%$

This means, for example, that if 80 per cent of the Sydney sample were found to have a particular characteristic, there is a 95 per cent chance that the true population percentage lies in the range 80 ± 5.1 , that is, between 74.9 and 85.1 per cent. These margins of error have been taken into account in the analyses in this study.

REPRESENTATIVENESS

While all efforts were made to maximise the representativeness of each sample, the aim was not achieved in all instances. For the Atlanta host public survey, the difficulties experienced in the data collection process in conjunction with limited

resources (time and budget) meant that to obtain an adequate number of responses, it was necessary, as explained above, to collect data in the downtown Atlanta area. Even though there were many visitors in Atlanta at the time of the Games, it is likely that this resulted in the greater proportion of respondents being from Atlanta itself. Perhaps more significantly, however, the chances that respondents were in Atlanta to experience the Games, and therefore held positively biased views of the event, were increased. Although it may be argued that at the time of the event, highly supportive views would have been obtained regardless of where respondents originated from or where data collection had taken place within the State. Therefore, it is likely that the host public sample would have stronger pro-Olympics views than the Georgian population as a whole. However, Q4 in the host public questionnaire allowed this situation to be addressed somewhat by making it possible to compare the levels of support *between* those people who did and did not attend any Olympic events, to determine whether there was a significant difference.

Of those surveys conducted in the Sydney region, only that examining the *host public* could be considered generally representative of the target population. Indeed, those examining the *community/welfare groups* and *bid/organising committees*, due primarily to low response rates, should be considered marginally representative at best (see Table 9.1). It must be noted, however, that when compared to their respective census data (Australian Bureau of Statistics 1998:33; US Census Bureau 1998) differences were observed in the make-up of both the Sydney and Atlanta host public samples with regard to the *age* of respondents (see Table 9.3). More specifically, in the Sydney sample, the *18-29 years* category was under-represented while the *50+ years* category was over-represented. Whereas, in the Atlanta sample, the *30-39 years* and *40-49 years* categories were over-represented while the *50+ years* was under-represented.

In order to determine whether the samples were indeed misrepresenting the target populations, it was considered appropriate to weight the categories of concern based upon the relevant census figures and re-analyse the data concerning key opinion variables using SPSS. The results of the subsequent analyses indicated no significant differences between weighted and non-weighted data (see Appendix 5) for key opinion

variables and, therefore, the continued use of the original non-weighted data was considered appropriate.

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

The demographic characteristics of the Atlanta and Sydney *host publics* (questionnaires for community/welfare groups and bid organising committee did not contain demographic questions) are shown in Table 9.3.

Table 9.3: Demographic Characteristics of Host Public Samples

Demographic Characteristic		Atlanta	Sydney
		%	%
Years lived in State	8=18.7 S.D.=13.7	8=40.4 S.D.=20.2	
4 → 9 years		34.6	9.3
10 → 19 years		25.6	7.7
20 → 29 years		18.4	12.2
30 → 39 years		9.8	17.5
40 + years		11.5	53.3
Region of residence			
Atlanta Metro Area	Sydney East	64.5	33.9
North Georgia	Sydney West	24.4	37.1
Central Georgia	Central Coast/Gosford	8.5	5.3
Southern Georgia	Newcastle/Hunter Valley	1.3	13.5
Eastern Georgia	Wollongong	1.3	10.2
Household income	Median- \$50,000>\$75,000	Median-\$50,000>\$75,000	
<\$25,000		3.4	25.1
\$25,000 → \$49,999		24.8	33.7
\$50,000 → \$74,999		28.6	24.7
\$75,000 +		43.2	16.5
Occupation			
Professional/Technical		36.1	18.6
Executive Manager		10.7	8.3
Clerk/Sales Person		11.6	7.4
Teacher/Lecturer/Student		12.0	12.0
Skilled Tradesperson/Technician		11.2	8.7
Semi-Skilled/Unskilled		15.5	12.4
Unemployed		1.3	2.5
Retired		1.7	30.2
Age (census data)	8=37.5 S.D.=10.9	8=49.7 S.D.=16.4	
18 → 29 years	(28.9)	27.4	(23.8) 9.9
30 → 39 years	(23.5)	29.9	(21.2) 21.1
40 → 49 years	(18.1)	26.9	(19.0) 17.4
50 + years	(29.5)	15.8	(36.0) 51.7
Gender (census data)			
Male	(48.5)	53.0	(49.1) 53.7
Female -	(51.5)	47.0	(50.9) 46.3

Major Sample Differences

The most notable difference between the two samples would appear to relate to the age of respondents. In the survey of the Atlanta *host public* the average age of respondents was 37.5 years (S.D.=10.9) while for the Sydney region it was 49.7 years (S.D.=16.4). Subsequently, a considerable difference could be observed in the results concerning the *occupation* of respondents. These results indicated that only 1.7 per cent of the Atlanta sample was *retired* as compared to some 30.2 per cent of the Sydney sample. Therefore, with a higher proportion of the Atlanta sample being younger and as a result perhaps, more transient, differences were found in the average number of years that respondents had lived in their respective states. For the Atlanta *host public* the average number of years lived in Georgia was 18.7 years (S.D.=13.7), while the average number of years that respondents from the Sydney region had lived in NSW was 40.4 years (S.D.=20.2).

It is believed that the highlighted differences in demographic characteristics are due in part to different sampling procedures implemented in the two regions. For example, undertaking data collection in the downtown Atlanta area is likely to have restricted the participation of older, less mobile members of the community, those more likely to be *retired*. On the contrary, however, it would seem that the use of mail-questionnaires in the survey of the Sydney *host public* was more convenient and even appealed to this group, perhaps due to respondents having more spare time to complete and return questionnaires. The major implication of the higher average age for the Sydney sample, in terms of data analysis, was that it was necessary to take this into consideration when making comparisons and/or drawing conclusions based upon results from the two surveys.

Chapters 8 and 9 have outlined the research questions to be addressed in this study and the methodologies employed to answer these specific questions. Chapters 10 (Atlanta) and 11 (Sydney) detail the results obtained and provide an analysis of the findings with relation to the relevant research questions. A statistical summary of the Atlanta survey results is provided in Appendix 8, while summaries of the three Sydney surveys can be seen in Appendices 10, 12 and 13.

CHAPTER 10: ATLANTA HOST PUBLIC SURVEY

RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

INTRODUCTION

As outlined in Chapter 9, difficulties were experienced during data collection for the Atlanta region, resulting in an insufficient response rate from both the *community/welfare groups* and *bid/organising committees*. Consequently, this chapter details the results obtained from the *host public* survey only, discussing the findings with regard to the major and subsidiary research questions. A statistical summary of the full results from the Atlanta host public survey is contained in Appendix 8.

It is appropriate at this point to re-iterate, however, that due to the difficulties experienced in administering the *host public* survey and the subsequent changes to data collection procedures (outlined in Chapter 9), it is reasonable to expect that respondents are likely to represent a relatively pro-Olympics group. Nonetheless, respondents' views concerning community involvement and other Olympic issues remain valid. However, it remains unclear as to how the views of a less supportive group would differ. In addition, although the differences between weighted and non-weighted data based upon age categories revealed no significant differences (see Appendix 5), due care was taken when comparisons, based upon age, were made.

QUESTION 1.1

What are the levels of support at different stages in the hosting process and reasons for any changes in the level of support?

As outlined in Chapter 9, in order to address the major research question it was necessary to answer several subsidiary questions. The first of these questions was concerned with respondents' levels of support for the Olympics at three stages in the hosting process. These stages were: at the time of the survey (during the Games); when Atlanta was preparing to bid for the right to host the Games (pre-bid); and in the period of time between winning the right to host and the Olympics themselves (post-bid). The findings are shown in Table 10.1.

Table 10.1: Levels of Support at Different Stages in the Hosting Process

Stages in the Hosting Process	Level of Support (1 very unsupportive → 5 very supportive)		
	Mean	S.D.	n
Pre-bid	4.4	1.0	230
Post-bid	4.3	1.0	234
During the Games	4.7	0.6	234

On a scale of 1-5, where 1 indicates *very unsupportive* and 5 indicates *very supportive*, the highest average level of support was, perhaps not surprisingly for this group, during the the Games. Indeed, 94 per cent of respondents stated that they were either *somewhat* or *very supportive* of Atlanta hosting the 1996 Olympics. Interestingly, however, the level of support for the Games remained essentially unchanged between the pre-bid and post-bid periods. A decrease in support between these two periods would not have been unexpected, considering the level of euphoria that is often associated with the successful bid for a prestigious event such as the Olympics.

The specific *reasons* for the level of support displayed during the Games and reasons for any *change* in support over the entire hosting process were sought with the results outlined in Tables 10.2 and 10.3. For those respondents who provided one or more reasons for their level of support during the Games ($n= 189$), the top five reasons accounted for approximately one third (32.9%) of total responses. The major reasons included the *international attention/exposure* that the event provided, respondents' *pride in city*, the fact that it is a *once-in-a-lifetime opportunity*, it was *fun/exciting* and because it would *benefit the city*.

Interestingly, while the top reason for support, *international attention/exposure* would appear to relate to the potential long-term benefits that the event might bring to the city or region, the next three major responses are related to personal benefit or experience. It should be noted, however, that if responses were grouped less strictly, *exposure in general* (10.9%) and *benefits in general* (10.6%) would have been the two most popular responses.

Table 10.2: Reasons for Level of Support During the Games

Reasons for level of support (top 10)	% of responses	% of respondents
International attention/exposure	8.4	14.3
Pride in city	6.8	11.6
Once-in-a-lifetime opportunity	6.2	10.6
Fun/exciting	5.9	10.1
Benefit city	5.6	9.5
Economic benefits	5.0	8.5
International interaction	3.4	5.8
Opportunity to see Games	3.1	5.3
Promote world peace	2.8	4.8
Exposure for Atlanta	2.5	4.2
Honour to host	2.5	4.2
	n=323	n=189

Table 10.3 outlines the top ten reasons for any *change* in the level of support over the course of the Olympic hosting process. Results indicate that, for those respondents who provided one or more reasons for any change in support ($n=106$), the top five reasons account for over one third of total responses. Reasons for an *increase* in the level of support included the fact that the Games became *more relevant as time passed*, the *fun/excitement of the Games*, and that the *doubts that Atlanta could pull it off* were alleviated. The major reason for a *decrease* in the level of support was the *traffic problems* that were experienced, while the only other reason in the top five for a decrease was *disruption to normal life*.

Table 10.3: Reasons for Any Change in Support During the Hosting Process

Reasons for any change in level of support (top 10)	% of responses	% of respondents
Reasons for increase in support:		
More relevant as time passed	10.7	15.1
Fun/excitement of Games	7.3	10.4
Doubts Atlanta could pull it off	6.0	8.5
Turned out better than expected	4.7	6.6
Upgrade of city	2.7	3.8
Got more involved	2.7	3.8
Reasons for decrease in support:		
Traffic problems	8.7	12.3
Disruption to normal life	5.3	7.5
ACOG could have done better	4.0	5.7
Construction hassles	3.3	4.7
Initial 'joy' turned to reality	3.3	4.7
	n=150	n=106

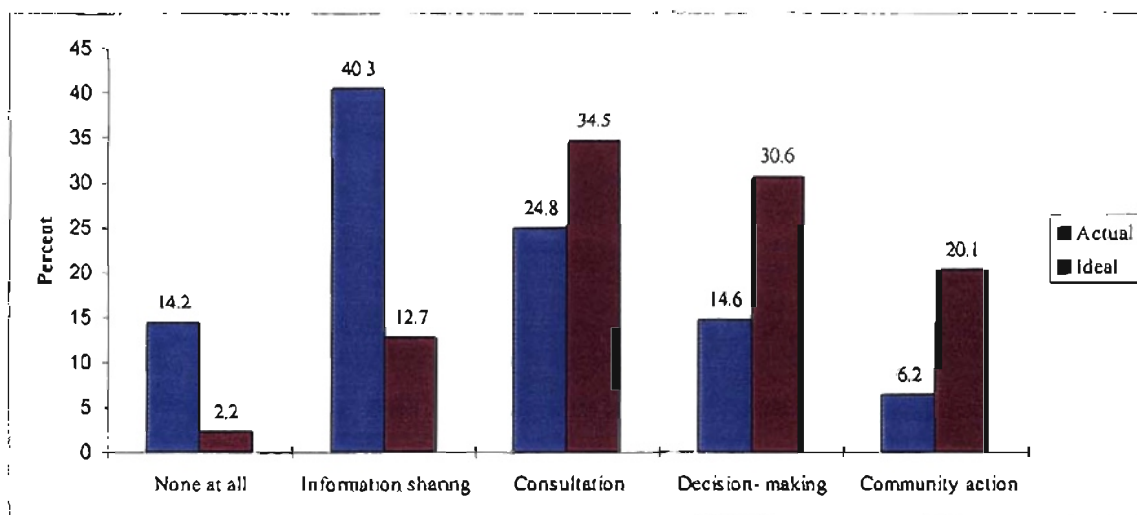
QUESTION 1.2

What are perceived to be the actual and ideal levels of involvement at different stages in the Olympic hosting process?

In order to determine respondents' perceptions regarding actual and ideal levels of community involvement both pre-bid and post-bid, respondents were asked to choose between five levels of community involvement, ranging from 1 *none at all* to 5 *community action*, in each category.

As outlined in Figure 10.1, over one half of respondents believed that the *actual* level of community involvement during the pre-bid period could be regarded as *information sharing* or less, while approximately one quarter considered it to be at the *consultation* level. With regard to the *ideal* levels of community involvement during this period, approximately two thirds of respondents selected either *consultation* or *decision-making*. Therefore, it is clear that there is a wide gap between perceived and ideal levels of community involvement in the pre-bid period as perceived by respondents.

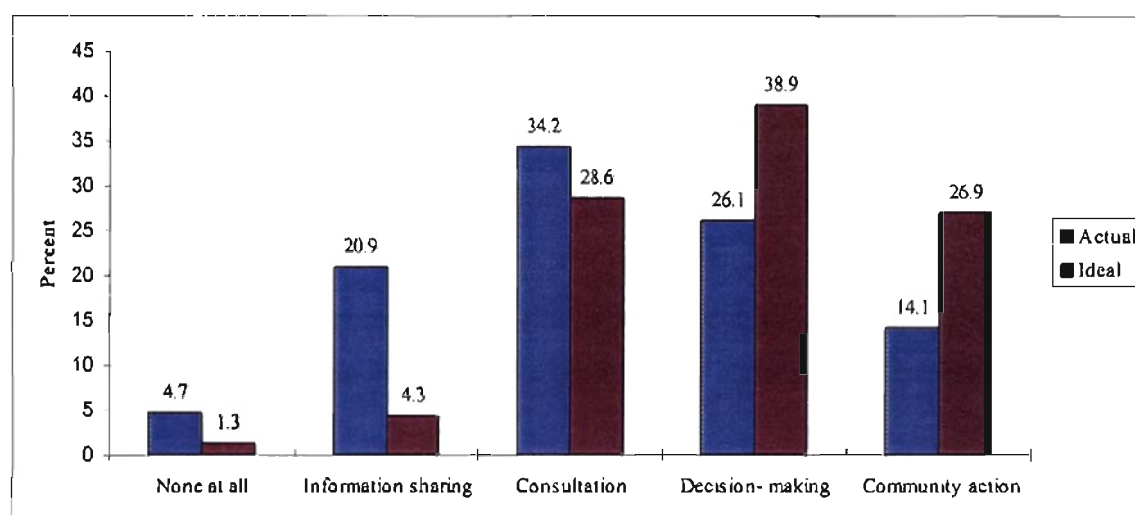
Figure 10.1: Perceived Community Involvement Pre-Bid



However, as Figure 10.2 indicates, in the period leading up to the Olympics, respondents detected an increase in the levels of community involvement. *Consultation* was the level of involvement selected most often, by approximately one third of

respondents. However, one quarter suggested that community involvement was at the *decision-making* level. When asked about *ideal* levels of involvement during this period, respondents suggested that involvement should be greater than in the pre-bid period, with just over two thirds of respondents choosing either *consultation* or *decision-making* as being appropriate.

Figure 10.2: Perceived Community Involvement Post-Bid



These findings suggest that whilst respondents perceived that *actual* community involvement in the period leading up to the Games (post-bid) was approaching the *ideal* level, greater involvement, particularly in the pre-bid period, would have been desirable. This observation can be presented more succinctly by providing the mean scores for the levels of involvement in each period. Presenting the results in this format also lends itself to undertaking more detailed statistical analysis later in the chapter.

As Table 10.4 shows, the gap between perceived *actual* (mean - 2.6) and *ideal* (mean - 3.5) levels of community involvement in the pre-bid period was greater than in post-bid period. In addition it can be seen that, while the average *actual* level of community involvement increased from between *information sharing* and *consultation* to *consultation* over the course of the hosting process, the *ideal* level of involvement increased from between *consultation* and *decision-making* to approximately *decision-making* over the same period.

Table 10.4: Perceived Levels of Community Involvement Pre and Post-Bid

Bid Stages	Level of Community Involvement (1 none at all → 5 community action)			
	Actual/Ideal	Mean	S.D.	n
Pre-bid	Actual	2.6	1.1	226
	Ideal	3.5	1.0	229
Post-bid	Actual	3.2	1.1	234
	Ideal	3.9	0.9	234

It was expected that support for the Games would be at its greatest when perceived community involvement was also at its highest level. A comparison of Tables 10.1 and 10.4, however, shows that while perceived *actual* involvement was at its highest level in the post-bid period, support for the Games was essentially the same in both the pre-bid and post-bid periods. While the expected outcome was not supported by these results, it remains unclear whether perceived involvement has *any* impact on respondents' levels of support for the Games. The major research question explores the possibility of such a relationship.

MAJOR RESEARCH QUESTION

Is there a detectable relationship between perceived actual and ideal levels of host community involvement during the mega-event hosting process and levels of support for hosting such an event?

Having determined respondents' levels of support and perceived levels of actual and ideal involvement at different stages in the hosting process, it was possible to address the major research question. In order to determine whether there is a relationship between perceived levels of community involvement and support for hosting the Olympics, the null hypothesis that there is no relationship was tested statistically. Initially, one-way ANOVA applied to the data yielded the information in Tables 10.5 and 10.6 (see Appendix 9 for complete tables).

Table 10.5: Level of Games Support by Perceived Pre-Bid Host Community Involvement

Mean Level of Support (1 low → 5 high)	Perceived Pre-Bid Involvement							F
	Actual/ Ideal	None at all	Information Sharing	Consultation	Decision- Making	Community Action	Total	
Pre-bid	Actual	4.1	4.4	4.4	4.5	4.7	4.4	1.0
	Ideal	4.6	4.5	4.5	4.4	4.1	4.4	1.1
Post-bid	Actual	4.1	4.2	4.4	4.5	4.6	4.3	1.4
	Ideal	5.0	4.3	4.3	4.4	4.2	4.3	0.9
At Games	Actual	4.6	4.8	4.7	4.7	4.9	4.7	1.4
	Ideal	5.0	4.9	4.8	4.7	4.6	4.7	1.8
<i>n</i>	Actual	32	91	56	33	14	226	
	Ideal	5	29	79	70	46	229	

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 10.6: Level of Games Support by Perceived Post-Bid Host Community Involvement

Mean Level of Support (1 low → 5 high)	Perceived Pre-Bid Involvement							F
	Actual/ Ideal	None at all	Information Sharing	Consultation	Decision- Making	Community Action	Total	
Post-bid:	Actual	3.1*	4.3*	4.3*	4.5*	4.4*	4.3	5.8**
	Ideal	5.0	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.6	4.7	1.2
At Games:	Actual	3.8*	4.7*	4.8*	4.9*	4.7*	4.7	8.1**
	Ideal	5.0	4.1	4.4	4.4	4.1	4.3	0.8
<i>n</i>	Actual	11	49	80	61	33	234	
	Ideal	3	10	67	91	63	234	

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

The ANOVA indicated that only in the case of perceived levels of post-bid involvement were significant differences in levels of support found ($p < .01$). In fact significant differences were evident for both the level of support in the post-bid period ($F=5.8$) and during the Games ($F= 8.1$). To identify specific mean differences the Scheffé multiple comparison was applied to the data with the results also displayed in Table 10.6.

In both instances significant differences were identified between the categories of *none at all* and each of the other four levels of perceived community involvement ($p < .05$). The results indicate that respondents who perceived that *actual* community involvement in the post-bid period was non-existent, had significantly lower levels of support for the Games, during that same period and at the time of the Olympics, than other respondents.

In addition to the series of ANOVA applied to the data, a test for correlation was undertaken between perceived involvement and support for the Olympic Games to assist in determining what type of relationship, if any, exists. The findings are shown in Table 10.7.

Table 10.7: Correlations Between Perceived Community Involvement and Level of Support

Perceived Involvement (1 low → 5 high)		Level of Support (1 low → 5 high)		
Period	Actual/ Ideal	Pre-bid	Post-bid	During Games
Pre-bid	Actual	.124	.159*	.044
	Ideal	-.125	-.079	-.176**
Post-bid	Actual	N/A	.202**	.197**
	Ideal	N/A	-.093	-.108

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

The results show several significant correlations. Firstly, a positive correlation ($p < .05$) exists between *actual* involvement in the pre-bid period and level of support in the post-bid period, indicating that the greater the perceived *actual* involvement pre-bid, the greater the support for the Games in the post-bid period. Conversely, the correlation between *ideal* involvement in the pre-bid period and support at the time of the Games is negative ($p < .01$), indicating that the higher the perceived *ideal* level of involvement pre-bid, the lower the likely level of support at the time of the Games. Therefore, while no significant differences were found between perceived pre-bid involvement and levels of support when ANOVA were applied to the data, non-chance relationships between the two, although slight, were evident when tests for correlation were applied.

In addition, stronger positive correlations were evident between *actual* involvement in the post-bid period and support at both the time of the Games ($p < .01$) and in the post-bid period ($p < .01$). These findings indicate that the greater the perceived *actual* involvement in the post-bid period, the greater the support for the Games during both that same period and at the time of the Games, findings which support the previous ANOVA results.

Finally, respondents were asked directly if they believed increased personal involvement in the planning/hosting process would have affected their overall support for the Games. The results, shown in Table 10.8, indicate that on a scale of 1-5, where 1 indicates *greatly decreased* and 5 indicates *greatly increased*, the average expected effect on level of support was 3.8, which would indicate only a slight increase in support. A finding which is congruent with the results outlined above.

Table 10.8: The Effect of Feeling More Involved on Overall Level of Support

Increased Involvement	Effect on Level of Support (1 greatly decreased → 5 greatly increased)		
	Mean	S.D.	<i>n</i>
Would feeling more involved in the planning/hosting process have affected your level of support?	3.8	0.8	234

Therefore, due to the significant results obtained from both the initial ANOVA and correlations, the null hypothesis that there is no relationship between perceived levels of community involvement and levels of support is not confirmed. A finding that is further verified by the result outlined in Table 10.8.

The remaining questions and analyses further investigate respondents' perceptions concerning community involvement/participation and the Olympic hosting process in general, and seek to determine what factors, if any, influence respondents' support for hosting the Olympics.

QUESTION 1.3

What forms of community participation were/are respondents aware of, which have they utilised and did this affect their level of support?

The subject of community participation was explored in several ways. Firstly, respondents were asked to choose, from a list of different forms of participation, those that they had become aware of over the course of the hosting process and those they had utilised over that period. The results are displayed in Table 10.9.

A total of 90 per cent of the sample suggested that they were aware of at least one form of community participation in the lead up to the Olympics. The results indicate more specifically that *descriptive information* and *community meetings in areas with proposed venues* accounted for nearly two-thirds of all responses. Whereas, the access to *social impact studies* was the form of community participation that respondents mentioned least.

Table 10.9: Forms of Community Participation Aware of and Utilised

Forms of Community Participation	Forms aware of		Forms utilised (attended, read etc)		Participation Rate* %
	% of responses	% of respondents	% of responses	% of respondents	
Public meetings	16.6	31.9	8.5	11.6	25.3
Descriptive information (leaflets, media etc)	39.6	76.2	58.3	78.9	72.5
Community meetings in areas with proposed venues	20.5	39.5	8.0	10.9	19.3
Social impact studies	10.4	20.0	10.6	14.3	50.0
Others	12.9	24.8	14.6	19.7	55.8
	n=404	n=210	n=199	n=147	

* (No. of respondents who utilised a particular form / respondents who were aware of that form of participation)

When respondents were asked which of these forms of participation they had actually utilised, just under three-quarters suggested that they had taken advantage of one or more. The most frequently mentioned form of participation was once again *descriptive information*, which is not surprising considering that the majority of *descriptive information* is provided via the various and readily available forms of print and electronic media. Interestingly, *community meetings in areas with proposed venues*

was mentioned least often and in fact only 19 per cent of those who were aware of these meetings actually attended any. Conversely, half of those people who were aware of *social impact studies* obtained access to them and as a result it was the second most frequently mentioned form of participation.

The major reasons given to explain why respondents had not used the various forms of participation that they were aware of are provided in Table 10.10. The reasons given included respondents believing that they *lived outside the affected area*, which could account for the low participation rate in community meetings, and that they were *too busy*. Indeed the only major extrinsic reason provided by respondents was that there was *no information on how to participate*. Thus it may be concluded that in the majority of cases the ability to utilise those forms of participation that respondents were aware of was not dependent on the actions of event organisers but rather the ability and/or desire of respondents to participate.

Table 10.10: Why Forms of Community Participation Aware of Were Not Utilised

Reasons (top 7) (- for extrinsic reasons)	% of responses	% of respondents
Lived outside affected area	23.0	27.0
Too busy	18.4	21.6
Left it to the organisers/planners	13.8	16.2
Couldn't attend at the time	12.6	14.9
No immediate personal impact	9.2	10.8
No information on how to (-)	6.9	8.1
Wasn't interested initially	3.4	4.1
Not interested	3.4	4.1
	N=87	n=74

In order to determine whether there is a relationship between respondents being aware of or utilising particular forms of participation *and* levels of support for hosting the Olympics, the null hypothesis that there is no relationship was tested statistically. One-way ANOVA applied to the data indicated that significant differences in levels of support were dependent only upon respondents' awareness of *public meetings* ($p < .01$). In fact significant differences were evident for both the level of support at the time of the Games ($F=6.7$) and in the period leading up to the Olympics ($F=8.9$). Findings are shown in Table 10.11 (see Appendix 9- *Q1.3* for complete ANOVA tables).

Table 10.11: Level of Games Support by Public Meeting Awareness/Utilisation

Mean Level of Support (1 low → 5 high)	Public Meeting Awareness/Utilisation				
	Aware of/ Utilised	No	Yes	Total	F
Post-bid	Aware of	4.2**	4.6**	4.3	8.9**
	Utilised	4.6	4.5	4.6	0.0
At Games	Aware of	4.7**	4.9**	4.7	6.7**
	Utilised	4.9	4.8	4.9	2.6
<i>n</i>	Aware of	167	67	234	
	Utilised	53	17	70	

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

The results indicate that respondents *aware of public meetings* in the lead up to the Games (post-bid) displayed significantly higher levels of support during that period and at the time of the Olympics than those who were not ($p < .01$). However, it is interesting to note that while *awareness of public meetings* did affect support, actually *utilising* or *attending* these meetings did not, as the results displayed in Table 10.11 show. It may be concluded from these findings that the simple knowledge or reassurance that there is an opportunity for community participation/input in this particular type of forum is, in general, of greater importance to respondents than actually attending such meetings themselves.

QUESTION 1.4

Does the number of events attended or hoped to attend, by members of the host public, affect support for the Olympic Games?

As attending activities related to the event theme may also be considered a form of community participation, respondents were asked how many events they had or would attend during the course of the Olympics. Table 10.12 indicates that the average (2.2) number of events attended was approximately between *one and four*.

Table 10.12: Number of Events Attended During the Games

Number of Events Attended				Mean	S.D.	n
(1) None %	(2) 1 → 4 %	(3) 5 → 9 %	(4) 10 + %			
13.2	62.4	19.7	4.7	2.2	0.7	234

However, one-way ANOVA produced using this data indicated that respondents' support at the time of the Games (the only applicable stage) was not dependent upon the number of events attended (see Appendix 9 – *Q1.4* for a complete table).

QUESTION 1.5

What type of contribution has the host public provided throughout the hosting process?

Firstly, respondents were asked if they believed they had made any contribution during the hosting process of the Games. As Table 10.13 indicates, approximately three-quarters of respondents were of the belief that they *had not* contributed in any way.

Table 10.13: Respondents' Perceived Contribution Throughout the Hosting Process

Respondent Contribution	No %	Yes %	n
Did respondents believe they contributed during the hosting process?	72.2	27.8	234

As outlined in Table 10.14, of those respondents who believed that they had contributed to the hosting of the Games in some way ($n=66$), over one third suggested that their contribution was either directly related to *work* or from being an Olympic *volunteer*. The top five responses accounted for approximately two thirds of total responses and included only one form of contribution that might be considered passive in nature, that being generally *supportive*.

Table 10.14: Methods of Contribution

Method of contribution (top 5)		
(+ active; - passive)	% of responses	% of respondents
Through work (+)	22.7	30.3
Volunteer (+)	13.6	18.2
Supportive (-)	8.0	10.6
Worked with host program (+)	6.8	9.1
Going to games (+)	5.7	7.6
Assisting visitors (+)	5.7	7.6
	<i>N</i> =88	<i>n</i> =66

QUESTION 1.6

Which Olympic related issues arising during the hosting process are the host public most concerned about and is there a relationship with levels of support shown?

Respondents were asked to rank a list of seven generic issues relating to the hosting of the Olympic Games from 1 most important to 7 least important. Results, displayed in Table 10.15, show that respondents in general considered *enjoying the event* (mean = 3.4) to be of greatest concern. The next most important issues included the immediate *impact on lifestyle*, *cost of infrastructure*, which with dual modes (2,6) was an issue that appeared to divide opinion, and the *efficient use of facilities after the event*. Finally, respondents considered *ticket availability and affordability*, *community involvement in planning* and *welfare issues* to be of least concern.

Table 10.15: Ranking of Olympic Related Issues

Olympics Related Issues	Perceived Importance (1 most important → 7 least important)	
	Mean	S.D.
Enjoying the event	3.4	2.0
Impact on lifestyle	3.7	2.1
Cost of infrastructure	3.8	2.0
Efficient use of facilities after the event	3.8	1.9
Ticket availability and affordability	4.1	1.9
Community involvement in planning	4.2	1.8
Welfare issues <i>n</i> =234	5.2	3.9

Whilst it has been previously established that respondents believed in general that greater community involvement in the planning/hosting process would have been ideal, these findings would seem to indicate that there were several other issues that respondents considered to be of greater concern. However it should be noted that, as the survey was conducted in the post-planning period, responses may have reflected an attitude of *making the best of the situation provided*, and as such the findings may have differed considerably if this particular question had been asked during the bid or planning periods.

Tests for correlation were conducted to determine whether a relationship exists between the perceived importance that respondents placed on specific Olympic related issues and levels of support for the Olympics at different times in the hosting process. Several correlations were significant as Table 10.16 illustrates (for a full table of correlations see Q1.6 in Appendix 9). Both *cost of infrastructure* and *enjoying the event* were found to be significantly correlated to levels of support at each stage in the hosting process. More specifically, *cost of infrastructure* was positively correlated at each stage ($p < .01$), indicating that support for the Games increased as the perceived importance of costs decreased (due to the ranking scale 1 highest to 7 lowest). Conversely *enjoying the event* was negatively correlated in each case ($p < .05$), implying that the more important *enjoying the event* is considered, the higher the level of support. A positive correlation exists between *impact on lifestyle* and level of support in the period leading up to the Games ($p < .05$), suggesting that the lower the perceived importance for *impacts on lifestyle*, the higher the level of support in the post-bid period.

Table 10.16: Correlations Between Perceived Importance of Olympic Issues and Support

Olympics Related Issues (1 most important → 7 least important)	Level of Support (1 low → 5 high)		
	Pre-bid	Post-bid	During Games
Impact on lifestyle	.086	.164*	.059
Community involvement in planning	-.144*	-.140*	-.021
Cost of infrastructure	.229**	.159**	.216**
Enjoying the event	-.134*	-.133*	-.160*

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

In addition, *community involvement in planning* is negatively correlated to both the level of support at the time of the bid and the period leading up to the Games ($p < .05$). This implies that those respondents who placed greater importance on community involvement were more likely to have shown greater support during these periods in the hosting process. A result, which is somewhat surprising considering that previous results have identified gaps between *perceived* and *ideal* levels of support in both the pre-bid and post-bid periods and as such dissatisfaction with the actual levels of involvement might have been expected.

QUESTION 1.7

What were/should be the major reasons for hosting the Olympic Games?

Open-ended questions were used to obtain respondents' perceptions concerning what they believed *were* the major reasons behind Atlanta's bid to host the 1996 Olympics. Table 10.17 displays the most common responses to this question. Of those respondents who provided one or more reasons ($n=226$), the top five reasons accounted for approximately one half of total responses. The most popular response by far related to the *economic* benefits that the Games would provide. Other major reasons included the *showing Atlanta is an international city*, the international *recognition* and *exposure* that it would provide. While others suggested that it was simply due to the desire of *Billy Payne and Andrew Young*, two of the major figures in the bid and organising committees. Once again it should be noted, however, that if responses were grouped less strictly, the results would have indicated that *exposure* in general (9.7%) would have been the second most popular response. In total, the top ten responses accounted for just over three-quarters of total responses.

In contrast, respondents were then asked to provide what they believed *should be* the major reasons or benefits to be gained in bidding for such an event. Of those respondents who provided one or more reasons ($n=226$), the top five reasons accounted for approximately one third of total responses. The most popular response was once again the *economic* benefits that the Games would afford the city and region. In this instance, the other major reasons included *benefiting the city*, *international exposure*, *promoting world peace* and the fact that it is an *honour to host the Olympics*. As with

the *actual* reasons as perceived by respondents, *exposure* in general (8.1%), if grouped as such, would have been the second most popular response. In total, the top ten responses accounted for approximately two thirds of total responses.

Table 10.17: Perceived Reasons to Bid for an Event such as the Olympics

Actual reasons (top 10)	% of responses	Ideal reasons (top 10)	% of responses
Economic	24.8	Economic	14.0
Show Atlanta is International city	8.7	Benefit city	6.6
International recognition	5.4	International exposure	4.8
International exposure	5.2	Promote world peace	4.8
Billy Payne/Andrew Young	5.2	Honour to host Olympics	4.3
Exposure for Atlanta	4.5	International recognition	3.8
Pride in city	3.7	Facilities	3.8
Show world the South	3.7	Infrastructure	3.6
Honour to host Olympics	3.5	Community unity/develop	3.6
Promote city	3.2	Exposure for Atlanta	3.3
	<i>n</i> =404		<i>n</i> =392

The most notable differences between what respondents perceived *were* and *should* be the major reasons for hosting the Olympics included *benefit city* which moved up from the fifteenth most popular response in the first part of the question. In addition, *promoting world peace* was not mentioned at all previously, while *facilities* and *community unity/development* moved up from sixteenth and twenty-eighth positions respectively. These findings would appear to suggest that, in general, respondents would like to have seen a greater emphasis placed on ensuring long-term benefits for the host city/region and its residents than was perceived to be the actual case.

QUESTION 1.8

What importance does the host public place on community involvement and the associated benefits/costs of hosting the Olympic Games?

Respondents were presented with a selection of nine statements concerning a variety of topics related to the perceived importance of community involvement and the associated benefits/costs of hosting the Olympic Games. For each statement, respondents were asked to provide their level of agreement on a scale of 1-5, where 1 indicates *strongly disagree* and 5 indicates *strongly agree*.

Table 10.18, suggests that respondents on average (4.0) moderately agreed that *community involvement helps organisers to avoid or plan for decisions that might otherwise cause conflict, ensuring local input (if heeded) helps to legitimise the decision-making process* and that *community involvement leads to better planning and decision making* (3.8). These findings appear to support Drake's (1991:134) proposed advantages associated with a participatory approach to planning (see Chapter 3). However, respondents only slightly agreed (3.4) with the statements that *organisers made a serious effort to incorporate the host community into the planning process* and that *organisers were successful in their efforts to do so* (3.5).

Table 10.18: Agree/Disagree Statements Concerning Research Q1.8

Statements Concerning Olympics	Level of Agreement (1 strongly disagree → 5 strongly agree)		
	Mean	S.D.	n
Organisers made an effort to incorporate the host community into the planning process	3.4	1.2	234
The benefits from hosting the Games are greater than the costs	4.1	1.1	234
Community involvement doesn't lead to better planning & decision making for mega-events	2.2	1.2	234
Community involvement helps organisers to avoid or plan for decisions that might otherwise cause conflict	4.0	1.0	234
Services for disabled persons have improved as a result of hosting the Olympics	3.5	0.9	234
Community/welfare groups played a major role in the planning process	3.0	1.1	234
Organisers successfully incorporated the host community into the planning process	3.5	2.3	234
I would have liked to have felt more involved in the planning process	3.4	1.0	234
Ensuring local input (if heeded) helps to legitimise the decision making process	4.0	0.8	234

While there was slight agreement that *services for disabled persons had been improved* as a result of hosting the Games (3.5), respondents remained neutral when presented with the statement that *community/welfare groups had played a major role in the planning process* (3.0). In addition, respondents only slightly agreed (3.4) with the statement suggesting that *they would like increased involvement in the planning*

process. Finally, there was moderate agreement (4.1) to the statement that overall the benefits gained from hosting the Olympics are greater than the costs associated with it.

Overall, it may be concluded from these results that, while respondents believed in the virtues of community involvement, the knowledge or reassurance that there was an opportunity to become involved was more important than actually doing so. These findings are congruent with those of Q1.3. In addition, it would appear that, in general, respondents believed the benefits associated with hosting the Olympics outweighed any shortcomings experienced in incorporating the host community into the planning/hosting process. However, this might not have been the case if respondents had believed that organisers had not made an effort to do so.

QUESTION 1.9

Is there a detectable relationship between demographic characteristics of respondents and levels of public support, perceived community involvement or other key variables?

In order to determine whether there are any relationships between the various demographic characteristics of respondents and levels of support, perceived community involvement or other key variables, the null hypothesis that there are no relationships was tested statistically.

Initially, one-way ANOVA were produced using data from the variables *years lived in the state, region of residence, income, occupation, age, gender* and levels of *support* and *perceived involvement*. However, significant differences in levels of support were found to only be dependent upon respondents' *age* and, as Table 10.19 shows, were evident only in the period leading up to the Games ($F=3.5$, $p<.05$) (see Appendix 9- Q1.9 for complete tables of ANOVA applied to support and involvement data).

To identify specific mean differences the Scheffé multiple comparison was applied, however, as the results in Table 10.19 show, no significant differences were

identified between mean levels of support in the period leading up to the games for individual age categories.

Table 10.19: Level of Games Support by Age

Mean Level of Support (1 low → 5 high)	Age Categories					
	18 → 29	30 → 39	40 → 49	50 +	Total	F
Pre-bid	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.2	4.4	0.7
Post-bid	4.1	4.2	4.5	4.5	4.3	3.5*
During Games	4.6	4.8	4.8	4.7	4.7	0.8
n	64	70	63	37	234	

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

In addition, one-way ANOVA were applied between data for demographic characteristics of respondents and selected key variables, with the results displayed in Table 10.20. Results highlighted that significant differences in the *number of events attended* ($F=6.3$, $p < .01$) and *agreement with statement 4²⁰* ($F=2.8$, $p < .05$) were dependent upon respondents' *income*. In addition, while the *perceived importance of ticket availability and affordability* was found to be significantly different between *age categories* ($F=3.1$, $p < .05$), the *perceived importance of welfare issues* was significantly different between *men and women* ($F=7.7$, $p < .01$).

To identify specific mean differences the Scheffé multiple comparison was applied. The Scheffé comparisons identified that respondents with a household *income* in the \$75,000+ category attended significantly more events than those in the \$25,000-\$49,999 and \$50,000-\$74,999 categories ($p < .05$), however, there was no significant difference in level of *agreement with statement 4*. In addition, it was found that there were no significant differences in *perceived importance of ticket availability and affordability* between *age categories*. However, results did indicate a significant difference in the *perceived importance of welfare issues* by *gender*, and in fact women on average considered it to be more a important issue than men did ($p < .01$).

²⁰ Statement 4- Community involvement helps organisers to avoid or plan for decisions that might otherwise cause conflict.

Table 10.20: Key Variables by Demographic Characteristics

Variables	Demographic Categories					
Income	<\$25,000	\$25,000- \$49,999	\$50,000- \$74,999	\$75,000+	Total	F
Number of events attended (1 none → 4 ten+)						
Mean	1.9	2.0*	2.0*	2.4*	2.2	6.3**
Statement 4 concerning Olympics (1 strongly disagree → 5 strongly agree)						
Mean	4.4	4.2	3.7	4.0	4.0	2.8*
n	8	58	67	101	234	
Age	18 → 29	30 → 39	40 → 49	50+	Total	F
Ticket availability and affordability (1 most important → 7 least important)						
Mean	4.0	4.0	4.7	3.6	4.1	3.1*
n	64	70	63	37	234	
Gender	Male		Female		Total	F
Welfare issues (1 most important → 7 least important)						
Mean	5.3**		4.6**		5.0	7.7**
n	124		110		234	

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Finally, a test for correlation was undertaken between levels of Games support, perceived community involvement, selected key variables and the demographic characteristics of income and age. Those correlations determined to be of a significant nature are outlined in Table 10.21 (for complete tables of support/involvement and income/age correlations see *Q1.9* in Appendix 9).

The results suggest that the age of respondents is positively correlated with both the *level of support in the period leading up to the Games* and the ($p < .01$) and perceived importance of the possible *impacts on lifestyle* ($p < .05$). This implies that while support for the Games in this period increases with the age of respondents, the perceived importance of impacts on lifestyle as an issue decreases (due to ranking of 1 most important to 7 least important). With *once-in-a-lifetime opportunity* (6.2%) the third most popular reason given for level of support at the time of the Games (*Q1.1*), it

may be argued that this sentiment is perhaps more tangible for the older members of the community. As such this may positively influence their levels of support and willingness to accept possible impacts to lifestyle during the event.

Table 10.21: Correlations Between Key Variables and Income/Age

Variables	Income	Age
Post-bid support (1 low → 5 high)	.088	.200**
Number of events attended (1 none → 4 ten+)	.257**	-.074
Importance of impact on lifestyle (1 most important → 7 least important)	.100	.132*

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

However, the strongest correlation was that found between the *number of events attended* and *income* of respondents ($r = .257$, $p < .01$). This result, which is perhaps to be expected, indicates that the number of events attended increases with the household income of the respondent. The positive correlation reinforces the result from the ANOVA applied previously in Q1.9 which showed that respondents with higher disposable incomes attended significantly more events than those with less.

Therefore it may be argued that due to the significant results obtained from the various ANOVA and correlations, the null hypothesis that there is no relationship between demographic characteristics of respondents, levels of support, perceived community involvement or other selected key variables, is not confirmed.

SUMMARY

As Chapter 10 highlights, the analysis of results from the Atlanta *host public* survey provides a general, yet preliminary, insight into the perceptions of the host public concerning many facets of the Olympic hosting process. Of particular interest were the perceived *actual* and *optimal* levels of community involvement at different stages in Olympic hosting process, an area of study previously void of empirical research, and their impacts upon respondents' levels of support for hosting the Games. Those findings considered most noteworthy are reiterated below.

Whilst host public support for the Games remained relatively consistent, and at a high level, throughout the hosting process, with only a slight rise at the time of the Games, the same consistency was not found with regard to perceived levels of community involvement. In fact the findings suggested that while respondents perceived *actual* community involvement in the post-bid period was approaching the *ideal* level, greater involvement in the pre-bid period would have been desirable.

Furthermore, a relationship was detected between respondents' perceived levels of community involvement and levels of support for the Games. More specifically, results indicated that respondents who perceived that *actual* community involvement in the post-bid period was non-existent, had significantly lower levels of support for the Games, during that same period and at the time of the Olympics, than other respondents. However, whilst respondents believed, in general, that greater community involvement in the planning/hosting process would have been ideal, there were several other issues that they considered to be of greater concern (see Table 10.15).

Overall, results indicate that while respondents believed in the virtues of community involvement, the knowledge or reassurance that there was *an opportunity* to become involved was more important than actually doing so. In any case, it appears that, in general, respondents believed the benefits associated with hosting the Olympics outweighed any shortcomings experienced in incorporating the host community into the planning/hosting process. However, respondents would have preferred a greater emphasis placed on ensuring long-term benefits for the host city/region and its residents than was perceived to be the actual case.

CHAPTER 11: SYDNEY REGION RESULTS AND ANALYSES

INTRODUCTION

As outlined in Chapter 9, after all efforts were made to maximise the response rate from all groups in the Sydney region, a low rate of return was forthcoming from both the *community/welfare groups* and *bid/organising committees*. Consequently, this chapter focuses primarily on the results obtained from the *host public* survey and discusses the findings with regard to the major and subsidiary research questions. However, while only small samples were drawn from *community/welfare groups* and *bid/organising committees*, broad qualitative comparisons with results obtained from the *host public* survey will also be made. A statistical summary of the full results from the three Sydney samples are contained in Appendices 10, 12 and 13.

It was established in Chapter 9 that there were no significant differences between the opinions of weighted and non-weighted age categories for the Sydney sample (see Appendix 5). Nonetheless it is acknowledged that an examination of the Sydney host public sample by age category highlighted some noticeable differences (see Table 9.2) and, as such, due care was taken when comparisons, based upon age, were made.

HOST PUBLIC SURVEY

QUESTION 1.1

What are the levels of support at different stages in the hosting process and reasons for any changes in the level of support?

As with the analysis of the Atlanta host public survey, in order to address the major research question it was necessary to answer several subsidiary questions. Firstly, respondents' levels of support for the Olympics were examined at three stages in the hosting process. These stages were: at the time of the survey (2½ years prior to the Games); when Sydney was preparing to bid for the right to host the Games (pre-bid); and, in the period of time between winning the right to host *and* the survey itself (post-bid). The findings are shown in Table 11.1.

Table 11.1: Levels of Support at Different Stages in the Hosting Process

Stages in the Hosting Process	Level of Support (1 very unsupportive → 5 very supportive)		
	Mean	S.D.	n
Pre-bid	3.9	1.4	246
Post-bid	3.7	1.4	246
During the survey	3.8	1.4	246

On a scale of 1-5, where 1 indicates *very unsupportive* and 5 indicates *very supportive*, respondents have, on average, been *somewhat supportive* of the Games thus far. While the level of support has not altered dramatically over the course of the hosting process the greatest support was experienced, not surprisingly for this group, when Sydney won the right to host the Games. This is perhaps lower than expected, however, with only approximately two-thirds of respondents stating that they were either *somewhat* or *very supportive* of Sydney hosting the 2000 Olympics during the pre-bid stage. Particularly considering, as suggested in Chapter 10, the feeling of euphoria within the community often associated with a successful bid for a prestigious event such as the Olympics.

The specific *reasons* for the level of support displayed during the survey and reasons for any *change* in support over the hosting process thus far were sought with the results outlined in Tables 11.2 and 11.3. For those respondents who provided one or more reasons for their level of support during the survey ($n=222$), the top five reasons accounted for just over one third of total responses. The major reasons included the boost to the *tourism* industry that the event would provide, the *high cost* of the Games, the *economic benefits*, the belief that *efforts/money could be better utilised* and respondents' *pride in city*.

While there were no negative responses in the top ten *reasons for present support* at the time of the survey in Atlanta, the generally lower levels of support among the Sydney respondents is reflected by the fact that two of the top five reasons provided are negative and in fact account for some 15.1 per cent of total responses. It should be

noted, however, that if grouped less strictly, this combined figure is only slightly less than *economic benefits* in general (economic benefits/increased tourism).

Table 11.2: Reasons for Level of Support During the Survey

Reasons for level of support (top 10)		
(- negative reasons)	% of responses	% of respondents
Increased tourism	8.8	12.6
High cost/can't afford (-)	8.2	11.7
Economic Benefits	7.5	10.8
Efforts/money could be better utilised (-)	6.9	9.9
Pride in city	5.6	8.1
International attention/exposure	5.3	7.7
Good for Sydney and Australia	5.3	7.7
Create jobs	4.4	6.3
Interested in sport	3.8	5.4
Improved facilities	3.4	5.0
	<i>n</i> =319	<i>n</i> =222

Table 11.3 outlines the top ten reasons for any *change* in the level of support over the course of the Olympic hosting process thus far. Results indicate that, for those respondents who provided one or more reasons for any change in support (*n*= 74), the top five reasons account for over one third of total responses. Only two of the top ten reasons were for an *increase* in support and they were the fact that the Games were now *fait accompli* and respondents had a *better understanding of benefits*. Conversely, the major reasons for a *decrease* in the level of support included *high costs/can't afford*, *stupid political games*, the belief that *infrastructure won't cope* and the fact that the *euphoria surrounding the bid has subsided*.

Table 11.3: Reasons for Any Change in Support During the Hosting Process

Reasons for any change in level of support (top 10)	% of responses	% of respondents
Reasons for increase in support:		
Fait accompli	7.6	9.5
Better understanding of benefits	5.4	6.8
Reasons for decrease in support:		
High costs/can't afford	10.9	13.5
Stupid political games	6.5	8.1
Infrastructure won't cope	6.5	8.1
Euphoria surrounding bid has subsided	6.5	8.1
Expensive/limited availability of ticket	4.3	5.4
Escalating costs	4.3	5.4
Taxes created	4.3	5.4
Concerned we won't be ready	4.3	5.4
	<i>n</i> =92	<i>n</i> =74

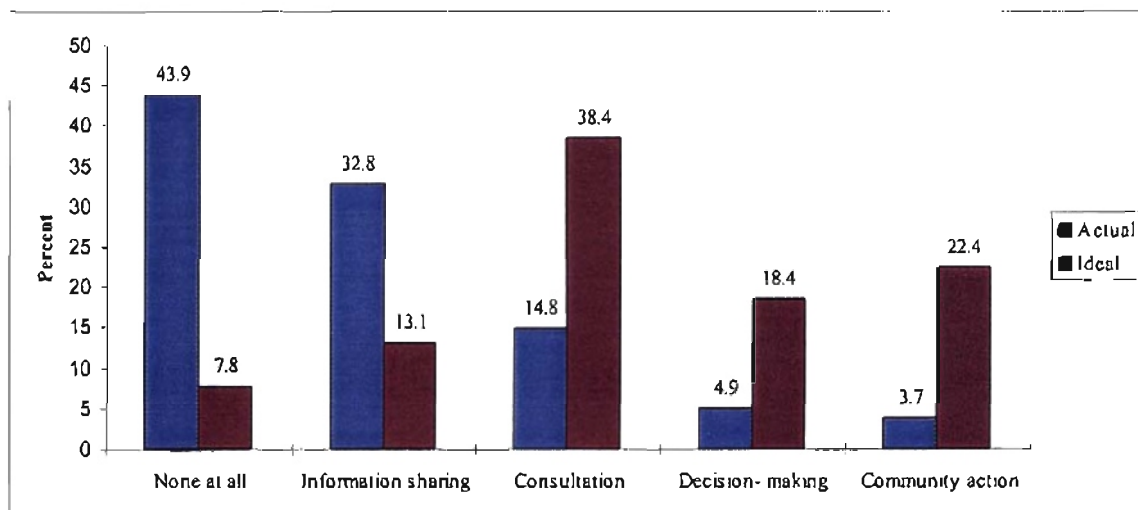
QUESTION 1.2

What are perceived to be the actual and ideal levels of involvement at different stages in the Olympic hosting process?

In order to determine respondents' perceptions regarding actual and ideal levels of community involvement both pre-bid and post-bid, respondents were asked to choose between five levels of community involvement ranging from 1 *none at all* to 5 *community action* in each category.

As outlined in Figure 11.1, just under one half of respondents suggested that the *actual* level of community involvement when Sydney was bidding for the right to host the Games could be regarded as *none at all*, while approximately one third considered it to be at more of an *information sharing* level. With regard to the *ideal* levels of community involvement during this period, just over one half of respondents selected either *consultation* or *decision-making*. Therefore, it is evident that there is extensive gap between perceived and ideal levels of community involvement in the pre-bid period as perceived by respondents.

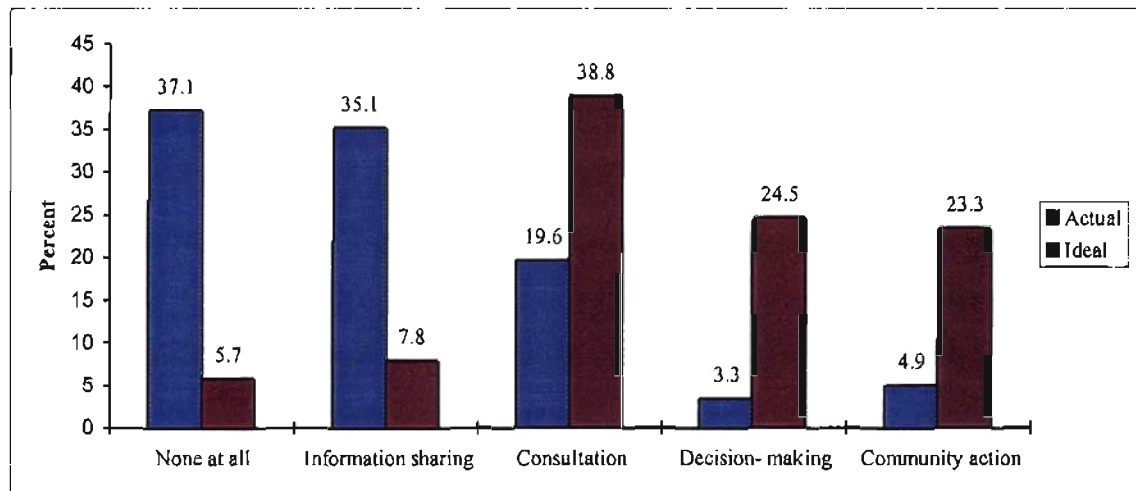
Figure 11.1: Perceived Community Involvement Pre-Bid



As Figure 11.2 indicates, in the period leading up to the survey (at approximately the mid-point in Olympic preparations), respondents detected a slight increase in the levels of community involvement. While not as dramatic as that experienced by the Atlanta host public, 55 per cent of respondents *perceived*

involvement to be at either the *information sharing* or *consultation* level in the post-bid period as opposed to 48 per cent leading up to the bid. However, *none at all* was still the most popular response, selected by over one third of respondents. With regard to *ideal* levels of involvement during this period, approximately two thirds of respondents suggested either *consultation* or *decision-making*.

Figure 11.2: Perceived Community Involvement Post-Bid



As respondents' perceived *actual* levels of community involvement were substantially lower than the *ideal* levels, the findings suggest that there exists a general belief on the behalf of Sydney host public respondents that greater involvement in both the pre-bid and post-bid periods would have been desirable. This observation can be presented more succinctly by providing the mean scores for the levels of involvement in each period and, as suggested in Chapter 10, presenting the results in this format lends itself to undertaking more detailed statistical analysis later in the chapter.

As Table 11.4 shows, the gap between perceived *actual* and *ideal* levels of community involvement was similar in both the pre-bid and post-bid periods. In fact the average *actual* level of community involvement, as perceived by respondents, remained at the *information sharing* level over the course of the hosting process thus far, while the *ideal* level of involvement in both the pre and post-bid periods was considered to be between *consultation* and *decision-making*.

Table 11.4: Perceived Levels of Community Involvement Pre and Post-Bid

Bid Stages	Level of Community Involvement (1 none at all → 5 community action)			
	Actual/Ideal	Mean	S.D.	<i>n</i>
Pre-bid	Actual	1.9	1.1	244
	Ideal	3.3	1.2	245
Post-bid	Actual	2.0	1.1	245
	Ideal	3.5	1.1	245

The results from both *Q1.1* and *Q1.2* would appear to indicate that while respondents did believe that increased community involvement would have been ideal, the low levels of perceived *actual* involvement did not deter respondents from being generally supportive of hosting the Games. As with the Atlanta host public survey, the existence of a relationship, between levels of perceived involvement and support for the Games, remains unclear based upon these preliminary findings. The major research addresses the possibility of such a relationship.

MAJOR RESEARCH QUESTION

Is there a detectable relationship between perceived actual and ideal levels of host community involvement during the mega-event hosting process and levels of support for hosting such an event?

Whilst *ideal* levels of community involvement, were similar for both the Sydney and Atlanta surveys, the *actual* levels, both pre-bid and post-bid, were substantially lower for the Sydney host public survey, as were the levels of support. In order to determine if there is a relationship between these perceived levels of community involvement and support for hosting the Olympics, the null hypothesis that there is no relationship was tested statistically. Initially, one-way ANOVA applied to the data yielded the information in Tables 11.5 and 11.6 (see Appendix 11 for complete tables).

Table 11.5: Level of Games Support by Pre-Bid Involvement

Mean Level of Support (1 low → 5 high)	Perceived Pre-Bid Involvement							F
	Actual/ Ideal	None at all	Information Sharing	Consultation	Decision- Making	Community Action	Total	
Pre-bid	Actual	3.4*	4.3*	4.3*	4.2	4.9	3.9	6.4**
	Ideal	3.4	4.2	4.1	3.8	3.8	3.9	1.6
Post-bid	Actual	3.1*	4.1*	4.0*	3.8	4.6	3.7	7.3**
	Ideal	3.1	3.9	3.9	3.5	3.5	3.7	1.7
At the survey	Actual	3.2*	4.2*	4.1*	3.8	4.8	3.8	8.3**
	Ideal	3.3	4.0	3.9	3.5	3.7	3.8	1.3
<i>n</i>	Actual	107	80	36	12	9	244	
	Ideal	19	32	94	45	55	245	

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

The ANOVA showed that only in the case of *ideal* levels of pre-bid involvement were no significant differences in levels of support found for any of the stages in the hosting process. For *actual* pre-bid involvement, significant differences were evident for support during the survey ($F = 8.3$, $p < .01$), in the pre-bid period ($F = 6.4$, $p < .01$) and in the post-bid period ($F = 7.3$, $p < .01$).

Table 11.6: Level of Games Support by Post-Bid Involvement

Level of Support (Scale 1-5)	Perceived Post-Bid Involvement							F
	Actual/ Ideal	None at all (8)	Information Sharing (8)	Consultation (8)	Decision- Making (8)	Community Action (8)	Total	
Post-bid	Actual	3.1*	3.9*	3.8	5.0*	4.5*	3.7	7.7**
	Ideal	2.9	3.4	4.0	3.7	3.5	3.7	2.5*
At the survey	Actual	3.2*	4.1*	3.8	5.0*	4.8*	3.8	8.7**
	Ideal	3.4	3.5	4.0	3.8	3.6	3.8	1.2
<i>n</i>	Actual	91	86	48	8	12	245	
	Ideal	14	19	95	60	57	245	

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Results also demonstrated that, for perceived *actual post-bid involvement*, significant differences were detected for support at the time of the survey ($F = 8.7$, $p < .01$) and in the post-bid period ($F = 7.7$, $p < .01$). Finally, significant differences in level

of support were found in the post-bid period, depending on respondents' *ideal* level of post-bid involvement ($F= 2.5, p< .05$).

To identify specific mean differences the Scheffé multiple comparison was applied to the data with the results also displayed in Tables 11.5 and 11.6. For *actual* pre-bid involvement, significant differences in levels of support were identified between the categories of *none at all*, *information sharing* and *consultation* at each stage in the hosting process ($p< .05$). In addition, results showed significant differences in levels of support between the categories of *none at all*, *information sharing*, *decision-making* and *community action* ($p< .05$) for *actual* post-bid involvement. However, none were found between categories of *ideal* post-bid involvement. The results imply that respondents who perceived *actual* community involvement to be *non-existent* in either the pre-bid or post-bid period, had significantly lower levels of support for the Games during those same periods than the majority of other respondents.

In addition to the series of ANOVA applied to the data, a test for correlation was undertaken between perceived involvement and support for the Olympics to better understand the apparent relationship. The findings are shown in Table 11.7.

Table 11.7: Correlations Between Perceived Involvement and Level of Support

Perceived Involvement (1 low → 5 high)		Level of Support (1 low → 5 high)		
Period	Actual/Ideal	Pre-bid	Post-bid	During Survey
Pre-bid	Actual	.265**	.257**	.271**
	Ideal	-.021	-.018	-.010
Post-bid	Actual	N/A	.288**	.295**
	Ideal	N/A	.004	-.021

* $p< .05$; ** $p< .01$

The results show several significant correlations. Firstly, a positive correlation ($p< .01$) exists between *actual* involvement in the pre-bid period and respondents' level of support at each of the three stages in the Olympic hosting process, indicating that the greater the perceived *actual* pre-bid involvement, the greater the support for the Games

in each of the corresponding stages. In addition, a positive correlation is evident between *actual* involvement in the post-bid period and both support at the time of the survey ($p < .01$), and in the post-bid period ($p < .01$), indicating that the greater the perceived *actual* post-bid involvement, the greater the support for the Games at both the time of the survey and in the post-bid period. These findings support the previous ANOVA results.

Finally, respondents were asked to what degree they believed increased personal involvement in the planning/hosting process would affect their overall support for the Games. The results, shown in Table 11.8, indicate that on a scale of 1-5, where 1 indicates *greatly decreased* and 5 indicates *greatly increased*, the average expected effect on level of support was 3.7, which would indicate only a slight to moderate increase as a result of increased involvement. A finding which, based on the results outlined above, is perhaps not as strong as expected.

Table 11.8: The Effect of Feeling More Involved on Overall Level of Support

Increased Involvement	Effect on Level of Support (1 greatly decreased → 5 greatly increased)		
	Mean	S.D.	<i>n</i>
Would feeling more involved in the planning/hosting process have affected your level of support?	3.7	0.8	242

Therefore, due to the significant results obtained from both the initial ANOVA and correlations, the null hypothesis that there is no relationship between perceived levels of community involvement and levels of support is not confirmed. A finding that in turn is supported by the result outlined in Table 11.8.

QUESTION 1.3

What forms of community participation were/are respondents aware of, which have they utilised and did this affect their level of support?

The subject of community participation was explored in several ways. Firstly, respondents were asked to choose from a list of different forms of participation, those that they had been made aware of over the course of the hosting process, thus far, and those they had utilised over that period. The results are displayed in Table 11.9.

A total of 71 per cent of respondents ($n=174$), substantially less than in Atlanta, suggested that they were aware of at least one form of community participation during the hosting process thus far. As in Atlanta, *descriptive information* was the form of participation respondents were most frequently aware of and in conjunction with access to *social impact studies* accounted for over two-thirds of all responses. Whereas, *public meetings* concerning possible Olympic impacts was the least frequently mentioned form of participation.

Table 11.9: Forms of Community Participation Aware of and Utilised

Forms of Community Participation	Forms aware of		Forms utilised (attended, read etc)		Participation Rate* %
	% of responses	% of respondents	% of responses	% of respondents	
Public meetings	9.1	14.9	3.3	4.3	23.1
Descriptive information (leaflets, media etc)	50.0	82.2	65.8	85.8	84.6
Community meetings in areas with proposed venues	12.6	20.7	6.5	8.5	33.3
Social impact studies	20.3	33.3	15.2	19.9	48.3
Others	8.0	13.2	9.2	12.1	73.9
	$n=286$	$n=174$	$n=184$	$n=141$	

* (No. of respondents who utilised a particular form / respondents who were aware of that particular form)

When respondents were asked, which forms of participation they had actually utilised, just over one half suggested that they had taken advantage of one or more. The most frequently mentioned form of participation, was once again *descriptive information*, which is to be expected considering the various and readily available forms of print and electronic media that provide much of this type of information. In addition, approximately one half of those respondents aware of *social impact studies* obtained access to them and as a result this particular form of community participation had the second highest participation rate of those provided.

While the Atlanta survey sought to determine the general reasons for respondents *not* taking advantage of the forms of participation aware of, the Sydney survey focused on the reasons *for* utilising those forms respondents were aware of. As

outlined in Table 11.10, of the reasons given to explain why forms of participation aware of *were* utilised ($n=108$), the top five accounted for over three-quarters of total responses. Of these, the most common responses were *to keep informed*, which accounted for over one-quarter of total responses, and *general interest* on behalf of respondents. Other popular reasons given were that it was *convenient* to do so, the opportunity was *readily available* and that it was the *only information available*.

Table 11.10: Why Forms of Community Participation Aware of Were Utilised

Reasons (top 10)	% of responses	% of respondents
To keep informed	28.5	32.4
Interested	18.7	21.3
Convenient	12.2	13.9
Readily available	12.2	13.9
Only information available	7.3	8.3
Interested in social impacts	5.7	6.5
Through work	2.4	2.8
Made aware in newspaper	2.4	2.8
Entertaining	2.4	2.8
Interested in infrastructure for future	1.6	1.9
Time restrictions	1.6	1.9
	$n=123$	$n=108$

In order to determine whether there is a relationship between respondents being aware of or utilising particular forms of participation *and* levels of support for hosting the Olympics, the null hypothesis that there is no relationship was tested statistically. One-way ANOVA applied to the data indicated that significant differences in levels of support were dependent *only upon* respondents' *awareness of public meetings* ($p < .05$) and *descriptive information* ($p < .05$). These findings are shown in Table 11.11 (see Q1.3 in Appendix 11 for complete tables).

In the case of *public meeting awareness*, significant differences in levels of support were evident in both the pre-bid period ($F=4.7$) and at the time of the survey ($F=4.1$). For *descriptive information*, significant differences in levels of support were apparent at the time of the survey ($F=4.4$), and in both the pre-bid ($F=6.2$) and post-bid periods ($F=4.9$).

Table 11.11: Level of Games Support by Awareness/Utilisation of Public Meetings and Descriptive Information

Mean Level of Support (1 low → 5 high)	Public Meeting Awareness/Utilisation				
	Aware of/ Utilised	No	Yes	Total	F
Pre-bid	Aware of	3.9*	4.5*	4.3	4.7*
	Utilised	4.5	4.7	4.5	0.3
Post-bid	Aware of	3.6	4.2	3.7	3.5
	Utilised	4.2	4.0	4.2	0.1
At the survey	Aware of	3.7*	4.3*	4.7	4.1*
	Utilised	4.2	4.7	4.3	1.2
N	Aware of	220	26	246	
	Utilised	20	6	26	
Mean Level of Support (1 low → 5 high)	Descriptive Information Awareness/Utilisation				
	Aware of/ Utilised	No	Yes	Total	F
Pre-bid	Aware of	3.7*	4.1*	3.9	6.2*
	Utilised	3.8	4.2	4.1	1.4
Post-bid	Aware of	3.4*	3.8*	3.7	4.9*
	Utilised	3.6	3.9	3.8	0.8
At the survey	Aware of	3.5*	3.9*	3.8	4.4*
	Utilised	3.7	4.0	3.9	0.9
N	Aware of	103	143	246	
	Utilised	22	121	143	

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Due to the dichotomous nature of the independent variable, post hoc tests were not required. However, the specific means for the relevant stages in the hosting process are also outlined in Table 11.11. The results indicate that respondents who were aware of *public meetings* in the post-bid period displayed significantly higher levels of support during that period *and* at the time of the survey than those who were not ($p < .05$). In addition, respondents who were aware of *descriptive information* had significantly higher levels of support at each stage in the hosting process thus far ($p < .05$).

As with the Atlanta survey, results indicate that whilst the *awareness* of certain forms of community participation can affect levels of support, actually taking advantage of those forms aware of does not appear to have the same effect (see Q1.3 Appendix 11- for ANOVA of level of support by forms of participation utilised). These findings once again suggest that the simple knowledge or reassurance, that opportunities exist for community participation/input in these particular forms, is in general, of greater importance to respondents than actually participating themselves.

QUESTION 1.4

Does the number of events attended or hoped to attend, by members of the host public, affect support for the Olympic Games?

As attending activities related to the event theme may also be considered a form of community participation, respondents were asked how many events they would *realistically like to attend* and how many they thought they would *realistically get to attend* during the course of the Olympics. Table 11.12 indicates that the average number of events that respondents would *like* to attend was between *one and four*. More importantly, however, respondents *believed* on average that they would not get to see any events at all.

Table 11.12: Number of Events Respondents Want to *and* Believe Will Attend

Want to attend/ Believe will attend	Number of Events				Mean	S.D.	n
	(1) None %	(2) 1 → 4 %	(3) 5 → 9 %	(4) 10 + %			
Want to attend	22.4	46.3	19.1	12.2	2.2	0.9	246
Believe will attend	67.5	28.0	3.7	0.8	1.4	0.6	246

To determine if these expectations were significantly different, a paired-sample t-test applied to the data yielded the information in Table 11.13. Results indicate a significant difference between the average number of events that respondents would like to attend and the number of events that they believe they will actually get to see ($t=14.9$, $p<.01$).

Table 11.13: Paired Sample t-test Between Events Want to Attend and Events Believe Will Attend

Pair	Paired Differences			t	df	Sig.
	Mean	S.D.	SE of Mean			
Events want to attend – Events believe will attend. <i>n</i> =246	0.8	0.9	0.0	14.9	245	.000

The findings suggest, at the mid-point of preparations for the Games, a distinct lack of confidence on behalf of respondents that they will have the opportunity to attend any of the events associated with the Olympics. An experience that is generally accepted and promoted as one of the basic benefits, for the host public, associated with hosting the Olympic Games.

In order to determine if there is a relationship between the number of events that respondents want to attend/believe will attend and support for the Games, the null hypothesis that there are no relationships was tested statistically. Initially, one-way ANOVA were produced using the data from these variables. Table 11.14 shows that significant differences in support at the time of the survey (the only applicable stage) were dependent upon both the number of events that respondents wanted to attend ($F=39.7, p < .01$) and the number they believed they would actually get to attend ($F=13.8, p < .01$) (see Appendix 11- Q1.4 for complete tables).

Table 11.14: Level of Support by the Number of Events Respondents Want to Attend and Believe Will Attend

Mean Level of Support (1 low → 5 high)	Number of Events					
	Want to/ Believe will Attend	None	1 → 4	5 → 9	10 +	Total
During survey	Want to	2.3*	3.9*	4.5*	4.6*	3.8
	Believe will	3.4*	4.5*	4.9*	5.0	3.8
<i>N</i>	Want to	55	114	47	30	246
	Believe will	166	69	9	2	246

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

To identify specific mean differences the Scheffé multiple comparison was applied. The comparisons identified that respondents who did not want to attend any Olympic events showed significantly lower levels of support for the Games than respondents in the other three categories ($p < .05$). Of more note, however, is the finding that approximately two-thirds of respondents, who believed they would not get to attend any events at all, had significantly lower levels of support than those who believed they would get to attend *one to four* or *five to nine* events ($p < .05$). The results are also shown in Table 11.14.

Therefore, based on these findings it may be argued that not only does there appear to be a distinct lack of confidence on behalf of the host public concerning the opportunities to attend events associated with the Olympics, but perhaps more importantly, this lack of confidence may have a detrimental affect on support for hosting the Games.

QUESTION 1.5

What type of contribution has the host public provided throughout the hosting process?

When respondents were asked what type of contribution they believed the host public had made during the hosting process thus far, just under two thirds were of the belief that the community had provided either *very little* or *no contribution* at all. Conversely, 15 per cent perceived contribution to be at the *moderate* or *major* levels. The average, however, was determined to be 2.3, suggesting that in general respondents believed that the host public had contributed *very little* to the hosting process thus far. The results are displayed in Table 11.15.

Table 11.15: Perceived Host Public Contribution During the Hosting Process

Respondent Contribution	No Contribution %	>	>	>	Major Contribution %	Mean	S.D.	<i>n</i>
Type of contribution provided by the host public	37.4	24.0	23.2	7.3	8.1	2.3	1.3	246

When respondents were asked why they believed this to be the level of contribution, the top five reasons accounted for exactly one half of total responses ($n=173$). The most popular responses, shown in Table 11.16, were that there was *no opportunity to contribute*, followed by respondents *not being aware of any* community contribution and that there was *great community support*. Over 20 per cent of total responses indicated that the level of contribution was due to either a *lack of information* on how to contribute or the fact that there was *no opportunity*.

Table 11.16: Reasons for Perceived Level of Contribution

Reasons (top 5)	% of responses	% of respondents
No opportunity to contribute	15.5	17.3
Great community support	10.8	12.1
Not aware of any	10.8	12.1
It's a government issue	7.7	8.7
Lack of information available	5.2	5.8
	$n=194$	$n=173$

QUESTION 1.6

Which Olympic related issues arising during the hosting process are the host public most concerned about and is there a relationship with levels of support shown?

Respondents were asked to rank a list of seven generic issues relating to the hosting of the Olympic Games from 1 most important to 7 least important. The results, displayed in Table 11.17, show that respondents in general considered the potential *impact on lifestyle* and the *cost of infrastructure* to be of greatest concern (means of 3.4). The next most important issues were *efficient use of facilities after the event*, *welfare issues*, and *ticket availability and affordability*. As was the case in Atlanta, *community involvement in planning* was considered the second least important issue. While *enjoying the event* was deemed to be the most important issue in Atlanta, Sydney respondents considered it to be the least important issue.

Table 11.17: Ranking of Olympic Related Issues

Olympics Related Issues	Perceived Importance (1 most important → 7 least important)	
	Mean	S.D.
Impact on lifestyle	3.4	2.0
Cost of infrastructure	3.4	2.2
Efficient use of facilities after the event	3.7	1.9
Welfare issues	3.8	2.0
Ticket availability and affordability	4.3	1.9
Community involvement in planning	4.6	1.6
Enjoying the event <i>n=244</i>	4.9	2.0

Whilst it has been previously established that respondents from both the Atlanta and Sydney host public surveys believed, in general, that greater community involvement during the hosting process would have been ideal, once again the findings show that there are several issues that respondents considered to be of greater concern. The suggestion in Chapter 10 that the issue of *community involvement in planning* may have been considered more important if respondents had been asked during the planning stage of the hosting process is not supported from the Sydney host public results. Community involvement was considered the second least important issue, both at the time of the Olympics in Atlanta and midway through the preparations for the Sydney Games. However, the perceived importance of the issue *enjoying the event* (moving from most to least important) does appear to depend on the stage in which respondents are asked.

Tests for correlation were conducted to determine whether a relationship exists between the perceived importance that respondents place on specific Olympic related issues and levels of support for the Olympics at different stages in the hosting process. As Table 11.18 illustrates, several correlations were significant. Indeed, results showed that *efficient use of facilities after the event* and *community involvement in planning* were the only issues not significantly correlated to levels of support at each stage in the hosting process.

Table 11.18: Correlations Between Perceived Importance of Olympic Issues and Support

Olympics Related Issues (1 most important → 7 least important)	Level of Support (1 low → 5 high)		
	Pre-bid	Post-bid	During survey
Impact on lifestyle	.279**	.327**	.321**
Cost of infrastructure	.254**	.301**	.303**
Efficient use of facilities after the event	-.084	-.118	-.107
Welfare issues	.162**	.178**	.180**
Ticket availability and affordability	-.339**	-.359**	-.361**
Community involvement in planning	.053	-.023	.013
Enjoying the event	-.345**	-.344**	-.379**

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

More specifically, *impact on lifestyle*, *cost of infrastructure* and *welfare issues* were positively correlated at each stage ($p < .01$), indicating that support for the Games increased as the perceived importance of potential impacts, infrastructure costs and welfare issues decreased (due to the ranking scale 1 highest to 7 lowest). Conversely *ticket availability and affordability* and *enjoying the event* were negatively correlated with support at each stage ($p < .01$), implying that in all instances, levels of support increased in line with the perceived importance of these issues.

QUESTION 1.7

What were/should be the major reasons for hosting the Olympic Games?

Open-ended questions were used to obtain respondents' perceptions concerning what they believed *were* the major reasons behind Sydney's bid to host the 2000 Olympics. Table 11.19 displays the most common responses to this question. Of those respondents who provided one or more reasons ($n=229$), the top five reasons accounted for over one half of total responses. As in Atlanta, the most popular response related to the *economic* benefits that the Games would provide. Other popular responses included the *increased tourism* that the event would generate, the chance to *enhance Australia's international image*, the associated *prestige* and to *gain political advantage*. In total, the top ten responses accounted for just over three-quarters of total responses.

Table 11.19: Reasons to Bid for an Event such as the Olympics

Actual reasons (top 10)	% of responses	Ideal reasons (top 10)	% of responses
Economic Benefits	17.2	Increased tourism	17.1
Increased tourism	14.4	Economic Benefits	13.1
Enhance Australia's international image	10.3	Enhance Australia's international image	7.7
Prestige	10.3	Improved facilities	7.1
Gain political advantage	8.0	Benefits to athletes/sports	7.1
Personal gratification/ego	4.6	Improved infrastructure	4.0
Enhance Sydney's international image	4.0	International recognition	3.1
International recognition	2.9	Benefits to community	3.1
Show capabilities	2.9	Exposure for Sydney/Australia	2.8
Our turn	2.6	Create jobs	2.6
		Shouldn't host them	2.6
		Can't think of a good reason	2.6
	<i>n</i> =348		<i>n</i> =351

In contrast, respondents were asked to provide what they believed *should* be the major reasons to bid for/benefits to be gained from hosting such an event. Of those respondents who provided one or more reasons (*n*=229), the top five reasons accounted for approximately one half of total responses. In this instance, while the top three responses remained the same, *increased tourism* and *economic benefits* alternated positions and were followed by *enhancing Australia's international image*. In total, the top ten responses accounted for approximately three-quarters of total responses.

It is notable that of the top ten *actual* reasons, as perceived by respondents, none have the ability to *directly* impact upon the host public. However, five of the ten major reasons that respondents believe should *ideally* provide the catalyst for a bid have the ability to do so. The reasons given were *improved facilities*, *benefits to athletes/sports*, *improved infrastructure*, *benefits to the community* and *create jobs*, all of which account for approximately one quarter of total responses. It may, therefore, be argued that while respondents can recognise certain large-scale benefits associated with hosting the Olympics, in general they would also like residents of the host region to have the opportunity to experience first hand, benefits from the event.

QUESTION 1.8

What importance does the host public place on community involvement and the associated benefits/costs of hosting the Olympic Games?

Respondents were presented with a selection of nine statements concerning a variety of topics related to the perceived importance of community involvement and the associated benefits/costs of hosting the Olympic Games. For each statement, respondents were asked to provide their level of agreement on a scale of 1-5, where 1 indicates *strongly disagree* and 5 indicates *strongly agree*. Results are displayed in Table 11.20.

Table 11.20: Agree/Disagree Statements Concerning Research Q1.8

Statements Concerning Olympics	Level of Agreement (1 strongly disagree → 5 strongly agree)		
	Mean	S.D.	n
Organisers made an effort to incorporate the host community into the planning process	2.4	1.2	246
The benefits from hosting the Games are greater than the costs	3.3	1.5	246
Community involvement doesn't lead to better planning & decision making for mega-events	2.8	1.8	246
Community involvement helps organisers to avoid or plan for decisions that might otherwise cause conflict	3.9	1.0	246
Services for disabled persons have improved as a result of hosting the Olympics	3.5	1.1	246
Community/welfare groups played a major role in the planning process	2.8	2.0	246
Organisers successfully incorporated the host community into the planning process	2.4	1.7	246
I would have liked to have felt more involved in the planning process	3.3	1.1	246
Ensuring local input (if heeded) helps to legitimise the decision making process	3.7	1.0	246

The results suggest that respondents on average (3.9) moderately agreed that *community involvement helps organisers to avoid or plan for decisions that might otherwise cause conflict* and *ensuring local input (if heeded) helps to legitimise the decision-making process* (3.7). As in Atlanta, these findings appear to support the proposed advantages of a participatory approach to planning as identified by Drake (1991:134) (see Chapter 3). However, Drake also proposed *that community involvement*

leads to better planning and decision-making, a sentiment that, while supported by the Atlanta host public, was not by that of Sydney. In addition, respondents moderately disagreed (2.4) with the statements that *organisers made a serious effort to incorporate the host community into the planning process* and that *organisers are successfully doing so* (2.4).

While there was moderate agreement that *services for disabled persons will improve* as a result of hosting the Games (3.9), respondents remained neutral when presented with the statement that *community and lobby groups are playing a major role in the planning process* (2.8). In addition, respondents only slightly agreed (3.3) with the statement suggesting that *they would like increased involvement in the planning process*. Finally, there was only slight agreement (3.3) to the statement that overall *the benefits gained from hosting the Olympics are greater than the costs associated with it*.

Based upon the results from both the Atlanta and Sydney surveys it appears that the opinions of respondents from both regions, concerning the importance of community involvement and the associated benefits/costs of hosting the Olympic Games, are essentially alike. The major differences being that Sydney respondents did not believe that organisers were making an effort to incorporate the host community into the planning process and as a corollary were not successful in doing so.

QUESTION 1.9

Is there a detectable relationship between demographic characteristics of respondents and levels of public support, perceived community involvement or other key variables?

In order to determine whether there are any detectable relationships between the various demographic characteristics of respondents and levels of support, perceived community involvement or other key variables, the null hypothesis that there are no relationships was tested statistically.

Initially, one-way ANOVA were undertaken between *years lived in the state, region of residence, income, occupation, age, gender* and *levels of support* and

perceived *involvement*. Table 11.21 highlights the only detectable significant difference. In line with the findings of Waitt (1999), perceived levels of *ideal* community involvement were found to be dependent upon respondents' *income*, however, only in the pre-bid stage ($F=4.4$, $p < .01$) (see Appendix 11 - Q1.9 for complete tables of ANOVA applied to support and involvement data).

Table 11.21: Levels of Perceived Involvement by Income

Mean Perceived Involvement (1 low → 5 high)		Income Categories					
Period	Actual/ Ideal	<\$25,000	\$25,000- \$49,999	\$50,000- \$74,999	\$75,000+	Total	F
Pre-bid	Actual	2.1	1.8	1.8	2.0	1.9	1.2
	Ideal	3.8*	3.1*	3.3	3.2	3.3	4.4**
Post-bid	Actual	2.2	2.0	1.9	2.0	2.0	0.7
	Ideal	3.7	3.4	3.5	3.4	3.5	0.9
<i>n</i>		60	82	60	40	242	

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

To identify specific mean differences the Scheffé multiple comparison was applied, with the results also displayed in Table 11.21. The comparisons identified that the *ideal level of pre-bid involvement* as perceived by respondents with household incomes in the <\$25,000 category, was significantly higher than for those respondents in the \$25,000-\$49,999 category ($p < .05$).

In addition, one-way ANOVA were produced using data for demographic characteristics of respondents and selected key variables. The significant findings are shown in Table 11.22. Results highlighted that significant differences in the *perceived importance of welfare issues* ($F=6.6$, $p < .01$), the *importance of ticket availability and affordability* ($F=4.3$, $p < .01$) and *agreement with statement 3*²¹ ($F=2.6$, $p < .05$) were dependent upon respondents' household *income*. In addition, while the *effect of greater involvement on support* was found to be significantly different between *age* categories ($F=3.2$, $p < .05$), the *number of events will attend* was significantly different between both *age* categories ($F=3.8$, $p < .05$) and between *men and women* ($F=4.7$, $p < .05$). To

²¹ Statement 3- Community involvement does not lead to better planning and decision making for events such as the Olympics.

identify specific mean differences the Scheffé multiple comparison was applied. The findings are also shown in Table 11.22.

Table 11.22: Key Variables by Demographic Characteristics

Variables	Demographic Categories					
Income	<\$25,000	\$25,000-\$49,999	\$50,000-\$74,999	\$75,000+	Total	F
Welfare issues (1 most important → 7 least important) Mean	3.3*	3.6*	4.0	5.0*	3.8	6.6**
Ticket availability and affordability (1 most important → 7 least important) Mean	4.1	4.8*	4.3	3.6*	4.3	4.3**
Statement 3 concerning Olympics (1 strongly disagree → 5 strongly agree) Mean	2.8	2.7	2.4	3.1	2.7	2.6*
<i>N</i>	24	51	42	72	242	
Age	18 → 29	30 → 39	40 → 49	50+	Total	F
Effect of increased involvement on support (1 greatly decrease → 5 greatly increase) Mean	4.1*	3.7	3.8	3.6*	3.7	3.2*
How many events believe will attend (1 none → 4 ten+) Mean	1.6	1.5	1.4	1.3	1.4	3.8*
<i>N</i>	24	51	42	125	234	
Gender	Male		Female		Total	F
How many events believe will attend (1 none → 4 ten+) Mean	1.5*		1.3*		1.4	4.7*
<i>N</i>	132		114		234	

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

The Scheffé comparisons identified several significant differences. Firstly, respondents with a household income in the \$75,000+ category considered *welfare issues* to be significantly less important than those in the <\$25,000 and \$25,000-\$49,999 categories ($p < .05$). The same category considered *ticket availability and affordability* to be significantly more important than those in the \$25,000-\$49,999 ($p < .05$) category. There were, however, no significant differences in *level of agreement with statement 3*.

Respondents in the *18 → 29 years* category believed more strongly, than those in the *50+ years* category, that *greater involvement* would have a positive influence on their support for the Games ($p < .05$). No differences by age categories were found for the *number of events respondents believe they will attend*. However, results did indicate a significant difference in the *number of events will attend* by *gender*, with men on average believing that they would attend more events than women ($p < .05$).

Finally, a test for correlation was undertaken between levels of support, perceived community involvement, selected key variables and the demographic characteristics of *income* and *age*. Those correlations determined to be of a significant nature are outlined in Table 11.23 (for complete tables of support/involvement and income/age correlations see Q1.9 in Appendix 11).

Table 11.23: Correlations Between Selected Variables and Income/Age

Variables	Income	Age
Ideal level of involvement pre-bid (1 low → 5 high)	-.150*	.046
Importance of impact on lifestyle (1 high → 7 low)	-.022	.134*
Importance of welfare issues (1 high → 7 low)	.264**	-.019
Statement 3 concerning Olympics (1 low → 5 high)	.032	.157*
Statement 9 concerning Olympics (1 low → 5 high)	-.145*	.122
How many events believe will attend (1 low → 4 high)	.085	-.222**

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

The results suggest that the *age* of respondents is positively correlated with both the perceived importance of possible *impacts on lifestyle* ($p < .05$) and *statement 3-community involvement does not lead to better planning and decision making for events such as the Olympics* ($p < .05$). However, there is a negative correlation with *how many events believe will attend* ($p < .01$). This implies that both the perceived importance of impacts on lifestyle and the number of events respondents believe they will attend *decrease* with age, while the belief that community involvement does not lead to better planning *increases*.

It may be argued that the findings support the theory established on the basis of results from the Atlanta survey, that the *once-in-a-lifetime* nature of hosting an event such as the Olympics is more tangible for the older members of the community. Thus positively influencing their willingness to accept possible impacts to lifestyle during the event. Conversely, it is not unexpected that the number of events that respondents expect to attend should decrease with age, particularly considering that over one quarter of Sydney respondents were above 60 years of age and as such the general mobility of this group would be expected to be lower. In addition, as mentioned in Chapter 3, the recent emergence of community involvement as an issue in planning may account for the relationship between *age* and *statement 3*. With younger respondents perhaps being more familiar with this issue, they consequently may be more confident of its benefits. This would support the ANOVA result indicating that younger respondents were more likely to believe that increased involvement would have had a positive influence on support for the Games than older respondents.

The results also indicate that the *income* of respondents is negatively correlated with both the *ideal level of pre-bid involvement* ($p < .05$) and *statement 9- ensuring local input helps to legitimise the decision making process* ($p < .05$). This implies that both the ideal level of pre-bid involvement as perceived by respondents and the belief that community input legitimises decision making *decrease* with increased income.

However, the strongest correlation is that found between the perceived *importance of welfare issues* and *income* of respondents ($r = .267, p < .01$). This result indicates that the importance placed on welfare issues by respondents decreases in line with the household income of the respondent. The correlation reinforces the result from the ANOVA applied previously in *Q1.9* which determined that respondents with higher disposable incomes rated welfare issues as being significantly less important than respondents in the two lowest income categories.

Therefore, it may be argued that due to the significant results obtained from the various ANOVA and correlations, the null hypothesis that there is no relationship between demographic characteristics of respondents, levels of support, perceived community involvement or other selected key variables, is not confirmed.

COMMUNITY/WELFARE GROUPS SURVEY

Due to the limited number of responses ($n=11$), it is only practical at this point to provide a general summary of those results obtained from community/welfare groups that are directly related to the issue of community involvement in the mega-event hosting process. As such the findings represent only a broad qualitative assessment of the results obtained and the views of the target population (see Statistical Summary in Appendix 12 for frequencies to all questions).

SUPPORT AND PERCEIVED COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT (Q1.1, Q1.2)

As in the host public survey, representatives of *community/welfare groups* were asked to provide their level of support for the Games at the time of the survey (midway through preparations for the Games). Results show that on a scale of 1-5, where 1 indicates *very unsupportive* and 5 indicates *very supportive*, *community/welfare groups* were slightly less supportive (mean of 3.2, $n=9$) of hosting the Games than respondents from the host public survey (3.6). Specific reasons for level of support at the time of the survey or any *change* in level of support over the hosting process (research *Q1.1*) can be found in Appendix 12.

In addition, respondents were asked to categorise the *actual* and *ideal* levels of community involvement in both the pre and post-bid periods of the hosting process thus far. Respondents were asked to choose between five levels of community involvement, ranging from 1 *none at all* to 5 *community action*, in each category. Results indicate that respondents' perceived levels of involvement were approximately the same as for the *host public* survey. In both the pre-bid and post-bid periods the *actual* levels of involvement were determined to be at the *information sharing* level (mean of 2.1 and 2.2) ($n=9$), whereas *ideal* levels of involvement were considered to be closer to the *consultation* level (3.2, 3.5) ($n=11$).

When asked directly if increased levels of involvement would affect individual community/welfare group support for the Games, the average response (3.6, $n=10$) was that it would *increase support only slightly*. A result which is equivalent to that obtained from the host public survey (3.6).

Therefore, it may be suggested that whilst slight variations in both levels of support and perceived levels of community involvement are evident, essentially, results are equivalent for both community/welfare group and host public surveys with regard to the major research question.

FORMS OF PARTICIPATION AWARE OF AND PERCEIVED CONTRIBUTION (Q1.3, Q1.5)

When asked to choose, from a list of different forms of community participation, those that they *were aware of* and had *taken advantage of* thus far in the hosting process, only *descriptive information* and *social impact studies* were mentioned by a majority of respondents. These were the same forms of participation mentioned most often by respondents in the host public survey.

When respondents were asked what type of contribution they felt their community/welfare group had made during the bid and planning process thus far, over one half suggested either *no* or *very little contribution*. Specific reasons for this perceived level of contribution can be found in Appendix 12 (Q9b).

OLYMPIC RELATED ISSUES AND STATEMENTS (Q1.6, Q1.8)

Respondents were asked to rank a list of seven generic issues relating to the hosting of the Olympic Games from 1 most important to 7 least important. Results showed that while *welfare issues* ranked fourth in importance for the *host public* survey, in this instance, *welfare issues* were considered to be the most important issue of those provided, with half of respondents ranking it *the single most important* issue. The next most important issues were seen to be *impact on lifestyle*, *cost of infrastructure* and *community involvement*, which was ranked sixth in the host public survey.

Respondents were also presented with statements concerning a variety of topics related to the perceived importance of host community involvement in hosting the Olympic Games. For each statement they were asked to express their level of agreement on a scale of 1-5, where 1 indicates *strongly disagree* and 5 indicates *strongly agree* (Q13) ($n=11$). Results showed that on average respondents *moderately disagreed* that

organisers had made a serious effort to incorporate the host public (1.7) or community/welfare groups (2.2). In addition, there was moderate to strong disagreement that community/welfare groups are playing a major role in the planning process (1.4) and that sufficient opportunities are being provided for members of both the host public and community/welfare groups to obtain information/air concerns regarding the Games (1.5). However, respondents strongly agreed that community involvement helps organisers to avoid or plan for decisions that might otherwise cause conflict within the host public (4.8). A statement that obtained only moderate agreement (3.9) when posed to respondents of the host public survey. For a full table of agree/disagree statements see Appendix 12.

BID/ORGANISING COMMITTEES SURVEY

Due to the limited number of responses ($n=11$) it is practical at this point to provide only a general summary of results obtained from the Sydney bid/organising committees that are directly related to the issue of community involvement in the mega-event hosting process. As such the findings represent only a broad qualitative assessment of the results obtained and the views of the target population (see Statistical Summary in Appendix 13 for frequencies to all questions).

SUPPORT AND PERCEIVED COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT (Q1.1, Q1.2)

Initially, representatives of the Sydney *bid/organising committees* were asked what they perceived the level of *host community support* for the Games to be at the time of the survey (midway through preparations for the Games). Results show that on a scale of 1-5, where 1 indicates *very unsupportive* and 5 indicates *very supportive*, respondents from the *bid/organising committees* perceived the level of host community support to be on average very supportive (4.5), a level which is substantially higher than that actually displayed in both the host public (3.6) and community/welfare groups surveys (3.2).

In addition, respondents were asked to categorise the *actual* and *ideal* levels of community involvement in both the pre-bid and post-bid periods of the hosting process thus far. Respondents could choose between five levels of community involvement,

ranging from 1 *none at all* to 5 *community action*, in each category. The results are shown in Table 11.24. In both the pre-bid and post-bid periods the *actual* levels of involvement were determined to be at the *information sharing/consultation* level (mean of 2.5 and 2.6) ($n=11$), marginally higher than for both the host public and community/welfare group surveys (*information sharing*). Conversely, the *ideal* levels of involvement both pre-bid and post-bid were considered to be *consultation* (2.7, 2.9) ($n=11$), a level slightly lower than that suggested by the other groups (*higher consultation*).

Table 11.24: Comparison of Perceived *Actual* and *Ideal* Levels of Community Involvement Pre/Post-Bid

Bid Stages	Level of Community Involvement (1 none at all → 5 community action)			
	Actual/Ideal	Host Public	Community/Welfare Groups	Bid/Organising Committees
Pre-bid	Actual	1.9	2.1	2.5
	Ideal	3.3	3.2	2.7
Post-bid	Actual	2.0	2.2	2.6
	Ideal	3.5	3.5	2.9

When asked if they believed increased levels of involvement would affect host public *or* community/welfare group support for the Games, the average response (3.9, $n=11$) was that it would *increase support moderately*. A result slightly higher than that obtained from both the host public and community/welfare group surveys (3.6).

Based upon the results it may be suggested that, in general, respondents from the *bid/organising committees* were somewhat out of touch with the sentiments of the host community with regard to the level of support held for the Games at the time of the survey. In addition, there appears to be substantial gaps between the *actual* and *ideal* levels of community involvement as perceived by respondents from the bid/organising committees and both the host public and community/welfare groups.

FORMS OF PARTICIPATION AWARE OF AND PERCEIVED CONTRIBUTION (Q1.3, Q1.5)

When asked to choose, from a list of different forms of community participation, those that had *been made available* to the host public and community/welfare groups during the hosting process thus far, *public meetings, descriptive information, meetings in areas with proposed venues and social impact studies* were all mentioned by a majority of respondents. Findings from the other two Sydney surveys have indicated that respondents were in general, aware of only *descriptive information* and *social impact studies*, indicating perhaps the existence of inadequate communication channels.

When respondents were asked what type of contribution they felt the host public and community/welfare groups had provided during the bid and planning process thus far, the average response (2.8, $n=11$) was *little contribution*, once again somewhat higher than for the host public (2.3). Specific reasons for the perceived level of contribution can be found in Appendix 13 (Q9b).

OLYMPIC RELATED ISSUES AND STATEMENTS (Q1.6, Q1.8)

Respondents were asked to rank a list of seven generic issues relating to the hosting of the Olympic Games from 1 most important to 7 least important. Results show that while *enjoying the event* was ranked the least important for the *host public* survey, in this instance, *ensuring the community enjoys the event* was considered to be the most important issue, with over half of respondents ranking it either the first or second most important issue. The next most important issues were seen to be *ticket availability and affordability, cost of infrastructure* and *efficient use of facilities after the event*. The issue considered most important in the host public survey (*impact on lifestyle*) was ranked second last in the bid/organising committee survey.

Respondents were also presented with statements concerning a variety of topics related to the perceived importance of community and community/welfare group involvement in hosting the Olympic Games. For each statement, they were asked to provide their level of agreement on a scale of 1-5, where 1 indicates *strongly disagree* and 5 indicates *strongly agree* ($n=11$).

Results indicate that on average respondents showed *slight agreement* with the statements suggesting that *organisers have made a serious effort to incorporate the host community* (3.5, *host public*- 2.4) and *community/welfare groups* (3.8). When asked if organisers had been *successful in their efforts to incorporate the host community thus far* (3.5, 2.4), there was once again *slight agreement*. In addition, respondents expressed *slight to moderate agreement* with the statement that *community involvement helps organisers to avoid or plan for decisions that might otherwise cause conflict within the community* (3.6). A statement that obtained moderate agreement (3.9) when posed to respondents of the *host public* survey. For a full table of agree/disagree statements see Appendix 13.

SUMMARY

As Chapter 11 highlights, the analysis of results from the Sydney *host public* survey provides a general although, as with the Atlanta results, preliminary insight into the perceptions of the host public concerning many facets of the Olympic hosting process. In addition, the inclusion of results concerning both *community/welfare groups* and the Sydney *bid/organising committees*, whilst somewhat speculative, allows broad qualitative comparisons to be made with the *host public* survey results. The most notable results are summarised below.

Host public support for the Games remained at a relatively consistent, and *somewhat supportive*, level throughout the hosting process with a similar consistency evident in perceived levels of community involvement. Indeed the findings showed that the substantial gap between perceived *actual* and *ideal* levels of community involvement was essentially the same in both the pre-bid and post-bid periods, suggesting that an increase in involvement was considered desirable, by respondents from the *host public* survey, in both periods.

Furthermore, a relationship was detected between respondents' perceived levels of community involvement and levels of support for the Games. More specifically, results indicated that respondents who perceived *actual* community involvement to be non-existent in either the pre-bid or post-bid period had significantly lower levels of

support for the Games, during those same periods and at the time of the survey, than the majority of other respondents. However, whilst respondents believed, in general, that greater community involvement in the planning/hosting process would have been desirable, there were several other issues that they considered to be of greater importance (see Table 11.17).

Once again, results indicate that, in general, while respondents appeared to believe in the virtues of community involvement, the knowledge or reassurance that there *was an opportunity* to become involved was more important than actually doing so. In addition respondents believed that, in general, the benefits associated with hosting the Olympics outweighed any shortcomings experienced in incorporating the host community into the planning/hosting process, even though respondents did not believe that organisers were making a serious effort to do so. However, respondents would like to have seen a greater emphasis placed on ensuring long-term benefits for the host city/region and its residents than was perceived to be the actual case.

Finally, it may be suggested that, based upon the results from the three sample groups, *bid/organising committees* were somewhat out of touch with the sentiments of both *community/lobby groups* and the *host public* with regard to their levels of support for the Games at the mid-point in Olympic preparations. More specifically, respondents from the *bid/organising committees* believed host community support to be at a level somewhat higher than it actually was. In addition, there appears to be substantial gaps between the *actual* and *ideal* levels of community involvement, in both the pre-bid and post-bid periods, as perceived by respondents from the bid/organising committees and the other groups. In essence, the respondents from the *bid/organising committees* perceived the *actual* levels of community involvement to be higher and the *ideal* levels to be lower than respondents from both the host public and community/welfare groups.

CHAPTER 12: SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

INTRODUCTION

Firstly this chapter provides a discussion of the major findings emerging from the empirical study, with particular focus placed on the roles of community involvement in the hosting process as perceived by various stakeholders. Secondly, it highlights the contribution the study makes to existing theory and methodology concerning the hosting of mega-events and the role of community involvement in the hosting process for such events. Finally, areas of further research potential are addressed, with final conclusions drawn.

DISCUSSION OF EMPIRICAL RESULTS

The Atlanta and Sydney *host public* surveys provide a preliminary insight into *host public* perceptions concerning many aspects of the Olympic hosting process, including *actual* and *ideal* levels of community involvement at different stages in that process and the extent to which greater community involvement leads to feelings of increased *support*. Similarities between findings from the Atlanta and Sydney surveys were numerous and evident in relation to both the major and subsidiary research questions. However it should be reiterated at this point, as it was in Chapter 9, that the decision to collect data in Atlanta's Centennial Olympic Park, may have unwittingly produced a more pro-Olympic sample than that obtained in Sydney. Therefore, it is necessary to take this into consideration when comparing results from the two samples and, as a result, it is *possible* that the slightly higher level of community support registered in Atlanta may in fact be an aberration.

Firstly, the *public* in both host cities perceived levels of *actual* involvement to be lower than the *ideal* levels in both the pre-bid and post-bid periods. However, the differences between the *actual* and *ideal* levels of involvement were considered to be greater by Sydney residents. The Sydney *bid/organising committees* survey, highlighted substantial differences in perceived levels of *actual* and *ideal* community

involvement in both the pre-bid and post-bid periods when compared to the *host public* results. In essence, the *bid/organising committee* respondents perceived *actual* levels of involvement to be higher and *ideal* levels to be lower than the public of Sydney.

In both *host public* surveys, relationships were detected between residents' perceived levels of community involvement and levels of support for hosting the Olympic Games. To summarise, residents who perceived *actual* community involvement to be *non-existent* in either the pre-bid or post-bid period (except for the Atlanta pre-bid period) showed significantly lower levels of support for the Games, during those same periods and at the time of the Games/survey, than other residents.

Whilst residents from both Atlanta and Sydney indicated, in general, that greater community involvement in the planning/hosting process would have been ideal, there were several other issues that they considered to be of greater concern. However, it should be noted that, for the Sydney region, the issues considered most important (*impact on lifestyle*) and least important (*ensuring the community enjoys the event*) by residents were ranked second least important and most important, respectively, by members of the *bid/organising committees* when asked what issues they believed the *host public* was most concerned about. Furthermore, the results show that, in both the Atlanta and Sydney *host public* surveys, the perceived importance of *impacts on lifestyle*, as an issue, decreased with the age of residents. It may be argued that the findings support the theory, established in Chapter 10, that the *once-in-a-lifetime* nature of hosting an event such as the Olympic Games is more tangible for older members of the community, thus positively influencing their willingness to accept possible *impacts on lifestyle* during the Games.

Most significantly the results highlight that, whilst members of the *host publics* believed in the concept and benefits of community involvement in the planning process, in both Atlanta and Sydney, the knowledge or reassurance that there were opportunities to become involved, via participation of various forms, was of greater importance than actually doing so. In addition to supporting Sandercock's (1983:78) assertion, that 'people want to be informed and want to know that they have a ready opportunity to

complain', this finding strongly supports the *rational choice theory*, which, as discussed in Chapter 3, proposes that individuals have a tendency to resist participating in collective decision-making (Renn *et al.* 1995:362). This tendency has been described as the *free rider problem*. It is believed that people, in general, are reluctant to actually participate in a process to deliver a collective good if they are reasonably assured that others will participate and be successful in obtaining the desired result (Renn *et al.* 1995:363).

However, it must be noted that, based on results from the residents of Sydney, there does appear to be a distinct lack of confidence concerning the perceived opportunities to *attend Olympic events*, one of the more tangible forms of participation for members of the *host public*. Perhaps of greater potential concern to organisers, however, is the fact that this lack of confidence appears to have a negative influence on support for hosting the Games. Nonetheless, on balance it would appear that residents generally believe that the benefits associated with hosting the Olympic Games outweigh any shortcomings experienced by not successfully incorporating the host community into the planning/hosting process. While the public of Sydney did not support the proposition that community participation fosters better planning and decision-making, in general, the results did support the proposed advantages of a participatory approach to planning as identified by Drake (1991:134) and discussed in Chapter 3. Namely that:

1. community participation functions as an early warning system, helping managers to avoid or plan for decisions that might otherwise cause conflict with the local population;
2. community participation fosters better planning and decision making - for example, conflicts may be revealed and resolved during the planning process;
3. ensuring local input (if heeded) legitimises the decision making process.

Finally, although able to identify several large-scale benefits (at the state and/or national level) associated with hosting the Olympic Games, residents from both Atlanta and Sydney indicated that they would prefer a greater emphasis to be placed on ensuring

long-term benefits for the host city/region and its residents, than was perceived to be the actual case.

CONTRIBUTION TO EXISTING THEORY AND METHODOLOGY

As outlined in Chapter 1, the purpose of this study is to begin to fill a void in the body of available literature concerning community involvement and its role in the hosting process for mega-events such as the Olympic Games. In achieving this purpose it has been necessary to consider a variety of related issues throughout the course of the study and in doing so several contributions to existing theory and methodology have been made.

EVENT AND PLANNING THEORY

Section 1 focused on the general theme of special event and planning theory (see Chapters 2 to 4). An *Event Typology* was developed in order to establish a better understanding of the intrinsic nature of events in general. It was determined that the use of size or *scale* would be the most effective method by which to distinguish between given events, and similarly, event categories. Subsequently, stages in the proposed event hierarchy were categorised as, a. *local*, b. *regional*, c. *national/continental*, and d. *mega-events*. Furthermore, it was proposed that the most influential or *determinant factors* affecting the perceived *scale* of events and event categories were *participants*, *spectators*, and *media coverage*. A breakdown of the major event categories based on these *determinant factors* is provided in Figure 2.1.

In addition, it was argued that, in the past, there has been limited consensus among the various definitions for mega-events, with the result being that no universally accepted *hosting process* could be applied to mega-events in general. Furthermore, it was argued that the development of such a process has been hampered by the inclusion of questionable events under the umbrella of traditionally broad and unspecific definitions and in particular the apparent willingness of researchers to group *hallmark* and *mega-events* into the same category. An alternative definition for *mega-events*, based on the *event typology* and seeking to overcome the inconsistencies of the existing definitions, was provided.

The role of community involvement in general planning, and more specifically in planning for mega-events, was examined in Chapter 3. To aid in this examination, a distinction was made between *community involvement*, defined as the general ability of communities to influence the outcome of development projects that may have an impact upon them (Drake 1991:134) and *community participation*, the process adopted to achieve a desired level of involvement. The literature indicated that a successfully implemented program of community involvement has the potential to benefit both the host community and the organisers of an event and as such a closer examination of community involvement in the planning process for mega-events was warranted. As mentioned previously in this chapter, results from the empirical study supported several theories put forward by Sandercock (1983:78), Renn *et al.* (1995:363) and Drake (1991:134), which were discussed in Chapter 3.

Chapter 4 provided an analysis and comparison of existing mega-event planning (rather than hosting) models (see Table 4.1) and examined in greater detail the major factors restricting the development of a generic mega-event hosting model in the past. The factors considered most restrictive were variations in *time-line* and the *number of event stages*, which, in turn it was argued, were influenced by *catalysts to event production* including one or a combination of the following:

- event history/tradition,
- demand to host event, and
- perceived event significance.

Based upon these factors and the limitations of existing models a *Generic Model of the Mega-Event Hosting Process* was developed and discussed with an emphasis on the role of community involvement/participation at different stages in that process. Consisting of six basic stages (*inception, pre-bid, bid, pre-event, event* and *post-event*), the generic model is modular in nature enabling it to incorporate those mega-events with pre-determined stages and stringent (and often lengthy) time frames as well as those events which can eventuate as a result of unpredictable circumstances. To highlight its usefulness as both a descriptive and planning tool, the model was applied to several mega-events with varying time-lines and pre-determined event stages. In addition, results from the empirical study indicate that the *Generic Model of the Mega-*

Event Hosting Process allows a more accurate identification of how, and at what stages in the process, stakeholders' perceptions concerning various aspects of hosting a mega-event, can change.

OLYMPIC GAMES: BACKGROUND AND THEORY

Section 2 focused on the history and existing theory relating to the Olympic Games. More specifically the history of the Olympic Games, from the ancient Olympics through to the revival and finally the modern Olympics, was examined in Chapter 5. The results of this examination were used to develop a *Modern Olympic Revival Timeline* (see Figure 5.1) which highlights the contributions of Pierre Fredy, Baron de Coubertin, the Greek poet Panagiotis Soutsos and the English philanthropist Dr. William Brookes in the revival of the modern Olympics. In addition, a summary reflecting upon the theme of community involvement throughout the history of the Olympic Games was provided.

In Chapter 6 the *Generic Model of the Mega-Event Hosting Process* was applied to arguably the largest of all mega-events, the Olympic Games. More specifically, a discussion of the unique *Olympic time-line and stages* and *event-specific factors* influencing the hosting process was provided. The *Model of the Olympic Games Hosting Process* (see Figure 6.1) is considered effective in providing a general representation of the overall Olympic hosting process. In addition, the application of event-specific factors to the Olympic stages and time-line (see Figure 6.2) has helped to gain a better understanding of the roles of individual factors, and their interrelated nature, whilst identifying those *factors* that could perhaps play a more prominent role at various stages in the overall process.

The next area of concern to be discussed were the major factors contributing to the emergence of community involvement as an issue in the planning/hosting of recent Olympic Games, with examples of related research provided (see Chapter 7). It was argued that, with the rising cost and uncertainty surrounding both the promoted benefits and possible costs, it is perhaps not surprising that groups within host communities have begun to query the wisdom of undertaking such a risky endeavour, or at the very least

have begun to show a form of *public ownership*. Ownership expressed as a *desire* to ensure that the image portrayed to the world is one with which they are comfortable and, even more importantly, to ensure that a *white elephant* is not the only legacy left from hosting an Olympic Games. Examples from the relatively limited body of research concerning the potential positive and negative impacts, associated with hosting the Olympic Games (excluding economic impacts), were categorised in Table 7.1

In addition, a selection of studies, concerned specifically with the community involvement in the Olympic Games, was reviewed in greater detail. These studies highlighted examples of the ability that successful community involvement has to influence the various stages in the Olympic hosting process, whilst providing examples of both missed opportunities and what may be considered non-involvement. More significantly, however, the review emphasised the need for further empirical research into the potential long-term benefits and costs associated with the Olympics and the role of community involvement in the Olympic hosting process.

EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

The purpose of the empirical research, outlined in Section 3 of the present study (Chapters 8 to 11), was to fill a void yet to be addressed in the body of available literature. In particular determining the *actual* and *ideal* levels of community involvement, at different stages in Olympic hosting process, as *perceived* by the *host public*, *community/welfare groups* and *bid/organising committees*, and whether or not increased community involvement lead to greater *support* for hosting the Games. The major findings from the empirical research were discussed in greater detail earlier in this chapter.

POTENTIAL FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Opportunities for further research exist in a variety of formats including the possibility of a longitudinal study, such as that established by Ritchie and Aitken (1984) for the 1988 Calgary Winter Olympic Games. Such a study could examine more thoroughly the role of community involvement, as perceived by key stakeholders, over the entire Olympic hosting process, from *inception* through to the *post-event* period. A

study of this type could focus on one particular event however, it may be more practical to examine involvement at different stages in the hosting process for several bid/host cities in order to reduce the time required to complete a study. In addition, this type of research would provide a very real opportunity for several institutions/organisations to undertake research in a cooperative effort, which would result in a reduction of the associated costs for those involved. Comparative research in a number of cities might also shed light on the role and significance of community involvement in different political and socio-economic environments.

Further research aimed at determining the extent and implications of the apparent *free rider problem* and the effectiveness of different levels of involvement and forms of participation at the various stages in the hosting process could also be beneficial to event organisers and other stakeholders. Once again the opportunity exists for a cooperative effort in detailing the many and varied approaches to community involvement for different mega-events around the world, in an effort to determine which are considered most effective by the various stakeholders involved.

In addition, mega-events that occur on a more regular basis, such as the Melbourne Formula One Grand Prix and the Gold Coast Indy Car race, provide opportunities to examine, over an extended period of time, the long-term economic and social impacts associated with hosting a mega-event in order to determine whether the promoted benefits are actually forthcoming.

CONCLUSIONS

Whilst the current study has been relatively successful in achieving its desired purpose, despite the difficulties experienced during data collection, it has, above all else, highlighted the need for further and continued research into the *potential impacts* and *community involvement* associated with the Olympic Games and mega-events in general. As the Olympic Games continue to grow in size and stature, the associated impacts, both positive and negative, particularly on the communities that host them, will continue to escalate. In turn, with much of the publicised rationale, for hosting such events, based upon their purported societal benefits (discussed in Chapter 2), it can be

expected that the issue of community involvement and its role in the hosting process of such events will also grow in significance. This is particularly the case with successful examples of involvement now available, such as the Toronto experience. However, as the IOC is itself not a democratically constructed organisation, the idea of community consultation is perhaps not something which it might be expected to fully understand, let alone champion.

It might be suggested that, as the trend away from a *political* approach and towards a fully *planned* approach to mega-event production increases, so too will the weight that community perceptions of such events carry.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: CANDIDATURE QUESTIONNAIRE THEMES

1. National and international characteristics of the country
2. Candidate city
3. Customs and immigration formalities
4. Meteorological conditions
5. Environmental protection
6. Security
7. Health/Medical system
8. Olympic village
9. Accommodation (except Olympic village)
10. Transport
11. Olympic Games Programme
12. Proposed competition sites
13. Cultural programme and youth camp
14. IOC Session
15. Ceremonies
16. Media
17. Telecommunications
18. Data processing services and links
19. Finance
20. Marketing
21. Communications, image and Olympism
22. Legal aspects
23. Sports experience

IOC (1992:22)

APPENDIX 2: ATLANTA AND SYDNEY HOST PUBLIC QUESTIONNAIRES

“The Role of Community Involvement in the *Atlanta* Olympic Games Hosting Process - Questionnaire.”

Date: _____

Location: _____

Survey No.: _____

Hello, my name is Peter Haxton, and I am a PhD student from the University of Technology, Sydney, Australia. I am currently conducting research to investigate the role of community involvement in the mega-event hosting process, by using the Atlanta 1996 and Sydney 2000 Olympics as case studies. I would be very grateful if you could spare 10-15 minutes of your time to answer some questions regarding the Atlanta Olympic Games. (All responses will be kept strictly confidential).

- Q1.** a) Thinking of your own feelings, at this point in time, how supportive of Atlanta hosting the 1996 Olympic Games are you (please circle one number)?

Very Unsupportive	1	2	3	4	5	Very Supportive

- b) Please give reasons, if any, for your level of support:

1) _____

2) _____

- Q2.** As you recall, what was your level of support for the '96 Atlanta Olympics:

- a) when Atlanta won the right to host the Games?

Very Unsupportive	1	2	3	4	5	Very Supportive

- b) in the period of time between winning the right to host the Games and now?

Very Unsupportive	1	2	3	4	5	Very Supportive

- Q3.** If your level of support *has* changed (that is, your responses for Q2 were not the same), were there any specific reasons for this change (please specify)?

1) _____

2) _____

- Q4.** How many events 'have you gone to' **OR** 'do you intend to go to' at the Atlanta Olympics (please circle one of the following)?

None	1-4	5-9	10+

Using the definitions below as guidelines, please answer Q5 and Q6.

Levels of 'Community Involvement' may include:

1. **None at All**- where projects (eg. Olympics) proceed without information being provided to the community.
2. **Information Sharing**- where information regarding projects is shared with the community.
3. **Consultation**- where the community is not only informed, but asked for opinions on key issues.
4. **Decision-Making**- where the community is involved in decision making.
5. **Community Action**- where decisions regarding projects are made primarily by the community.

Q5. a) As you recall, what was the level of 'community involvement' when Atlanta was bidding for the right to host the Games (please circle one number)?

None at All	1	2	3	4	5	Community Action

b) Which level of community involvement would have been ideal during this period (please write one number)? _____

Q6. a) As you recall, what was the level of 'community involvement' in the period of time between winning the right to host the Games, and now?

None at All	1	2	3	4	5	Community Action

b) Which level of community involvement would have been ideal during this period (please write one number)? _____

Q7. Please '*rank*' the following Olympic Games related issues, from 1 'Most important' to 7 'Least important' (please place a number beside each issue). It may help to ask, "Which of the following am I most concerned about (1)? Followed by (2)? etc.".

- _____ Impact on lifestyle (overcrowding, higher prices etc.).
- _____ Cost of infrastructure (venues, roads etc.).
- _____ Welfare issues (homeless, low income families).
- _____ Ticket availability and affordability.
- _____ Community involvement in planning for the Games.
- _____ Enjoying the event.
- _____ Using facilities after the event (venues, parks etc.).

Q8. a) What do you think *were* the major reasons behind Atlanta bidding to host the 1996 Olympic Games?

- 1) _____
- 2) _____

b) What do you believe *should* be the major reasons (benefits to be gained) to bid for an event such as the Olympics?

- 1) _____
- 2) _____

Q9. Which (if any) of the following forms of community participation, were you made aware of in the lead up to the Atlanta Olympics (please tick)?

- ☐ 1) Public meetings.
☐ 2) Descriptive information (leaflets, media, etc.).
☐ 3) Community meetings in areas where Olympic venues were proposed.
☐ 4) Social impact studies.
☐ 5) Others.

If Aware of One or More Forms of Community Participation (above):

a) Which did you take advantage of (that is, attend, read etc.)? Please circle as many as appropriate.

1	2	3	4	5
Public Meetings	Descriptive Information	Meetings in Areas where Venues were Proposed	Social Impact Studies	Others

b) If you didn't take advantage of the ones you were aware of, please state reasons for this?

- 1) _____
 2) _____

If Not Aware of Any:

a) Which forms of community participation (if any) would you have taken advantage of (attended, read etc.) if you had known of their existence?

1	2	3	4	5
Public Meetings	Descriptive Information	Meetings in Areas where Venues were Proposed	Social Impact Studies	Others

b) Why?

- 1) _____
 2) _____

Q10. a) Do you feel that you contributed to the planning/hosting of the Games (please tick)?

No _____ 1
 Yes _____ 2

b) If Yes: How?

- 1) _____
 2) _____

Q11. If you had felt more involved in the planning/hosting process for the Atlanta Olympics, what effect would this have had on your overall support for the Games?

1	2	3	4	5
Greatly Decreased	Moderately Decreased	Remained Unchanged	Moderately Increased	Greatly Increased

Q12. The following are a list of statements concerning the '96 Atlanta Olympic Games. For each, please indicate whether you *Strongly Disagree*, *Moderately Disagree*, *Neither Agree nor Disagree*, *Moderately Agree*, or *Strongly Agree*. Do you agree or disagree that (please circle one number):

	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Neither	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
a) Organizers made a serious effort to incorporate the residents of Atlanta & Georgia into the planning process.	1	2	3	4	5
b) The benefits to Atlanta from hosting the Olympics are greater than the costs associated with it.	1	2	3	4	5
c) Community involvement does not lead to better planning and decision making for mega-events (such as the Olympics).	1	2	3	4	5
d) Community involvement functions as an early warning system, helping organizers to avoid or plan for decisions that might otherwise cause conflict with the host community.	1	2	3	4	5
e) Services (accessibility, accommodation etc.) for disabled persons in Atlanta have improved as a result of hosting the Olympics.	1	2	3	4	5
f) Lobby groups (such as welfare organizations) played a major role in the planning process.	1	2	3	4	5
g) Organizers successfully incorporated the residents of Atlanta and Georgia into the planning process.	1	2	3	4	5
h) I would have liked to have felt more involved in the planning process for the Atlanta Olympics.	1	2	3	4	5
i) Ensuring local input (if heeded) helps to legitimize the decision making process.	1	2	3	4	5

Q13. How many years have you lived in the State of Georgia? _____

Q14. In which city/town and suburb do you live? _____

Q15. Into which of the following categories does your annual household income fall?

1	2	3	4
Less than \$25 000	\$25 000 - \$49 999	\$50 000 - \$74 999	Over \$75 000

Q16. What do you do for a living? _____

Q17. What was your age last birthday? _____

Q18. Gender of respondent (please tick)? Male _____ 1 Female _____ 2

The Perceived Role of Community Involvement in the *Sydney* Olympic Games Hosting Process - Questionnaire.

Date: _____

(office use only) Questionnaire No.: _____

(All responses will be kept strictly confidential).

- Q1.** a) Thinking of your own feelings, at this point in time, how supportive of Sydney hosting the 2000 Olympic Games are you (please circle one number)?

Very Unsupportive	1	2	3	4	5	Very Supportive

- b) Please give reasons for your level of support:

- Q2.** As you recall, what was your level of support for the 2000 Sydney Olympics:

- a) when Sydney won the right to host the Games?

Very Unsupportive	1	2	3	4	5	Very Supportive

- b) in the period of time between winning the right to host the Games and now?

Very Unsupportive	1	2	3	4	5	Very Supportive

- Q3.** If your level of support *has* changed (that is, any of your responses for Q1 & Q2 are not the same), are there any specific reasons for this change (please specify)?

- Q4.** How many events *would you realistically like to attend* at the Sydney Olympics (please circle one of the following)?

None	1-4	5-9	10+

- Q5.** How many events *do you realistically believe you will attend* at the Sydney Olympics (please circle one of the following)?

None	1-4	5-9	10+

Using the definitions below, please answer Q6 and Q7.

For the purposes of this study, different levels of *Community Involvement* are categorised as:

1. **None at All**- where projects (eg. Olympics) proceed without information being provided to the community (that is, residents, community/lobby groups etc.).
2. **Information Sharing**- where information regarding projects is shared with the community.
3. **Consultation**- where the community is not only informed, but also asked for opinions on key issues.
4. **Decision-Making**- where the community is involved in decision making.
5. **Community Action**- where decisions regarding projects are made primarily by the community.

- Q6. a) As you recall, what was the level of *community involvement* when Sydney was bidding for the right to host the Games (please circle one number)?

None at All	1	2	3	4	5	Community Action

- b) Which level of community involvement would have been *ideal* during this period (please write one number)? _____

- Q7. a) As you recall, what was the level of *community involvement* in the period of time between winning the right to host the Games and now?

None at All	1	2	3	4	5	Community Action

- b) Which level of community involvement would have been ideal during this period (please write one number)? _____

- Q8. Please 'rank' the following Olympic Games related issues, from 1 *Most important* to 7 *Least important* (please place a number beside each issue). It may help to ask, "Which of the following am I most concerned about (1)? Followed by (2)? etc.".

- _____ Impact on lifestyle (overcrowding, higher prices etc.).
- _____ Cost of infrastructure (venues, roads etc.).
- _____ Welfare issues (homeless, low income families).
- _____ Ticket availability and affordability.
- _____ Community involvement in planning for the Games.
- _____ Enjoying the event.
- _____ Efficient use of facilities after the event (venues, parks etc.).

- Q9. a) What do you believe *were* the major reasons behind Sydney bidding to host the 2000 Olympic Games?

- b) What do you believe *should* be the major reasons (benefits to be gained) to bid for and host an event such as the Olympics?

Q10. Which (if any) of the following forms of community participation, have you been made aware of since Sydney bid for the Olympics (please tick)?

- ☐ 1) Public meetings.
☐ 2) Descriptive information (leaflets, media, etc.).
☐ 3) Community meetings in areas where Olympic venues were proposed.
☐ 4) Social impact studies.
☐ 5) Others. Please specify: _____

If Aware of One or More Forms of Community Participation (mentioned above):

a) Which did you take advantage of (that is, attend, read etc.)? Please circle as many as appropriate.

1	2	3	4	5
Public Meetings	Descriptive Information	Meetings in Areas where Venues were Proposed	Social Impact Studies	Others

b) Why did you choose to take advantage of these in particular?

Q11. a) What type of contribution do you feel the community has provided during the bid and planning process (thus far) of the Sydney Games (please circle)?

No Contribution	1	2	3	4	5	Major Contribution

b) Why do you feel this?

Q12. What type of *role* do you believe the community *has* played, thus far, in the planning process for the Sydney Games?

No role at all	1	2	3	4	5	Very Influential Role

Q13. What type of *role* do you believe the community *should ideally* play in the planning process for mega-events such as the Olympic Games?

No role at all	1	2	3	4	5	Very Influential Role

Q14. If you felt more involved in the planning process for the Sydney Olympics, what affect would this have on your overall support for the Games?

1	2	3	4	5
Greatly Decrease	Moderately Decrease	Remain Unchanged	Moderately Increase	Greatly Increase

Q15. The following are statements concerning the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games. For each, please indicate whether you *Strongly Disagree*, *Moderately Disagree*, *Neither Agree nor Disagree*, *Moderately Agree*, or *Strongly Agree* (please circle one number):

	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Neither	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
a) Organisers have made a serious effort to incorporate the residents of Sydney & NSW into the planning process.	1	2	3	4	5
b) The benefits to Sydney from hosting the Olympics will be greater than the costs (monetary and otherwise) associated with it.	1	2	3	4	5
c) Community involvement does not lead to better planning and decision making for mega-events (such as the Olympics).	1	2	3	4	5
d) Community involvement functions as an early warning system, helping organisers to avoid or plan for decisions that might otherwise cause conflict with the host community.	1	2	3	4	5
e) Services (accessibility, accommodation etc.) for disabled persons in Sydney will improve as a result of hosting the Olympics.	1	2	3	4	5
f) Lobby groups (such as welfare organisations) are playing a major role in the planning process.	1	2	3	4	5
g) Organisers are successfully incorporating the residents of Sydney and NSW into the planning process.	1	2	3	4	5
h) I would like to feel more involved in the planning process for the Sydney Olympics.	1	2	3	4	5
i) Ensuring local input (if heeded) helps to legitimise the decision making process for events such as the Olympics.	1	2	3	4	5

Q16. How many years have you lived in NSW? _____

Q17. In which city/town and suburb do you live? _____

Q18. Into which of the following categories does your annual household income fall?

1	2	3	4
Less than \$25 000	\$25 000 - \$49 999	\$50 000 - \$74 999	Over \$75 000

Q19. What do you do for a living? _____

Q20. What was your age last birthday? _____

Q21. Gender of respondent (please tick)? Male _____ 1 Female _____ 2

APPENDIX 3: SYDNEY COMMUNITY/WELFARE GROUP QUESTIONNAIRE

The Perceived Role of Community Involvement in the Sydney Olympic Games Hosting Process - Questionnaire.

Date: _____

(office use only) Questionnaire No.: _____

Hello, my name is Peter Haxton, and I am a post-graduate (PhD) student from the University of Technology, Sydney. I am currently conducting research to investigate *the perceived role of community involvement* in the mega-event hosting process, by using the *Sydney 2000 Olympics* as a case study. As part of my research, I am interested in obtaining opinions on this issue from community groups and organisations who made submissions to the *Preliminary Social Impact Assessment for the Sydney 2000 Olympic and Paralympic Games* in 1994, in conjunction with those of other interested parties.

I would be very grateful if you could spare approximately 15-20 minutes of your time to answer some questions regarding *community involvement* in the Sydney Olympic Games. *Please answer the following questions as a representative of your community/lobby group.* (All responses will be kept strictly confidential).

- Q1.** a) How supportive of Sydney hosting the 2000 Olympic Games is your community/lobby group at this point in time (please circle one number)?

Very Unsupportive	1	2	3	4	5	Very Supportive

- b) Please give reasons for your level of support:

- Q2.** As you recall, what was your group's level of support for the Sydney 2000 Olympics:

- a) when Sydney won the right to host the Games?

Very Unsupportive	1	2	3	4	5	Very Supportive

- b) in the period of time between winning the right to host the Games & now?

Very Unsupportive	1	2	3	4	5	Very Supportive

- Q3.** If your group's level of support *has* changed at any time (that is, any of your responses for Q1 & Q2 are not the same), are there any reasons for this change (please specify)?

Using the definitions below, please answer Q4 and Q5.

For the purposes of this study, different levels of *Community Involvement* are categorised as:

1. **None at All**- where projects (eg. Olympics) proceed without information being provided to the community (that is, residents, community/lobby groups etc.).
2. **Information Sharing**- where information regarding projects is shared with the community.
3. **Consultation**- where the community is not only informed, but asked for opinions on key issues.
4. **Decision-Making**- where the community is involved in decision making.
5. **Community Action**- where decisions regarding projects are made primarily by the community.

- Q4. a) How would you categorise the level of *community involvement* when Sydney was bidding for the right to host the Games (please circle one number)?

None at All	1	2	3	4	5	Community Action

b) Which level of community involvement would have been *ideal* during this period (please write one number)? _____

- Q5. a) How would you categorise the level of *community involvement* in the period of time between winning the right to host the Games and now?

None at All	1	2	3	4	5	Community Action

b) Which level of community involvement would have been *ideal* during this period (please write one number)? _____

- Q6. Please 'rank' the following Olympic Games related issues, from 1 *Most important* to 7 *Least important* (please place a number beside each issue). It may help to ask, "Which of the following was our community/lobby group most concerned about? (1) Followed by? (2) etc."

- _____ Impact on lifestyle (overcrowding, higher prices etc.).
- _____ Cost of infrastructure (venues, roads etc.).
- _____ Welfare issues (homeless, low income families).
- _____ Ticket availability and affordability.
- _____ Community involvement in planning for the Games.
- _____ Ensuring the host community enjoys the event.
- _____ Efficient use of facilities after the event (venues, parks etc.).

- Q7. a) What do you believe *were* the major reasons behind Sydney bidding to host the 2000 Olympic Games?

b) What do you believe *should* be the major reasons (benefits to be gained) to bid for and host an event such as the Olympics?

Q8. Which (if any) of the following forms of community participation have you, as a community group, been made aware of since Sydney bid for the Olympics (please tick as many as appropriate)?

- ☐ 1) Public meetings.
☐ 2) Descriptive information (leaflets, media, etc.).
☐ 3) Community meetings in areas where Olympic venues were proposed.
☐ 4) Social impact studies.
☐ 5) Others. Please specify: _____

If Aware of One or More Forms of Community Participation (above):

a) Which did your community group take advantage of (that is, attend, read, analyse etc.)? Please circle as many as appropriate.

1	2	3	4	5
Public Meetings	Descriptive Information	Meetings in Areas where Venues were Proposed	Social Impact Studies	Others

b) Why did your group choose to take advantage of these in particular?

 -

Q9. a) What type of contribution do you feel your community group provided during the bid and planning process (thus far) of the Sydney Games (please tick)?

No Contribution	1	2	3	4	5	Major Contribution

b) Why do you feel this?

Q10. What type of *role* do you believe community and lobby groups *have* played, thus far, in the planning process for the Sydney Games?

No role at all	1	2	3	4	5	Very Influential

Q11. What type of *role* do you believe community/lobby groups *should ideally* play in the planning process for mega-events such as the Olympic Games?

No role at all	1	2	3	4	5	Very Influential

Q12. If your community group was more involved in the planning/hosting process for the Sydney Olympics, what affect would this have on your groups overall support for the Games?

1	2	3	4	5
Greatly Decrease	Moderately Decrease	Remain Unchanged	Moderately Increase	Greatly Increase

Q13. The following are statements concerning the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games. For each, please indicate whether you *Strongly Disagree*, *Moderately Disagree*, *Neither Agree nor Disagree*, *Moderately Agree*, or *Strongly Agree* (please circle one number per question):

	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Neither	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
a) Organisers have made a serious effort to incorporate the residents of Sydney & NSW into the planning process.	1	2	3	4	5
b) The benefits to Sydney from hosting the Olympics will be greater than the costs (monetary and otherwise) associated with it.	1	2	3	4	5
c) Community involvement does not lead to better planning and decision making for mega-events (such as the Olympics).	1	2	3	4	5
d) Community involvement functions as an early warning system, helping organisers to avoid or plan for decisions that might otherwise cause conflict with the host community.	1	2	3	4	5
e) Services (accessibility, accommodation etc.) for disabled persons in Sydney will improve as a result of hosting the Olympics.	1	2	3	4	5
f) A concerted effort is being made by organisers to involve community/lobby groups in the planning process for the Sydney Olympics?	1	2	3	4	5
g) Lobby groups (such as welfare organisations) are playing a major role in the planning process.	1	2	3	4	5
h) Organisers are successfully incorporating the residents of Sydney and NSW into the planning process.	1	2	3	4	5
i) I would like our group to be more involved in the planning process for the Sydney Olympics.	1	2	3	4	5
j) Sufficient opportunities/forums are being provided for members of the community and community groups to obtain information/air concerns regarding the Olympics.	1	2	3	4	5
k) Ensuring local input (if heeded) helps to legitimise the decision making process for events such as the Olympics.	1	2	3	4	5

Q14. If there are any other aspects of community involvement in the mega-event hosting process that you would like to mention, please do so in the space provided.

Thank you for your time.

APPENDIX 4: SYDNEY COMMUNITY/WELFARE GROUP MAILING LIST

1. The Board of Social Responsibility
2. NSW Council of Social Services
3. NSW Ecumenical Council
4. Shelter NSW
5. Local Government Association
6. Ethnic Communities Council
7. Public Interest Advocacy Centre
8. Pensioners and Superannuants Federation
9. People with Disabilities NSW Inc
10. NSW Aboriginal Land Council
11. Western Sydney Regional Organisation of Councils
12. Inner Metropolitan Regional Organisation of Councils
13. United Way Sydney Ltd
14. Tenants Union of NSW
15. NSW Federation of Housing Associations Inc
16. Community Arts Association of NSW
17. International Social Service
18. The Salvation Army
19. Wesley Mission Community Services
20. St Vincent De Paul Society

APPENDIX 5: WEIGHTED VS NON-WEIGHTED ANALYSIS OF KEY OPINION VARIABLES BY AGE

Atlanta Host Public

Weighted vs Non-Weighted Analysis			
Key Opinion Variables		Average Non-Weighted responses (n=234)	Average Weighted responses (n=234)
Q1a. Present level of support	(1- very unsupportive to 5- very supportive)	4.7	4.7
Q2a. Level of support when Sydney won right to host		4.4	4.3
Q2b. Level of support since winning right to host		4.3	4.3
Q4. How many events want to attend	(1- none to 4- ten+)	2.2	2.2
Q5a. Level of community involvement during bid	(1- least to 5- most)	2.6	2.6
Q5b. Ideal level of involvement during bid		3.5	3.6
Q6a. Level of involvement since bid		3.2	3.2
Q6b. Ideal level of involvement since bid		3.9	3.9
Q7. Ranking Olympic Issues	(1- most important to 7- least important)		
(1) Enjoying the event		3.4	3.4
(2) Impact on lifestyle		3.7	3.7
(3) Cost of Infrastructure		3.8	3.7
(4) Efficient use of facilities after Games		3.8	3.8
(5) Ticket availability and affordability		4.1	4.0
(6) Community involvement in planning		4.2	4.3
(7) Welfare issues		5.2	5.0

Sydney Host Public

Weighted vs Non-Weighted Analysis			
Key Opinion Variables		Average Non-Weighted responses (n=246)	Average Weighted responses (n=246)
Q1a. Present level of support	(1- very unsupportive to 5- very supportive)	3.8	3.8
Q2a. Level of support when Sydney won right to host		3.9	4.0
Q2b. Level of support since winning right to host		3.7	3.7
Q4. How many events want to attend	(1- none to 4- ten+)	2.2	2.2
Q5. How many events believe will attend		1.4	1.4
Q6a. Level of community involvement during bid	(1- least to 5- most)	1.9	1.9
Q6b. Ideal level of involvement during bid		3.4	3.3
Q7a. Level of involvement since bid		2.0	2.1
Q7b. Ideal level of involvement since bid		3.5	3.5
Q8. Ranking Olympic Issues	(1- most important to 7- least important)		
(1) Impact on lifestyle		3.4	3.4
(2) Cost of Infrastructure		3.4	3.4
(3) Efficient use of facilities after Games		3.7	3.7
(4) Welfare issues		3.8	3.9
(5) Ticket availability and affordability		4.3	4.2
(6) Community involvement in planning		4.6	4.6
(7) Enjoying the event		4.9	4.9

APPENDIX 6: SYDNEY BID/ORGANISING COMMITTEE QUESTIONNAIRE

The Perceived Role of Community Involvement in the Sydney Olympic Games Hosting Process - Questionnaire.

Date: _____

(office use only) Questionnaire No.: _____

Hello, my name is Peter Haxton, and I am a post-graduate (PhD) student from the University of Technology, Sydney. I am currently conducting research to investigate *the perceived role of community involvement* in the mega-event hosting process, by using the *Sydney 2000 Olympics* as a case study. As part of my research, I am interested in obtaining opinions on this issue from those people who are/were directly involved in the bid and planning stages for the Sydney Games, particularly members of the Sydney 2000 Bid and Community Support Committees, and SOCOG Board members.

I would be grateful if you could spare approximately 15-20 minutes of your time to provide some of your views regarding *community involvement* and the Sydney Olympic Games.

(All responses will be kept strictly confidential)

Q1. a) How supportive of Sydney hosting the 2000 Olympic Games do you believe the community (residents of Sydney and NSW) are *at the present time* (please circle one number)?

Very Unsupportive	1	2	3	4	5	Very Supportive

b) Why do you believe community support is at this level?

Q2. As you recall, what was the level of community support for the 2000 Sydney Olympics:

a) when Sydney won the right to host the Games?

Very Unsupportive	1	2	3	4	5	Very Supportive

b) in the period of time between winning the right to host the Games & now?

Very Unsupportive	1	2	3	4	5	Very Supportive

Q3. If you believe community support for the Games *has* changed (that is, any of your responses for Q1 & Q2 are not the same), are there any reasons for this change (please specify)?

Using the definitions below, please answer Q4 and Q5.

For the purposes of this study, different levels of *Community Involvement* are categorised as:

1. **None at All**- where projects (eg. Olympics) proceed without information being provided to the community (that is, residents, community/lobby groups etc.).
2. **Information Sharing**- where information regarding projects is shared with the community.
3. **Consultation**- where the community is not only informed, but asked for opinions on key issues.
4. **Decision-Making**- where the community is involved in decision making.
5. **Community Action**- where decisions regarding projects are made primarily by the community.

Q4. a) How would you categorise the level of *community involvement* when Sydney was bidding for the right to host the Games (please circle one number)?

None at All	1	2	3	4	5	Community Action

b) Which level of community involvement would have been *ideal* during this period (please write one number)? _____

c) Why? _____

Q5. a) How would you categorise the level of *community involvement* in the period of time between winning the right to host the Games and now?

None at All	1	2	3	4	5	Community Action

b) Which level of community involvement would have been *ideal* during this period (please write one number)? _____

c) Why? _____

Q6. As a member of the organising committee for the Sydney Games, which of the following Olympic related issues were you most concerned about in the planning stage of the Games. Please 'rank' the issues, from 1 *Most important* to 7 *Least important* (place only one number beside each issue).

- _____ Impact on lifestyle (overcrowding, higher prices etc.).
- _____ Cost of infrastructure (venues, roads etc.).
- _____ Welfare issues (homeless, low income families).
- _____ Ticket availability and affordability.
- _____ Community involvement in planning for the Games.
- _____ Ensuring the host community enjoys the event.
- _____ Efficient use of facilities after the event (venues, parks etc.).

Q7. a) In brief, *what were the major reasons* for Sydney's bid to host the 1996 Olympic Games?

b) In light of your experiences with the Sydney Games thus far and taking into consideration past Olympics (such as Atlanta), what do you believe *should be the major reasons* (benefits to be gained) to bid for and host an event such as the Olympics?

Q8. a) Which of the following forms of community participation have been provided for residents, community and lobby groups, thus far, in preparation for the Sydney Olympics (please tick as many as appropriate)?

- ☐ 1) Public meetings.
☐ 2) Descriptive information (leaflets, media, etc.).
☐ 3) Community meetings in areas where Olympic venues were proposed.
☐ 4) Social impact studies.
☐ 5) Others.

Please specify: _____

b) Which form(s) do you believe were most effective in helping attain a level of participation most beneficial to the overall planning process? Please circle as many as appropriate.

1	2	3	4	5
Public Meetings	Descriptive Information	Meetings in Areas where Venues were Proposed	Social Impact Studies	Others

c) Please elaborate:

Q9. a) What type of contribution do you feel residents, community and lobby groups have provided, thus far, to the overall planning process of the Sydney Games (please circle one number)?

No Contribution	1	2	3	4	5	Major Contribution

b) Why do you feel this?

Q10. What type of *role* do you believe the host community and lobby groups *have* played, thus far, in the planning process for the Sydney Games?

No role at all	1	2	3	4	5	Very Influential

Q11. What type of *role* do you believe the host community and lobby groups *should ideally* play in the planning process for mega-events such as the Olympic Games?

No role at all	1	2	3	4	5	Very Influential

Q12. If residents, and community/lobby groups were more involved in the planning/hosting process for the Sydney Olympics, what affect do you believe this would have on overall community support for the Games?

Greatly Decrease	1	2	3	4	5	Greatly Increase

Q13. The following are statements concerning the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games. For each, please indicate whether you *Strongly Disagree*, *Moderately Disagree*, *Neither Agree nor Disagree*, *Moderately Agree*, or *Strongly Agree* (please circle one number):

	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Neither	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
a) Organisers have made a serious effort to incorporate the residents of Sydney & NSW into the planning process.	1	2	3	4	5
b) The benefits to Sydney from hosting the Olympics will be greater than the costs (monetary and otherwise) associated with it.	1	2	3	4	5
c) Community involvement does not lead to better planning and decision making for mega-events (such as the Olympics).	1	2	3	4	5
d) Community involvement functions as an early warning system, helping organisers to avoid or plan for decisions that might otherwise cause conflict with the host community.	1	2	3	4	5
e) Services (accessibility, accommodation etc.) for disabled persons in Sydney will improve as a result of hosting the Olympics.	1	2	3	4	5
f) A concerted effort is being made by organisers to involve community/lobby groups in the planning process for the Sydney Olympics?	1	2	3	4	5
g) Lobby groups (such as welfare organisations) are playing a major role in the planning process.	1	2	3	4	5
h) Organisers are successfully incorporating the residents of Sydney and NSW into the planning process.	1	2	3	4	5
i) Sufficient opportunities/forums are being provided for members of the community and community groups to obtain information/air concerns regarding the Olympics.	1	2	3	4	5
j) Ensuring local input (if heeded) helps to legitimise the decision making process for events such as the Olympics.	1	2	3	4	5

Q14. a) If there were increased levels of community involvement in the planning process for the Sydney Olympics, what affect would this have on the organising committee's ability to successfully stage the Games?

Greatly Decrease	1	2	3	4	5	Greatly Increase

b) Why?

Q15. If there are any other aspects of community involvement in the mega-event hosting process that you would like to mention, please do so in the space provided.

Thank you for your time.

APPENDIX 7: ATLANTA SURVEY COMPLETION RECORD FORM

Date: _____

Location: _____

[illegible]

APPENDIX 8: STATISTICAL SUMMARY- ATLANTA HOST PUBLIC

Sample Size	234
Q1a) Level of support at the time of the Atlanta Games	
	Valid % of responses
Very Unsupportive	0
>	2.1
>	3.8
>	11.5
Very Supportive	82.5

Q1b) Reasons for level of support (top 50)		
	% of responses	% of cases
Int' attention/exposure	8.4	14.3
Pride in city	6.8	11.6
Once-in-a-lifetime opportunity	6.2	10.6
Fun/exciting	5.9	10.1
Benefit city	5.6	9.5
Economic benefits	5	8.5
Int' interaction	3.4	5.8
Opportunity to see Games	3.1	5.3
Promote world peace	2.8	4.8
Exposure for Atlanta	2.5	4.2
Honour to host	2.5	4.2
Community spirit	2.2	3.7
Unite city	2.2	3.7
Meeting people	2.2	3.7
Well organised by ACOG	1.9	3.2
Resident of Atlanta	1.9	3.2
Interested in sports	1.5	2.6
Got to see events/athletes	1.5	2.6
Facilities	1.5	2.6
Infrastructure	1.5	2.6
Inconvenience/disruption	1.5	2.6
Concerned about traffic/transport	1.5	2.6
Friendship and peace	1.2	2.1
Visitors welcomed	1.2	2.1
Int' respect	1.2	2.1
Shows South in good light	1.2	2.1
Rejuvenate city	1.2	2.1
Community involvement	0.9	1.6
Recognition	0.9	1.6
Int' visitors	0.9	1.6
Georgia represents USA well	0.9	1.6
Promote business	0.9	1.6
Want Olympics in USA	0.9	1.6
Worked hard to keep safe	0.9	1.6
Helped improve lifestyle	0.9	1.6
Great place to host Olympics	0.9	1.6
Resident of GA	0.9	1.6

Good for image	0.6	1.1
Great event	0.6	1.1
Boost to culture	0.6	1.1
Prosperity of city	0.6	1.1
Too much greed	0.6	1.1
Worked hard to be ready	0.6	1.1
Supplied work	0.6	1.1
Good for GA	0.6	1.1
National pride	0.6	1.1
Makes Atlanta 'the' southern city	0.3	0.5
Greatest peace time event	0.3	0.5
Better customer service	0.3	0.5
Rejuvenate downtown	0.3	0.5
Total responses n=189	93.2	160.4

Q2a) Level of support when Atlanta won the right to host the Games		
	Valid % of responses	
Very Unsupportive	2.2	
>	3.9	
>	14.3	
>	13.9	
Very Supportive	65.7	

Q2b) Level of support between winning the right to, and hosting the Games		
	Valid % of responses	
Very Unsupportive	1.3	
>	4.3	
>	14.5	
>	22.2	
Very Supportive	57.7	

Q3) Reasons for any change in level of support		
	% of responses	% of cases
More relevant as time passed	10.7	15.1
Traffic problems	8.7	12.3
Fun/excitement of Games	7.3	10.4
Doubts Atlanta could pull it off	6	8.5
Disruption to normal life	5.3	7.5
Turned out better than expected	4.7	6.6
ACOG could have done better	4	5.7
Construction hassles	3.3	4.7
Initial 'joy' turned to reality	3.3	4.7
Upgrade of city	2.7	3.8
Got more involved	2.7	3.8
Multicultural melting pot	2	2.8
Exposure	2	2.8
City came alive	2	2.8
Over-exposure in media	2	2.8
Realism	2	2.8
Negative press	2	2.8
Benefits to city	1.3	1.9

Venues/facilities	1.3	1.9
Community involvement	1.3	1.9
Efforts of city and surrounding areas	1.3	1.9
Volunteered	1.3	1.9
Atlanta is doing a great job	1.3	1.9
ACOG played politics	1.3	1.9
Tickets hard to get	1.3	1.9
Nervous about security	1.3	1.9
Work was affected	1.3	1.9
Didn't live here when they won	1.3	1.9
once-in-a-lifetime experience	1.3	1.9
Anticipated traffic problems	1.3	1.9
Anticipated congestion/disruption	1.3	1.9
Feel safer	0.7	0.9
Effort of volunteers	0.7	0.9
ACOG did better than expected	0.7	0.9
Organisers' greed	0.7	0.9
Disliked	0.7	0.9
Tickets expensive	0.7	0.9
Congestion in City	0.7	0.9
Problems could tarnish image	0.7	0.9
Cost to taxpayers	0.7	0.9
Cities -ve attitude to events	0.7	0.9
Politics now over	0.7	0.9
Disappointed in architecture	0.7	0.9
ACOG's superior attitude	0.7	0.9
Media coverage	0.7	0.9
Augusta left out of venues	0.7	0.9
Disliked mascot	0.7	0.9
Total	100	141.5
n=106		

Q4) How many events did/will you attend	
	Valid % of responses
None	13.2
1-4	62.4
5-9	19.7
10+	4.7

Q5a) Perceived level of community involvement during bid stage	
	Valid % of responses
<u>None at all</u> - projects proceed without information being provided to the community.	14.2
<u>Information Sharing</u> - information regarding projects is shared with the community.	40.3
<u>Consultation</u> - the community is not only informed, but also asked for opinions on key issues,	24.8
<u>Decision-Making</u> - the community is involved in the decision-making process	14.6
<u>Community Action</u> - decisions regarding projects are made primarily by the community.	6.2
n=226	

Q5b) Level of involvement respondents considered <i>ideal</i> during bid stage	
	Valid % of responses
None at all	2.2
Information Sharing	12.7
Consultation	34.5
Decision-Making	30.6
Community Action	20.1
n=229	

Q6a) Perceived level of involvement post-bid	
	Valid % of responses
None at all	4.7
Information Sharing	20.9
Consultation	34.2
Decision-Making	26.1
Community Action	14.1

Q6b) Level of involvement respondents considered <i>ideal</i> post-bid	
	Valid % of responses
None at all	1.3
Information Sharing	4.3
Consultation	28.6
Decision-Making	38.9
Community Action	26.9

Q7) Ranking Olympic Issues								
	% of cases							
	Most Important 1	2	3	4	5	6	Least Important 7	Mean
Impact on lifestyle	20.9	12.8	16.7	12.8	9.0	13.7	14.1	3.7
Cost of infrastructure	16.7	17.1	12.4	12.4	15.4	17.1	9.0	3.8
Welfare issues	6.8	10.3	8.1	9.8	16.2	14.5	33.8	5.2
Ticket availability and affordability	7.7	15.0	19.7	15.8	13.7	13.2	15.0	4.1
Community involvement in planning	11.1	11.5	11.5	16.7	20.9	20.1	8.1	4.2
Enjoying the event	24.8	15.4	17.5	9.4	14.1	10.7	8.1	3.4
Using facilities after the event	12.0	17.9	14.1	23.5	9.8	10.7	12.0	3.8

Q8a) What <i>were</i> the major reasons for bidding for the Games		
	% of responses	% of cases
Economic	24.8	44.2
Show Atlanta is Int' city	8.7	15.5
Int' recognition	5.4	9.7
Int' exposure	5.2	9.3
Billy Payne/Andrew Young	5.2	9.3
Exposure for Atlanta	4.5	8

Pride in city	3.7	6.6
Show world the South	3.7	6.6
Honour to host Olympics	3.5	6.2
Promote city	3.2	5.8
Show capabilities	2.7	4.9
Attract 'big business'	2.5	4.4
Improve image/reputation	2.5	4.4
Infrastructure	2.5	4.4
Benefit city	2.2	4
Increased Tourism	1.5	2.7
Facilities	1.5	2.7
Assemble diverse population	1.5	2.7
Politics	1.2	2.2
Good location	1.2	2.2
Coca-Cola	1	1.8
Marketing potential for corporate sponsors	0.7	1.3
Share/promote culture	0.7	1.3
Rejuvenate city	0.7	1.3
National pride	0.7	1.3
Community desire	0.7	1.3
Benefit host state	0.7	1.3
Organisers' egos	0.7	1.3
Show world good time	0.5	0.9
Show Southern hospitality	0.5	0.9
Enjoyment	0.5	0.9
Int' airport	0.5	0.9
Community unity/develop	0.5	0.9
Create long-term jobs	0.2	0.4
Visibility	0.2	0.4
Recognition	0.2	0.4
Promote growth in metro area	0.2	0.4
Good for Int' relations	0.2	0.4
Exposure for USA	0.2	0.4
Good sales job	0.2	0.4
Unique US city	0.2	0.4
See great competition	0.2	0.4
Money for ACOG	0.2	0.4
Share Olympic spirit	0.2	0.4
Right time	0.2	0.4
No idea	0.2	0.4
Why not	0.2	0.4
Pre-planned finance	0.2	0.4
Done everything else	0.2	0.4
Strong vision for South	<u>0.2</u>	<u>0.4</u>
Total n=226	100	178.8

Q8b) What <i>should</i> be the major reasons to bid for an event such as the Olympics		
	% of responses	% of cases
Economic	14	24.3
Benefit city	6.6	11.5
Int' exposure	4.8	8.4
Promote world peace	4.8	8.4
Honour to host Olympics	4.3	7.5
Int' recognition	3.8	6.6
Facilities	3.8	6.6
Infrastructure	3.6	6.2
Community unity/develop	3.6	6.2
Exposure for Atlanta	3.3	5.8
Assemble diverse population	3.3	5.8
Enjoyment	3.3	5.8
Attract 'big business'	3.1	5.3
Promote city	3.1	5.3
Show Atlanta is Int' city	2.8	4.9
Show capabilities	2.8	4.9
Pride in city	2.6	4.4
See great competition	2.6	4.4
Increase tourism	2.3	4
Int' goodwill	2.3	4
Share/promote culture	2	3.5
Show world good time	1.8	3.1
Community desire	1.8	3.1
National pride	1.5	2.7
Improve image/reputation	1.3	2.2
Show world the South	1.3	2.2
Rejuvenate city	1	1.8
Share Olympic spirit	1	1.8
Create long-term jobs	0.8	1.3
Good for Int' relations	0.8	1.3
Benefit host state	0.8	1.3
Good location	0.8	1.3
Not sure there are any	0.5	0.9
Marketing potential for corporate sponsors	0.3	0.4
Attract conventions and events	0.3	0.4
Visibility	0.3	0.4
Recognition	0.3	0.4
Promote growth in metro area	0.3	0.4
Exposure for USA	0.3	0.4
Billy Payne/Andrew Young	0.3	0.4
So everyone involved feels part of a team	0.3	0.4
Benefit underprivileged	0.3	0.4
Govt backing	0.3	0.4
No idea	0.3	0.4
Packed gay bars	0.3	0.4
Increase population	0.3	0.4
Pre-planned finance	0.3	0.4
Should have permanent location	<u>0.3</u>	<u>0.4</u>
Total	100	173.5
n=226		

Q9) Forms of community participation made aware of		
	% of responses	% of cases
Public meetings	16.6	31.9
Descriptive information (leaflets, media etc)	39.6	76.2
Community meetings in areas where venues were proposed	20.5	39.5
Social impact studies	10.4	20.0
Other	12.9	24.8
Total	100	192.4
n=210		

Q9a) Forms of community participation taken advantage of		
	% of responses	% of cases
Public meetings	8.5	11.6
Descriptive information (leaflets, media etc)	58.3	78.9
Community meetings in areas where venues were proposed	8.0	10.9
Social impact studies	10.6	14.3
Others	14.6	19.7
Total	100.0	135.4
n=147		

Q9b) Why didn't use participation aware of		
	% of responses	% of cases
Lived outside affected area	23	27
Too busy	18.4	21.6
Left it to the organisers/planners	13.8	16.2
Couldn't attend at the time	12.6	14.9
No immediate personal impact	9.2	10.8
No info on how to	6.9	8.1
Wasn't interested initially	3.4	4.1
Not interested	3.4	4.1
No transport provided	2.3	2.7
Involved enough already	1.1	1.4
No meetings close to resident	1.1	1.4
Not around at time	1.1	1.4
No food provided	1.1	1.4
Too many restrictions on being a volunteer	1.1	1.4
Would have no impact	1.1	1.4
Total	100	117.6
n=74		

Q9c) Forms of community participation would've taken advantage of if aware of		
	% of responses	% of cases
Public meetings	26.7	37.7
Descriptive information (leaflets, media etc)	14.0	19.8
Community meetings in areas where venues were proposed	25.3	35.8
Social impact studies	30.0	42.5
Others	4.0	5.7
Total	100.0	141.5
n=106		

Q9d) Why didn't use participation aware of		
	% of responses	% of cases
To be more aware of possible impacts	25.3	32.4
To get info first hand	15.4	19.7
Become more involved	15.4	19.7
Voice opinions	11	14.1
Affects community	8.8	11.3
Interesting	5.5	7
To be prepared	4.4	5.6
Help ensure benefits to communities	4.4	5.6
Show support	3.3	4.2
Affects family	2.2	2.8
Learn venue locations	2.2	2.8
Find out impacts on homeless	1.1	1.4
To ensure events available to all	<u>1.1</u>	<u>1.4</u>
Total	100	128.2
n=71		

Q10a) Do you feel you contributed to the planning/hosting of the Games	
	Valid % of responses
No	72.2
Yes	27.8

Q10b) How did you contribute		
	% of responses	% of cases
Through work	22.7	30.3
Volunteer	13.6	18.2
Supportive	8	10.6
Worked with host program	6.8	9.1
Going to games	5.7	7.6
Assisting visitors	5.7	7.6
Hosting guests	4.5	6.1
Hosted family of athlete	3.4	4.5
Part of public voice	3.4	4.5
Supporting activities to raise money	3.4	4.5
Through church community	3.4	4.5
Word of mouth	3.4	4.5
Provided ideas for transport	2.3	3
Friendly Georgian	2.3	3
Brought customers to Atlanta	1.1	1.5
Planned down town venue	1.1	1.5
Parking for venue	1.1	1.5
Marketing plans	1.1	1.5
Graphic standards	1.1	1.5
Attend meetings	1.1	1.5
Suggestions on internet	1.1	1.5
Prayer	1.1	1.5
Available to host families	1.1	1.5
Patience	<u>1.1</u>	<u>1.5</u>
Total	100	133.3
n=66		

Q11) How would feeling more involved in planning/hosting have affected your level of support	
	Valid % of responses
Greatly Decreased	0
Moderately Decreased	0.4
Remained Unchanged	39.7
Moderately Increased	37.6
Greatly Increased	22.2

Q12) Agree/Disagree Statements						
	% of cases					
	Strongly Disagree 1	Moderately Disagree 2	Neither 3	Moderately Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5	Mean
a) Organisers made a serious effort to incorporate the host community into the planning process	6.0	21.4	13.7	42.7	16.2	3.4
b) The benefits to Atlanta from hosting the Olympics are greater than the costs	4.3	8.1	7.3	30.3	50.0	4.1
c) Community involvement doesn't lead to better planning & decision making for mega-events	38.0	32.1	10.3	15.8	3.8	2.2
d) Community involvement functions as an early warning system, helping organisers to avoid or plan for decisions that might otherwise cause conflict with the host community	2.6	5.1	15.8	45.3	31.2	4.0
e) Services for disabled persons in Atlanta have improved as a result of hosting the Olympics	3.8	5.6	34.6	46.2	9.8	3.5
f) Community and lobby groups played a major role in the planning process	9.8	21.8	39.3	20.9	8.1	3.0
g) Organisers successfully incorporated the residents of Atlanta & Georgia into the planning process	6.4	19.7	18.8	42.3	12.4	3.5
h) I would have liked to have felt more involved in the planning process for the Atlanta Olympics	3.8	9.0	42.3	29.5	15.4	3.4
i) Ensuring local input (if heeded) helps to legitimise the decision making process	1.3	2.6	16.7	50.9	28.6	4.0

Respondent Characteristics

Q13) Years lived in the State of Georgia	
	Valid % of responses
4 > 9 years	34.6
10 > 19 years	25.6
20 > 29 years	18.4
30 > 39 years	9.8
40 + years	11.5

Q14) In which region of Georgia do you live	
	Valid % of responses
Atlanta Metro Area	64.5
North Georgia	24.4
Central Georgia	8.5
Southern Georgia	1.3
Eastern Georgia	1.3

Q15) Household income	
	Valid % of responses
<\$25,000	3.4
\$25,000>\$49,999	24.8
\$50,000>\$74,999	28.6
\$75,000+	43.2

Q16) Occupation of Respondent	
	Valid % of responses
Professional/Technical	36.1
Executive Manager	10.7
Clerk/Sales Person	11.6
Teacher/Lecturer/Student	12.0
Skilled Tradesperson/Technician	11.2
Semi-Skilled/Unskilled	15.5
Unemployed	1.3
Retired	1.7

Q17) Age of respondent	
	Valid % of responses
18 > 29 years	27.4
30 > 39 years	29.9
40 > 49 years	26.9
50 + years	15.8

Q18) Gender of Respondent	
	Valid % of responses
Male	53.0
Female	47.0

APPENDIX 9: ATLANTA HOST PUBLIC STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Major Research Question:

Is there a detectable relationship between perceived actual and ideal levels of host community involvement during the mega-event hosting process and levels of support for hosting such an event?

ANOVA Summary Table of Support by *Perceived* Pre-Bid Involvement

Level of Support for Olympics	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Pre-bid	Between Groups	4.0	4	1.0	1.0	.413
	Within Groups	223.3	220	1.0		
	Total	227.4	224			
Post-bid	Between Groups	5.2	4	1.3	1.4	.223
	Within Groups	201.5	221	0.9		
	Total	206.7	225			
At the time Games	Between Groups	2.2	4	0.5	1.4	.250
	Within Groups	88.9	221	0.4		
	Total	91.1	225			

ANOVA Summary Table of Support by *Ideal* Pre-Bid Involvement

Level of Support for Olympics	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Pre-bid	Between Groups	4.6	4	1.2	1.1	.340
	Within Groups	226.7	223	1.0		
	Total	231.3	227			
Post-bid	Between Groups	3.4	4	0.9	0.9	.447
	Within Groups	205.9	224	0.9		
	Total	209.4	228			
At the Games	Between Groups	2.9	4	0.7	1.8	.127
	Within Groups	88.5	224	0.4		
	Total	91.3	228			

ANOVA Summary Table of Support by *Perceived* Post-Bid Involvement

Level of Support for Olympics	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Post-bid	Between Groups	19.7	4	4.9	5.8	.000
	Within Groups	194.1	229	0.8		
	Total	213.8	233			
At the Games	Between Groups	11.5	4	2.9	8.1	.000
	Within Groups	81.1	229	0.4		
	Total	92.6	233			

ANOVA Summary Table of Support by *Ideal* Post-Bid Involvement

Level of Support for Olympics	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Post-bid	Between Groups	4.4	4	1.1	1.2	.315
	Within Groups	209.5	229	0.9		
	Total	213.8	233			
At the Games	Between Groups	1.3	4	0.3	0.8	.536
	Within Groups	91.4	229	0.4		
	Total	92.6	233			

Q1.3 *What forms of community participation were/are respondents aware of, which have they utilised and did this affect their level of support?*

ANOVA Summary Table of Support by Awareness of Public Meetings

Level of Support for Olympics	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Pre-bid	Between Groups	3.4	1	3.4	3.3	.069
	Within Groups	230.2	228	1.0		
	Total	233.6	229			
Post-bid	Between Groups	7.9	1	7.9	8.9	.003
	Within Groups	206.0	232	0.9		
	Total	213.8	233			
At the Games	Between Groups	2.6	1	2.6	6.7	.010
	Within Groups	90.0	232	.4		
	Total	92.6	233			

ANOVA Summary Table of Support by Attending Public Meetings

Level of Support for Olympics	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Pre-bid	Between Groups	2.2	1	2.2	3.4	.071
	Within Groups	44.8	67	0.7		
	Total	47.1	68			
Post-bid	Between Groups	0.0	1	0.0	0.0	.870
	Within Groups	43.3	68	0.6		
	Total	43.3	69			
At the Games	Between Groups	0.3	1	0.3	2.6	.115
	Within Groups	8.8	68	0.1		
	Total	9.0	69			

***Q1.4** Does the number of events attended or hoped to attend, by members of the host public, affect support for the Olympic Games?*

ANOVA Summary Table of Support by Events Attended

Level of Support for Olympics	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
At the Games	Between Groups	1.9	3	0.6	1.6	.186
	Within Groups	90.7	230	0.4		
	Total	92.6	233			

Q1.6 Which Olympic related issues arising during the hosting process are the host public most concerned about and is there a relationship with levels of support shown?

**Correlations Between Perceived Importance
of Olympic Issues and Support**

Olympics Related Issues (1 most important → 7 least important)	Level of Support (1 low → 5 high)		
	Pre-bid (r)	Post-bid (r)	At the Games (r)
Impact on lifestyle	.086	.164*	.059
Cost of infrastructure	.229**	.159**	.216**
Welfare issues	.021	.001	-.093
Ticket availability and affordability	-.115	-.069	-.031
Community involvement in planning	-.144*	-.140*	-.021
Enjoying the event	-.134*	-.133*	-.160*
Efficient use of facilities after the event	.036	-.011	.028

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Q1.9 Is there a detectable relationship between demographic characteristics of respondents and levels of public support, perceived community involvement or other key variables?

ANOVA Summary Table of Years Lived in State by Support and Perceived Involvement

Level of Support for Olympics	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Pre-bid	Between Groups	3.1	4	0.8	0.8	.551
	Within Groups	230.5	225	1.0		
	Total	233.6	229			
Post-bid	Between Groups	2.5	4	0.6	0.7	.605
	Within Groups	211.3	229	0.9		
	Total	213.8	233			
At the Games	Between Groups	0.3	4	0.0	0.2	.957
	Within Groups	92.4	229	0.4		
	Total	92.6	233			
Perceived Level of Involvement	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Actual pre-bid	Between Groups	5.8	4	1.4	1.2	.307
	Within Groups	263.1	221	1.2		
	Total	268.9	225			
Ideal pre-bid	Between Groups	3.8	4	0.9	0.9	.463
	Within Groups	233.1	224	1.0		
	Total	236.9	228			
Actual post-bid	Between Groups	2.6	4	0.6	0.5	.705
	Within Groups	270.0	229	1.2		
	Total	272.6	233			
Ideal post-bid	Between Groups	3.6	4	0.9	1.1	.354
	Within Groups	188.7	229	0.8		
	Total	192.3	233			

**ANOVA Summary Table of *Region of Residence* by *Support*
and *Perceived Involvement***

Level of Support for Olympics	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Pre-bid	Between Groups	2.3	4	0.6	0.6	.684
	Within Groups	231.2	225	1.0		
	Total	233.6	229			
Post-bid	Between Groups	3.7	4	0.9	1.0	.402
	Within Groups	210.1	229	0.9		
	Total	213.8	233			
At the Games	Between Groups	3.1	4	0.8	2.0	.098
	Within Groups	89.5	229	0.4		
	Total	92.6	233			
Perceived Level of Involvement	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Actual pre-bid	Between Groups	2.1	4	0.5	0.4	.786
	Within Groups	266.8	221	1.2		
	Total	268.9	225			
Ideal pre-bid	Between Groups	2.1	4	0.5	0.5	.744
	Within Groups	234.9	224	1.0		
	Total	236.9	228			
Actual post-bid	Between Groups	3.9	4	1.0	0.8	.509
	Within Groups	268.7	229	1.2		
	Total	272.6	233			
Ideal post-bid	Between Groups	1.8	4	0.5	0.6	.699
	Within Groups	190.5	229	0.8		
	Total	192.3	233			

ANOVA Summary Table of *Income* by *Support* and *Perceived Involvement*

Level of Support for Olympics	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Pre-bid	Between Groups	3.6	3	1.2	1.2	.320
	Within Groups	230.0	226	1.0		
	Total	233.6	229			
Post-bid	Between Groups	3.3	3	1.1	1.2	.317
	Within Groups	210.6	230	0.9		
	Total	213.8	233			
At the Games	Between Groups	0.3	3	0.0	0.2	.890
	Within Groups	92.4	230	0.4		
	Total	92.6	233			
Perceived Level of Involvement	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
<i>Actual</i> pre-bid	Between Groups	2.8	3	1.0	0.8	.499
	Within Groups	266.1	222	1.2		
	Total	268.9	225			
<i>Ideal</i> pre-bid	Between Groups	4.1	3	1.4	1.3	.269
	Within Groups	232.8	225	1.0		
	Total	236.9	228			.840
<i>Actual</i> post-bid	Between Groups	1.0	3	0.3	0.3	
	Within Groups	271.6	230	1.2		
	Total	272.6	233			
<i>Ideal</i> post-bid	Between Groups	2.3	3	0.8	0.9	.424
	Within Groups	190.0	230	0.8		
	Total	192.3	233			

ANOVA Summary Table of *Occupation* by *Support* and *Perceived Involvement*

Level of Support for Olympics	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Pre-bid	Between Groups	3.9	7	0.6	0.5	.801
	Within Groups	229.2	221	1.0		
	Total	233.2	228			
Post-bid	Between Groups	9.7	7	1.4	1.5	.159
	Within Groups	203.7	225	0.9		
	Total	213.4	232			
At the Games	Between Groups	3.0	7	0.4	1.1	.368
	Within Groups	89.5	225	0.4		
	Total	92.5	232			
Perceived Level of Involvement	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Actual pre-bid	Between Groups	12.7	7	1.8	1.6	.144
	Within Groups	250.3	217	1.2		
	Total	263.0	224			
Ideal pre-bid	Between Groups	4.3	7	0.6	0.6	.769
	Within Groups	230.5	220	1.0		
	Total	234.8	227			
Actual post-bid	Between Groups	6.9	7	1.0	0.8	.556
	Within Groups	262.6	225	1.2		
	Total	269.5	232			
Ideal post-bid	Between Groups	6.6	7	0.9	1.2	.332
	Within Groups	184.4	225	0.8		
	Total	191.0	232			

ANOVA Summary Table of Age by Support and Perceived Involvement

Level of Support for Olympics	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Pre-bid	Between Groups	2.2	3	0.7	0.7	.550
	Within Groups	231.4	226	1.0		
	Total	233.6	229			
Post-bid	Between Groups	9.4	3	3.1	3.5	.016
	Within Groups	204.4	230	0.9		
	Total	213.8	233			
At the Games	Between Groups	1.0	3	0.3	0.8	.498
	Within Groups	91.7	230	0.4		
	Total	92.6	233			
Perceived Level of Involvement	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Actual pre-bid	Between Groups	0.9	3	0.3	0.2	.870
	Within Groups	268.0	222	1.2		
	Total	268.9	225			
Ideal pre-bid	Between Groups	3.4	3	1.1	1.1	.359
	Within Groups	233.6	225	1.0		
	Total	236.9	228			
Actual post-bid	Between Groups	5.1	3	1.7	1.5	.225
	Within Groups	267.5	230	1.2		
	Total	272.6	233			
Ideal post-bid	Between Groups	2.5	3	0.8	1.0	.391
	Within Groups	189.9	230	0.8		
	Total	192.3	233			

ANOVA Summary Table of *Gender by Support and Perceived Involvement*

Level of Support for Olympics	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Pre-bid	Between Groups	0.5	1	0.5	0.5	.469
	Within Groups	233.1	228	1.0		
	Total	233.6	229			
Post-bid	Between Groups	0.0	1	0.0	0.1	.801
	Within Groups	213.8	232	0.9		
	Total	213.8	233			
At the Games	Between Groups	1.2	1	1.2	2.9	.088
	Within Groups	91.5	232	0.4		
	Total	92.6	233			
Perceived Level of Involvement	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Actual pre-bid	Between Groups	2.3	1	2.3	1.9	.168
	Within Groups	266.6	224	1.2		
	Total	268.9	225			
Ideal pre-bid	Between Groups	0.2	1	0.2	0.1	.704
	Within Groups	236.8	227	1.0		
	Total	236.9	228			
Actual post-bid	Between Groups	1.8	1	1.8	1.6	.212
	Within Groups	270.8	232	1.2		
	Total	272.6	233			
Ideal post-bid	Between Groups	1.9	1	1.9	2.3	.131
	Within Groups	190.5	232	0.8		
	Total	192.3	233			

Correlations Between Support/Involvement *and* Income/Age

Support/Income	Income (r)	Age (r)
Pre-bid support	-.031	-.064
Post-bid support	.088	.200**
Support at the Games	.045	.083
<i>Actual</i> pre-bid involvement	-.063	-.043
<i>Ideal</i> pre-bid involvement	-.107	-.081
<i>Actual</i> post-bid involvement	-.042	.029
<i>Ideal</i> post-bid involvement	-.038	.079

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

APPENDIX 10: STATISTICAL SUMMARY- SYDNEY HOST PUBLIC

Sample Size	246
Q1a) Present level of support for the Sydney Games	
	Valid % of responses
Very Unsupportive	12.6
>	8.5
>	16.3
>	14.6
Very Supportive	48.0

Q1b) Reasons for level of support		
	% of responses	% of cases
Increased tourism	8.8	12.6
High cost/can't afford	8.2	11.7
Economic Benefits	7.5	10.8
Efforts/money could be better utilised	6.9	9.9
Pride	5.6	8.1
International attention/exposure	5.3	7.7
Good for Sydney and Australia	5.3	7.7
Create jobs	4.4	6.3
Interested in sport	3.8	5.4
Improved facilities	3.4	5
Once-in-a-lifetime opportunity	3.1	4.5
Tickets expensive/hard to come by	2.5	3.6
Promotes development of sport	2.2	3.2
Enhance Australia's International Image	1.9	2.7
Promote international goodwill	1.9	2.7
Not interested	1.9	2.7
See Games first hand	1.6	2.3
Costs will outweigh benefits/profits	1.6	2.3
Will do a good job	1.6	2.3
Positive publicity	1.3	1.8
Improved infrastructure	1.3	1.8
Mixed feelings	1.3	1.8
Exciting	0.9	1.4
Highlight capabilities	0.9	1.4
Fait accompli	0.9	1.4
Politically motivated	0.9	1.4
Long-term expense/debt	0.9	1.4
Underestimating logistical requirements	0.9	1.4
Increased taxes	0.9	1.4
Sydney deserves it	0.9	1.4
No feelings either way	0.9	1.4
Community Spirit	0.6	0.9
Show world lifestyle	0.6	0.9
Great Event	0.6	0.9
Privilege to host	0.6	0.9
Benefit City	0.6	0.9
Long-term benefits	0.6	0.9

Good for local businesses	0.6	0.9
Inflated prices	0.6	0.9
Won't be ready on time	0.6	0.9
No faith in organisation and planning	0.6	0.9
Boost confidence	0.3	0.5
Exposure for Sydney	0.3	0.5
Positive impact on building sector	0.3	0.5
Inconvenience/disruption	0.3	0.5
No community involvement	0.3	0.5
Negative impacts	0.3	0.5
Not enough infrastructure support	0.3	0.5
Hope we can cope with influx of visitors	0.3	0.5
Few benefits outside Sydney	0.3	0.5
Beautiful city	0.3	0.5
Still three years away	0.3	0.5
Too old	0.3	0.5
Dislike "professional" Olympics	0.3	0.5
Total responses n=222	100	143.7

Q2a) Level of support when Sydney won the right to host the Games		
	Valid % of responses	
Very Unsupportive	12.6	
>	6.1	
>	13.4	
>	11.8	
Very Supportive	56.1	

Q2b) Level of support between winning the right to host the Games and now		
	Valid % of responses	
Very Unsupportive	13.0	
>	8.9	
>	18.7	
>	17.5	
Very Supportive	41.9	

Q3) Reasons for any <i>change</i> in level of support		
	% of responses	% of cases
High costs/can't afford	10.9	13.5
Fait accompli	7.6	9.5
Stupid political games	6.5	8.1
Infrastructure won't cope	6.5	8.1
Euphoria surrounding bid has subsided	6.5	8.1
Better understanding of benefits	5.4	6.8
Expensive/limited availability of ticket	4.3	5.4
Escalating costs	4.3	5.4
Taxes created	4.3	5.4
Concerned we won't be ready	4.3	5.4
Create jobs	3.3	4.1
Problems becoming apparent	3.3	4.1
Change in economic climate	3.3	4.1

Too much media hype	3.3	4.1
Reduced spending in areas of greater need	2.2	2.7
Increased commercialism	2.2	2.7
Lack of consultation	2.2	2.7
Lack of basic services	2.2	2.7
Seemed better at a distance	2.2	2.7
Benefits to City	1.1	1.4
Upgrade of city	1.1	1.4
Was caught up in emotion	1.1	1.4
Too many so-called experts	1.1	1.4
Organisers continually upsetting public	1.1	1.4
"Jobs for the boys"	1.1	1.4
No stability at SOCOG	1.1	1.4
Safety issues	1.1	1.4
Limited information provided	1.1	1.4
Who will pay	1.1	1.4
No faith in organisation and planning	1.1	1.4
Prices will increase for the Games and stay high	1.1	1.4
Wasn't in country when won	1.1	1.4
Not really	1.1	1.4
Total responses <i>n</i> =74	100	124.3

Q4) How many events <i>would you realistically like to attend</i>	
	Valid % of responses
None	22.4
1-4	46.3
5-9	19.1
10+	12.2

Q5) How many events <i>do you realistically believe you will attend</i>	
	Valid % of responses
None	67.5
1-4	28.0
5-9	3.7
10+	0.8

Q6a) Perceived level of community involvement during bid stage	
	Valid % of responses
None at all- projects proceed without information being provided to the community.	43.9
Information Sharing- information regarding projects is shared with the community.	32.8
Consultation- the community is not only informed, but also asked for opinions on key issues,	14.8
Decision-Making- the community is involved in the decision-making process	4.9
Community Action- decisions regarding projects are made primarily by the community.	3.7
<i>n</i> =244	

Q6b) Level of involvement respondents considered <i>ideal</i> during bid stage	
	Valid % of responses
None at all	7.8
Information Sharing	13.1
Consultation	38.4
Decision-Making	18.4
Community Action	22.4
<i>n</i> =245	

Q7a) Perceived level of involvement post-bid	
	Valid % of responses
None at all	37.1
Information Sharing	35.1
Consultation	19.6
Decision-Making	3.3
Community Action	4.9

Q7b) Level of involvement respondents considered <i>ideal</i> post-bid	
	Valid % of responses
None at all	5.7
Information Sharing	7.8
Consultation	38.8
Decision-Making	24.5
Community Action	23.3

Q8) Ranking Olympic Issues								
	% of cases							
	Most Important 1	2	3	4	5	6	Least Important 7	Mean
Impact on lifestyle	23.8	16.8	16.8	9.8	10.7	12.3	9.8	3.4
Cost of infrastructure	18.0	24.2	14.3	15.6	9.0	11.1	7.4	3.4
Welfare issues	17.2	14.3	15.6	15.6	11.9	9.8	15.6	3.8
Ticket availability and affordability	9.8	13.5	13.9	12.3	12.7	24.2	13.5	4.3
Community involvement in planning	5.7	6.5	9.4	21.2	29.8	14.7	12.7	4.6
Enjoying the event	8.6	7.4	12.3	11.5	9.4	20.1	30.7	4.9
Using facilities after the event	16.4	16.4	17.6	13.9	17.2	7.8	10.7	3.7

Q9a) What <i>were</i> the major reasons for bidding for the Games		
	% of responses	% of cases
Economic Benefits	17.2	26.2
Increased tourism	14.4	21.8
Enhance Australia's international image	10.3	15.7
Prestige	10.3	15.7
Gain political advantage	8	12.2
Personal gratification/ego	4.6	7
Enhance Sydney's International image	4	6.1
International recognition	2.9	4.4
Show capabilities	2.9	4.4
Our turn	2.6	3.9

Don't know	2.3	3.5
Benefits to athletes/sports	2.3	3.5
Create jobs	2	3.1
Ideal location	2	3.1
Improved facilities	1.4	2.2
National Pride	1.4	2.2
Exposure for Sydney/Australia	1.1	1.7
Government idea	1.1	1.7
Opportunity to enjoy them	0.9	1.3
Promote foreign investment	0.6	0.9
Promotes development	0.6	0.9
Increased trade	0.6	0.9
Put Sydney on the map	0.6	0.9
Benefit Sydney	0.6	0.9
Increased community spirit	0.6	0.9
Benefits to community	0.6	0.9
International Goodwill	0.6	0.9
Grand-standing	0.6	0.9
To appease the public	0.6	0.9
Too beat Melbourne	0.6	0.9
Strategic	0.3	0.4
Recognition as world sporting power	0.3	0.4
Indirect benefits	0.3	0.4
Improved infrastructure	0.3	0.4
International communication	0.3	0.4
Honour to host	0.3	0.4
Total	100	152
n=229		

Q9b) What <i>should</i> be the major reasons to bid for an event such as the Olympics		
	% of responses	% of cases
Increased tourism	17.1	26.2
Economic Benefits	13.1	20.1
Enhance Australia's international image	7.7	11.8
Improved facilities	7.1	10.9
Benefits to athletes/sports	7.1	10.9
Improved infrastructure	4	6.1
International recognition	3.1	4.8
Benefits to community	3.1	4.8
Exposure for Sydney/Australia	2.8	4.4
Create jobs	2.6	3.9
Shouldn't host them	2.6	3.9
Can't think of a good reason	2.6	3.9
Enhance Sydney's international image	2.3	3.5
International Goodwill	2.3	3.5
Prestige	2.3	3.5
National Pride	2.3	3.5
International peace	2.3	3.5
Show capabilities	1.7	2.6
Benefit Sydney	1.7	2.6
Opportunity to enjoy them	1.7	2.6
International communication	1.7	2.6

Increased trade	1.1	1.7
Our turn	1.1	1.7
Benefits without excess cost to taxpayer	1.1	1.7
Too become more aware of culture	0.9	1.3
Honour to host	0.9	1.3
Don't know	0.6	0.9
Gain political advantage	0.6	0.9
Strategic	0.3	0.4
Promote foreign investment	0.3	0.4
Put Sydney on the map	0.3	0.4
Recognition as world sporting power	0.3	0.4
Indirect benefits	0.3	0.4
Increased community spirit	0.3	0.4
Increased pride	0.3	0.4
Should be one permanent site	0.3	0.4
Ideal location	<u>0.3</u>	<u>0.4</u>
Total	100	153.3
n=229		

Q10) Forms of community participation made aware of		
	% of responses	% of cases
Public meetings	9.1	14.9
Descriptive information (leaflets, media etc)	50.0	82.2
Community meetings in areas where venues were proposed	12.6	20.7
Social impact studies	20.3	33.3
Other	<u>8.0</u>	<u>13.2</u>
Total	100	164.4
n=174		

Q10a) Forms of community participation taken advantage of		
	% of responses	% of cases
Public meetings	3.3	4.3
Descriptive information (leaflets, media etc)	65.8	85.8
Community meetings in areas where venues were proposed	6.5	8.5
Social impact studies	15.2	19.9
Others	<u>9.2</u>	<u>12.1</u>
Total	100.0	130.5
n=141		

Q10b) Why did you use participation aware of		
	% of responses	% of cases
To keep informed	28.5	32.4
Interested	18.7	21.3
Convenient	12.2	13.9
Readily available	12.2	13.9
Only information available	7.3	8.3
Interested in social impacts	5.7	6.5
Through work	2.4	2.8
Made aware in newspaper	2.4	2.8
Entertaining	2.4	2.8
Interested in infrastructure for future	1.6	1.9
Time restrictions	1.6	1.9

Interested in facilities for future	0.8	0.9
To see progress	0.8	0.9
Like to hear other opinions	0.8	0.9
Children involved	0.8	0.9
Easy to read	0.8	0.9
Don't live in Sydney	<u>0.8</u>	<u>0.9</u>
Total	100	113.9
n=108		

Q11a) What type of contribution do you feel the community has provided thus far		
	Valid % of responses	
No Contribution	37.4	
>	24.0	
>	23.2	
>	7.3	
Very Positive Contribution	8.1	

Q11b) Why do you believe the community provided this level of contribution		
	% of responses	% of cases
No opportunity to contribute	15.5	17.3
Great community support	10.8	12.1
Not aware of any	10.8	12.1
It's a government issue	7.7	8.7
Lack of information available	5.2	5.8
Haven't heard of much	4.6	5.2
Very little community consultation	4.1	4.6
Limited opportunity to contribute	4.1	4.6
As reported in media	4.1	4.6
Monetary contributions	3.6	4
To enhance long-term benefits	3.6	4
From observations	3.6	4
Too far away	3.6	4
Don't know	2.1	2.3
Contribution will increase	2.1	2.3
Pride	1.5	1.7
Australians love sport	1.5	1.7
Only thinking short-term	1.5	1.7
Loss of enthusiasm due to concerns	1.5	1.7
Through protest	1	1.2
IOC constraints	1	1.2
Become too bureaucratic	1	1.2
Nothing for Newcastle residents	1	1.2
Complacency of affected groups	1	1.2
Want the best	0.5	0.6
Lack of community meetings	0.5	0.6
Newcastle residents don't care	0.5	0.6
Greens seem to be only contributors	0.5	0.6
Apathy	0.5	0.6
Not enough Olympic knowledge	<u>0.5</u>	<u>0.6</u>
Total	100	112.1
n=173		

Q12) What type of <i>role</i> do you believe the community <i>has</i> played in the planning process	
	Valid % of responses
No role at all	44.9
>	24.5
>	20.8
>	5.7
Very influential role	4.1

Q13) What type of <i>role</i> do you feel the community <i>should ideally</i> play in the planning process	
	Valid % of responses
No role at all	7.3
>	6.9
>	26.9
>	26.9
Very influential role	31.8

Q14) How would have feeling more involved in planning/hosting affected your level of support	
	Valid % of responses
Greatly Decreased	0
Moderately Decreased	0.4
Remained Unchanged	47.2
Moderately Increased	34.6
Greatly Increased	17.9

Q15) Agree/Disagree Statements						
	% of cases					
	Strongly Disagree 1	Moderately Disagree 2	Neither 3	Moderately Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5	Mean
a) Organisers have made an effort to incorporate the residents of Sydney & NSW into the planning process	29.7	28.0	22.0	16.7	3.7	2.4
b) The benefits to Sydney from hosting the Olympics are greater than the costs	17.9	17.5	10.6	29.3	24.8	3.3
c) Community involvement doesn't lead to better planning & decision making for mega-events	22.8	29.7	12.2	26.0	9.3	2.8
d) Community involvement functions as an early warning system, helping organisers to avoid or plan for decisions that might otherwise cause conflict with the host community	3.3	7.7	17.1	42.3	29.7	3.9
e) Services for disabled persons in Sydney have improved as a result of hosting the Olympics	6.9	13.8	21.1	42.7	15.4	3.5
f) Community/lobby groups are playing a major role in the planning process	15.1	26.9	41.2	12.7	4.1	2.8
g) Organisers are successfully incorporating the residents of Sydney & NSW into the planning process	29.7	31.7	21.5	14.2	2.8	2.4
h) I would like to feel more involved in the planning process for the Sydney Olympics	8.5	10.6	35.8	31.7	13.4	3.3
i) Ensuring local input (if heeded) helps to legitimise the decision making process	3.3	9.3	22.0	41.1	24.4	3.7

Respondent Characteristics

Q16) Years lived in NSW	
	Valid % of responses
4 > 19 years	17.1
20 > 29 years	12.2
30 > 39 years	17.5
40 > 49 years	18.7
50 > 59 years	15.4
60 + years	19.1

Q17) In which region do you live	
	Valid % of responses
Sydney East	33.9
Sydney West	37.1
Central Coast/Gosford	5.3
Newcastle/Hunter Valley	13.5
Wollongong	10.2

Q18) Household income	
	Valid % of responses
<\$25,000	25.1
\$25,000>\$49,999	33.7
\$50,000>\$74,999	24.7
\$75,000+	16.5

Q19) Occupation of Respondent	
	Valid % of responses
Professional/Technical	18.6
Executive Manager	8.3
Clerk/Sales Person	7.4
Teacher/Lecturer/Student	12.0
Skilled Tradesperson/Technician	8.7
Semi-Skilled/Unskilled	12.4
Unemployed	2.5
Retired	30.2

Q20) Age of respondent	
	Valid % of responses
18 > 29 years	9.9
30 > 39 years	21.1
40 > 49 years	17.4
50 > 59 years	21.9
60 + years	29.8

Q21) Gender of Respondent	
	Valid % of responses
Male	53.7
Female	46.3

APPENDIX 11: SYDNEY HOST PUBLIC STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Major Research Question:

Is there a detectable relationship between perceived actual and ideal levels of host community involvement during the mega-event hosting process and levels of support for hosting such an event?

ANOVA Summary Table of Support by *Perceived* Pre-Bid Involvement

Level of Support for Olympics	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Pre-bid	Between Groups	49.1	4	12.3	6.4	.000
	Within Groups	455.0	239	1.9		
	Total	504.1	243			
Post-bid	Between Groups	53.8	4	13.5	7.3	.000
	Within Groups	442.6	239	1.9		
	Total	496.4	243			
At the time of the survey	Between Groups	61.6	4	15.4	8.3	.000
	Within Groups	445.5	239	1.9		
	Total	507.1	243			
	Total	496.4	243			

ANOVA Summary Table of Support by *Ideal* Pre-Bid Involvement

Level of Support for Olympics	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Pre-bid	Between Groups	12.8	4	3.2	1.6	.183
	Within Groups	487.3	240	2.0		
	Total	500.1	244			
Post-bid	Between Groups	13.3	4	3.3	1.7	.157
	Within Groups	476.6	240	2.0		
	Total	489.9	244			
At the time of the survey	Between Groups	10.7	4	2.7	1.3	.264
	Within Groups	489.4	240	2.0		
	Total	500.1	244			

ANOVA Summary Table of Support by *Perceived* Post-Bid Involvement

Level of Support for Olympics	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Post-bid	Between Groups	56.4	4	14.1	7.7	.000
	Within Groups	440.2	240	1.8		
	Total	496.6	244			
At the time of the survey	Between Groups	64.4	4	16.1	8.7	.000
	Within Groups	442.8	240	1.8		
	Total	507.2	244			

ANOVA Summary Table of Support by *Ideal* Post-Bid Involvement

Level of Support for Olympics	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Post-bid	Between Groups	19.6	4	4.9	2.5	.044
	Within Groups	470.3	240	2.0		
	Total	489.9	244			
At the time of the survey	Between Groups	10.0	4	2.5	1.2	.303
	Within Groups	490.1	240	2.0		
	Total	500.1	244			

Q1.3 What forms of community participation were/are respondents aware of, which have they utilised and did this affect their level of support?

ANOVA Summary Table of Support by Awareness of Public Meeting

Level of Support for Olympics	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Pre-bid	Between Groups	9.6	1	9.6	4.7	.032
	Within Groups	499.1	244	2.0		
	Total	508.7	245			
Post-bid	Between Groups	7.0	1	7.0	3.5	.063
	Within Groups	490.0	244	2.0		
	Total	497.0	245			
At the time of the survey	Between Groups	8.5	1	8.5	4.1	.043
	Within Groups	499.3	244	2.0		
	Total	507.8	245			

ANOVA Summary Table of Support by Awareness of Descriptive Information

Level of Support for Olympics	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Pre-bid	Between Groups	12.6	1	12.6	6.2	.013
	Within Groups	496.1	244	2.0		
	Total	508.7	245			
Post-bid	Between Groups	9.8	1	9.8	4.9	.027
	Within Groups	487.2	244	2.0		
	Total	497.0	245			
At the time of the survey	Between Groups	8.9	1	8.9	4.4	.038
	Within Groups	498.9	244	2.0		
	Total	507.8	245			

ANOVA Summary Table of Support by Attending Public Meetings

Level of Support for Olympics	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Pre-bid	Between Groups	<i>0.2</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>0.2</i>	<i>0.3</i>	<i>.617</i>
	Within Groups	<i>20.3</i>	<i>24</i>	<i>0.8</i>		
	Total	<i>20.5</i>	<i>25</i>			
Post-bid	Between Groups	<i>0.2</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>0.2</i>	<i>0.1</i>	<i>.733</i>
	Within Groups	<i>37.2</i>	<i>24</i>	<i>1.6</i>		
	Total	<i>37.4</i>	<i>25</i>			
At the time of the survey	Between Groups	<i>1.0</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>1.0</i>	<i>1.175</i>	<i>.289</i>
	Within Groups	<i>20.5</i>	<i>24</i>	<i>0.9</i>		
	Total	<i>21.5</i>	<i>25</i>			

ANOVA Summary Table of Support by Utilising Descriptive Information

Level of Support for Olympics	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Pre-bid	Between Groups	<i>2.4</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2.4</i>	<i>1.4</i>	<i>.239</i>
	Within Groups	<i>236.6</i>	<i>141</i>	<i>1.7</i>		
	Total	<i>239.0</i>	<i>142</i>			
Post-bid	Between Groups	<i>1.5</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>1.5</i>	<i>0.8</i>	<i>.361</i>
	Within Groups	<i>254.5</i>	<i>141</i>	<i>1.8</i>		
	Total	<i>256.0</i>	<i>142</i>			
At the time of the survey	Between Groups	<i>1.6</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>1.6</i>	<i>0.9</i>	<i>.345</i>
	Within Groups	<i>251.7</i>	<i>141</i>	<i>1.8</i>		
	Total	<i>253.3</i>	<i>142</i>			

Q1.4 Does the number of events attended or hoped to attend, by members of the host public, affect support for the Olympic Games?

ANOVA Summary Table of Support by Events Want to Attend

Level of Support for Olympics	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
At the time of the survey	Between Groups	167.4	3	55.8	39.7	.000
	Within Groups	340.4	242	1.4		
	Total	507.8	245			

ANOVA Summary Table of Support by Events Believe Will Attend

Level of Support for Olympics	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
At the time of the survey	Between Groups	74.1	3	24.7	13.8	.000
	Within Groups	433.7	242	1.8		
	Total	507.8	245			

Q1.9 *Is there a detectable relationship between demographic characteristics of respondents and levels of public support, perceived community involvement or other key variables?*

ANOVA Summary Table of Years Lived in State by Support and Perceived Involvement

Level of Support for Olympics	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Pre-bid	Between Groups	5.2	5	1.0	0.5	.779
	Within Groups	503.5	240	2.1		
	Total	508.7	245			
Post-bid	Between Groups	4.5	5	0.9	0.4	.820
	Within Groups	492.5	240	2.1		
	Total	497.0	245			
At the time of the survey	Between Groups	4.2	5	0.8	0.4	.850
	Within Groups	503.6	240	2.1		
	Total	507.8	245			
Perceived Level of Involvement	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Actual pre-bid	Between Groups	0.9	5	0.2	0.2	.978
	Within Groups	269.5	238	1.1		
	Total	270.4	243			
Ideal pre-bid	Between Groups	4.8	5	1.0	0.7	.639
	Within Groups	338.7	239	1.4		
	Total	343.5	244			
Actual post-bid	Between Groups	2.0	5	0.4	0.4	.880
	Within Groups	276.6	239	1.2		
	Total	278.7	244			
Ideal post-bid	Between Groups	6.3	5	1.3	1.0	.394
	Within Groups	290.8	239	1.2		
	Total	297.2	244			

**ANOVA Summary Table of *Region of Residence* by *Support*
and *Perceived Involvement***

Level of Support for Olympics	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Pre-bid	Between Groups	4.3	4	1.1	0.5	.723
	Within Groups	503.2	240	2.1		
	Total	507.5	244			
Post-bid	Between Groups	4.2	4	1.0	0.5	.730
	Within Groups	492.4	240	2.1		
	Total	496.6	244			
At the time of the survey	Between Groups	6.2	4	1.6	0.7	.560
	Within Groups	500.0	240	2.1		
	Total	506.3	244			
Perceived Level of Involvement	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
<i>Actual</i> pre-bid	Between Groups	0.6	4	0.2	0.1	.966
	Within Groups	260.2	238	1.1		
	Total	260.8	242			
<i>Ideal</i> pre-bid	Between Groups	7.9	4	2.0	1.4	.223
	Within Groups	330.1	239	1.4		
	Total	338.0	243			
<i>Actual</i> post-bid	Between Groups	1.3	4	0.3	0.3	.885
	Within Groups	276.4	239	1.2		
	Total	277.7	243			
<i>Ideal</i> post-bid	Between Groups	6.8	4	1.7	1.4	.227
	Within Groups	284.0	239	1.2		
	Total	290.8	243			

ANOVA Summary Table of *Income* by *Support* and *Perceived Involvement*

Level of Support for Olympics	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Pre-bid	Between Groups	4.0	3	1.3	0.6	.584
	Within Groups	486.5	239	2.0		
	Total	490.5	242			
Post-bid	Between Groups	4.4	3	1.5	0.7	.527
	Within Groups	476.5	239	2.0		
	Total	481.0	242			
At the time of the survey	Between Groups	4.9	3	1.6	0.8	.492
	Within Groups	486.8	239	2.0		
	Total	491.7	242			
Perceived Level of Involvement	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Actual pr-bid	Between Groups	4.2	3	1.4	1.245	.294
	Within Groups	263.4	237	1.1		
	Total	267.5	240			
Ideal pre-bid	Between Groups	17.9	3	6.0	4.4	.005
	Within Groups	320.0	238	1.3		
	Total	337.9	241			
Actual post-bid	Between Groups	2.3	3	0.8	0.7	.581
	Within Groups	273.3	238	1.1		
	Total	275.6	241			
Ideal post-bid	Between Groups	3.4	3	1.1	0.9	.425
	Within Groups	289.1	238	1.2		
	Total	292.5	241			

ANOVA Summary Table of *Occupation* by *Support* and *Perceived Involvement*

Level of Support for Olympics	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Pre-bid	Between Groups	10.5	7	1.5	0.7	.654
	Within Groups	486.2	234	2.1		
	Total	496.7	241			
Post-bid	Between Groups	10.7	7	1.5	0.8	.630
	Within Groups	476.9	234	2.0		
	Total	487.6	241			
At the time of the survey	Between Groups	5.5	7	0.8	0.4	.915
	Within Groups	491.5	234	2.1		
	Total	497.0	241			
Perceived Level of Involvement	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Actual pre-bid	Between Groups	5.4	7	0.8	0.7	.671
	Within Groups	254.6	232	1.1		
	Total	260.0	239			
Ideal pre-bid	Between Groups	12.6	7	1.8	1.3	.257
	Within Groups	324.8	233	1.4		
	Total	337.3	240			
Actual post-bid	Between Groups	5.3	7	0.8	0.6	.718
	Within Groups	271.4	233	1.2		
	Total	276.7	240			
Ideal post-bid	Between Groups	7.7	7	1.1	0.9	.505
	Within Groups	282.4	233	1.2		
	Total	290.0	240			

ANOVA Summary Table of Age by Support and Perceived Involvement

Level of Support for Olympics	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Pre-bid	Between Groups	4.9	4	1.2	0.6	.672
	Within Groups	491.8	237	2.1		
	Total	496.7	241			
Post-bid	Between Groups	4.5	4	1.1	0.6	.698
	Within Groups	483.1	237	2.0		
	Total	487.6	241			
At the time of the survey	Between Groups	3.9	4	1.0	0.5	.762
	Within Groups	491.7	237	2.1		
	Total	495.6	241			
Perceived Level of Involvement	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Actual pre-bid	Between Groups	0.8	4	0.2	0.2	.950
	Within Groups	259.2	235	1.1		
	Total	260.0	239			
Ideal pre-bid	Between Groups	5.9	4	1.5	1.1	.382
	Within Groups	329.7	236	1.4		
	Total	335.6	240			
Actual post-bid	Between Groups	2.8	4	0.7	0.6	.657
	Within Groups	273.8	236	1.2		
	Total	276.7	240			
Ideal post-bid	Between Groups	2.8	4	0.7	0.6	.685
	Within Groups	285.1	236	1.2		
	Total	287.9	240			

ANOVA Summary Table of Gender by Support and Perceived Involvement

Level of Support for Olympics	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Pre-bid	Between Groups	0.1	1	0.1	0.0	.836
	Within Groups	508.6	244	2.1		
	Total	508.7	245			
Post-bid	Between Groups	0.0	1	0.0	0.0	.976
	Within Groups	497.0	244	2.0		
	Total	497.0	245			
At the time of the survey	Between Groups	0.1	1	0.1	0.1	.819
	Within Groups	507.7	244	2.1		
	Total	507.8	245			
Perceived Level of Involvement	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Actual pre-bid	Between Groups	0.6	1	0.6	0.6	.453
	Within Groups	269.7	242	1.1		
	Total	270.4	243			
Ideal pre-bid	Between Groups	2.5	1	2.5	1.8	.180
	Within Groups	341.0	243	1.4		
	Total	343.5	244			
Actual post-bid	Between Groups	0.8	1	0.8	0.7	.392
	Within Groups	277.8	243	1.1		
	Total	278.7	244			
Ideal post-bid	Between Groups	2.7	1	2.7	2.3	.134
	Within Groups	294.4	243	1.2		
	Total	297.2	244			

Correlations Between Support/Involvement *and* Income/Age

Support/Involvement	Income (r)	Age (r)
Pre-bid support	<i>.040</i>	<i>-.063</i>
Post-bid support	<i>-.018</i>	<i>-.082</i>
Support at the Games	<i>.055</i>	<i>-.065</i>
<i>Actual pre-bid involvement</i>	<i>-.042</i>	<i>.009</i>
<i>Ideal pre-bid involvement</i>	<i>-.150*</i>	<i>.046</i>
<i>Actual post-bid involvement</i>	<i>-.065</i>	<i>.004</i>
<i>Ideal post-bid involvement</i>	<i>-.065</i>	<i>.063</i>

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

APPENDIX 12: STATISTICAL SUMMARY- SYDNEY COMMUNITY/WELFARE GROUPS

Sample Size	11
Q1a) Present level of support for the Sydney Games	
	Valid % of responses
Very Unsupportive	0
>	11.1
>	55.6
>	33.3
Very Supportive	0

Q1b) Reasons for level of support		
	% of responses	% of cases
Good for Sydney and Australia	12.5	22.2
Created Jobs	12.5	22.2
Impact on low income housing	12.5	22.2
Key social impacts not adequately considered	12.5	22.2
Uncertainty over impacts on community	12.5	22.2
Pride	6.3	11.1
Efforts/money could be better utilised	6.3	11.1
Important for ethnic groups	6.3	11.1
Possible rent increases	6.3	11.1
Questionable benefits	6.3	11.1
Uncertainty over impacts on social services	<u>6.3</u>	<u>11.1</u>
Total respondents n=9	100	177.8

Q2a) Level of support when Sydney won the right to host the Games	
	Valid % of responses
Very Unsupportive	33.3
>	11.1
>	0
>	44.4
Very Supportive	11.1

Q2b) Level of support between winning the right to host the Games and now	
	Valid % of responses
Very Unsupportive	0
>	27.3
>	27.3
>	27.3
Very Supportive	0

Q3) Reasons for any <i>change</i> in level of support		
	% of responses	% of cases
Create jobs	11.1	12.5
Not enough promotion of cultural diversity	11.1	12.5
Government 'may' act to protect tenants	11.1	12.5
Effort to protect the needs of poor	11.1	12.5
Greater emphasis required on low income/disadvantaged groups	11.1	12.5
Social impact planning stalled	11.1	12.5
Actively working with the government	11.1	12.5
Viewing the Olympics as an opportunity	11.1	12.5
Greater awareness of potential impacts	<u>11.1</u>	<u>12.5</u>
Total respondents <i>n</i> =8	100	112.5

Q4a) Perceived level of community involvement during bid stage	
	Valid % of responses
<i>None at all</i> - projects proceed without information being provided to the community.	22.2
<i>Information Sharing</i> - information regarding projects is shared with the community.	55.6
<i>Consultation</i> - the community is not only informed, but also asked for opinions on key issues,	11.1
<i>Decision-Making</i> - the community is involved in the decision-making process	11.1
<i>Community Action</i> - decisions regarding projects are made primarily by the community (<i>n</i> =9).	0

Q4b) Level of involvement respondents considered <i>ideal</i> during bid stage	
	Valid % of responses
None at all	18.2
Information Sharing	0
Consultation	36.4
Decision-Making	36.4
Community Action	9.1
<i>n</i> =11	

Q5a) Perceived level of involvement post-bid	
	Valid % of responses
None at all	11.1
Information Sharing	66.7
Consultation	11.1
Decision-Making	11.1
Community Action	0
<i>n</i> =9	

Q5b) Level of involvement respondents considered <i>ideal</i> post-bid	
	Valid % of responses
None at all	0
Information Sharing	18.2
Consultation	27.3
Decision-Making	45.5
Community Action	9.1
<i>n</i> =11	

Q6) Ranking Olympic Issues								
	% of cases							
	Most Important 1	2	3	4	5	6	Least Important 7	Mean
Impact on lifestyle								2.8
Cost of infrastructure								2.8
Welfare issues								1.7
Ticket availability and affordability								6.3
Community involvement in planning								3.6
Enjoying the event								5.5
Using facilities after the event								5.3

Q7a) What <i>were</i> the major reasons for bidding for the Games		
	% of responses	% of cases
Economic benefits	27.8	50.0
Increased tourism	22.2	40.0
Gain political advantage	16.7	30.0
Prestige	11.1	20.0
Enhance Australia's International image	11.1	20.0
Don't know	5.6	10.0
Highlight Australia's diversity and uniqueness	<u>5.6</u>	<u>10.0</u>
Total <i>n</i> =10	100	152

Q7b) What <i>should</i> be the major reasons to bid for an event such as the Olympics		
	% of responses	% of cases
Benefits to community	23.5	40.0
Economic benefits	17.6	30.0
Improved facilities	11.8	20.0
Increased tourism	5.9	10.0
Enhance Australia's International image	5.9	10.0
Improved infrastructure	5.9	10.0
Planned urban development	5.9	10.0
Promote International peace	5.9	10.0
Gain political advantage	5.9	10.0
Increase trade	5.9	10.0
Can't think of a good reason	<u>5.9</u>	<u>10.0</u>
Total <i>n</i> =10	100	153.3

Q8) Forms of community participation made aware of		
	% of responses	% of cases
Public meetings	16.0	36.4
Descriptive information (leaflets, media etc)	36.0	81.8
Community meetings in areas where venues were proposed	8.0	18.2
Social impact studies	40.0	90.9
Other	0.0	0.0
Total	100	227.3
n=11		

Q8a) Forms of community participation taken advantage of		
	% of responses	% of cases
Public meetings	11.5	27.3
Descriptive information (leaflets, media etc)	34.6	81.8
Community meetings in areas where venues were proposed	3.8	9.1
Social impact studies	38.5	90.9
Others	11.5	27.3
Total	100.0	130.5
n=11		

Q8b) Why did you use participation aware of		
	% of responses	% of cases
Impacts our community of interest	30.0	33.3
To become as involved as possible	20.0	22.2
To keep informed	10.0	11.1
Interested in social impacts	10.0	11.1
To feed information from community	10.0	11.1
Inform members of issues	10.0	11.1
Invited	10.0	11.1
Total	100	113.9
n=9		

Q9a) What type of contribution do you feel the community has provided thus far	
	Valid % of responses
No Contribution	20.0
>	40.0
>	10.0
>	10.0
Very Positive Contribution	20.0

Q9b) Why do you believe the community provided this level of contribution		
	% of responses	% of cases
No opportunity to contribute	18.2	20.0
Raising social impact issues	18.2	20.0
Ensured multiculturalism is considered	9.1	10.0
Actions contributed to undertaking of social impact study	9.1	10.0
Actions contributed to establishment of SIAC	9.1	10.0
Recommendations adopted in SIA report	9.1	10.0
Increasing at each stage	9.1	10.0
Process was tokenistic	9.1	10.0
Inadequate resources	9.1	10.0
Total	100	110.0
n=10		

Q10) What type of <i>role</i> do you believe community/lobby groups <i>have</i> played in the planning process	
	Valid % of responses
No role at all	20.0
>	60.0
>	20.0
>	0
Very influential role	0

Q11) What type of <i>role</i> do you feel community/lobby groups <i>should ideally</i> play in the planning process?	
	Valid % of responses
No role at all	0
>	0
>	0
>	45.5
Very influential role	54.5

Q12) If your group was more involved in planning/hosting how would this affect your groups level of support?	
	Valid % of responses
Greatly Decreased	0
Moderately Decreased	0.4
Remained Unchanged	47.2
Moderately Increased	34.6
Greatly Increased	17.9

Q13) Agree/Disagree Statements						
	% of cases					
	Strongly Disagree 1	Moderately Disagree 2	Neither 3	Moderately Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5	Mean
a) Organisers have made an effort to incorporate the residents of Sydney & NSW into the planning process						1.7
b) The benefits to Sydney from hosting the Olympics are greater than the costs						2.9
c) Community involvement doesn't lead to better planning & decision making for mega-events						2.0
d) Community involvement functions as an early warning system, helping organisers to avoid or plan for decisions that might otherwise cause conflict with the host community						4.8
e) Services for disabled persons in Sydney have improved as a result of hosting the Olympics						3.5
f) An effort is being made by organisers to involve community/lobby groups in the planning process?						2.2
g) Community and lobby groups are playing a major role in the planning process						1.4
h) Organisers successfully incorporated the residents of Sydney & NSW into the planning process						4.2
i) I would have liked our group to be more involved in the planning process for the Sydney Olympics						4.1
j) Sufficient opportunities are being provided for members of the community and community groups to obtain information/air concerns						1.5
k) Ensuring local input (if heeded) helps to legitimise the decision making process						2.2

Q14) Other comments		
	% of responses	% of cases
Australia's sporting culture makes it difficult to be critical	22.2	40.0
Should incorporate groups in strategic planning	11.1	20.0
Provide models for involvement at each stage	11.1	20.0
Very little information freely available	11.1	20.0
Process of SLAC being ignored	11.1	20.0
Opportunity to build a better Sydney being lost	11.1	20.0
Historically, Olympics consults with the big business	11.1	20.0
Environmental issues not taken seriously	<u>11.1</u>	<u>20.0</u>
Total	100.0	180.0
<i>n</i> =10		

APPENDIX 13: STATISTICAL SUMMARY- SYDNEY BID/ORGANISING COMMITTEES

Sample Size	11
Q1a) Present level of perceived community support for the Sydney Games	
	Valid % of responses
Very Unsupportive	0
>	0
>	9.1
>	27.3
Very Supportive	63.6

Q1b) Reasons to believe this is the levels of for level of support		
	% of responses	% of cases
Pride	15.4	20.0
Community spirit	7.7	10.0
Once-in-a-lifetime opportunity	7.7	10.0
Privilege to host	7.7	10.0
Good for Sydney and Australia	7.7	10.0
High cost/can't afford	7.7	10.0
Little opportunity to get involved	7.7	10.0
Become too political	7.7	10.0
Many reasons	7.7	10.0
Strong Olympic brand	7.7	10.0
Sports culture	7.7	10.0
Getting close/can see facilities	7.7	10.0
Total respondents n=10	100	130.0

Q2a) Perceived level of support when Sydney won the right to host the Games	
	Valid % of responses
Very Unsupportive	0
>	0
>	0
>	0
Very Supportive	100.0

Q2b) Perceived level of support between winning the right to host the Games and now	
	Valid % of responses
Very Unsupportive	0
>	9.1
>	0
>	63.6
Very Supportive	27.3

Q3) Perceived reasons for any <i>change</i> in level of support		
	% of responses	% of cases
Not applicable	30.0	60.0
No stability at SOCOG	10.0	20.0
Escalating costs	10.0	20.0
Natural ebb and flow	10.0	20.0
Media more critical	10.0	20.0
Stupid political games	5.0	10.0
Lack of perceived leadership	5.0	10.0
High costs/can't afford	5.0	10.0
Euphoria surrounding the bid has subsided	5.0	10.0
Greater awareness of impacts	5.0	10.0
Politics	<u>5.0</u>	<u>10.0</u>
Total respondents <i>n</i> =10	100	200.0

Q4a) Perceived level of community involvement during bid stage	
	Valid % of responses
<i>None at all</i> - projects proceed without information being provided to the community.	9.1
<i>Information Sharing</i> - information regarding projects is shared with the community.	45.5
<i>Consultation</i> - the community is not only informed, but also asked for opinions on key issues,	36.4
<i>Decision-Making</i> - the community is involved in the decision-making process	9.1
<i>Community Action</i> - decisions regarding projects are made primarily by the community.	0
<i>n</i> =11	

Q4b) Level of involvement respondents considered <i>ideal</i> during bid stage	
	Valid % of responses
None at all	9.1
Information Sharing	18.2
Consultation	63.6
Decision-Making	9.1
Community Action	0
<i>n</i> =11	

Q4c) Why would this level be ideal?	
	% of responses
Involvement in decision-making not practical	33.3
The IOC requires involvement	<u>16.7</u>
Impossible to consult millions of people	16.7
Important and appreciated	16.7
We wanted to win	<u>16.7</u>
Total respondents <i>n</i> =6	100

Q5a) Perceived level of involvement post-bid	
	Valid % of responses
None at all	9.1
Information Sharing	45.5
Consultation	27.3
Decision-Making	9.1
Community Action	9.1
<i>n</i> =11	

Q5b) Level of involvement respondents considered <i>ideal</i> post-bid	
	Valid % of responses
None at all	0
Information Sharing	27.3
Consultation	54.5
Decision-Making	18.2
Community Action	0
<i>n</i> =11	

Q5c) Why would this level be ideal?	
	% of responses
Would help maintain community support	14.3
For the success of the Games	14.3
Impossible to consult millions of people	14.3
Create a sense of ownership	14.3
SOCOG knows what's necessary	14.3
Involvement in decision-making not practical	14.3
To retain positive sentiment for commercial reasons	14.3
Total respondents	100
<i>n</i> =7	

Q6) Ranking Olympic Issues							
% of cases							
	Most Important 1	2	3	4	5	6	Least Important 7
Impact on lifestyle							5.2
Cost of infrastructure							3.3
Welfare issues							5.6
Ticket availability and affordability							3.2
Community involvement in planning							4.1
Enjoying the event							3.1
Using facilities after the event							3.4

Q7a) What <i>were</i> the major reasons for bidding for the Games		
	% of responses	% of cases
Increased tourism	20.0	45.5
Show capabilities	12.0	27.3
Improved infrastructure	12.0	27.3
Economic benefits	8.0	18.2
Enhance Australia's International image	8.0	18.2
International recognition	8.0	18.2
Improved facilities	8.0	18.2
Increased pride	4.0	9.1
Prestige	4.0	9.1
Benefits to athletes/sports	4.0	9.1
Honour to host	4.0	9.1
Everyone had different motives	<u>4.0</u>	<u>9.1</u>
<i>Total</i>	100	227.3
<i>n=11</i>		

Q7b) What <i>should</i> be the major reasons to bid for an event such as the Olympics		
	% of responses	% of cases
Enhance Australia's international image	17.4	44.4
Improved infrastructure	17.4	44.4
Increased tourism	13.0	33.3
Improved facilities	13.0	33.3
Economic benefits	8.7	22.2
Enhance Sydney's international image	4.3	11.1
International recognition	4.3	11.1
Show capabilities	4.3	11.1
Increased pride	4.3	11.1
Benefits to community	4.3	11.1
Benefits to athletes/sports	4.3	11.1
Benefits without excess cost to taxpayer	<u>4.3</u>	<u>11.1</u>
<i>Total</i>	100	255.6
<i>n=9</i>		

Q8a) Forms of participation provided for the host community and community/lobby groups		
	% of responses	% of cases
Public meetings	19.4	54.5
Descriptive information (leaflets, media etc)	32.3	90.9
Community meetings in areas where venues were proposed	25.8	72.7
Social impact studies	22.6	63.6
Other	<u>0.0</u>	<u>0.0</u>
<i>Total</i>	100.0	281.8
<i>n=11</i>		

Q8b) Which forms were most effective in attaining a level of participation optimal for planning		
	% of responses	% of cases
Public meetings	26.3	55.6
Descriptive information (leaflets, media etc)	31.6	66.7
Community meetings in areas where venues were proposed	26.3	55.6
Social impact studies	10.5	22.2
Others	<u>5.3</u>	<u>11.1</u>
<i>Total</i>	100.0	211.1
<i>n=9</i>		

Q8c) Why these forms of participation in particular		
	% of responses	% of cases
Best way to have their opinions heard	50.0	50.0
The others useful on a micro level	<u>50.0</u>	<u>50.0</u>
Total	100	100
n=2		

Q9a) What type of contribution do you feel the community has provided thus far	
	Valid % of responses
No Contribution	27.3
>	18.2
>	9.1
>	36.4
Very Positive Contribution	9.1

Q9b) Why do you believe the community provided this level of contribution		
	% of responses	% of cases
No opportunity to contribute	16.7	16.7
Not enough Olympic knowledge	16.7	16.7
Inadequate resources	16.7	16.7
Varies between groups	16.7	16.7
People want to be involved	16.7	16.7
Essential during bid	<u>16.7</u>	<u>16.7</u>
Total	100	100
n=6		

Q10) What type of <i>role</i> do you believe community/lobby groups <i>have</i> played in the planning process	
	Valid % of responses
No role at all	27.3
>	9.1
>	9.1
>	45.5
Very influential role	9.1

Q11) What type of <i>role</i> do you feel community/lobby groups <i>should ideally</i> play in the planning process?	
	Valid % of responses
No role at all	0
>	18.2
>	18.2
>	45.5
Very influential role	18.2

Q12) If the host community and community/lobby groups were more involved in planning/hosting how would this affect overall community support?	
	Valid % of responses
Greatly Decreased	0
Moderately Decreased	0
Remained Unchanged	27.3
Moderately Increased	54.5
Greatly Increased	18.2

Q13) Agree/Disagree Statements						
	% of cases					Mean
	Strongly Disagree 1	Moderately Disagree 2	Neither 3	Moderately Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5	
a) Organisers have made an effort to incorporate the residents of Sydney & NSW into the planning process						3.5
b) The benefits to Sydney from hosting the Olympics are greater than the costs						4.8
c) Community involvement doesn't lead to better planning & decision making for mega-events						2.8
d) Community involvement functions as an early warning system, helping organisers to avoid or plan for decisions that might otherwise cause conflict with the host community						3.6
e) Services for disabled persons in Sydney have improved as a result of hosting the Olympics						4.2
f) An effort is being made by organisers to involve community/lobby groups in the planning process?						3.8
g) Community and lobby groups are playing a major role in the planning process						2.8
h) Organisers successfully incorporated the residents of Sydney & NSW into the planning process						3.5
i) Sufficient opportunities are being provided for members of the community and community groups to obtain information/air concerns						3.8
j) Ensuring local input (if heeded) helps to legitimise the decision making process						3.5

Q14) Other comments		
	% of responses	% of cases
Volunteers are essential	33.3	50.0
Certain groups are consulted	16.7	25.0
Total community involvement won't work	16.7	25.0
More information will be provided closer to the Games	16.7	25.0
SOCOG has canvassed widely in the planning stages	16.7	25.0
Total	100.0	150
n=4		