International Event Management

Bridging the Gap Between Theory and Practice

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By

Hugues Séraphin and Maximiliano Korstanje

This edited collection features contributions from a highly experienced and diverse group of international scholars with it representing an authoritative and timely contribution to the domain of international event management. In seeking to bridge the gap between theory and practice the contribution includes a good range of event destination scenarios with examples drawn from the UK, Caribbean, Greece, South Africa and the Middle East. An invaluable read for all those engaged in the management of events internationally.

Dr Alan Fyall, Orange County Endowed Professor of Tourism Marketing, Rosen College of Hospitality Management, University of Central Florida

Give a man a fish, and you feed him for a day. Teach a man to fish, and you feed him for a lifetime.

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FOREWORD

ALEXANDRU CAPATINA

Working in academic and business coaching, I have always been highly interested in discovering the ways in which event managers provide attendees with the best conditions to feel part of the event community.

The globalisation of events from different areas may suggest that there has been a need for skills development in the particular case of managers and consultants who use meetings as a means to achieve their goals. This book is a practical guide taking readers through the knowledge discovery steps of how to manage event activities – for events of any scale, in tourism, sport, business, sustainable development, education and many other sectors.

With its perfect combination of theoretical and practical issues, this book aims to share with readers the knowledge needed to professionally manage events in different fields. The latest trends including the key theories, concepts and case studies related to event management are presented in a manner that intellectually stimulates readers to get ready for an experiential learning journey.

Both academics and industry practitioners will find the book accessible and inspiring for their work. Indeed, a collaborative sense-making approach to events represents the book's key strength – it seeks to bridge the gap between the researcher and the practitioner by presenting best practices regarding how to deal with event management issues, which could be replicated globally.

This book is in line with the new wave of research in event management, as it seeks to create synergies between readers who will be interested in sharing their feedback. The expected outcomes of this book are collaborations between readers and international contributors with different areas of expertise in event management. The contribution to the development of the knowledge base related to event management and evolution of concepts will be strengthened by means of knowledge sharing on professional social networks, such as Research Gate and Academia.edu.

Foremost, this book reflects a global focus on theoretical and practical debates focused on event management, rewarding the readers with fresh ideas and up-to-date knowledge regarding how to plan events and how to handle pre-event preparations. It highlights brand new strategies and techniques able to solve the real problems event management is confronted with.

This book will enable readers to understand the impact of events on destination management organisations, explain the role of events in promoting international sport competitions, and understand the key issues in planning and designing collaborative partnerships in event management. Each chapter features a real-life case study to highlight key concepts and replace theoretical concepts with practical solutions to effectively approach the organisation of events, as well as preparing readers to tackle any challenges they might face in their future opportunities to manage events. Readers are invited to check out the book chapters to glean what event organisers are expecting and asking for!

The authors of the chapters included in this reference book seek to update the understanding of how the latest trends in event management relate to the competitive advantage of organisations that organise them. Although this topic receives a lot of attention, they felt that in addition to conventional approaches of event management strategies, it could be invigorated by original perspectives with a high propensity to be shared or that are in the early stages of development.

On behalf of the community interested in finding new perspectives on dealing with event management, my sincere congratulations to the authors and in particular to my friend, who plays the role of Editor—Dr Hugues Séraphin—for providing this valuable source of knowledge that aims to substantially support the growth of the practical insights related to international event management.

PREFACE

CHRIS POWELL

In my early event management days it's fair to say I made a few mistakes. The trick of course is to learn from them. As with anything in life, the more you "practice events", the better and more confident you will become. So what have I learnt? Well to help you, as you start out on your event journey here's my (abridged) 7 Step Guide to the Perfect Event. While most of us would agree there is no substitute for real-life event planning experience, this guide will give you a clearer idea of where to focus your attention.

Stage 1 – Purpose

Having a great event idea is one thing; finding a receptive and enthusiastic audience in sufficient numbers is another altogether. Developing the type of events that potential visitors would like to attend requires you to do a little pre-event research.

Your pre-event market research needs to identify a need, desire or trend. You will want to seek opinions, see what event competition you have, conduct surveys and do some online research. You will also want to establish a clear audience profile – your target market. The reason for doing this work…well it's to find out whether it's worth entering the market and investing your time, energy and money in.

Stage 2 – Presentation

Now that you believe you have a viable event, it's time to start designing it. The design stage is where you seek to create a visual image of your event: its look, style, feel and/or theme. You are considering what your audience is going to do, listen to, take part in and what "take away memories" you want your audience to leave with. Great event design is all about being brave, ignoring all thoughts of actual and perceived boundaries (including budgets). It is also about being able to stand in customers' shoes: to think like a guest. A brainstorming meeting is usual in the design stage and its purpose is to create a long list of ideas which then need evaluating. With the ideas to hand you are going to have to think about whether it will work for the audience: how much will it cost and do you believe you and/or your team can manage the process of delivering it. Ultimately you are trying to find ideas or concepts that resonate with everyone.

Stage 3 – Planning

Now you have a clearer idea of what your event will be it's time to start planning it – to make it happen. This stage is primarily concerned with the end result and the means of achieving it. Tasks you are going to have to complete at the planning stage include things like: recruiting an event planning team, agreeing your event's financial strategy, setting the event budget and spending criteria, establishing your infrastructure requirements and then selecting and contracting suppliers. Of great importance is the absolute need to write an event project plan – a complete list of everything that needs to be done by whom and by when.

Successful event planning is all about the detail and the event manager's ability to drive the process forward, stick to the plan and hit those deadlines.

Stage 4 – Place

Your event venue is a fundamental part of the event experience. Finding, selecting and contracting a venue for your event takes time and effort. The basic rule of thumb is: event first – venue second. Initially, to make your life easier I suggest you create a venue search criteria to include such things as location, what size space you need, estimated audience numbers, do you want a themed venue or a blank canvas. The more specific you can be the better. With your venue search criteria agreed you can start your own online search or pass the information to a venue finding agency. Ideally you are looking to then shortlist 4-6 venues to visit in person. After seeing all of them (some you will discount immediately) select your favourite and ask for a quote – check it thoroughly (seek clarification about anything you are not 100% sure about) and sign it! Once signed, you will be asked to make a deposit payment. At this point you can start planning the site and deciding where everything will go.

Stage 5 – Programme

The event programme is the main reason why audiences attend events. A great event programme includes: what your guests are going to do, listen to, learn and eat, and it takes time, effort and money to put it all together. The event programme is the schedule of activities, entertainment, speakers and catering over a set period. It is constructed much like a play, scene by scene. The programme can be made up of any number of activities – such as speakers, workshops, entertainment, catering, exhibitions, demonstrations, etc. Each element of the programme is carefully considered by the event manager in terms of its impact, relevance and time taken.

I would strongly recommend you create a varied programme which has changes of tempo and style and high levels of interactivity. Your event programme really does matter so invest enough time, effort and money into making sure it delivers.

Stage 6 – Promotion

Getting people to turn up to your events is tough. Persuading somebody to part with the cash or just to register requires tenacity, creativity and determination. A structured, detailed and thorough event promotional plan is required. The aim of all your event promotional activities must be to draw people to your event: to excite them to buy, enquire, email, talk to you, sign up, purchase tickets or to register interest. It is important to use a combination of great words, visuals and social sharing facilities. Don't forget that people are the ones who make all the decisions, so make sure your promotional content reflects this fact – be human and appeal to people's emotional sensibilities. Promoting events requires belief (in your event), energy, creativity and persistence. Successful event promoters know they need to turn up every day…yes, every day!

7 – Production

Producing an event is like directing a play: it is built, scene by scene and requires you to really know the detail. There is a necessary and logical order (what needs to happen first, second, third and so on) to planning an event, and getting this right is important. The best way to manage this stage of your event is to create an event operational plan or function sheet – identifying day/time, activity, contact person and task completed. The plan pivots around what time you intend to open to the public. Event managers' responsibilities are many, but one of the key roles they must undertake is to make sure they have done everything they reasonably can to ensure they deliver a safe event. You will need to write risk assessments to cover all known hazards as well as check insurances and decide what you will do in the case of an emergency.

The successful conclusion of your event is likely to have been a team effort, driven forward by you, the event manager. How you perform as the event manager during the build-up and on event day itself will be a crucial factor in ensuring the day is memorable for everyone…including you.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

As the editor of this book, I am grateful for the support of the Business School of the University of Winchester, and more particularly, Lisa Harding (Head of the Department of Applied Management Studies). Lisa is a very supportive Head of Department. More importantly, she is very patient... I would also like to thank all the contributors, and Cambridge Scholars Publishing for their support. I would also like to thank my mother for her constant encouragement, motivation and more importantly for her love. Last but not least, I would like to thank all my co-authors across the world (colleagues from: the University of Catania; Mauritius Institute of Education; ESC Pau; University of Palermo; University of the West-Indies; Université de Perpignan Via Domitia; etc.) and Abby Whittall for proof reading the manuscript.

Hugues Séraphin, November 2017
(Winchester, England)

INTRODUCTION

HUGUES SÉRAPHIN AND VANESSA GOWREESUNKAR

The event industry is a robust economic force worldwide. It spans into many other important sectors like travel, tourism, hospitality, technology, media and communication, *inter alia*. In America, it is estimated that 18 million events are organised yearly generating approximately $280 billion spending and $66.8 billion labour income (Event Industry Outlook 2016). Events showcase talent, and are perhaps those moments when societies and communities group together to revive certain traditions and cultures, which are otherwise dormant. In other contexts, like the case of tourism, events create economic value for the hosting destination, which boosts the economy. In contrast to permanent attractions, an event has the potential to promote authenticity and hence, is increasingly tapped by marketers for the purpose of differentiation. For instance, destinations celebrate their unique culture and heritage through events which represent important milestones in their tourism history. Given their capacity to attract visitors and generate profit, tourism destinations are increasingly capitalising on events as a diversification strategy. This trend has undoubtedly precipitated popularity in event studies and hence the writing of this book.

Events range from high profile productions such as Presidential Inaugurations or Royal weddings, to popular ones like county fairs, cultural festivals, trade shows, and concerts. Business events include annual general meetings, marketing product launches, incentive trips, conferences, and networking events. Another interesting trend is the rise of virtual and hybrid events such as webinars, and live streaming events that are hosted increasingly often nowadays. These not only add to economic benefit but also contribute immensely to the visibility of a destination. Events not only generate socio-cultural impacts, but also have a bearing on the economy and environment of a tourism destination, and hence, the need to bridge the gap between theory and practice is crucial. Understanding the trends in the event industry is therefore key to anticipating opportunities and challenges in the global market. This book is expected to help readership recognise those opportunities and challenges in order to better adapt to the changing pattern of the event industry in tourism. Throughout the book, the emphasis is practical advice based on empirical evidence and case studies in order to guide practitioners in their tasks and students in their studies.

Another key issue in the event industry relates to the market condition of the 21st century. With technology-savvy customers and increased geopolitical turmoil creating fundamental shifts in world trade and investment, uncertainty is a further challenge for the industry. In response, the chapters of this book provide a wide coverage of key issues affecting the industry and give valuable information on how to adapt to this uncertainty and operate effectively within these changing trends. The aim is to assist readership to gain a deeper understanding of the dynamics of events and give a refreshed perspective of the industry while bridging the gap between theory and practice.

"Events are based in society and involve people. They comprise interaction between people and places and they have costs and benefits" (Andrews and Leopold 2013, 1). Thus, events can positively benefit local economies in the form of socio-cultural and economic impacts. Subsequently, organisers of events can maximise such impacts by adopting a strategic approach to event management. "However, strategic planning has been lacking" (Masterman 2014, 3).

As editor of the book, I strongly believe that the diversity and multidisciplinary nature of the case studies will definitely be useful for a great variety of users, but particularly undergraduate students in Event Management. The book can also be useful to scholars and have the potential to inspire insightful discussions as it provides a set of detailed, international contributions. The other purpose of this book is to raise the profile of Event Management as a field of research, as a subject, but also to raise the profile of academics in this area.

The landscape of the book covers a broad spectrum of research. The chapters explore the changing dimensions in the industry based on the following themes:

- Event Management Trends and Policies
- Events and Destination Image and Preference
- Events and Education
- Events, Attendees and Organisers

In the present book an attempt is made to cover a wide range of events (sport, cultural, festivals and weddings) and issues related to the organisation and management of these events (policies, terrorism, etc.). The chapters also provide solutions and strategies for the organisation of successful events (protocol, etc.). The book also offers an opportunity to understand attendees from a consumer behaviour point of view. More importantly, some chapters cover events from an education point of view by examining the question from a Higher Education perspective (universities) but also from an event organiser angle (what is done to make people aware of sustainability).

Researchers from diverse geographic/academic backgrounds were invited to contribute chapters to the volume on their area of expertise.

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PART I:

EVENT MANAGEMENT TRENDS AND POLICIES

CHAPTER ONE

TOURISM AND EVENT MANAGEMENT TRENDS AND POLICIES: A REGIONAL APPROACH

SHEM WAMBUGU MAINGI

Events and tourism are significant components in a region's social and economic scaffolding. Socially, events have been seen as vehicles for enhancing a cohesive and integrated social system. However, at the economic front, events play a significant role in catalysing trade, tourism, hospitality and the service industries. Scholars have widely documented the social and economic significance of events (Getz 2008; Mallen and Adams 2013) and event tourism (Susic and Dordevic 2011) as a catalyst for economic growth, a destination's competitiveness and a cohesive social structure. Hosting events have become a major aspect of any nation's social, cultural and economic infrastructure. In the United States for instance, an average of 1.8 million meetings and events contributes about $393 billion to GDP, employs 1.8 million jobs, and accounts for just more than $109 billion of all business travel spending in the USA in 2012 (MPI 2016). Further, Roberson, Chambers and Frew (2007) argue that events have become the prime manifestations of a country's social and experiential economy.

In an experiential economy, not only events fail to generate short-term economic gains but also long-term changes in market structures, beliefs and attitudes towards a destination (Sneath, Finney, and Close 2005; Wood 2009). It can then be asserted that the experiential economy undoubtedly provides huge opportunities for developing a region's brand equity. Further, amidst the economic roles of events, there are other social, spiritual, cultural and political functions that serve as key societal values in Africa. It is therefore important to understand the role of events as tourism products in a region as well as their place as key tourism drivers. Odunga et al. (2007) note that the events industry in Africa, though unexplored, seems to be the largest socio-economic driver in Africa.

This chapter therefore seeks to provide a detailed analysis of the roles of events as key tourism drivers to a region. Such an analysis requires a critical assessment of events and tourism trends as well as a regional analysis of the impacts of events. The East African region has seen an evident growth in regional focus on hosting traditional events that are either business, sports, culture, recreation or leisure in nature. However, market trends in other places globally indicate a need to focus on niche events. Studies reviewed in this paper show how the market trends have been dynamic and changing progressively.

Overview of Tourism and Event Management Trends in East Africa

International tourism has been considered to be a powerful driver of economic growth and job creation in East Africa (World Bank 2015; UNECA 2013). The growth of tourism within the East African region has been equally phenomenal. The tourism industry within the East African context has traditionally focused on the wildlife, beach and cultural resource-bases as focal points for the destination. Subsequently, the majority of countries in this region have embraced tourism as an avenue for development.

It is estimated that tourism in this region contributes significantly in terms of foreign exchange earnings, capital investments and employment indicators. The tourism industry is a critical pillar of the region's realisation of its full economic potential. Tourism statistics indicate that visitor arrivals to the region have been increasing steadily despite security related shocks within the region. In 2011, Kenya received the highest proportion of international visitors accounting for 36% of the total arrivals, followed by Uganda (23%), Rwanda (18%), Tanzania (18%) and Burundi (5%) as indicated in figure 1-1 below. The trends further show that most of the Eastern African destinations have experienced marginal growth in tourism arrivals.

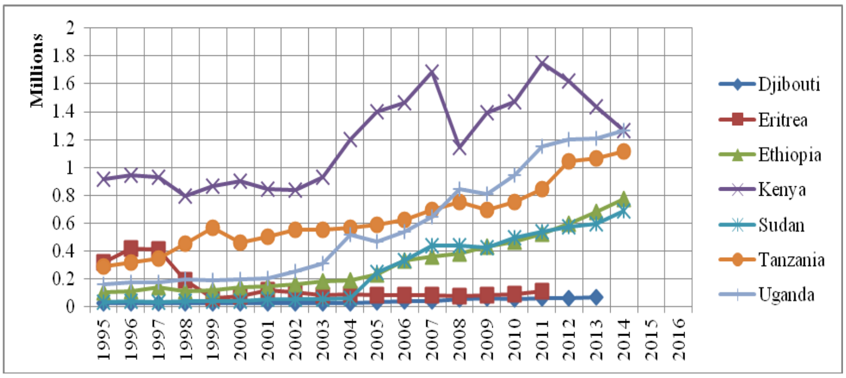

Fig. 1-1: International Tourist Arrivals to East Africa (1995-2014)
Source: Adapted from the World Bank. 2015. Global Databank http://databank.worldbank.org/data/home.aspx.

Tourism arrivals in Kenya have been declining since 2011 owing to security and travel advisory related aspects. The documented growth in visitor arrivals in Kenya has also been accompanied by a concurrent rise in tourism revenues (from 2000 to 2009) as shown in figure 1-1 above. However, the increase in earnings (shown in figure 1-2 below) have been decreasing steadily by around 2% each year since 2011, when they peaked at KSh97.9bn ($1.1bn). When you compare these trends with the other countries within the East African region, you will find a concurrent increase in visitation since 2010 as indicated in figure 1-2 below.

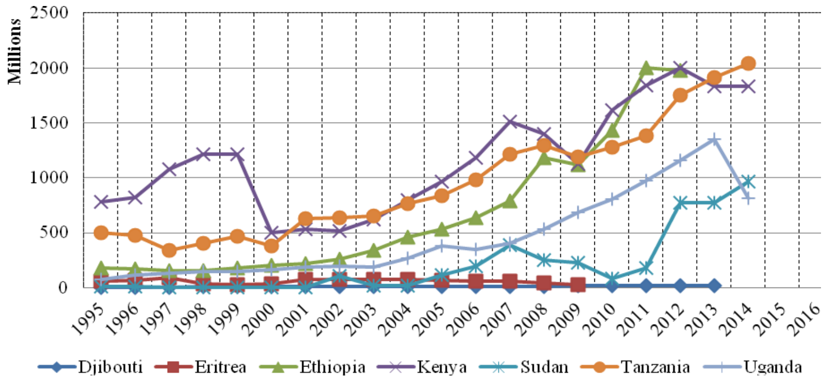

Fig 1-2: International Tourist Expenditures to East Africa (1995-2014)
Source: Adapted from the World Bank. 2015. Global Databank http://databank.worldbank.org/data/home.aspx.

Kenya's total annual tourism earnings dropped by 7.4% in 2014 to KSh87.1bn ($958.1m) in 2015. This is contrary to rising trends witnessed by countries such as Tanzania and Sudan (World Bank 2015). The decline in tourism earnings has been attributed to the decline in room revenues since 2012 accustomed by a raft of security advisories and terrorist attacks on Westgate mall in 2013 and Garissa University in 2015.

Event and leisure tourism continues having significant potential within Kenyan leisure and tourism circles despite the rift of security concerns. In fact, the Kenya Tourism Board has been tapping into key events to leverage the promotion and marketing of tourism both locally and internationally. These events include festival and sport components, for example the Lake Turkana Festival as well as the Diani Touch Rugby tournament. These events provide unique opportunities for people to engage in recreational, entertainment, sports, social and business activities that have far reaching economic benefits to the destination. Events tourism is now an integral part of the diversification strategies designed to provide complementary benefits for hoteliers in the low season while enhancing marketing linkages with other accommodation products in the region.

Research Problem

Despite the real potential of events tourism within the sector, the sector continues to face teething problems. Over the past decade, East African countries have traditionally been targeting wildlife, beach and cultural tourism as an alternative towards poverty relief (Odunga et al. 2007). However with fierce competition globally, the region has had to complement its nature-based touristic resources with the potential to promote product diversification towards niche tourism products. In the East African region, events tourism has not been considered a key socio-economic component of the tourism strategy, despite its potential to be one of the tourism industry's lead revenue generators for many destinations within the region. Further, the economic impacts of events have not been adequately estimated and identified within the region, therefore underestimating the full potential of the sector. Scarcity of information on events tourism in the East African region poses a management challenge. The region needs to engage in direct strategic tourism marketing in priority market segments and establish core national brand values, and consistently convey these brand values to the wider and global tourism market. Subsequently, the lack of focus on events positioning as conduits to developing the region's brand equity is an issue of concern. Further, the development, planning and marketing of events and tourism in the region has been disparate and uncoordinated (UNECA 2013; Odunga et al. 2007).

Research Objectives

This chapter aims to address the tourism and events strategic trends within the region. Studies reviewed in this chapter indicate that the market trends have been dynamic and changing progressively. With this dynamic change has been a strategic shift in focus on designing unique niche events as core tourism products in East Africa. This has as a result changed the tourism policy towards focusing more on product developments that are iconic traditional attractions. In this line there are unique areas of focus in this chapter, which include:

1) To profile tourism and event management trends in the East African region
2) To benchmark tourism and event management regional trends in East Africa

The Concept of Events Tourism

Globally, studies on events management have focused on the increasing demand for events, identifying niche markets as well as the sectoral organisation of this emerging sector. The UNWTO global report on the meetings industry (UNWTO 2014) notes that the sector has been a high-value segment of the global tourism sector, providing a significant contribution in terms of revenues, GDP as well as employment impacts. Getz (2008) further examines this structure by developing the typology of planned events within the sector.

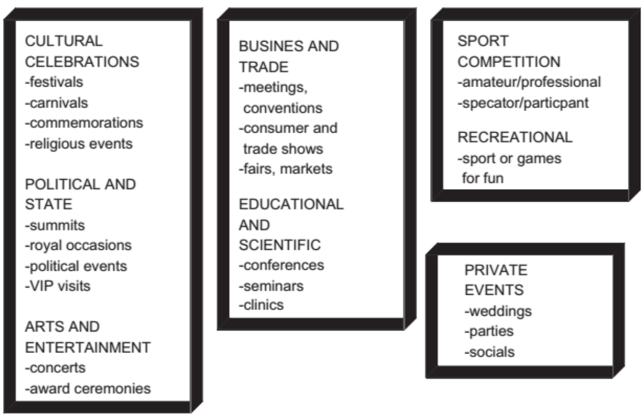

Fig. 1-3: Typology of Planned Events
Source: Getz. 2008. "Event Tourism: A Definition, Evolution and Research." *Tourism Management* 29:403 – 428.

Planned events are configured based on individual, social, and institutional parameters as well as community interests and values. The sector continues to realign itself as an emerging and dominant sector. ICCA reports (2010) indicate that market growth within the meetings industry will in the future be driven by infrastructural capacity as well as economic, social and security factors. Europe continues to be a dominant and popular region globally accounting for about 54% (4,921) of all meetings, while Asia and the Middle East account for 22% of all the market share in 2010 (See figure 1-4 below).

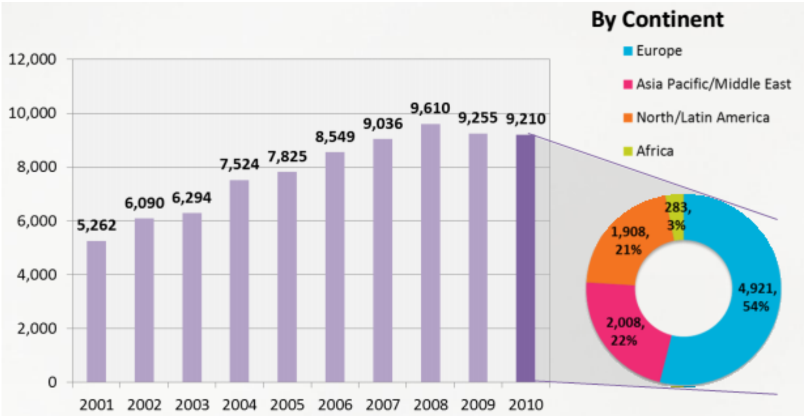

Fig. 1-4: Number of 2010 International Associations Meetings Globally
Source: ICCA. 2010. "Statistical Report on 2010 International Associations Meetings Market. ICCA." Assessed through:
https://www.google.com/#q=Statistical+report+on+2010+International+Associations+Meetings+Market.+

Africa accounted for 3% of the events industry market share within 2010, which is 283 meetings held within the region (ICCA 2010). The segment is expected to grow steadily and is already a very significant economic activity for a number of countries in the East African region where Kenya, Uganda, Tanzania and Rwanda are the most active destinations (UNWTO 2013). Current statistics, as shown by figure 1-5 below, indicate that Ethiopia attracts the highest number of international meetings and events in the region (82), then followed by Rwanda (78), Tanzania (76) and Kenya (71) consecutively.

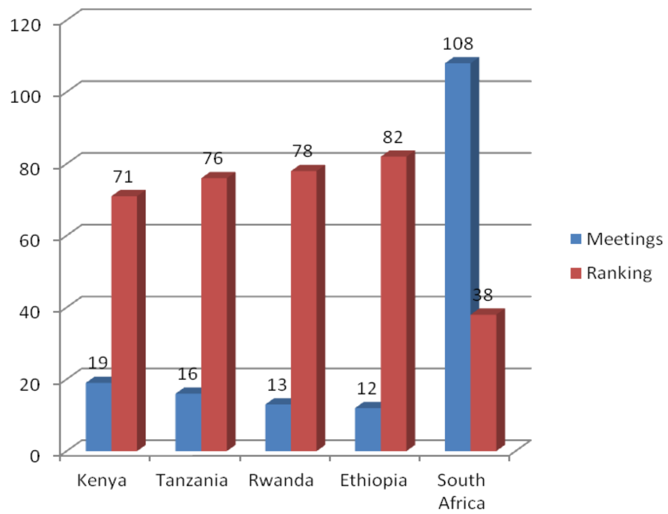

Fig. 1-5: Number of Meetings Hosted and Ranking of Countries within the East Africa Region in 2015. Source: ICCA. 2015. "2015 ICCA Statistics Report – Public Abstract." International Congress and Convention Association.

The East African community has been keen to drive the regional agenda as well as develop the pre-conditional factors for tourism integration in the East African region. Key to this agenda is the development of the Regional Brand Destination East Africa, improved tourism competitiveness, development of the single tourist visa, reduction of visa fees as well as reduction of work-permit fees and VAT on tourism services. The five year Regional Tourism Marketing Plan and Strategy as well as the Common Protocol on Tourism and Wildlife Management had been developed by the EAC and IGAD community to deepen regional tourism integration (EAC 2010). Other countries such as Rwanda have developed their own national MICE tourism strategy to deepen the drive for growth within the sector.

Benchmarking of Regional Event Tourism Trends

Empirical studies in tourism and event trends in European source markets have emphasised re-engaging visitors with heritage, commercial, spiritual and social participatory brands (Lyck, Long, and Grige 2012; Mallen and Adams 2013) which lead towards urban redevelopment (Burbank, Andranovich, and Heying 2002), catalysing economic expansion (Kennely 2017) and building a recognised destination brand (Getz 2003). Germany (Berlin), the United Kingdom (London), Spain (Madrid) and France (Paris) were among the listed top five meetings and events destinations in Europe by the ICCA (ICCA 2015). Further, there has been major political and regional framework in Europe, such as the European Community Agreements (ECAs) and the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATTs), that has facilitated the growth of events tourism and collectively developed a regional framework for enhancing the sustainable growth of events tourism as a niche sector. Getz (1997) notes that the majority of cities and regions are also establishing event development commissions and DMOs/CVBs which bid on, create and enhance economic regeneration within the cities through hosting major sport events.

In addition, the European Travel Commission (ETC) has been having a significant impact in promoting Europe's 27 NTOs with their operational groups of member NTOs within the major source markets such as within North America and Japan to promote the region (Destination Europe) as an event hosting destination. A recent example was in February 2017 when it was announced that Europe was the first ever partner destination with ITB China 2017. This move was viewed as critical in promoting Europe to the Chinese as well as understanding the needs of the Chinese within the European Tourism Community (ETOA 2017).

Other regional RTOs such as the South Pacific Tourism Organisation (SPTO, see www.tcsp.com); Asia Pacific Tourism Organisation (APTO, see www.apto.org); the ASEAN tourism association; and the Confederación de Organizaciones Turísticas de la America Latina (see www.cotal.org.ar) have been key in pushing the regional tourism agenda forward. From an Asia-Pacific perspective the UNWTO report on the meetings, incentives, conventions and exhibitions industry emphasises key drivers for events tourism growth in the region. These include investment in event infrastructure (including more exhibition grounds, convention centres, accommodation units and entertainment facilities), event marketplaces (such as IMEX, EIBTM), sectoral associations (PCMA, ICCA, MPI, ICCA), regional collaborations and networking as key facets for enhancing sustainable growth (UNWTO 2014).

Capriello and Rotherham (2011) further observed that focus on the network-based stakeholder power relationships is critical in realising the maximal impact of events. The roles of stakeholders within the value addition chain cannot be overstated. The stakeholder linkages then address fundamental issues that affect the success and/or failure of events within a destination which include funding, marketing and production, innovation as well as socio-economic impacts.

Globally, regional destinations have had to re-brand themselves to improve on their brand positioning. Such event-based place marketing has continuously utilised events as a means towards achieving key tourism objectives. For example, Bermuda positions itself to the American meetings market with the statement "sometimes you have to leave the country to get any work done", which promises productive meetings in a relaxed environment. Cancun, Mexico is positioned as "the meeting place for sun worshipers", providing the ideal meeting destination for leisure travellers. Hong Kong appeals to the incentive travel market with the statement "when they've reached the top, send them to the peak", referring to Victoria Peak, a major event tourist site in Hong Kong. While Fisher Island, a luxury residential development in Florida, positions itself as the place "where people who run things can stop running." All of these destinations desire to expand their event destination markets globally.

Maintaining destination competitiveness has been a key priority for DMOs, despite it being a significant challenge arising from increased competition, maturing tourism growth rates, and increased budgets of NTOs (Ritchie and Crouch 2003). These challenges have necessitated the needs for brand consolidation at the regional level to enhance the image and brand of the destinations. Studies have shown that relationships between DMOs within the regional level have been instrumental in enhancing the growth of destinations. The emergence of RTOs (Regional Tourism Organisations) has been instrumental in this regard. RTOs such as the Caribbean Tourism Organisation (CTO) have been instrumental in the promotion of the Caribbean brand as well as the development of the Caribbean Islands as an MICE and leisure event destination.

With the anticipation of economies of scale as well as the reduction of overhead costs in marketing the destination, government DMOs have had to redesign their regional tourism approaches and strategies, focusing on factor conditions, stimulating demand conditions as well as developing the supportive and related industries.

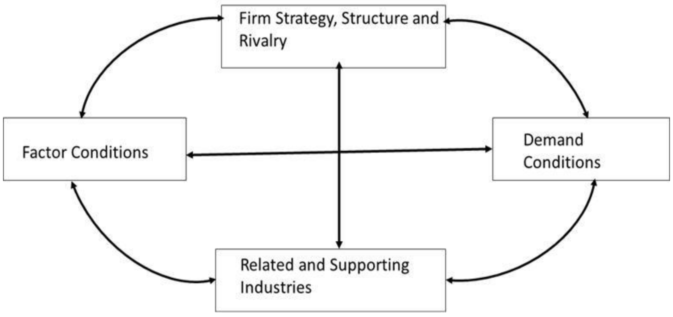

Fig. 1-6: Strategic Factors on Competitive Analysis

The framework, according to Porter (1990), represents an outline consisting of factors which individually and together can be used to assess the degree to which a country or region enjoys a relative competitive advantage. Wahab and Cooper (2001) have used the framework in a tourism context and have shown that, for example, whilst Egypt had great potential as a tourist destination, the potential had yet to be realised and so the country had not yet reached a position of comparative advantage. The concepts of comparative advantage (resource endowments) and competitive advantage (resource deployment) have been advanced further by Ritchie and Crouch (2003) in a comprehensive model of destination competitiveness and sustainability as shown in figure 1-7 below.

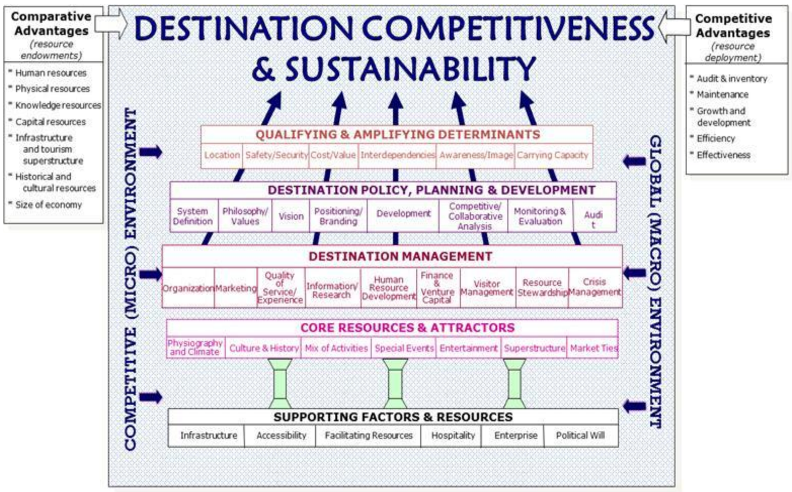

Fig. 1-7: Destination Competitiveness
Source: Ritchie and Crouch. 2003. *The Competitive Destination: A Sustainable Tourism Perspective*. Oxon, UK: CABI Publishing.

Last but not least, Ritchie and Crouch (2003) argue that the relative competitiveness of a tourist destination is a result of a combination of the resource endowment and the effective and efficient deployment of these resources (Figure 1-7 above). Naturally, all destinations have resources, what makes a big difference is the implementation of well-articulated plans and strategies in the utilisation of these resources.

Maintaining Regional Destination Competitiveness in Event Tourism

Destination Marketing Organisations (DMOs) and Conventions and Visitor Bureaus (CVBs) in the East African region have been prone to promote events, leisure and business tourism to the region. Events have featured as key areas for product growth, diversification, competitiveness and growth within the region. However, the production, development, marketing and promotion of events in the region has been disparate and uncoordinated (Odunga et al. 2007). It is with this in mind, as well as the need to generate and sustain tourism markets, revenues and jobs within the tourism sector, that most governments are pushed to advocate innovative approaches towards ensuring sustained economies and value chains locally, nationally as well as regionally.

The Destination Marketing Organisation in the East African region has the responsibility of coordinating and integrating the destination product elements that are critical for the development of an events destination. Morrison (2008) highlights these components which include the physical products (attractions, facilities and infrastructure); people (local cultures and lifestyles); packages (themed, circuit and routed itineraries) as well as the destination programmes (almanac of programmed events and festivals). Still further, the multi-level nature of the tourism support structure means that the regional DMOs need to actively engage all their stakeholders (UNWTO 2007). It should serve as the link between the national enablers (tourism ministries) as well as the private sector and tourism action groups as indicated in figure 1-8 below.

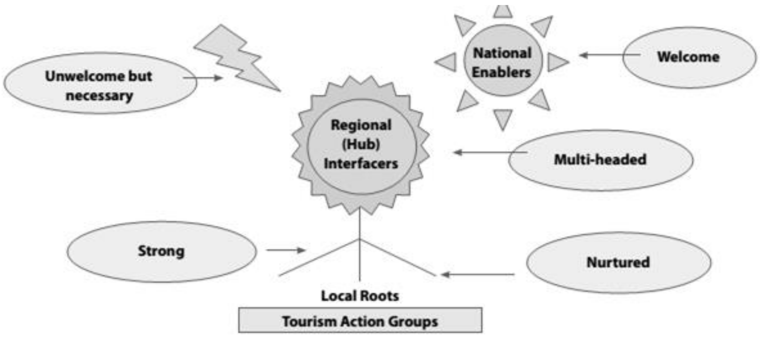

Fig. 1-8: The Multi-Level Nature of the Tourism Support Structure
Source: UNWTO. 2007. *A Practical Guide to Tourism Destination Management*. Madrid, Spain: UNWTO. ISBN: 978-92-844-1243-3.

According to Clegg, Carter, and Kornberger (2005), events strategy can be centred around planning or positioning destinations. Leading contributors within this context have either focused on studying typologies or strategic processes for tourism and events destinations. Further, studies on strategy have been classified into two strands: one that prioritises the analysis of the external environment (Martins and Kato 2010), and one that considers an analysis of the internal environment. The strategic typologies concept has been based on the premise that the positioning of destinations and/or products may be based on different aspects. According to Myles and Snow (1978), firms exhibit relatively stable patterns of strategic organisational behaviour in order to be aligned to the perceived environmental conditions.

Myles and Snow's (1978) typology suggested that business level strategy existed in four levels, i.e. prospector type, defender type, analyser type or reactor type. The "defenders", which are organisations narrowing product-market domains, are highly specialised in their limited areas of operations. They tend to focus more on adjusting their technology, efficiency levels, structures or methods of operation. However, the "prospectors" continually search for market opportunities outside. They regularly experiment with responses to emerging environmental trends with product and market innovations. The "analysers", however, operate in two different types of product-market domains, one which is relatively stable and a dynamic component. The "reactors" frequently perceive change occurring within their environments but are unable to respond effectively.

Porter's (1990) set of "generic strategies" (cost leadership, differentiation and focus), as well as Treacy and Wiercema's (1995) three strategic types (operational excellence, product leadership and customer intimacy) have, in a way, provided a means of classifying the different strategic outcomes of organisations as they interact with the environment. However, in understanding the competitive dynamics within the tourism and events industries, it would be futile to assume that levels of strategy as well as the destination's strategic outcomes alone, would be adequate to address the unique environmental dynamics.

Extensive studies in the service sector indicate that innovation is a key driver of competitiveness (OECD 2013; Metka and Gallouj 2012) and economic growth (European Commission 2011). These studies toy with the belief that responding to market forces, sustainability and outcome forces demands that the destination is able to innovate and develop its products continuously. The role of innovation in the strategy development process is further accentuated by the need to make the economic structures of destinations as dynamic as possible. As Keller (2006) puts it, it is critical that the strategic innovation addresses the need to rejuvenate the existing product offers, develop unique selling propositions, create or attract new investors and enterprises as well as develop a more dynamic product range in the tourism economic cluster.

Product innovation, to some extent, accommodates the fact that tourism destinations and markets are undergoing critical change. Bartalletti (1998) takes account of this by stating that in today's saturated tourism markets, visitors are increasingly looking for "experiences" rather than destination specific products. He further adds that the creation or recreation of this destination experience needs to cover "entertainment", "educational", "aesthetic", and "escapist" dimensions as well as the product features, well defined in the Pine and Gilmore (1999) framework. Visitors are able to engage in specialised social events that provide avenues for escape, excitement, thrill, novelty, socialisation and bonding (Nicholson and Pearce 2001).

Conclusions and Recommendations

To conclude, event tourism plays a significant role in the regional economy as a platform for the economic functions as well as the service sectors. In Africa, event tourism undoubtedly occupies a significant role with economic indicators showing a growing trend in foreign exchange earnings, employment as well as capital and infrastructural investments in metropolitan areas. However, there is a need for East African countries as well as the EAC and IGAD Regional Economic Communities (RECs) to address the teething problems facing the sector, by:

- Investing heavily in social, security, events infrastructure, events marketplaces and amenities supporting events destination activities in the region
- Leveraging on the promotion, diversification, branding and marketing of recreational, entertainment, sports, social and business events in the region
- Developing visitor information centres and related collateral on the Event Destination Brand is critical for the RTOs, DMOs and RTBs
- Investing heavily in developing events as tourism products and iconic touristic attractions
- Developing a cohesive national and regional strategy, policy and institutional framework to support the development of events tourism in the East African region
- Developing a Regional Tourism Organisation in East Africa, in charge of promoting and developing the East Africa Event Destination Brand
- Focusing on factor conditions, product innovations, stimulating demand as well as developing the supportive and related tourism and recreational industries
- Investing in bilateral and multi-lateral agreements and collaborations amongst CVBs and DMOs providing a regional framework for enhancing the sustainable growth of events tourism in the region
- Promoting Public Private Partnerships (PPPs) and stakeholder linkages in events destination marketing and management within the EA region
- Promoting urban redevelopment, focusing on the event soft infrastructure of the major counties, cities and towns through promoting iconic heritage, commercial, spiritual and social participatory event brands in the region
- Place marketing, re-branding and re-positioning the East African region as a leading events destination in Africa

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CHAPTER TWO

RETHINKING THE CONTOURS OF EVENT MANAGEMENT IN THE YEARS OF TERROR. TERRORISM AND THE RISE OF NEW CLIMATE IN THE TURN OF THE CENTURY

MAXIMILIANO KORSTANJE

Over recent years, terrorism has posed a major threat to Western civilisation. Defined by specialists as one of the most threatening scourges capitalism should face at the turn of the century, terrorism was emotionally packaged and framed as an irrational sentiment against Western democracy. This moral position not only obscured more than it clarified, but placed specialists away from a scientific and objective definition of terrorism (Stampnitzky 2013). This misleading argument was aggravated after Abu Bakr al Baghdadi declared the *jihad* against the tourism industry and hospitality. The attacks to the World Trade Centre showed two significant aspects of terror. First and most important, terrorists weaponised means of transport, which were the pride of the West, and used them against civilians and innocent people. Secondly, the recent attacks to Nice, Berlin and London confirmed the same tendency where trucks or vehicles, which are icons symbolic of mobility, are exploited to kill lay-bystanders. It is unfortunate that the recent advances of terrorism are eroding the roots of hospitality within western democracies (Korstanje 2017). Though it is very hard to be precise here, one might speculate that tourism and terrorism are inextricably intertwined. With some hindsight, some voices have drawn attention to the cultural shocks tourism generates between hosts and guests or the cultural incongruences of secular lifestyle tourists and Muslims in the Middle East (Henderson 2003; Al-Hamarneh and Steiner 2004; Jafari and Scott 2010, 2014).

At a closer look, the violence of terrorism penetrated the core of main cities such as New York, London, Paris, Brussels, Madrid and so forth, at the same time leisure-spots and tourist destinations were systematically targeted worldwide. The nation-state, moved to recover its lost stability, came across serious problems imposing protocols of stricter control in the contexts of leisure and relaxation. While terrorism was situated as the buzzword throughout the main capitalist societies, academics experienced serious problems in defining their object of study (Howie 2012; Stamptnizky 2013). Furthermore, the specialised literature, which is entirely monopolised by Americans and Britons, defines terrorism as a form of illegal violence, or a moral condemnable act of vulnerating non-combatants and innocent people. Terrorism affects the credibility of top-ranked officialdom as well as the social trust of citizens in their respective institutions (Korstanje 2017). Since terrorism opens the door for political crisis, as faced by Aznar's administration, a coherent communicative process is vital. While the US government declared the "war on terror" undermining the local resistance to the military arrival in the Middle East, the Spanish government suddenly ends after Atocha. It is important not to lose sight that terrorism moves in the symbolic borders of communication. As Luke Howie (2012, 2015) puts it, terrorists do not want a lot of people dying, they need a lot of people watching! Doubtless, there is a strong connection between the media and its coverage and the terror instilled by terrorists in global spectatorship (Eid 2014; Hackett 2014; Korstanje 2016; Stacey 2017). This essay-review aims to discuss critically the main texts and literature in tourism fields with respect to terrorism.

Particularly, after the Munich Massacre (1972), where a terrorist cell named Black September murdered eleven Israeli Olympic team members in the midst of the 1972 Summer Olympics in Munich, the literature in event management focused on the "scourge of terrorism" not only as an extortive tactic to cause political instability but also as one of the main threats to the industry (Tarlow 2014; Taylor and Toohey 2005; Skoll and Korstanje 2014).

Korstanje, Tzanelli, and Clayton (2014) highlighted that these types of mega-events are a fertile ground not only for some domestic pressure groups but also for many other radicalised organisations which look to destabilise the government. In this case, we are safe to confirm tourism opens the door to a liminoid space where hosts and guests are subject to a *pact of trust* as well as their representative states.

The media events are situated as exemplary spaces of attractiveness, where the community revitalises the social liaisons between citizens with their officials. Tourists—or in this case athletes—are considered as ambassadors of their respective societies and of course are the priority for the hosting country. Based on the needs of bringing hospitality to the newcomers, nation-states are legally and emotionally responsible for the media events having a happy ending. Any fault, any problem, or even the assassination of visitors and attendants seriously affects the credibility of the hosting nation. In some other cases, the rise of conflict derives from an old rivalry among nationalities or even from geopolitical disputes as was the case of Argentinians and Chileans in the Copa America held in Santiago. During the event, Argentinians and Chileans struggled because of the remnants of the Malvinas-Falkland War, where Chile endorsed support to the United Kingdom during the war against Argentina (Korstanje, George, and Amorin 2016). This is the reason behind the actions of ISIS and other radical groups in targeting tourists and mega sport events such as the Olympic Games or the FIFA World Cup.

Equally important, while terrorism in earlier decades targeted important celebrities or chief officers, now this position is occupied by lay-people, which means tourists, journalists or businessmen who are decapitated online or whose assassination is disseminated through mass-media. In this hyper-connected world terrorism not only targets classic sun and beach tourist destinations, which are considered the cradle of sin, but also media events such as royal weddings, international sport events and any other leisure-spots (Korstanje 2016b). The specialised literature is based on an economic-centric viewpoint that prioritises the economic losses for investors or shareholders while other more critical turns are trivialised. In this respect, to understand what they are fighting, policy makers should expand their current understanding of terrorism as something more complex than an external danger. The present chapter intends to fulfil this gap discussing critically the challenges and limitations policy makers and tourism scholars will face in the years to come with respect to the effects of terrorism in event management.

Preliminary Discussion: Is Islam Part of the Problem?

One of the authoritative voices in the field of neo-pragmatism, Samuel Huntington (1997, 2000) proclaimed a provocative thesis, which pointed out that terrorism resulted from the inevitable clash of civilisations. This radical acceleration, which was happened after 9/11, was accelerated by the US-led invasion of Afghanistan and Iraq. According to Huntington, this inevitable clash was the immediate aftermath of the lack of democratisation in the Middle East, as well as a long-dormant rivalry between Islam and the West. As a result of this, there would be incompatible cultural backgrounds between Western nations and Islam, which explains the anti-western discourses that terrorism boasts. Though Huntington's contributions shed light on the neo-pragmatist platform, many other questions remain open. He was widely criticised not only for his lack of familiarity with Islam but also the history of religions, as sharing the same ideological roots as part inherently of Abrahamic tradition, Christianity and Islam shared centuries of cooperation and mutual respect (Karim and Eid 2014; Fuller 2010; Moten 2010).

As to the previous argument given, Karim and Eid (2014) have adamantly interrogated how the West engages with non-western others, in this case, with Muslims. These scholars understand that despite the volume of produced books, Islamophobia and the hostility towards the Muslim community still remain in Europe and the US. In their book, *Engaging the Other*, they bring the discussion of clashing civilisations into the foreground. Sharing a similarly-minded Abrahamic tradition with Christianity, Islam has historically cooperated with Europe in the past. The advances of cultures not only collide but do it generating open climates of understanding that help further insight-exchanges. In this respect, Korstanje (2017) argues convincingly that Europe developed a paternalistic view of the alterity, which facilitated not only its expansion, but also the submission of the peripheral world. By the introduction of hospitality as guiding institution, Europe constructed a closed stereotyped image of otherness to be domesticated by rationality and technology. In recent years, terrorism is operating to erode one of the pillars of Western civilisation, *hospitality*.

In concordance with this backdrop, Fuller (2010) theorises what would happen if Islam had never existed. This important question leads very well to a philosophical point, which means that the escalation of conflict between Muslims and Christians dates back from immemorial times but there is no reason to think that there are serious cultural discrepancies between the two religions. It is tempting to say that if Muslims did not exist as a civilisation the anti-European sentiment would be directed by the Byzantine Empire. This suggests that anti-European reactions in the Muslim world are nothing other than a long-dormant hostility between Rome and Byzantium. Rashid Moten (2010) acknowledges that terrorism has nothing to do with Islam, which is an Abrahamic religion, but with the extortion in politics. Hence and following Rappoport's model, he distinguishes various waves of terrorists that over time vindicated different goals and aims. Though terrorism is not news, as Moten adheres, trends in terrorism have been in different waves such as in a) the anarchic wave (1880), b) the anticolonial wave (1920), c) the new left wave (1960), and d) the religious wave (1980). Each facet has its constituent feature, though fear and violence seem to be the centrepieces of all of them. The Anarchic wave starts with the first European left-wing immigrants in the US who showed a radicalised mind against capital-owners and the nation-state. The main targets of their attacks were celebrities, authorities and chief police officers. From 1920 onwards, a new type of terrorism surfaced. It was formed by the needs of self-determination, which historically confronted the bloody legacy of colonial rule. This is the case of the Irish Rebellion which occurred in 1919 where rebels used violence against selected targets using terror to accelerate the withdrawal of unjust occupations. The new left guerrilla, or wave rather, was inspired by ideological discourses which stipulated serious claims against the United States and capitalism. Though diminished through the 20th century, such a wave flourished in many Caribbean countries such as Nicaragua or El Salvador, most likely inspired by Castro's revolution. Last but not least, the religious wave, which was born in the Middle East, confronted the Christian cosmology by imposing the religious dogma of Islam. Motel exerts a radical criticism on Rappoport´s model but focusing on the fact that Muslim terrorism has been radicalised over recent years, even calibrating more brutal techniques than other groups. Paradoxically, though the rate of terrorist attacks has been diminished worldwide, the degree of violence and virulence was notably increased. One of the main aspects that defines modern international terrorism, though it is not noted by Moten, coincides in targeting innocent tourists or media events.

To this, Gilbert Achcar (2015) in his seminal book *The Clash of Barbarisms,* not only replies to Huntington's thesis, which is based on cultural differences as the key factors for terrorism, but also explores what he dubbed as "narcissist commiseration", which means the sentiment of empathy with empires, for example in post 9/11 contexts, by the end of periphery. As Achcar brilliantly observes, civilisations undergo a lapse of time where relegated citizens, namely those who live in the misery of peripheral economies are emotionally closer than further advantaged classes. The international support endorsed to the United States and its citizens in the post 9/11 context exemplifies how narcissist commiseration works. The peripheral cultures which were in some cases historically oppressed by the US now share with their masters the same sentiment of pain, horror and fear with respect to what they consider an evil act of "cowardice". In that way, much deeper stereotypes and prejudices flourished invariably after 9/11 leading to Islam being the public enemy. This process of demonization adjoined to the need to belong to the "chosen people class". The main problem of this position is that terrorism, far from being a clash of civilisations, represents indeed a clash of "barbarisms".

Nonetheless not all philosophers are in agreement with this point. Revel (2003) stresses the sentiment of "anti-Americanism" as a type of cynicism in some European powers such as France or Germany that outsource in the United States the defence of their external borders, whereas they have paradoxically transformed into active pacifists. In perspective, terrorism not only evinces the dichotomies of America as the world safeguard and Europe, but also the fragility of international affairs. Such a dichotomy was explored by Robert Kagan (2004) in a well-read book, *Of Paradise and Power.* Kagan acknowledges that America and Europe took diverging paths in their respective strategies to deal with terrorism. While Europe cultivated a climate of prosperity and peace, which was based in the liberal trade – paraphrasing the allegory of Venus, the United States adopted the role of Mars bringing war and conflict to the globe. The specialist suggests that unless the US changes their position, serious economic problems will surely surface.

As Korstanje (2015) puts it, though terrorism and tourism have been historically intertwined, we have to think that the area of operations of these cells are not only the urban cities but also the industry of cultural entertainment which spans from leisure spots towards tourist destinations or mega-events. This happens because of two main reasons. On one hand, there is a much deeper dependency, which merits being deciphered, between the mass media and terrorist groups. Secondly, tourists are ambassadors of their societies and of course their security rests on the credibility of the hosting nation.

Terrorism and the Sense of Publicity

I shall start this chapter with a naïve question, what would happen if 9/11 had never occurred? Most certainly, terrorism has been catalogued as an illegal exercise of violence in earlier decades which merited discussion in some academic circles, but it was after 9/11 social scientists were captivated by the study of this slippery matter. Methodologically speaking, terrorism is very hard to grasp because of two main reasons. The stagnation in terrorism-applied research corresponds with the proliferation of pseudo-experts who make personal appearances in TV programmes. More interested in their personal marketing than in understanding the phenomenon, these famous persons echo from the stereotypes and prejudices the popular parlance likes to hear from them (Howie 2012; Stampnitzky 2013; Sageman 2014). Besides, since acts of terrorism are ethically condemned as a crime against humanity, those ethnographers who are in touch with terrorist cells or tape-recorded the biographies of ISIS members are targeted and pressed by the state to reveal their sources.

In this vein, Luke Howie (2009, 2011a, 2011b, 2012, 2015) pays heed to the intersection of media and screens and terrorism. He starts from the premise that terrorism uses violence to draw the contours of publicity, which means an ideological allegory that engages with a global spectatorship. The interests of the media for terrorism not only is previously determined by emulating the logic of celebrities that are in quest of fame but also interrogates how fear is politically manipulated to forge disciplinary mechanisms of control over lay-citizenry. As Howie adds, terrorists, far from what public opinion precludes do not want a lot of people dead or dying, they want a lot of people watching! In this vein, he goes on to write that:

> The witness is a central figure of this book. I base my arguments in this book on the assumption that no witness terrorism is to be a victim of terrorism since, as Jenkins has argued, terrorists want a lot of people watching, not just a lot of people dead. Those who watch, those who bear witness, are the intended targets of terrorism (Howie 2010, 7).

In retrospect, like media celebrities who need others' approval to enhance their self-esteem, terrorists appeal to captivate the attention of the media and developed nations in everything they accomplish. 9/11 started a new media landscape where the concept of theatre imposed (2009, 2011a, 2011b, 2012). Pushed to live in a culture of spectacle, city-dwellers accept passively an epistemology of terror, which is expressed by the reproduction of media. The media-terrorism dependency rests on the obsession for witnessing, which was culturally delineating the borders of a new capitalism, where terror plays a crucial role by subordinating reality into a pseudo-reality.

> Through 9/11, the Twin Towers and NYC have attained a renewed celebrity status. In a post 9/11 world, NYC and the Twin Towers share something in common with Paris Hilton, Brad Pitt and Britney Spears – people want to see them, people want to know about them, and when their image appears on television and in other media spaces it is difficult for witnesses to look away (70).

In consonance with Howie, Mahmoud Eid (2014) calls attention to the interplay between terrorist groups and mass media. Coining a neologism "terroredia" to express the interconnection of terrorism and media, he deciphers the fascination of journalism to captivate terrorism-related news. In fact, there would be a strange symbiosis where both sides are winning. The terrorists use violence to captivate the attention of Western societies. In so doing, the media serves as a fertile background to package and disseminate terror to the core of audiences, but this is only a part of the problem, it is no less true that media corporations and the cultural entertainment industry have amassed a vast fortune placing the cruelty of terrorists on screens. To put this bluntly, terrorists capture the attention of western leaders through the use of illegal violence whereas journalists are fascinated to cover this type of news, in view of the amassed profits. This reproduces paradoxically a vicious circle in which journalism facilitates terrorism with the oxygen to survive, in as much as media corporations gain further sponsorship (Eid 2014). Equally important, Korstanje (2016a, 2016b) has advanced the study of terrorism in the same direction -like Eid and Howie-. Per his viewpoint, in the society of spectacle, the global audience ponders a strange curiosity for others' deaths. For example, an emerging subtype of tourism dubbed as "thana tourism" or "dark tourism" becomes a leading trend where visitors travel towards destinations or sites of mass-death, post-disaster contexts or macabre places where genocides have been committed. At a first glance, dark tourism exhibits not only a strange curiosity for death or pain, but also the same can be observed in other forms of cultural entertainment such as reality shows, journalism, press, even TV programmes which broadcast series such as Criminal Minds, ID (Investigation Discovery). This suggests that modern citizens are prone to consume others' deaths in order to confirm their own privileged status. The society of risk, as it was imagined by postmodern sociologists, sets the pace to a new face of capitalism, which is named by Korstanje as "Thana Capitalism". The society in Thana Capitalism days keeps commonalities with the plot of *The Hunger Games.* In the plot of this interesting novel, there is a Capitol, which oppresses some peripheral districts. The extractive and exploitative policies conducted by President Snow are orchestrated to keep the status quo. In parallel and to mask the state of exploitation, the Capitol organised an annual game (*the hunger games)* where each district presented its delegates. In this bloody competition only one would be the winner and of course, the winner took all. Participants were overestimated not only in their real probabilities to defeat, but also were impeded from cooperating with others to defy Snow's administration. Participants were trained and educated to fight with others in a Darwinist all-against-all scenario, while the modern citizens look to feel experiences that lead them to feel special, outstanding, part of the chosen people. In the pursuit of their goals, the other's death was not only a cause of great joy because survivors were in the race but also the participant increased their chance of winning the trophy. In Thana Capitalism where the labour market offers opportunities only for few workers enlarging the gap between have and have-nots, life is seen as a great career where success is only reachable through conflict with others. Like the consumption of death, which is articulated in dark tourism sites, global spectatorship legitimates the status of the privileged class while consuming how others die. Since in a secularised society death is considered as a sign of weakness, Thana Capitalism, which is a society where death is exchanged as the main commodity, developed a pathological fear of dying. As a result of this, terrorism provides to watchers not only the fuel but also creates a vicious circle. Though the breaking news often broadcasted worldwide disturbs our sensitivity, no less true is that we are captivated by it. Doubtless, there is no place more attractive for terrorist attacks than those selected as venues of international mega-events.

Why are Tourists and Media Events Targeted?

One of the primary concerns of policy-makers and authorities whose countries are dependant on international tourism seems to be the security of international tourists. Not surprisingly globalisation and mass-media make today's public instantaneously aware of news items that in former years would have taken months to learn. Modern technology has given us better communication along with the rise of new challenges and risks (Boniface and Cooper 2009). Hence event management generates important incomes for communities but also runs unnecessary risks that are posed by radical groups originally aimed at destabilising the local government. Thus, security plays a vital role by endorsing to visitors a good experience in these types of mega-events. To this end, Markwell and Tomsen (2010) examine the role of violence and security through the organisation of Australian gay and lesbian festivals. The specialists found that under some contexts, the excessive protection over some minorities resonates negatively in the local population, even increasing the probabilities of hostile behaviour against them. Per their outcomes, lesbian and gay tourists were targets of hostility or insulted by homophobic groups. Though drug and alcohol consumption may lower personal effects of hostility, it opens the doors to the advance of societal prejudices which are based on levels of ambiguity in the relationships with homosexuality. Leopkey and Parent (2009) discussed critically how difficult it is integrating security with the climate of relaxation or enjoyment these types of events deserve. The perception of risks related to events can be associated to many variables, which oscillate from violence towards food and health safety issues. In the middle of this mayhem, some specialists emphasise the cultural asymmetries between host and guest in their meeting during these mega-events. Considering that in some cases the host and guest cultures appear to be dissimilar, policy-makers and authorities should devote considerable resources in the planning process to minimise the unexpected risks that might place the spectacle in jeopardy (Lepp and Gibson 2009; Pegg, Patterson, and Axelsen 2011). Media often containing biased information, which is widely distributed to a mass audience, may very well saturate the spectatorship with violent images. If this happens, the attractiveness of tourist destinations will tend to decrease. Here is where the concept of neglect-risk as it was originally coined by Cass Sunstein should be cited. Sunstein (2002, 2005) certainly decided to unpuzzle the inter-link of risk perception and emotionality which concerns scholars worldwide. He retains some concerns that at the time some risks are over-exaggerated others, which are looming threats, are glossed over. The current studies in the psychology of the mind reveal that when risks escape from human control their potential effects are disproportionately perceived. In this respect, our inner emotional world overreacts to some risks or leads towards neglect probabilities of occurrence in which case—if not duly resolved—state would be victim of populist claims (Sunstein and Zeckhauser 2011). This raises a more than intriguing question, why terrorists attack innocent tourists?

Economists Enders and Hoover (2012) intended to respond to this point using the benefits of econometric analysis. They conclude that the expansion of capitalism has laid the foundations for many conflicts or states of emergency which represent a fertile ground for terrorism. Here two assumptions should be made. On one hand, terrorists as economic consumers look to maximise their profits minimising their costs which explains why they select tourist destinations. On another, there is a manifest impossibility to orchestrate successful mechanisms of control and surveillance in sites originally organised to relax or rest. Terrorists, after years, understand that the credibility of the state while their citizens are vulnerated declines to levels that seriously affect governability. The principle of randomness bespeaks proportionally on the fear terrorism generates. Killing tourists creates a state of extreme panic because lay people ponder the probabilities of the same happening during their holidays (Enders and Sandler 2011).

In *The Economics of Justice,* Richard Posner (1983) acknowledges that utilitarianism as it was formulated by Jeremy Bentham engenders two types of monstrousness. If society is based on the maximisation of pleasure for all their members, we must assume that torture is a good option to enhance security. One type of monstrosity arises whenever we valorise people by the degree of pleasure they develop instead of by the effects of their decisions. Suppose that A is very fond of killing animals, and B is prone to feeding them. Following utilitarianism, A is a better person than B irrespective of ethical conduct. A second type of monstrousness is these types of societies where the collectivity ushers in the sacrifice of innocent persons on the altar of social need (Posner 1983). Posner´s contributions illustrate how terrorism uses the principle of instrumentality and extortion, which is rooted in global capitalism to impose policies or claims otherwise, would never be possible. In this way, David Altheide (2009) offers a radical criticism on the role of the media in the coverage of terrorism and the radical violence derived from it. He discusses adamantly to what extent governments appeal, the fear terrorism instils, to reproduce a new system of governing through fear tactics to dissuade pressure groups in their demands. Terrorism paves the way for the rise of a new climate of fear that—as never before—facilitates governments to impose policies which in other contexts would be rejected by citizens. This suggests that terrorism contains a semiotic nature discursively exploited to benefit the interests of some privileged classes (Skoll 2008, 2011, 2016; Skoll and Korstanje 2013).

Over recent years, it is no less true that international terrorist cells like ISIS declared the jihad against leisure spots and tourist destinations, even to international sporting games or media events. Weeks earlier than the opening ceremony in the Olympic Games of Rio de Janeiro, Federal Police intercepted and prevented potential attacks planned by a so-called ISIS´s Brazilian cell. The specialised literature on security in event management abounds (Santana 2004; Mansfeld and Pizam 2006; Paraskevas and Arendell 2007; Getz 2008; Anderson and Getz 2009; Getz and Page 2016; Hall 2010), but less attention was given to the sociology of events that explains the attention of terrorists for these events.

To fulfil this gap, Tarlow (2014)—in his new book *Sports Travel Security*—explores the puzzling dichotomy between the idealisation of sports, which plays a crucial role as a catalyst of emotions, and security originally oriented to stability and certainty. As Tarlow puts it, athletic games are something other than a simple form of entertainment, since they pursue different aims. To some extent sports not only boost the local economies, situating international cities as the main destination of hundreds of thousands of tourists, but also serve in disciplinary terms, as a form of cultivating skills. One might speculate that spectatorship is not the only thing that stares out at these kinds of games or mega-events. Many terrorist cells may very well take the opportunity to target athletes to cause political instability or undermine the state's credibility. Hence the notion of security should be prioritised as one of the main pillars of sport games over recent decades. In this vein, Tarlow intends to fulfil a gap, which discusses critically to what extent the specialised literature in events knows about the wellbeing of athletes.

In the first introductory chapter, Tarlow reviews the limitations of classic literature to evince the exemplary symbolic archetype of athletes as mythical heroes for modern society.

> In this way, many athletes not only are objectified, but also they appear more often in the media. This means that their private lives are often not their own, and their notoriety exposes them to unscrupulous people. (Tarlow 2017, 6)

Tarlow acknowledges that athletes are targets of external or internal attacks as well as the new security challenges policy-makers face for the years to come. As Tarlow adheres, a much deeper inspection of the literature evinces there is no clear definitions on the terms "sports" or "athletics", in which case, there are not clear boundaries which should be protected. As aforementioned above, the security programmes conducted by specialists should firstly focus on the target as well as its individual or collective featuring, which may lead towards an all-encompassing model to enhance security in sport games. We must evaluate that the emotional impact of violence when exerted against celebrities will be higher in public opinion than when directed against less well-known athletes. Whatever the case may be, sometimes athletes should move into a climate of hostility created by different international disputes among states, which ushered them in a difficult position, whereas in others, athletes confront discursively with a bloody dictatorship which serves as a hosting nation. As protagonists of the game, athletes run the risk to be attacked because of multiple issues.

If further attention is paid to the sociology of events we must delve into the book *Media Events* originally authored by Dayan and Katz (1992), who held a more than interesting thesis. Underpinned in the advances of anthropology in the study of rites, Dayan and Katz argue convincingly that festivals, ceremonies, sporting games and royal weddings are something else than events, they represent the touchstone of the cultural reproduction for the ruling class. In fact, events and festivals should be understood as rites whose essentialised roots revolve around resolving the philosophical contradictions between life and death. Like biological cycles, festivals exhibit the gratitude to Gods not only for the prosperity the community faces, but also for good fortune in the years to come. Anthropologically speaking, festivals are vehicles to sublimate the internal disputes involving class in favour of a common spirit of unity and prosperity. This seems to be the reason why events and festivals enhance the social cohesion, which is the background for social and economic reproduction (Dayan and Katz 1992). By affecting the performance of the necessary rites to bolster a fluid communication with Gods entails not only future problems but also the death of cultural identity. The nature of festivals comes from much deeper anthropological roots, where humans united in the pact of hospitality, perform certain carefully designed rites to domesticate the future and uncertainty. This represents the opportunity to strengthen the social bondage, albeit opening the doors for the risk of terrorism. This is one of the paradoxical situations policy makers are involved in managing media events. The publicity these types of events exhibit is a fertile ground for potential terrorist attacks because of the attention the media gives. In this case, further approaches are needed taking into consideration the semiotic nature of terrorism.

Conclusion

It is interesting to discuss to what extent mega-events are a fertile source for terrorism. Terrorism introduces a message in society aimed at undermining states or creating political instability. From immemorial times, human beings have managed festivals and mega-events not only to celebrate a good harvest, but also to strengthen the social bond. Mediated events are, at least, significant celebrations that contribute socially to the reproduction of society. In view of this, some groups which are antagonistic to the state, attack attendees at the events as a way to create panic, undermining not only the legitimacy of the government but the trust of citizens in their institutions. This double effect has been widely studied by sociologists and anthropologists in terrorism related issues. However, less attention has been given to the fact that leisure spaces are preferred by terrorists to plan their acts. This raises an interesting point of debate based on the connection between terrorism, leisure, and mega-events that deserves to be continued, what is terrorism? What terrorists opt to target festivals and events? Is the nation-state able to prevent the next attack? Why does leisure represent a fertile source for terrorism?

Dayan and Katz (1994) explain that media events are important to improve the mechanisms of reinforcement and reproduction of societies. While the former signals to the sources to legitimate the officialdom´s authority the latter refers to the cultural values -shared by all citizens- that determine the social institutions. Following this, most of the message in these spectacles corresponds with the legitimating of elites and assurance of a broader national being. If some rebellious groups want to cause psychological distress in the community, these types of events offer a particularly fertile space to inflict damage to the society. In this respect, the present chapter explored critically the semiotic contours of terrorism in order for readers to expand their current understanding of this deep-seated issue. Doubtless, the connection of terrorism and event management reminds us of the roots of hospitality. The act of perpetrating a terrorist attack in the middle of a mega-event equates to killing the guest while they are sleeping. The hosting country seems to be ethically responsible for the security of attendants, as well as for the evolution of the game. It is important to realise not all risks have the same effect in society. Those risks or hazards, which threaten the principle which hospitality event management emulates, resonate higher than others like local crime. Even though local crime places the security of tourists in jeopardy, terrorism appeals to mining the credibility of the state before other states and their own citizens as a major threat. After all, successful acts of terrorism remind us that when the state is hand-tied to protect strangers it will be unable to protect its own citizens.

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CHAPTER THREE

DETERMINING THE POLICY IMPORTANCE OF EVENT TOURISM FOR DMOs IN ENGLAND

NATALIE SEMLEY AND TANYA BELLINGHAM

Destinations, organisations, partnerships and community interest groups are sharing statements of intent concerning the development of the English visitor economy. Various bodies are setting out the actions needed to promote their destination, prioritising activities, and setting key objectives for *their* future. Stakeholders are working together, documents are uniting organisations, and businesses are setting themselves a strategic vision to enhance their visitor economy of the future. This is the process of creating and developing a long-term, sustainable, visitor economy within a defined area (VisitEngland 2017).

Conversely, given the changing landscape of economic development and tourism since 2010, and the emergence of LEPs, the field of destination management has become complicated, obscured and competitive. The "management" structure is complex because organisations come in many guises, from a limited business acting as a management organisation (DMgO) to a Community Interest Company (CIC) acting as a marketing body (DMaO) for a place, and then there are still Area Tourism Partnerships (ATP) to consider. The "destination" that each organisation represents is also diverse, covering a single destination or a number of destinations, sitting within or cutting across country boundaries. Configurations are, therefore, disguised by the forward-facing platforms that are presented to tourists, behind which the unseen complex stakeholder networks and relationships exist that form the basis of their operations. To remain economically viable, these businesses are competitive, vying for the attention of tourists and considering how they can develop a unique, distinctive, and attractive offering to tourists (and investors) to stimulate growth in their visitor economy. Resilience in a quickly changing external, macro, environment is paramount. Destinations need to distinguish themselves from others to become spirited, they need to work with other destinations to secure funding, and they need to "manage" businesses and residents to succeed as a business, whilst offering tourists an attractive "destination" that appeals to their tastes and desires, a place which pulls the visitor towards their economy. Collaboration with the events sector and the development of event tourism (Getz 2012; Richards and Palmer 2010) is one retort.

When it comes to identifying distinctiveness, an organisation can focus on depicting the local culture found within and from the society of place, through events. Detecting the local traditions of people, the natural and built setting of the place and sharing these events with tourists, is an aspect of destination management discussed by tourism professionals for some years (Grant, Human, and Le Pelley 2002). A destination's "quest for economic advantage in an increasingly competitive market [which] has fostered an interest in local distinctiveness" (Grant, Human, and Le Pelley 2002, 21) can be achieved through the interpretation of event tourism (Getz 2008; Getz and Page 2016).

From an academic perspective, this is nothing new. Events have been acknowledged as a "motivator of tourism… [and]… key marketing propositions" (Getz and Page 2016, 593) for some time, especially since the formation of a more competitive market place in 2010. Consequently, the field of "event tourism" (Getz 2012; Getz and Page 2016) emerged as an academic area of discussion, and identified how events can add value to the visitor economy by motivating tourists to visit an area (Stokes 2008; Getz 2009; Shone and Parry 2004) purely to engage with an event (Getz 1997; Getz 2012; Richards and Wilson 2004).

Since the work of tourism professionals (Grant, Human, and Le Pelley 2002) and the exploration of leading academics (Getz 2012), an audit of place characteristics has been undertaken, tourism professionals have discussed the elusive concept of local distinctiveness, and collaboration with the events sector has begun, with the goal to present events to a tourism audience to enhance the visitor economy.

What is interesting here is that more recently, Getz and Page (2016, 593) state that "events feature prominently in the development and marketing plans of most destinations". However, the extent to which planned events are a specific action area for such plans in England, is unspecified. The nature to which events are "prioritised" and utilised as a place-marketing tool, and are stated as a part of the strategic vision is unclear. Resultantly, it is the aim of this chapter to discuss current practice within England, to identify the structure, organisation and vision of destination management in all of its guises, whilst determining the value of planned events (event tourism) to tourism organisations and specific places, as determined through a detailed analysis of their current destination management plans. The rationale here is to unlock insight into current practice, and determine best practice and recommendations for the future. A case study from the South West of England will illustrate the complex and competitive nature of destination management in the current economic climate.

The Management of a Destination in England: Organisation Structure and Vision

According to VisitEngland (2009) "destinations are disparate and multifaceted places that are host to numerous stakeholders with their own specific needs". It is these stakeholders and their needs, which need to be "managed" with the purpose of developing the visitor economy. Without continued collaboration, coordination, partnership, and communication, "places" do not evolve with a common purpose. Concurrently, an organisation is formed, planning is undertaken, and policy is established to creatively and innately develop the visitor economy.

To understand the organisation, structure and vision of a management organisation, firstly there is a need to determine the meaning of "destination" "management" and explore the evolution of new organisations that have taken on the role of developing the visitor economy in England. Then, once the challenges are addressed, the value of events within their formalised strategic vision will be assessed.

Destination

According to academia (Buhalis 2000; Cooper et al. 1998; Leiper 1995), the term "destination" describes a place with some form of actual or perceived boundary (Hudson 2008) towards which people travel (and stay) to experience its features, characteristics and attractions. A destination offers tourists an integrated experience of facilities and services. Destinations are, however, also living and continuously changing entities (Davidson and Rogers 2006) and therefore represent the people of that place, and their normal everyday action, lives and experiences. Consequently, when managing a destination, attention needs to be given not only to the tourist population, but also the residents and business organisations.

Destination Management

Traditionally, the view of destination management is as a collective and holistic process, based upon the premise of running, organising and sustaining a visitor economy (VisitEngland 2017). It is about managing the various components of a destination (Buhalis 2000; UNWTO 2012) to create success in the visitor experience, over a medium to long-term horizon. The task here is to manage the needs of visitors, residents and businesses within the destination. This includes managing the attractions (i.e. natural, man-made and socio-cultural environments), the sense of place (i.e. infrastructure and accessibility), and the services (i.e. economic and social activities) which form the place, and include events. Destination management is, therefore, the *glue* that holds together a variety of interdependent, co-existing partners, which collectively make the destination superior to the sum of its individual, independent parts.

Contemporary Challenges of Destination Management in England

Given the economic restructuring of tourism professionals and funding streams since 2010, destination management (in its traditional sense) is perplexing. For example, England has moved from a period of high public investment in destinations, to a more challenging financial environment. The role of the private sector and support for tourism has altered. The private sector is now involved in setting priorities and actions, and a range of organisations is now involved in the management of place. Furthermore, given the diversity of destinations found within England, it is not appropriate to suggest that there is only one, optimal way to manage an area. An area may, after all, wish to simply be marketed rather than managed (i.e. Destination Marketing Organisation; DMaO).

Destination management includes destination marketing

Due to these challenges, a range of organisations now exist, with the shared intent of enhancing the visitor economy. These include Destination Management Organisations (DMgO), Community Interest Companies (CIC) and Area Tourism Partnerships (ATP). The differences lie in the structure and organisation of the enterprise, from a private/public interface. So, whether it is a "community designed for social enterprises that want to use their profits and assets for the public good" (Audit Investigations and Community Enterprise 2005) (i.e. CIC), or a strengthened partnership that drives forward local tourism priorities in an integrated way (i.e. ATP), the aim is to create an effective relationship between the identified stakeholders. Creating relationships between the Local Enterprise Partnerships (LEP), Local Authorities (LA), and tourism businesses is also paramount. Alongside the management and maintenance of the destination itself (Butler 1980), there are also the goals outlined by Heath and Wall (1992) of formulating strategies, representing stakeholder interests, developing products and undertaking marketing activities which are also paramount to a management organisation.

All organisations creating and sustaining the visitor economy formulate strategies to develop the visitor economy

The strategic vision of each organisation is identifiable through their action, management, and visitor economy plans, or *strategies*. The aim of the strategic vision is to help everyone involved in managing places to understand the value of the visitor economy and the importance of management to that specific place. The plans produced by destinations take into account the external tourism and non-tourism landscape at both the local and national level (See Figure 3-1). They act as a shared statement of intent that outlines the major goal, aim, target, and direction of the organisation (Johnson, Scholes, and Whittington 2008; Tribe 2010) and responsibilities of the organisation itself. Again, this is nothing new, because the process of writing a strategy has been a key focus of the tourism sector for many years (Tribe 2010).

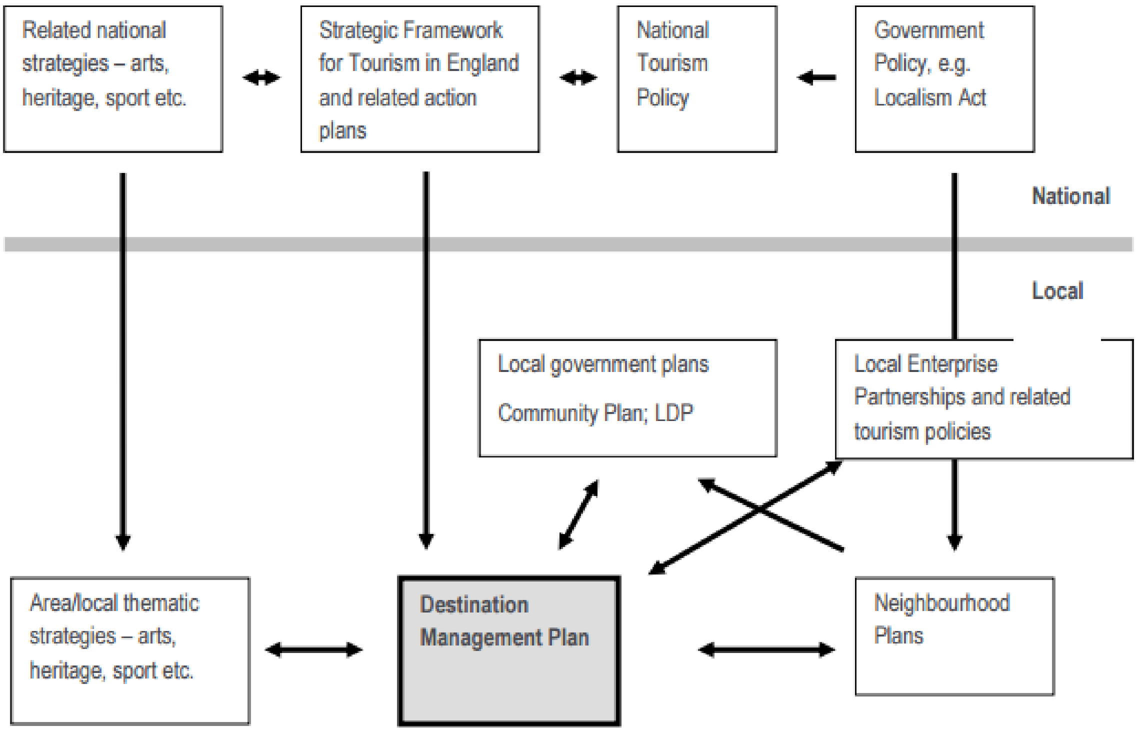

Fig. 3-1: DMO Policy Framework
Source: VisitEngland (2007)

Once composed, the strategy unites an organisation, its residents and tourism businesses over a fixed period, through words. Action then allows for the roles of individuals undertaken specific action and to utilise the resources at the destination's disposal to enhance the visitor economy. However, when it comes to positioning such strategies in line with the VisitEngland (2007) policy framework, or undertaking a review of their content to assess the value of planned events to their strategic vision of local distinctiveness, they are somewhat difficult to come by. From evolved Regional Tourist Boards, Phoenix DMgOs, LA embedded organisations and those embedded in Private Sector/Chambers (Bell 2015) many have disbanded, refocused and/or restructured; meaning strategies exist for former organisations, with their vision still visible, as long-term goals were set without such foresight. These red herrings again obscure the structure and vision of the organisation from public view. Furthermore, obtaining the most up-to-date strategy is a difficulty in itself, as articulated within Illustration 1.

Illustration 1: The Difficulties of Obtaining Strategies

VisitEngland (2016) provides a full list of DMOs in England, containing information about the location and website of the organisations. However, there are evident overlaps, as there is no distinction between the nature of the DMgO and DMaO or CIC and ATPs, and errors/omissions with the contact details and web addresses for the organisations exist. Therefore, to compile a separate database of destination-based organisation strategies for research purposes, there were numerous challenges that needed addressing.

The first challenge, is determining the aforementioned mergers, which have taken place in the changing climate. Mergers are unclear, councils are operating as DMgO without a visitor strategy and for an untrained eye, and there is a lack of clarity over the boundaries of each organisation. For example, Oxfordshire operate one DMgO "Experience Oxfordshire" yet there are 5 other organisations listed for the same area (VisitEngland 2016), and this makes it difficult to differentiate which, if any, have joined forces and which have disbanded. Thus, obtaining the correct strategy and undertaking any research regarding it is a time consuming and arduous task. Especially since some strategies are not published online, and those that are may be out-dated, rejected by new formations, or be in draft form.

Furthermore, given the nature of the VisitEngland (2016) site, a number of duplications were evident on the list. For some places, both the forward-facing platforms directed towards tourists (i.e. Visit

Plymouth) were cited alongside the DMgO behind them (i.e. Destination Plymouth). Others provided just the tourist facing platform, and not the DMgO/DMaO. This lead to a lack of transparency and accessible information for researchers to explore.

Once complexities are overcome, and strategies are in hand, evaluation of their *vision* can commence. Analysis can determine the value of planned events to a specific destination, and justify if, in fact, events do "feature prominently in the development and marketing plans of most destinations" (Getz and Page 2016, 593). After all, it was only in 2009 that Getz (2009) stated that fractionalisation existed and strategies have failed to include events effectively.

Destination Management Plans (DMP) and the Role of Events

Given the contemporary challenges of destination management in England, and the need to be competitive, destinations have focused their attention towards developing events. Events are seen as a means of iconography (Sternberg 1997), forming part of the product offer. They allow a destination to enhance the visitor economy, develop a competitive advantage, and unlock redevelopment opportunities. Events are flexible, they can help differentiate the physical environment and they can offer spectacle and atmosphere (Richards and Palmer 2010). Even so, the business value has not been duly recognised (Xie and Groves 2003).

Although events are valued, and deemed as one of the fastest growing sectors of the tourism industry, it is still not clear the extent to which they formulate part of a destination's strategic position. Yes, events bring in new money to the local economy, because they are an important motivator of tourism (Getz 2007), and yes, events (such as ECOC/UKCOC) form part of a strategic development plan. Nevertheless, are events valued enough to be of policy significance in England, do they represent the collaborative effort required between the event sector and DMO (in all their guises) as noted by Getz (2008)?

Theoretically speaking, yes. Events are of policy significance, frameworks for developing an event-tourism strategy exist (Gnoth and Anwar 2000), events are seen to benefit a destination (Getz 1997; Getz 2012; Watt 1998; Tassiopoulos 2000), and events act as catalysts, image-makers (McDonnell, Allen, and O'Tool 1999; Getz 2007; Getz 2012), attractions, animators, and place marketing co-branding options (Getz 2007; Getz 2012; Richards and Palmer 2010). Events can increase the average spend and length of stay of visitors; they can create a profile for destinations, giving them a competitive advantage; and they are capable of creating jobs and delivering broader benefits (not just economic ones), directly or indirectly (Shone and Parry 2004; Bowdin et al. 2001). Events act as a stimulus for social activity (Bowdin et al. 2001; Getz 2009; Getz 2012), after all. Events enable a destination to reach various broader objectives (economic, socio-cultural, and political) as they develop an event portfolio and events become integrated into daily life, as a form of celebration. For an example of how valued events have become see Illustration 2.

Illustration 2: Cybercon 2017

Cybercon was born out of a partnership prompted by Bluescreen IT, a Plymouth based company specialising in providing cyber security solutions, and Plymouth University's BSc (Hons) Events Management students. Working together over a period of eight months, a one-day business conference to be held in Plymouth in 2017 was planned. The purpose of the event was to intersperse local businesses and industry experts, to dispel the common myths relating to cyber security, and to demonstrate how businesses can create and implement a cost effective, cyber security strategy.

As the first event of its kind in the South West the conference attracted the interest of Plymouth City Council who fund Destination Plymouth, a forward thinking DMgO. Together, the importance of events was understood. Describing Plymouth as an "events destination" and as members of Conference Plymouth (2017), the partnership realised the potential value of Cybercon not only as a local event, but also as a regional and international affair. The DMgO understood the event tourism value of Cybercon, and this helped the original partnership to develop the event further, becoming one of the first seven successful applicants to VisitBritain (2016) Event Support Programme. Now the anticipation is for Cybercon to become an annual event attracting an increasing number of international attendees in the coming years.

However, this is an exemplar of how one destination values events as a development tool, after successfully becoming one of the first destinations to be included within the VisitBritain (2016) Event

Support Programme. The true value of events, in practice, from a policy perspective is not as prevalent in other destinations. Yes, there is a marked rise of creative cities in England that has roots in urban policies (Cochrane 2007), and there is potential for events to reinforce a destination's brand identity. However, there is little action articulated in strategic plans, by specific organisations, to suggest that events are truly valued, as exemplified in Illustration 3. This is despite the goal to stage events that align with broader strategic goals of that destination (Watt 1998; Getz 2012; Goldblatt 2011; Rutherford-Silvers 2011) by utilising existing assets to remain competitive in the tourism market. The focus however, is on developing a cohesive tourism strategy (King 2002) which may include events. Meaning, destinations are not eventful, but are instead destinations with events (Richards and Palmer 2010).

Illustration 3: The Role of Events in English Destination Management Plans (DMP) from a Regional Perspective

When analysing the content of DMgO and DMaO DMP in 2016, it was clear that events do not formally play a substantial role in defining the strategic vision of all places. Events stated within the DMP appear to be a part of a strategic plan but not as prominently as the theory (i.e. Getz and Page 2016) implies. Instead, in the present day, events remain fractionalised (Getz 2009) in England.

From analysing the content of 73 DMP in England, the events sector makes up approximately 0.33% of the formalised content. These connotations range from simple references to the events sector and its potential to act as a stimulant to the visitor economy, to events being perceived as a destination maker. Therefore, the meaning behind the association with events and the extent to which they are valued is debateable. DMP from England focus more specifically on issues pertaining to the economy, business and development, which make up 0.41, 0.44 and 0.48% of the formalised content, respectively. In fact, the priority of DMP in England is tourism, visitors and the destination itself, making up 1.03, 0.98 and 0.60% of the formalised content, respectively.

There are regional differences in the policy importance of events to note. Reflective of the devolved regional tourist boards, the extent to which events feature as part of the strategic vision of current DMO are illustrated in Table 3-1. Extremes exist, from areas that prioritise events as part of their destination DMP (i.e. East Midlands) to more subtle inclusion of the events sector (i.e. Yorkshire and Humberside). There are then areas with many DMP, which actively promote a portfolio of events (i.e. South West) to those that have fewer DMP that make little reference to events in general (i.e. North East).

Table 3-1: Regional Representation of "Events" in English DMO DMP.

	Number of Sources (n)	Focus on events (n)	Focus on events (%)
South West	15	404	0.32
South East	10	151	0.31
London	4	107	0.32
East of England	13	346	0.30
East Midlands	6	117	0.52
West Midlands	8	291	0.40
North West	8	200	0.47
North East	4	28	0.24
Yorkshire and Humberside	5	70	0.15
England	1	6	0.20
Total	73	1723	0.33

When exploring the nature of the individual DMO DMP, it is clear that ambition to host a portfolio of events is evident in the cluster of DMP from the East Midlands, from International and National events (i.e. World Cup) to conference and business events, setting out both actions and performance indicators. Whereas, DMOs based in Yorkshire and Humberside focus more so on the need for events and growing the events' potential for the future, to overcome challenges. Therefore, it is evident that events are valued to a differing extent throughout England, and the extent to which they are valued is dependent upon the level of experience already established within the destination via past involvement. In essence, representing the integration of events, which may develop overtime. The regional differences represent how partnerships between DMOs and others are formed, used, and how each area may invest in opportunities to grow, develop, maintain or abandon specific DMP (Batt and Purchase 2004). They also represent how a destination is using events to meet new challenges as reviewed by Richards and Palmer (2010), and stimulate the shoulder months of the main tourism industry.

Prioritising events, and setting events as a major goal, aim, target, or direction of the organisation, is problematic. The strategic management of an organisation comes down to the aspiration of key stakeholders, who set the vision and write the strategy whilst managing multiple actors (Andersson and Getz 2008). Each actor adopts a varying political strategy, and the interaction of stakeholders can strengthen or diminish their power position towards one another and the organisation. This means that the vision and the prioritisation of events become a reflection of the values and processes of various stakeholders as interpreted by the working group who compose the strategy. Even if some stakeholders value events, the integral relationship and the exploration of stakeholder salience (Mitchell, Agle, and Wood 1997; Morgan 1986) will determine the significance of events within a DMP. After all, power games are undertaken, and various actors will infer the independent interpretation of place and the events industry differently. Therefore, depending on the legitimacy, urgency and power of stakeholders (Mitchell, Agle, and Wood 1997; Morgan 1986), the success of the strategy will be determined if all stakeholders perceive wealth, value and/or satisfaction from the plan itself (Andersson and Getz 2008). This may mean that the DMO creates and support new events, existing events are modified and adapted, or events are custom designed to help express the unique qualities of the destination to its audience. However, if stakeholders do not value events, then the business value of event tourism, as noted by Xie and Groves (2003) may not be duly recognised. A contemporary case study of such practices is noted in Illustration 4, whereby the complex nature of a CIC acting as a DMaO is considered by the author of the strategic vision for 2016-2017, and 2017-2020. This illustration reconfirms the complexity of a DMO organisation and its structure, and reveals the importance placed upon events whilst composing a DMP deemed appropriate for the contemporary, competitive, and challenging economic climate found in England.

Illustration 4: Writing a DMP for a DMaO, Visit Devon

As a county, Devon is a diverse region with a variety of landscapes including two coastlines, two National Parks and five designated areas of Outstanding Natural Beauty. With areas known as “the English Riviera”, “the Jurassic Coast” and “Britain’s Ocean City” it is easy to understand the complexity of developing a marketing strategy that encompasses all aspects of the destination or even summarises the contents of the 6 existing organisations. The portfolio of events is equally eclectic with a broad range of offerings from cultural events such as Widecombe Fair that has been a tradition dating back to the 1800s, to the MTV Crashes in Plymouth and business events such as Business Expo SW held in the purpose-built venue WestPoint in Exeter.

Visit Devon, a CIC, was set up following extensive consultation with the intention of providing a new “fit for purpose” platform to promote Devon as a world-class destination following the dissolution of the Devon Tourism Partnership (DTP). The DTP was an organisation previously overseen by Devon County Council that aimed to support the 6 organisations that represented the “nested” destinations, most with their own tourism strategy, that make up the county. On its dissolution, a unified voice for Devon was needed to remain competitive, both nationally and internationally. The assets of the existing organisation (i.e. logo, web domain, and web content) were acquired via a successful tendering process by the CIC. Now, after extensive consultation during 2015 and 2016, the not-for-profit CIC operates as the official DMaO for Devon as recognised by VisitBritain.

The tourism structure in Devon is complex. In addition to the 6 organisations, 3 LA support the county. Subsequently, there is an array of tourism organisations, which are structured and funded in a multitude of ways, all of which are reliant on gaining membership fees from businesses to promote their own destination. Therefore, one of the key priorities for the new CIC was to work with and on behalf of these organisations to unite the DMP and provide representation nationally, without the perception of being a competitor, vying for additional membership from businesses within each area.

The management structure of Visit Devon is also complex. The board is composed of non-executive directors recruited from across the industry with varied backgrounds. The directors include hoteliers, tourism managers, marketing and PR consultants, tourist attraction management, tour guides and events and tourism educators.

The vision for Visit Devon was developed by the strategy and membership sub-group, who met monthly, to build a robust policy to reflect and incorporate the multitude of stakeholders and partnerships which exist. To achieve a comprehensive and cohesive DMP for the DMaO, the VisitEngland strategy guidance was utilised, in conjunction with a detailed and perplexing analysis of existing strategies from the area. This was a difficult task, as each DMP had its own style, language and focus. From an events perspective it was clear that despite numerous local, national and international events taking place across the entire county, only two DMP (i.e. Plymouth and South Devon) highlighted cultural and business events and festivals as key components of the tourism offer.

Building upon this knowledge, agreement that the DMP for Visit Devon should focus on the vibrant destination that both residents and tourists perceived Devon to be materialised. A clear focus emerged towards the younger generation, as future visitors to the destination, and the business tourism market, with events being the vehicle to enable both. This led to the prioritisation of events for the sub-group to articulate in the DMP. Events were also considered a vital component of the DMP because the BVEP (VisitBritain 2014) launched the Events are GREAT Britain campaign, highlighting how events can help build destinations that are vibrant and can engage diverse audiences.

The process allowed the strategy sub-group to prepare an initial one-year vision. The purpose was to articulate the aspirations of the newly formed CIC and gain support of the 6 organisations. This was important because historically, attempts at creating an umbrella organisation to represent the interests of all tourism stakeholders in Devon had not worked.

Despite these hindrances, a clear vision will prevail. The DMP will develop, and will incorporate and prioritise a portfolio of events held within the destination. Acknowledging the business value of events, and cementing the role of events within the DMP of a CIC to maximise the potential that events in practice offer, in terms of engaging a wider audience (i.e. locals and tourists) via the support for and development of quality events that showcase the diversity of the county and its produce. This can be aided by the broader engagement of Visit Devon with academic partners in the area, who provide research and development opportunities that attract significant outside interest and provide prospects for engaging global audiences at international conferences and expositions, which are eligible currently for funding from the Event Support Programme from VisitBritain (2016).

Conclusion

Writing policy, whereby events are of significance, has become less fractionalised in practice. This is seen through the current practices of Visit Devon and other organisations who are redrafting their next DMP. Organisations are working with event managers, and coordinating stakeholder salience to secure resources, help achieve destination goals, and satisfy the local and tourism-based needs. This coordination, and shift in thinking, firmly establishes event tourism as being a major component and significant ingredient in DMP in England. When viewed as a lucrative market segment, and as a catalyst for other developments (Getz 1997), both events and more specifically event tourism (Getz 2008; Getz and Page 2016) become key to ensuring a destination's competitiveness. However, to ensure support for such plans, stakeholder relationships need to be managed effectively to ensure the true potential of events is achieved.

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CHAPTER FOUR

SPONSOR RIGHT PROTECTION AT MEGA-EVENTS: EXAMPLES FROM THE LONDON 2012 OLYMPIC GAMES

RAMI MHANNA, ADAM BALAKE AND IAN JONES

Most academic literature relating to Olympic sponsorship and sponsor media suggests that while sponsors have a stake in their association with the event itself, it can be more efficient to associate themselves with the host destination (Brown 2000a, 2000b; Chalip 2000b, 2004; O'Brien 2006; O'Reilly, Heslop, and Nadeau 2011). However, sponsors' domination of the Olympic Brand can limit the opportunities of other stakeholders and businesses to capitalise on the event. Unlike smaller-scale sport events, where sponsorship-related marketing activities are less controlled, Olympic sponsorship has over the last few decades witnessed a growing complexity in protecting sponsors' rights and their monopoly of association with the event and its host destination. This chapter explores some of the key issues related to Olympic sponsorship with examples provided from the London 2012 Olympic Games. The first section of this chapter focuses on the protection of the Olympic brand by the International Olympic Committee (IOC) and the London Organising Committee for the Olympic Games (LOCOG). The second section outlines some examples of strategies used by sponsors to monopolise their use of the Olympic brand and restrict associations made with the event and destination by other stakeholders.

This chapter is part of a broader qualitative empirical research project undertaken at Bournemouth University in the UK. The research explored multi-stakeholders' perspectives of leveraging the London 2012 Olympic Games for long term outcomes and the limitations of such leverage. The study was underpinned by an interpretivist mode of enquiry (Guba and Lincoln 2005) to understand the context of a phenomenon that is still an under-researched area. For this purpose, the authors applied purposeful sampling as a dominant strategy (Flick 2009; Walliman 2011). The lead researcher conducted 20 semi-structured interviews with key informants who represented organisations that were stakeholders in the London 2012 Olympic Games. All informants held managerial or organisational roles related to the 2012 Games. The majority of the findings for this chapter came from 8 of the 20 interviews, with informants from VisitBritain, UK Trade and Investment, London and Partners, Tourism Alliance, the Olympic Research Centre, 2012 Team South-West, the London Business Network, and EDF Energy.

Overall, interviews lasted up to 90 minutes. Once all data were collected, the authors engaged in a thematic analysis process. Data were organised and broken down into manageable units and then synthesised (Spencer, Ritchie, and O'Conner 2003). NVivo 10 was used to assist the steps of analysis in indexing and coding (Walch 2003; Bazeley 2007). For this chapter, stakeholders' perspectives were critically discussed and augmented by previous academic literature with an immersion of both examples discussed with those stakeholder-informants and the reflections of the authors. Two tables are provided as summaries of key issues and examples explored in this chapter.

Olympic Brand Protection by IOC, LOCOG and the Sponsors

The International Olympic Committee (IOC) became a multi-billion dollar international corporation after being an amateur-run Olympic Organisation (Séguin and O'Reilly 2008). This transformation was grounded on the partnership between the IOC and Olympic sponsors, where the vital component of this partnership is that the IOC offers every sponsor exclusive category rights (O'Reilly, Heslop, and Nadeau 2011). The IOC instructed local organising committees to support sponsors' rights, which resulted in the foundation of a business-to-business relationship between Olympic sponsors, the rights-holder (IOC), and the local organising committees (O'Reilly, Heslop, and Nadeau 2011). More than operating sports, and in order to protect and maximise the return on investment for its partners, the IOC became obliged to adopt business principles via, for instance, strategic brand management (Bodet 2013). With this in mind, an issue with the London 2012 Olympic Games was that the IOC restricted the use of certain words or phrases to protect sponsors who had paid to associate their products with the Games. It became almost impossible for various stakeholders, small businesses and some suppliers of the event to be involved (see Table 4-1). Keeping this in mind, Farrelly et al. (2006, 344) referred to the IOC as a "property" who agrees to take the "lion's share of responsibility" to protect the use of the Olympic brand by only its sponsors. The IOC provided a guideline on how the Olympic branding should be used within the event media to prevent any ambush marketing.

Although some other organisations had a stake in the hosting of the London 2012 Olympic Games, the brand protection guidelines provided by the IOC made it difficult for those UK stakeholders to showcase what they had to offer. The London 2012 Olympic Games were considered as a catalyst for showcasing the country worldwide for various outcomes including economic, socio-cultural and environmental outcomes (Jakobsen et al. 2013), but the association with the Games was limited to sponsors. Companies that were suppliers of goods or services to the Games, but that were not official sponsors, were limited to only referring to their involvement with the Games as part of a broad list of projects they were working on and could not explicitly advertise their London 2012 related work (discussed by UK Trade and Investment informant). Official sponsors had protocol agreements with their legal teams to alert competitors if their promotion could be contravening ambush marketing rules (BBC 2008). EDF Energy, for instance, worked with the Organising Committee (LOCOG) to write to competitors of the major supplier partners to warn against ambush marketing and to remind them of their obligations and the relevant rules (EDF informant). In practice, sponsors were proactive and ready to react to anything extreme from a competitor (see Table 4-1). Louw (2012) referred to such methods as tactics in which the law has been abused to protect the private commercial gains of mega-events' sponsors at the expense of the rights of everyone else. Indeed, EDF could defend the right of the company by emphasising the "good job" they were doing for the Games to other major partners and suppliers who might have attempted to use ambush marketing (EDF informant added). However, as the "good job" they did with the use of the London 2012 brand bought the legitimacy as a sponsor, other non-sponsor suppliers, competitors or stakeholders involved with the Games could claim legitimacy by referring to their "good job" as well. Here, three interesting questions could be asked. First, why were non-sponsor stakeholders not allowed to do so, assuming the good job they did for the Games gave them a similar claim to legitimacy? Second, why could only sponsors use the law to protect their commercial gains? Third, are those non-sponsor suppliers, competitors or stakeholders really ambushing what sponsors do?

One example was British Gas, which had sponsored British swimming but not the Olympics (see Table 4-1). As this associated British Gas with an "Olympic" sport, while they were allowed to use this association in the run up to the London 2012 Olympics, they were prevented from doing so during the period of the Olympic Games (discussed by EDF informant). Another example was GDF Suez, which had a contract to build an energy plant on the Olympic Park (GDF Suez 2013). The Olympic Delivery Authority (ODA) held a press conference during which GDF's work at the Olympic Park was mentioned. This was observed by EDF as crossing the line into being ambush marketing as opposed to legitimate promotional activity (argued by EDF informant). In both of these examples, it is notable that the companies involved were direct competitors for EDF in the UK energy market.

The business-to-business associations built through the control of IOC, LOCOG and sponsors are where images that customers hold can be transferred through that association which can positively impact the sponsor, the Games organiser and the host city (Gwinner and Eaton 1999; O'Reilly, Heslop, and Nadeau 2011). Previous literature on event leveraging (e.g. Chalip 2000b, 2004; O'Brien 2006, 2007) showed other benefits (e.g. tourism and business) of the association for the host city or destination through sponsors' marketing alliances with destination marketing organisations. Nevertheless, one can argue that examples from the London 2012 Olympic Games may question previous literature in terms of the "marketing alliance". While sponsors are highly protected by the IOC, LOCOG and their legal teams, they create their own marketing agenda. Other salient stakeholders can still claim legitimacy based on the "good job" they did, but struggled to capitalise on the Olympic Games to promote themselves. In the light of this section, the next section discusses how the monopoly of sponsors has had a negative impact on both the tourism and business legacy of the London 2012 Olympics from various stakeholders' perspectives.

Table 4-1: Protecting Sponsors' Rights – Example Summary: EDF Energy vs Competitors

Strategy	Tactic	Challenges	Examples

Protecting Olympic Brand	**Brand protection guidelines**	**Only sponsors could associate themselves with the Games**	IOC's and LOCOG's restrictions on the use of Olympic branding Companies that won contracts (non-sponsors) to supply the Games could not mention their supply work to the Olympic Games
	Sponsors' legal teams	**Other companies were warned about ambush marketing, even the suppliers**	**EDF** (London 2012 sponsor) EDF's legal team warned competitors through LOCOG about marketing and advertising rules EDF's "good job" with the Games gave them the right to buy the association with the Games and event logo and to use all the advantages -- **British Gas** (non-Olympic sponsor: sponsor of British swimming) Association with British swimming that was forced to stop as it is an Olympic sport -- **GDF Suez** (Supplier but non-sponsor: contractor to build an energy plant for the Olympic Park) GDF's and ODA's press conference mentioning the work was considered as ambush marketing by EDF

Sponsors' Monopoly: Impacts on Non-Sponsor Stakeholders

The result of the IOC's and LOCOG's regulations with London 2012 to protect sponsors from ambush marketing was that sponsors monopolised the Olympic brand and logo. Opportunities for other stakeholders became limited to capitalise on the fact that the country was hosting the Olympic Games. Tourism and business stakeholders in particular wanted to showcase the whole of the country for long-term tourism and business benefits. Indeed, some stakeholders such as VisitBritain attempted to adopt an approach of a marketing alliance, as suggested in previous literature (e.g. Brown 2000a, 2000b; Chalip 2000a, 2000b, 2004; O'Brien 2006, 2007), where the impact can be on sponsors, event organisers and the host city and country (see Gwinner and Eaton 1999; O'Reilly, Heslop, and Nadeau 2011).

However, London 2012 sponsors adopted their own advertising and reporting agenda for their own commercial gains forcing their conditions on marketing allies when they overlapped with, or clashed with, other stakeholders' marketing (see Table 4-2). British Airways (a sponsor) and VisitBritain (not a sponsor) had strategic co-branding activities based on a "win-win" situation (example provided by VisitBritain informant). Other stakeholders expressed their concerns about the impact of sponsors' monopolies on showcasing the country for tourism and business. In terms of marketing, the idea that sponsors used the Olympics as an opportunity to exclusively market their own products is a problematic concept because the Olympics were not funded solely by private sponsorship, but also by taxpayers' money (argued by an Olympic Research Centre informant), and the use of public funds in a way that provides private companies with monopolies is very questionable. An additional example was added by an Olympic Research Centre informant: the purchase of tickets to Olympic events could only be made through one payment method (a Visa card, see Table 4-2).

Furthermore, the monopoly of advertising was observed not only in relation with the London 2012 event *per se*, but also during the Torch Relay (see Table 4-2), an example observed by the 2012 Team South-West informant. This observation supports the view that the commercial benefits from advertising were limited to Olympic sponsors. No one could advertise in association with the Torch Relay except for sponsors, once the torch was coming past Stonehenge or other attractions, Coca-Cola started setting up the billboards along the route, saying for instance "Coca-Cola: sponsor of the Torch Relay…or sponsor of the Torch for the Games…or London 2012" (informant quoted). Obviously small businesses along the torch route were not allowed to get involved.

This view that small businesses were not able to associate themselves with the Games and the Torch Relay was echoed by the Tourism Alliance informant; for instance, a pub owner along the way could not mention a Sunday lunch and invite people to watch the torch go past the pub because this means getting a commercial gain (see Table 4-2). All examples provided above raise a serious concern of how small businesses could gain benefit from being associated with the Games, Torch Relay and/or other aspects related to the Olympic Games without taking away from them as they are actually paying the large amounts of money to put it on in the first place as tax payers. That was one of the issues that the Tourism Alliance had a long series of debates with LOCOG on allowing small businesses to advertise (Tourism Alliance informant added). In this case, stakeholders who aimed to showcase the whole of the country for tourism and business opportunities were prevented from doing so. While the Torch Relay route covered the whole of the country, not allowing small businesses and tourism attraction operators to capitalise on the fact that the torch was passing their doorstep prevented them from showcasing their destination (questioned by both Team South-West and Tourism Alliance informants).

Unsurprisingly, it was not only small businesses who struggled with the restrictions on advertising and marketing, but also major stakeholders such as London and Partners who had to showcase London for tourism and business as part of their role (see Table 4-2). With London being the host city of the Olympic Games, even London and Partners was restricted in what the organisation could do in its marketing. It had no rights to use the Olympic logos or anything else related to the Games. Therefore, as an industry and salient stakeholder that wanted to promote packages to London around the Games, it was impossible to work with hotels, tourist attractions and other stakeholders due to the severely limited ability to promote the destination's attractions and advertise the fact that London was going to host the Games. Only LOCOG could do that with the sponsors (argued by London and Partners informant).

This supports examples discussed above and indicates a lack of coordination between sponsors of London 2012 and destination marketers, as well as the role that LOCOG played in limiting opportunities for stakeholders to collaborate with sponsors. Sponsors associated themselves with the Olympic brand to market their products, while at the same time London and Partners and other stakeholders could not promote the host city/country using the Games. Sponsors such as EDF went further and bought the rights to associate themselves with tourism attractions (see Table 4-2). As a sponsor, they were flexible with respect to the ways in which they associated themselves with different aspects of the Games and controlled advertising using London's tourism attractions, thus limiting London and Partners' promotion possibilities. In support of the above concern by the London and Partners informant, an example was outlined by the EDF sponsorship informant showing how the sponsor used London's attractions to advertise its products. As a global energy leader, and by associating itself with the Games, this sponsor wanted people to understand that the electricity they produced was low-carbon. The sponsor built a strategy that was based on people who came to London during the Olympic Games, clearly if they had tickets they were attending their events, but while they were in London most tourists would visit one or more of London's attractions, many of which are located on the banks of the River Thames. EDF's outdoor and posters advertising strategy was described in grandiose terms as "owning the river". This strategy involved strategic positioning on the main railway stations that were interchange stations for tourists on the way to the Olympic Park and/or tourism attractions in London. EDF bought in media auctions of the advertising at Waterloo Station, had a very dominant position at Westminster Station and focused particularly on the "EDF Energy London Eye". Furthermore, EDF marketers used a branded EDF boat to conduct river tours and had advertising deals with other attractions on the river and had displays inside and on the exterior glass of City Hall, also right by the river (outlined by EDF informant).

This indicates the control of EDF on London's major tourism attractions. This meant that destination marketers such as London and Partners were under the dominance of sponsors such as EDF. The EDF informant's examples above explain the dominance strategy that was built on the consumers' need for low-cost energy. Therefore, a critical look at the examples above shows that EDF was associating with the sustainability aspect of the Olympic Games as well. EDF targeted UK and international Olympic tourists via the existence of its advertising in the major locations around London. However, whilst this sponsor referred to its strategy as "owning the river", it was also associating itself with the attractions in London by using this marketing technique. EDF did not only use the London 2012 branding, but also used London attractions for private commercial gains instead of having a marketing alliance with London and Partners. This made it almost impossible for destination marketing stakeholders in London to capitalise on the Olympic Games.

It was not only in London that this occurred. Similar examples were observed in Weymouth and Portland (the host of the sailing events). UKTI as a stakeholder was promoting the UK for businesses. However, for Weymouth and Portland, UKTI organised a Business Pavilion and hospitality programmes to showcase the region for business activities and to encourage future business relationships. As a non-sponsor stakeholder of the Olympic Games, banks such as HSBC or Barclays could not support a business meeting or any hospitality programme because LOCOG was arranging all sponsorship activities through Lloyds Bank as it was one of the London 2012 sponsors (see Table 4-2). Such restriction in this example goes beyond sponsoring the Games and using the Olympic brand. Only Lloyds as the principal banking sponsor of LOCOG could support non-sponsors' and other stakeholders' hospitality programmes; which means in addition to sponsors' private corporate hospitality programmes where they showcase their products, they were using opportunities from non-sponsor stakeholders' hospitality programmes that attempted to showcase the country for businesses for example (outlined by UKTI informant).

Furthermore, sponsorship associations can be made with positive aspects of the Olympic Games that counter negative stories related to a sponsor's businesses. BP's sponsorship, for instance, was discussed by the London Business Network informant. BP had committed to sponsor the London 2012 Games before the Deepwater Horizon oil spill in the Gulf of Mexico in 2010, but then used the sustainability and environmental aspects of the Games to associate its brand and advertising alongside a very green and environmentally friendly focus (see Table 4-2). Deloitte, an accounting and consulting firm, was one of the main sponsors of the Games. Deloitte committed to give exclusive consultancy activities associated with their sponsorship to LOCOG, ODA, and to all the organisations involved in running the event. It was echoed by the London Business Network informant that this was an area where LOCOG and the other organisations had a need and thus Deloitte stepped into it and provided the service as part of their sponsorship, but also exclusively benefited from the association.

While some of EDF's sponsorship raised the profile of the company by association with tourism attractions along the River Thames, the main strategy they employed was "helping the Games shine brighter" (discussed by the EDF informant). By providing the electricity services for the Games such as the timing equipment and buzzers that are crucial in many sports, as well as lighting and all other electrical equipment, the message that EDF was trying to get across was that their expertise at providing electrical products and supplying electricity was on a par with the elite performance demonstrated by Olympic athletes. As a result, the brand awareness of EDF in the UK dramatically increased between 2008 and 2012. The Games gave EDF an exclusive platform for engaging with key UK stakeholders and customers by demonstrating EDF's capacity to innovate and their high levels of expertise in managing energy consumption. As a mega sport event, EDF's exclusive use of the London 2012 brand helped in broadening potential consumers' understanding and awareness of the scope of EDF's activity beyond France and the UK. EDF now have international bases and activities in China and other European countries for example (added by the informant).

Table 4-2: Sponsor Monopoly and Challenges for Non-Sponsor Stakeholders

Sponsor Control	Tactic	Challenges	Examples
Sponsor monopoly of	**Sponsors' extensive focus on marketing**	**Public investment/ taxpayers' money**	Monopoly on purchasing of Olympic tickets (Visa): controlling public investment by using taxpayers' money

advertising and marketing	**their product to control various aspects related to the Olympic Games**	**facilitating the sponsors' monopoly**	which does not necessarily result in benefiting wider society
		SMEs, salient stakeholders and destination marketers prevented from marketing	Small businesses along the Torch Relay route could not market in relation with it because they would be getting commercial benefits Destination marketing organisations such as London and Partners could not promote packages to London around the Games through their advertisements UKTI could not invite banks other than Lloyds to their hospitality programmes when they are showcasing the UK for business
		Sponsors owned, or branded, tourism attractions	EDF association with London ("own the river" strategy) Exclusive media auctions and dominant promotion positions at railway stations and on local public transport near tourism attractions Giving a name to London Eye (EDF Energy London Eye) EDF branded river cruise along the River Thames Attractions could not use the event in their marketing unless they were sponsored by EDF.
		Sponsors' associations with aspects/needs of the Games	BP: association with sustainability and environment aspect to shift negative perceptions of their disaster in the Mexican Gulf Deloitte: association with consultancy needed by ODA and LOCOG EDF: "helping the Games shine brighter"

This section has shown that some of the stakeholders in the London 2012 Games raised some concerns over sponsorship of the Games. There were concerns that the joint private and public funding of the Games led to taxpayers' money being spent on activities that provided private companies with monopolies over aspects of the Games' organisation and marketing. There were concerns that the wider economic benefits of hosting the Olympics are constrained because any company that is not an official sponsor is unable to take advantage of marketing opportunities, and therefore that the benefits of the Games cannot be leveraged. There were concerns that sponsors were able to dominate local attraction and tourism branding to the possible detriment of other local attractions; and there were concerns that the sponsors' need to associate themselves with particular aspects of the Games was to the detriment of other wider impacts of the Games.

As a result of the sponsors' domination of various aspects of the Olympic Games, their products, services and brand awareness can shift positively in the domestic and international market. However, the justification for sponsors' involvement was the need of LOCOG to run and improve the Games through their services. Without the sponsors, the Games would need even more public funding, and might be prohibitively expensive. The Games became subject to sponsors' guidance in an "ethopolitics" process (see Bulley and Lisle 2012, 2014). Bulley and Lisle (2012, 2014) discussed McDonalds's similar situations with the London 2012 sponsorship; while the volunteers did a good job in welcoming London 2012 visitors, their training process was functioned through "ethopolitics" because their behaviours and values were influenced and directed by a commercial company that looks for commercial benefits. Indeed, the approaches of sponsorship dominance discussed in this chapter combine the dominant commercial force of sponsors in line with Bulley and Lisle's (2012, 2014) terminology. EDF owned the Games by using strategic locations such as train stations and "owning the river" including London's attractions by "helping the Games shine brighter". BP adopted its London 2012 strategy to counter negative perceptions from an environmental disaster in another part of the world, shifting perceptions by associating with the "green" services the company was providing for the Games.

Conclusion

The current chapter has highlighted a number of issues regarding the relationship between the IOC, LOCOG and the London 2012 sponsors to protect sponsorship rights. Perhaps the key issue is that the exclusive business-to-business approach adopted by the IOC and Olympic sponsors changes the nature of the Games and its benefits. From the discussion in this chapter, it is clear that sponsors were building their brand awareness in the UK and international markets. This chapter supports the idea that sponsors became the controller of various aspects of the Olympic Games where their focus is merely on their own private commercial gain. This position refutes previous literature on leveraging sport events (see Brown 2000a, 2000b; Chalip 2000b, 2004; O'Brien 2006, 2007), where they all suggest forming a marketing alliance with destination marketers to generate mutual benefits. Non-sponsor stakeholders interviewed for this chapter argued that London 2012 sponsors were not considering mutual leverage of benefits with destination marketing organisations and other businesses. The data shows that the sponsors' focus on leveraging their private commercial gain by having a monopoly over all the various aspects around the Olympics left other stakeholders with limited options for their marketing and media campaigns. Overall, non-sponsor stakeholders consider this situation as a "problematic" one, particularly given that the organisation of the Olympic Games involves taxpayers' money which in turn was used to facilitate sponsors' monopoly of the event.

While much of the justification for hosting large, or mega-events is often that while the event organisers may not be able to make a profit from running the event, and need public subsidy, the wider economic benefits from hosting such events tend to greatly outweigh the cost to the event organisers. The IOC's funding model attempts to capture part of the wider economic benefits through sponsorship funding, and hence counter arguments that criticise the public cost of staging such events. The concerns raised by stakeholders in this chapter imply that it is possible to take this funding model too far, and that sponsorship regulations restrict the wider economic benefits that mega-events bring.

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PART II

EVENTS AND DESTINATION IMAGE AND PERFORMANCE

CHAPTER FIVE

BUSINESS PERSPECTIVES ON GOVERNMENT CAPACITY IN MULTI-STAKEHOLDER PLANNING INITIATIVES FOR THE 2010 FIFA WORLD CUP IN A NON-HOST AREA

NCEDO JONATHAN NTLOKO AND KAMILLA SWART

The scale of events such as the 2010 FIFA World Cup entails that the bidding and hosting of these mega-events turn highly competitive. This is largely due to the purported benefits linked to these spectacles and mega-events. The bidding process provides competing countries an opportunity to demonstrate their plans, skills and abilities to host the event successfully if considered. South Africa won the bid to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup. The hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup was a historic moment for the country and the continent – this being the first time the event was hosted on African soil. As a result, there were expectations from both the host and non-host areas. South Africa's winning of the rights to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup was received with mixed reactions as there were concerns and criticism about the ability of the government to plan and deliver a successful event.

Mega-events such as the FIFA World Cup require high level planning from all stakeholders involved. The effectiveness of such planning is usually measured against the successful hosting of the event. Most studies conducted on the FIFA World Cup put emphasis on the impacts associated with the hosting of the event on the host community. These impacts range from economic, social and environmental impacts. Moreover, there is a biased focus in assessing these impacts as most studies concentrate on the host community. Such an approach has limited the impacts associated with the 2010 FIFA World Cup to host areas and ignored the possible spill over of such impacts to non-host areas. The latter serves as an indication that planning to leverage benefits for such events may not be narrowly prioritised from the perspective of the host areas but also to that of non-host areas. The ability for both the host areas and non-host areas to leverage benefits associated with the hosting of mega-events such as the 2010 FIFA World Cup depends on their ability to develop and implement plans. The development and implementation of such plans requires a multi-stakeholder approach and coordination at different spheres of the government (national, provincial and local level), with the government playing a leading role.

This chapter examines the business perspectives concerning government capacity in multi-stakeholder planning initiatives for the 2010 FIFA World Cup in a non-host area (Cape Winelands District Municipality – CWDM), a region located in close proximity (45 minutes) to one of the host areas (Cape Town, South Africa). In planning to leverage benefits associated with the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup, the CWDM (government) was responsible for coordinating the development of such plans through a multi-stakeholder approach – bringing all the stakeholders together in order to develop integrated and coordinated plans. With the World Cup being hosted on African soil for the first time, challenges in planning for the event were expected, not only in non-host areas but also in the host areas. The government, in this case CWDM, was granted the mandate to plan to leverage benefits from the event at the time when government capacity and competency in relation to public service delivery in South Africa was of concern to both the government and the recipients of service delivery.

One of the threads of concern here presented, is the ability of the government (CWDM) to develop, drive and implement the planning initiatives linked to the 2010 FIFA World Cup through a multi-stakeholder approach. This is reflected by examining businesses' perspectives. Building up to this thread of concern, a critical review of mega-events and non-host areas and the role of businesses as important stakeholders in planning for mega-events are presented to draw an academic debate on the issue.

Mega-Events and Non-Host Areas

Most of the studies conducted on events (ranging from mega-events to events in general) have focused on economic impacts (Lee and Taylor 2005; Whitson and Horne 2006), with an increasing emphasis on social impacts (Robertson, Rogers, and Leask 2009; Deery and Jago 2010). A review of the literature reflects a biased focus on the host community (Gursoy and Kendall 2006; Bassa and Jaggernath 2010; Chain and Swart 2010), with non-host areas receiving minimal attention (Deccio and Baloglu 2002; Gardiner and Chalip 2006; Atkinson 2009; Ntloko and Swart 2016). The minimal amount of attention that is given to non-host areas depicts a degree of marginalisation of such areas in terms of the hosting of the events, as their potential remains unexplored.

The biased focus of studies on the host community can be associated with the extent that the event impacts (social, economic and environmental) are experienced by the host areas, as compared to non-host areas. As presented by several authors (Gardiner and Chalip 2006; Chi and Qu 2008; Susic and Dordevic 2011), events can be used as a valuable instrument for promoting a tourism destination. As a tourism destination is comprised of both host and non-host areas, it is important not to ignore the impacts involved when hosting the events, depending on their potential, and their proximity, to the host area. The rationale for consideration of non-host areas is based on the desire to maximise as many benefits as possible to the region. Furthermore, the marginalisation of non-host areas should be questioned in evaluating the event. Jones (2001) argues that assessing impacts, in terms of its very nature, is a complicated process. However, the author emphasises that an accurate estimation of the impacts of mega-events (inclusive of both the host and the non-host areas concerned) is highly significant becoming part of any sound development strategy. In view of the last point, the success of an event for non-host areas rests on the economic development policies of the region, on how tourism, events and sport are valued in local economies, and on the importance of fostering linkages and alliances with stakeholders within the community, as well as with external stakeholders, considering the complexity of the planning processes involved (Gardiner and Chalip 2006).

Regardless of the success or failure of the event, the impacts that are linked to the event can be used as the basis for assessing and informing the current and future planning concerned with the hosting of the event. Burgan and Mules (2001) refer to the assessment of an event as being pivotal to its success, since it entails estimating the full value related to the use of event resources. The authors base their argument on the underlying presumption that the resources are either unused or underused, hence resulting in the need for the integration and coordination of planning and management so that benefits can be brought about for both the host and the non-host areas.

Getz (1991, xii) provides the basis for an understanding of the importance of non-host areas' planning to leverage from events, by defining event tourism as a "systematic planning, development and marketing of festivals (and special events) as tourist attractions, development catalysts, and image builders for the destination area". It is within this context that non-host areas attempt to leverage opportunities that could arise as a result of event extension impacts. George (2001, 291) outlines attractions, accessibility, amenities and ambience as being important elements of a destination that contribute to the tourist experience and to their level of satisfaction with an event. These elements cannot be divorced from the hosting of sport tourism events. As argued by Fredline and Faulkner (2000, 60), "events can be seen as an additional element in a destination's tourism marketing mix".

Although several authors (Chalip and Costa 2005; O'Brien 2006) hold their argument on the impacts of events on the host destination, no less true is that the theory of spill over impacts for non-host areas needs further attention. Spill over impacts could be a result of the displacement effect, which takes place when those holidaying in a host city are discouraged from visiting the location as a result of the hosting of the mega-event. In such cases, those concerned might favour holidaying in quieter locations than the area in which the event is held, or in areas away from where the event-related activities of the host city are held. The possibility exists of unhappy residents of the host cities deciding to escape their cities during the World Cup and to take an opportunity to rent cheaper accommodation in non-host towns and villages than is available in the host city during the event (Atkinson 2009). Even though Atkinson (2009) cites the lack of initiative being taken by the government as a reason for the failure to take into consideration potential spill over impacts, the government cannot realise such impacts alone. A number of stakeholders/role players from different sectors need to be involved to ensure the successful implementation of the related initiative. The requirement of such involvement reflects the complexity of the initiatives linked to non-host areas, ranging from planning, through management, implementation and monitoring, to evaluation. However, the potential benefit of spill over impacts should be seen as an important aspect that cannot be ignored, as the level of extension of impacts to non-host areas is not largely known.

Even though minimal research, as yet, has been undertaken on non-host areas, it is argued that "they can reap benefits from tourism, as sport fans travel from one host venue to another, as well as from tourist excursions and even fan park events, where events are watched on big screen televisions" (Atkinson 2009, 154). Paying attention to non-host areas can cost or benefit the destination at different levels, whether social, economic or environmental (Deccio and Baloglu 2002, 47).

Capacity of Government under Scrutiny

Although the idea of different stakeholders coming together to plan for tourism development might be perceived as a noble idea, in so far as upholding transparency and democratic processes goes, Mason (2008, 91) contends that "if planning is intended to represent the views of all stakeholders and interested parties, then it should be obvious that there will not automatically be unanimity and homogeneity in values and views". These assertions posit a multi-stakeholder approach to planning as challenging.

Given the large number of public organisations that have an interest in tourism matters, Hall (2008, 164) notes the challenge for government as "being able to bring various organisations and agencies together to work for common objectives". Such an understanding brings to the fore the dynamics of stakeholder participation as demanding highly developed skills and a high level of professionalism from those leading, or facilitating, the planning. Jamal and Getz (1995) cite the importance of the convener to be legitimate, with their expertise, resources and authority being regarded as fundamental to effective stakeholder participation. Miller and Twining-Ward (2006) posit such qualities as reinforcing the element of trust, and as promoting discourse between and among the stakeholders concerned through the available platforms of engagement.

The capacity and the ability of the government to deliver and implement the plans was not without challenges. Since South Africa is on its developmental path, for the developmental state to play its developmental role effectively and efficiently, it has been argued that it must be capacitated (Education Training Unit [ETU n.d.]). The African National Congress, ANC (2007), cites the following capacity areas:

- Strategic orientation: development strategy and programmes based on high growth rates, the restructuring of the economy and socio-economic inclusion;
- Ideational capacity: leadership in defining a national vision and in mobilising society to take part in its implementation, with effective systems of interaction operating in relation to all social partners;
- Organisational capacity: state structures and systems that facilitate the realisation of a set agenda, with the appropriate macro-organisation of the state; and
- Technical capacity: the translation of broad objectives into programmes and projects, and the capacity to ensure implementation, with proper training, orientation and leadership of the public service.

The ETU (n.d.) states that the realisation of a developmental government depends on the active involvement of social partners through the development of strong relationships between the government, labour, and businesses, as well as other organisations that are formed by different groups of citizens. Taking cognisance of such challenges leads to the realisation that the government planning and implementation processes might be expected to be flawed, with minimal accomplishment and grounds for implementation highly questionable.

Businesses as Important Stakeholders in Planning for Mega-Events

Businesses are important stakeholders in multi-stakeholder planning for mega-event hosting. As presented in the work of Jago et al. (2003), the involvement of businesses as stakeholders could lead to the development of partnerships, and to further support from within the local business community. Since businesses are likely to render a product/service that is relevant and that appeals to those attracted to and participating in the event, and with there being a demand for it, they are likely to position themselves as a suitable supplier or service provider. As a result of this, their interest in participating in the event planning and in its related activities might have been aroused. For the latter to be achieved, the capacity and abilities of those responsible for coordinating planning is pivotal – in this case, the CWDM.

If businesses as key stakeholders are not involved in the planning, it may be difficult to achieve integrated and coordinated plans. It is the contribution from businesses which is crucial in bringing about the balance between the demand and supply sides of the tourism product, ensuring that destinations position themselves as preferred. The latter serves as a catalyst for tourist visits to a destination. An inclusion of businesses as stakeholders is in line with the adoption of a multi-stakeholder approach to planning with an intention to achieve integrated and coordinated plans. An understanding of this planning approach is drawn from the stakeholder theory. Donaldson and Preston (1995) describe the stakeholder theory as being of managerial importance, as it concerns the relationships among different stakeholders, as well as their attitudes and stakeholder engagement practices. It is also argued by several authors (Watkins and Bell 2002; Aas, Ladkin, and Fletcher 2005) that stakeholder theory provides a suitable grounding for the participation, collaboration and cooperation of relevant and affected parties. These assertions place each stakeholder in tourism planning as having the unique potential to influence planning at different levels and contribute to the development of an integrated and coordinated plan. Such a lack might have had a negative effect on realising what Zuma (2010) perceives to be the importance of mega-events to the South African nation, stemming from them offering an opportunity to work together to strengthen the country's tourism industry, economy, employment capacity, skilled workforce, appeal to investors, global image, and identity. Responding to and managing such impacts associated with mega-events can therefore not be the responsibility of one stakeholder.

As a range of different stakeholders are involved, the importance of integrated and coordinated planning towards hosting the event is a critical success factor. Tassiopoulos (2000) gives a concise picture of how reflecting on planning and management can lead to sustainable social, economic and environmental benefits for tourism destinations. The adoption of an integrative approach contributes to an understanding of cross-sectoral plans (Thabrew et al. 2009), and it impacts on wide-scale sport events in terms of local development (Frey, Iraldo, and Melis 2008), providing a platform for the incorporation of multi-stakeholder perspectives (Heinrichs et al. 2012).

Lessons Learnt and Missed Opportunities

In assessing the capacity of the municipality to drive and implement a developmental response to the 2010 FIFA World Cup efficiently, it emerged that businesses demonstrated a lack of confidence. Similarly, businesses perceived the capacity of the municipality to drive and implement the plans as insufficient.

The outcome may be attributed to the relationships that businesses had with the municipality and its performance in terms of its ability to deliver its municipal plans and mandate, with the exception of the 2010 FIFA World Cup agenda. In an attempt to underscore the importance of trust in the government (in this case, the municipality), Camay and Gordon (2004) posit confidence in the rule of law and in rules of engagement by the government as being a reflection of democratic governance. In view thereof, the lack of confidence in the respondents in the municipality could have hindered the level of cooperation attained and the collaborative efforts made by the stakeholders in the area. This could have also resulted in businesses questioning the need to involve themselves in a process in relation to which they perceived the coordinators (i.e. the municipalities) as not being fully capacitated. As noted by the National Treasury (South Africa National Treasury 2011, 10), the greatest challenge facing local government is the decline in public trust that has been motivated by the growing amount of public frustration with poor governance and corruption, which has resulted in poor service delivery in many municipalities. These results define the concerns of businesses beyond the fiscal capabilities of municipalities.

With businesses having cited a lack of confidence in the municipal capacity and ability to develop, drive and implement planning initiatives related to the 2010 FIFA World Cup, this had implications for stakeholder participation, ownership of the plans among stakeholders, stakeholders implementing the plans, cooperation and collaboration amongst stakeholders. Based on the latter, the following viewpoints emerged.

Firstly, this served as a deterrent to businesses' participation in planning initiatives linked to the 2010 FIFA World Cup. Planning necessitates the involvement of all stakeholders and it should be understood by all stakeholders, as far as a clearly defined vision or problem statement, goals, objectives, evaluation criteria and performance indicators go (Litman 2011). Ruhanen (2004) underscores stakeholder participation as being a sustainability principle that must be integrated into the planning process. A successful result depends on interactive participation by all the stakeholders involved. If legitimate stakeholders are excluded or ignored, the quality and degree of acceptance of any recommendations will be highly suspect (Hall 2008).

Secondly, the principle of ownership of the plans by stakeholders involved (in this case businesses) was not achieved as plans were not developed as a consensus among stakeholders. The principle of ownership in such planning demonstrates support and buy-in from various stakeholders who simultaneously contribute to the sustainability of developments linked to the plans.

The third viewpoint is related to implementation. Without participation (cited as the first viewpoint) and ownership (cited as the second view point) it can be deduced that it can be difficult for businesses as stakeholders to implement such plans. As supported by Hall (2008), ownership might lead to an increased possibility of the successful implementation of the plans. Benefits which stakeholders derive from the plans can be viewed as one of the factors resulting in ownership. Hall (2000) and Backman et al. (2001) cite such benefits as contributing towards an improved perspective on tourism, and on the possible ownership and execution of plans in line with the anticipated outcomes of tourism development – a missed opportunity. The benefits concerned describe the importance of the relevant stakeholders being involved in planning with an eye to understanding the value of stakeholder planning beyond engagement or discussions, but rather as a goal-driven process that requires the commitment and effort of all those involved.

The fourth issue to emerge can be associated with the lack of cooperation. Cooperation acknowledges that the stakeholders participating in tourism planning processes are different. Despite the different groups that they represent, with their attendant different interests and expectations, the success of stakeholder engagement processes requires the stakeholders to complement each other; hence there is a need for cooperation among them. The complementarity of stakeholders might facilitate the attainment of success at a destination in relation to an event held there. As noted by Beirman (2003, 29), "a key measure of a successful destination . . . is the degree to which various elements of the destination's tourism industry co-operate". For cooperation to be realised, the robust involvement and engagement of stakeholders is necessary. This is likely to yield joint planning, and to promote the prevailing levels of participation and collaboration, with possibilities for partnerships. Gunn and Var (2002) project cooperation as an important step to take in stakeholder engagement, as it removes or ameliorates barriers to development, resulting in the commitment to tourism endeavours of the constituencies in the affected area(s). The authors further assert that the key players must be ready, willing and able to cooperate. Cooperation among the stakeholders is perceived by Watkins and Bell (2002) as contributing maximally to the development and sustainment of partnerships.

The last viewpoint is related to collaboration. Establishing the principles of collaboration is seen as pivotal in achieving integrated planning (Jamal and Jamrozy 2006). The authors view such participatory principles as being fundamental to any multi-party endeavour, since abiding by them helps to ensure that the stakeholders concerned have an opportunity to examine a wide range of opinions or perspectives, with the intention of securing outcomes of collective learning, sharing and appreciation, as well as collective solutions. Similarly, Edgell et al. (2008) posit that collaborative multi-stakeholder processes tend to lead to agreement on priority issues, and on the formation of partnerships. Entering into partnerships may also stimulate the starting of solid cooperative relationships among all the stakeholders concerned (Baggio and Corigliano 2010), providing that the basis for relationship development and for the granting of opportunities for short-term and long-term impacts is aimed at enhancing mutual value (O'Brien and Gardiner 2006).

The formation of partnerships through collaboration reflects commitment to plans. As noted by Gunn and Var (2002, 246), "commitment to tourism and the desire to collaborate on planning are more important than expertise in tourism". Partnerships that are formed on the basis of cooperation and collaboration can be interpreted as an indication of support for the development concerned. The assertion of Beirman (2003, 186) regarding the mobilisation of partnership relationships serves as a cautionary tale to those who lead or facilitate development that the formation of partnerships is not necessarily common knowledge, and that it should not be expected to emerge by itself. The development of such relationships requires more effort than usual to mobilise the stakeholders to find value in forming such partnerships as part of the stakeholder engagement processes.

Concluding on the viewpoints presented, businesses' perspectives on government capacity in multi-stakeholder planning initiatives for the 2010 FIFA World Cup generally portray a missed opportunity for both the CWDM and businesses. In a post-2010 FIFA World Cup study, government in the CWDM has acknowledged its failure to involve the local business sector (Bijkerk, De Ridder, and Donaldson 2012), with businesses citing low levels of awareness on event planning initiatives (Ntloko and Swart 2016).

Conclusion

With the perspective presented in this chapter, it can be concluded that the CWDM did not deliver fully on the 2010 FIFA World Cup planning initiatives as desired. As the municipality was entrusted with the coordinating role, the implications of perceived insufficient capacity in the municipality to drive and implement a developmental response to the 2010 FIFA World Cup, and that of not being able to drive and implement the plans, has negatively affected participation of businesses as important stakeholders, ownership of the plans, implementation of the plans, cooperation and collaboration among stakeholders.

The scrutiny of municipal capacity and abilities by businesses underscores the need to change the image of the municipal capacity to deliver, not only in the context of mega-event planning, but also in terms of its mandate to its citizens. Addressing such a need should serve to instil a heightened level of confidence among the business population of the CWDM, as the government's abilities and capabilities would not, then, be in question. The capacity areas (i.e. strategic orientation, ideational capacity, organisational capacity, and technical capacity) as identified earlier in this chapter, might still be used as a yardstick to measure and define the municipalities' ability to drive and implement the plans linked to mega-events in both developed and developing countries.

It must be noted that the successful hosting of sport mega-events rest on planning and management as key activities that help to drive successful multi-stakeholder engagement and that assists in leading to the realisation of envisaged plans. The capacity of those who lead multi-stakeholder planning initiatives associated with mega-events will forever remain at the forefront of multi-stakeholder engagement.

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CHAPTER SIX

CULTURAL EVENT AND ITS EFFECT ON CITY IMAGE: THE CASE OF CONSTANTINE CAPITAL OF ARAB CULTURE 2015

KAMILA GHIDOUCHE AÏT-YAHIA AND FAOUZI GHIDOUCHE

Special events are important components of place branding. Many cities use them in order to improve their image and attract various targets (visitors, investors, residents) as well as economic and social fallouts (taxes, tourist spending, cohesion, pride building). As shown in the literature review to be presented later on, many scholars were interested in the different economic impacts of mega-event hosting on a destination, but only a few studies have covered events' effect on image due to its unquantifiability and intangibility. This chapter aims at discussing the contribution of a cultural event to city image in the case of a developing country. The originality of our approach rests on the extrapolation of a model in a framework unexplored by academics to date. We have chosen the case of Constantine, which hosted a mega-event in 2015 as the Capital of Arab Culture. This huge event, which cost almost 60 million euros, was the opportunity to make major restoration and rehabilitation work in the city to put forward the historical, cultural and patrimonial heritage. During this event, many festivals, concerts, debates and academic conferences were organised in order to highlight the wealthy heritage of Constantine.

Through this chapter, we try to define how Constantine's Capital of Arab Culture event brought citizens together and contributed to strengthening a positive image of the city. Hence, a web-based survey has been led with 131 respondents in July 2016 and the findings revealed that the event had a positive effect on Constantine's image. However, respondents also raised the fact that Constantine's image has been tarnished by some controversies which surrounded this event.

Literature Review

In the literature, events' economic impact on cities was widely discussed, which could be explained by the fact that this type of study is measurable and generally credible if it is realised in a transparent approach (Kasimati 2003). There are several methods to proceed to an economic impact analysis, so we can mention: the cost-benefit analysis, the CGE (computable general equilibrium), but the most used method is the input-output model (IO) due to its understandability (Arnegger and Herz 2016; Lee 2006). This is why many scholars have worked on short term and long term event impact on a city (Della Bitta et al. 1977; Pyo et al. 1988; Murphy and Carmichael 1991; Kang and Perdue 1994).

City image is more difficult to quantify, thus, some researchers have developed scales to define it (Anholt 2006; Ashworth and Voogd 1990; Echtner and Ritchie 1993, 2003; Baloglu and Brinberg 1997; Kalandides and Kavaratzis 2011; Kavaratzis and Ashworth 2007; Luque-Martínez et al. 2007; Phillips and Schofield 2007; Zenker et al. 2009; Zhang and Zhao 2009).

Regarding events' impact on a city, the Winter Olympic Games in Calgary is a prime example we can quote (Ritchie and Smith 1991). More recent studies focused on countries that welcomed world cups and confirmed this impact: South Korea (Kim and Morrsion 2005), Beijing (Chen 2012; Li and Kaplanidou 2013; Zhang and Zhao 2009; Guojun et al. 2011; Zeng et al. 2011), and Germany (Florek and Insch 2011).

By hosting cultural events represents an excellent way to develop cultural tourism and enhance a city or a country (Liu 2014) and as proof, the examples of "European Capitals of Culture" and "Capitals of Arabic Culture" are eloquent. For this reason, some scholars tried to demonstrate the impact of these events on the formation of city image. Among the most successful cultural events, the following cases could be mentioned: Rotterdam European Capital of Culture 2001 (Richards and Wilson 2004), which gives the result of a quantitative and qualitative study led on residents, visitors and also with the decision-makers and organisers. The findings showed that the image of the city grew richer from a cultural point of view. Another example is the case of FIE (International Festival of Education) of Iași, the results showed that this event "was memorable and created strong 'anchors' that are associated with positive elements" (Dospinescu 2014, 45). Also, Eurovision 2012 as an exemplary case is hereby mentioned (Azerbaijan) (Arnegger and Herz 2016), because it combined economic and image effects on an emerging destination.

Scope of the Study: Constantine, Capital of the Arab Culture 2015 (Algeria)

Constantine is the third largest city located in north-eastern Algeria. It has a wealth of potential which covers several aspects: cultural, historic, architectural but also economic, scientific and academic ones.

If in the past this city did not show a big will to be highlighted, it was "forced" to do so when the Arab League nominated it as: "the Capital of Arab Culture for 2015" within the "Cultural Capitals" programme of UNESCO. Thus, Constantine committed considerable actions regarding rehabilitation, infrastructure development, events organisation and also particular city branding efforts never spread previously. The table below summarises Constantine's main characteristics:

Table 6-1: Constantine's Description

City	**Constantine**
Area	2187 km²
Municipality number	12
Inhabitants	913338
Competitive cluster	Biotechnology, health, metallurgy, mechanics
Logo and tag line	"a world in a city" and "first, know your country"
Explanation and positioning	The letter "Qaf" is the first letter of the word Constantine in Arabic. A big controversy was generated by this logo and it was the subject of mockeries, especially on social networks The tag line means nothing and everything at the same time, and is not bringing a specific positioning to Constantine
Allocated budget	60 billion euros, this amount was also criticised a lot by the media and citizens

Methodology

The aim of this research is to assess the impact of this cultural event on Constantine's image, for both residents and non-residents. The current study combines different approaches of place image evaluation.

Associations:

Both qualitative and quantitative data sources were used. According to the results of a previous qualitative study including a survey of residents and non-residents (Ghidouche et al. 2016), we defined the most frequent associations made by the respondents. In the current quantitative research, we measure the strength of these associations referring to Chamard's (2004) work. The following assumption was made:

H1: Constantine's image is strongly correlated with the Capital of Arab Culture Event

Positive and Negative Effects:

To estimate the event's positive and negative effects, we have adopted assessment scales developed by Ritchie and Aitken (1984) and Mihalik (2000). For positive effects (benefits) we have considered: economic benefits, international recognition, tourism development, Constantine's reputation enhancement and increasing citizen pride. The negative effects (liabilities) included: traffic congestion, price gouging, strain on law enforcement, street crime, unfair distribution of state resources, civil unrest, negative attitude of visitors toward residents and negative attitude of residents toward visitors.

H2: The respondents have a positive perception of the effects of the Capital of Arab Culture Event.

Recommendation

We also tried to determine the event impact on word-of-mouth. We chose to assess this activity based on a four measurement item scale proposed by Harrison-Walker (2001) to estimate the praise and word-of-mouth activity.

H3: The event incited the respondents to recommend Constantine as a place to visit and live in.

Data

The surveys were carried out online and administered to Constantine residents, visitors and non-residents. A total of 134 questionnaires were completed. Data analysis was undertaken using the SPSS software package. Standard statistical tests were used to test our hypotheses. A five-point Likert scale was used to collect the responses.

Research Results

Women represent 60 per cent of the sample. Over 80 per cent of respondents were less than the age of 35. The majority have a higher education qualification (40 per cent are students and 22 per cent are executive and senior managers).

Associations

The associations that were the most striking, are residents referring to cultural and historical dimensions of Constantine (*Malouf Music, Traditions*). However, the non-residents tend to associate Constantine by mentioning its physical features (*Suspension Bridges*). The null hypothesis of the equality of means is not rejected for the nine associations, except *Malouf* where the difference of mean is significant between the two groups (see table 6-2 below). *Arab Culture* had the lowest average for the respondents. It appears that both residents and non-residents do not associate the event to the image of Constantine.

Table 6-2: Associations of Constantine City

Association	Status	Means	t. Test	
			Value of t	**P. Value**
Suspension Bridges	Non-Resident	4,30	-,700	,485
	Resident	4,10		
Arab Culture	Non-Resident	<u>3,15</u>	-,398	,692
	Resident	<u>3,28</u>		

Cirta	Non-Resident	3,81	-,447	,655
	Resident	3,94		
Traditions	Non-Resident	3,76	-1,600	,112
	Resident	4,17		
Monuments, Historical Heritage	Non-Resident	3,59	-,050	,964
	Resident	3,61		
Malouf Music	Non-Resident	3,71	-3,51	,001
	Resident	4,61		
History	Non-Resident	3,74	-,744	,458
	Resident	3,94		
Scientists	Non-Resident	3,29	-1,270	,206
	Resident	3,67		
Culture	Non-Resident	3,61	-,819	,414
	Resident	3,83		

When looking to the sample's characteristics, significant differences are evident. The strength of the association is more important for Residents than Non-Visitors. The variance analysis confirms these results, between four groups: Residents, Recent Residents, Visitors and Non-Visitors (Trembath et al. 2011). There are significant differences according to the respondent's gender and age, for a number of the associations: *Culture, Arab Culture* and *Traditions*. Women tend to emphasise *Culture,* and *Arab Culture*. For the younger respondents (under 35 years), *Culture* is highly associated to the city unlike older respondents. The association *Arab Culture* is significantly and positively correlated to other cultural and historical associations: *Culture*, *Traditions, Monuments and Historical Heritage* (average r^2=0.420). However, there is no significant correlation between the event and other associations.

Positive and Negative Effects

Positive Effects

The majority of the respondents rated *Increased citizen pride* as the highest item. *Economic benefits* and *Increased future tourism* were the least important items for the respondents. Thus, the positive effects of the level of perception of the event are not important (see table 6-3).

There is no significant difference between the Residents' and Non-Residents' perception of the positive effects (different t-tests are not significant). However, there are differences according to the gender. For the men, *Improvement of infrastructures and amenities* is more highly rated, while women rate the *Enhanced reputation of the city* more highly.

Negative Effects

The majority of the respondents perceive the economic dimension as the highest negative consequence of the event: *Unfair distribution of state resources* and *Price gouging* obtain the highest means.

There are significant differences between Residents and Non-Residents. Residents rate *Traffic congestion* more highly, as Non-Residents think that the *Unfair distribution of state resources* is the major negative consequence of the Arab Culture event.

Table 6-3: Mean Scores of Perceived Effects

Negative Effects	**Mean**	**Positive Effects**	**Mean**
Unfair distribution of state resources	3,64	Increased citizen pride	3,47
Price gouging	3,41	Enhanced reputation of Constantine	3,28
Traffic congestion	3,34	Improvement of infrastructures and amenities	3,23
Strain on law enforcement	3,09	International recognition	2,84
Civil unrest	2,80	Increased future tourism	2,79
Negative attitude of residents toward visitors	2,22	Economic benefits	2,65
Street crime	2,10		
Negative attitude of visitors toward residents	2,10		

Recommendation

In this study, we focused on the importance of recommendations in the events and in WOM (Word-of-Mouth) research. The original scale for the WOM designed by Harrison-Walker (2001) suggests a two-dimensional structure: WOM activity and WOM praise components. The scale measurement used (four items of recommendations) was adapted from Harrison-Walker (2001).

Values that are significantly different are identified using a one-way ANOVA (see table 6-4 hereafter). The results show that, regardless of measurement technique, there is a significant difference between the four groups: Residents, Recent Residents, Visitors, Non-Visitors. The results suggest that the event does not incite Non-Visitors to recommend the city.

Table 6-4: Results of One-Way ANOVA

	Sum of Squares	Ddl	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between groups	19,141	3	6,380	5,915	,001
Within groups	140,215	130	1,079		
Total	159,356	133			

Conclusion

The present chapter was prepared to present the effect of the Capital of Arab Culture event on Constantine’s city image. According to the results, we noticed that Constantine was weakly associated to the Arab culture but more related to historical and architectural aspects. Our first hypothesis was then rejected. Among positive effects of this event, respondents agreed that the Capital of Arab Culture allows *Increasing citizen pride* and *Enhancing Constantine’s image*. In the meanwhile, they quoted *Traffic congestion* and *Unfair distribution of state resources* as major negative effects. We confirmed our second hypothesis that this event had positive effects on Constantine.

Finally, it appears that this event prompted the residents to recommend Constantine as a place to visit and live in, but it did not prompt non-residents to do so. The hypothesis about recommendation was confirmed only for the residents, which is why it is important to target a larger audience such as opinion leaders to relay this kind of event more widely.

To cut the long story short, the main results of this study could be useful for two reasons: first, to heighten the Algerian government and local authorities’ awareness about adopting a strategic approach, including citizens, place branding strategies and special events in the improvement of the city’s image. Secondly, to contribute in extending the Anglophone literature by showing place branding practices in Algeria as there are only a few North African scholars who have published in this field.

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CHAPTER SEVEN

EVENT MANAGEMENT: CASE STUDIES ABOUT PRACTICES IN TURKEY

YAKIN EKIN AND ONUR AKBULUT

Event management, in comparison to other conventional fields of study such as medicine, law and accounting, appears to be a new area to realise scientific research. The field grows annually involving many professionals who are in charge of planning, coordinating and evaluating a wide variety of events all year round. Event management consists essentially in creating an additional value through the articulation of a satisfactory experience.

Events have gained importance in the disciplines of management, marketing and public relations since the late 20th century. For this reason, there is a large increase in the number of scientific studies, especially in the fields mentioned. The efforts to reveal the positive and negative aspects of this multi-faceted concept through scientific research are rarely new in the historical process. However, due to its multidisciplinary nature, it is interconnected with many areas. These interactions with social, economic, environmental, political, etc. fields offer various opportunities for social science research.

Initially, research on financial returns of events has emerged, mainly due to the economic effects and the volume of business generated by the value added created by the expenditure of participants. Then, social impact studies as well as economic ones began to appear in academic journals. Along with the social impact studies, the sociological aspects of events have started to be examined in the field by researchers. At this point, there are also features of events that unite the community in which the event takes place. Moreover, events might ensure the residents of the area feel different and positive through living there. Social cohesion, community bonding, place attachment, and place identity might be considered as examples of these kinds of emotions and concepts which need to be dealt with.

Event studies from a commercial point of view has been increasing in popularity for the last few decades. However, the history of events might almost extend until people started living in communities. When an evaluation is realised by emphasising the social dimension rather than stressing the business volume, it can be stated that most of the social interactions carried out for social purposes such as happiness, peace, remembrance, enjoyment, entertainment, beliefs, social ceremonies, religious gatherings, etc. are within the categorisation of traditional and broad event classification.

Another concept to define the term “event” is ritual. Let`s clarify that rituals are the authentic and original style of indigenously celebrating or remembering an occasion by the members of the community. The first examples of such celebrations can be described as harvest festivals in primitive agricultural societies. Primitive agrarian societies have implemented a wide range of harvest festivals, as they can get a decent crop at the end of their labour for the whole year.

Events are activities that occur as a result of people acting together to meet social or individual needs, to reach a common goal as a group or organisation in the cases where individual success cannot be achieved, to share a common feeling or idea, to become a social entity in social life. In spite of their religious and cultural differences, every society has been organising events such as a mourning or baptism ceremony, funerals, religious festivals, Thanksgiving, Easter and Christmas that dominantly have a sense of belonging to a community. Likewise, Mecca, where the religion of Islam and the prophet Muhammad were born and lived, was an important trading centre on the Yemen-Syria route, the main trade route of the Arabian Peninsula. The large trade fairs that were established in the months when pilgrimage and war were forbidden were very lively both economically and socially. One of the most famous among these fairs, which were also international, was the Ukaz Fair. Ukaz was a great fair in which various trades of diverse nations participated. Here, not only shopping was realised, but also agreements were made between the nations, some disputes came to a solution.

In addition, this fair had the function of a literature congress. The poets used poetry to challenge each other, and the most popular poems were hung on the Kaaba wall (Avci and Idris 2017). Such events are regarded as reinforcing and unifying forces of cultures and religions. The fact that those who participate in the event have common feelings, thoughts and needs makes the event more meaningful and significant.

Events

The term event comes from the Latin word e-venire, which means "outcome" (Goldblatt 2013). The dictionary defines events as "something that occurs in a certain place during a particular interval of time" (http://www.dictionary.com/browse/event?s=t).

Events and event-based tourism are not new ideas. Through the lens of history, we find that the belief of moving from one place to others to attend at festivities and celebrations has been a common practice since ancient times, remaining deeply embedded within social, cultural and religious traditions and customs, as well as economic and community tasks and activities (Page and Connell 2012). Getz (2007:18) defines an event as "an occurrence at a given place and time; a special set of circumstances; a noteworthy occurrence."

Although there are many definitions of the term "event" (Getz 1991; Getz 1989; Jago and Shaw 1998; Arcodia and Robb 2000), one is commonly used and has been proposed by Getz (1989). According to this definition, an event is a celebration or theme exhibition in which people are invited only once or less frequently annually for a limited time. Another definition of "event" proposed by Jago and Shaw (1998) emphasises that it occurs once or rarely, lasting for a limited period of time, and offering leisure opportunities and socialisation opportunities for consumers beyond their daily experiences.

A useful typology, based on the distinct form of events, consists of the following: festivals and other cultural celebrations; arts and entertainment; religious, including pilgrimages; fairs and exhibitions (or expositions, including trade and consumer shows); meetings and conferences (or congresses, conventions); sports and other athletic competitions/games; recreational; private events (or "functions" for the hospitality industry); state and political; and educational/scientific events (Getz 2012).

Events might be considered as a motive where audiences desire to participate. The potential participation of audiences may have positive and negative impacts and outcomes for residents, participants and destinations.

Event Tourism

The economic processes imposed by the new century with the transformations imposed by globalisation have accelerated the competition among organisations. In such circumstances, the success of communities and organisations depends upon changing in accordance with these processes. Organisations that have not been designed according to the appropriate competitiveness principles are destined to retreat and disappear in the threshold of time. The tourism industry is also receiving this share of the competition worldwide with 1.235 million tourists recorded in 2016 (http://www.unwto.org).

Countries and destinations are at least trying to maintain their positions in the tourism pie by using various organisational models, strategies, products, sales and marketing methods, as well as making efforts for enlarging the slices they get. Events that are an important motivator for tourism are also part of these efforts and they are clearly visible in development and marketing plans of both reputed and emerging destinations. Even though the local and regional events organised in Turkey have been generally narrow in scope and mostly run by local and regional organisations, their importance in terms of tourism has recently been increased. Events have been regarded as social and cultural phenomena which create tourism attractions. One of the most important factors that provides a competitive advantage in tourism is the culture and its heritages that create difference and authenticity. In Turkey's geography, which hosts many artefacts that reflect Anatolian cultures from a historical perspective, tourism strategies based on only this concrete cultural heritage have become inadequate. For this reason, products or services that can capture the tourism experience and its uniqueness through the visit to the destination should be based on the genuine culture itself. The first 7 councils held on the territory of Turkey today, taken as an example in the following section, can be given as an example to promote in terms of event history.

In this context, promoting and marketing the attractions of the destination, region or country as separated products possessing their own appeal has become a frequently used practice. The role of planned events in tourism and their impacts on tourism have been documented for years and these events have become increasingly prevalent in destination competitiveness. However, the concept of event tourism emerges as a field of study for the tourism industry and researchers roughly about thirty years ago. It is surprisingly noteworthy that events being as old as human history have only been dealt with in the past few decades.

The role and responsibilities of the state, as well as the private sector and society, have changed considerably over the past two decades in relation to tourism and events. It has come to a point where the state is forced to rediscover itself by giving up its key role in the development and promotion of tourism; to put this in other terms, the national government endorses its ongoing traditional activities and responsibilities, in favour of local authorities. Along with this situation, events, which increasingly affect the host population and stakeholders, result in positive and negative effects for local community, which often are related with social, cultural, physical, environmental, political and economic factors.

Events can be considered both as the main reason for the destination selection process according to their size and content and in some cases as an additional attraction. Events based on the potential of tourism can not only help the basic attractions but also have image creation or support functions. Tourists would like to participate in planned events and at the same time to be acquainted with the destination. For this reason, events contribute to the promotion of touristic destinations and are of great importance in destination marketing (Getz 2008).

Event tourism has become one of the most important sources of tourism industry among the types of special interest tourism in recent years (Crompton and McKay 1997; Arcodia and Robb 2000). The attractiveness of the events is owing to the unique experiences offered to the individuals by providing opportunities that do not exist in their daily lives (Getz 1991). The fact that the event takes place within a limited time contributes to this uniqueness. Depending on the event, there are examples of opportunities to participate most probably once in a lifetime (World Cup, Olympics, etc.). For this reason, unlike certain tourist attractions that exist during the tourism season in the destination, events rarely occur. This situation makes it unique or special to participate in the eyes of those who have experienced the opportunity to participate.

One of the most widespread phenomena in contemporary tourism applications is the organisation of events and their management. Event management is a rapidly growing business area where the tourism industry has become a vital stakeholder in its success and attractiveness. Moreover, visitors have created concurrently a possible market for planned events. However, the fact is that not all events need to be tourism-focused. It is important not to lose the sight of there are many functions that events can realise, from forming a community to urban renewal, from cultural development to reinforcing national identities. Tourism is not the only aspect or partner of events (Getz 2008). The notion of event tourism is emerging at the intersection of the arrangements and activities of tourism and activities of event management including tourism.

Each event carries a great deal of effort itself because the event expresses the harmony among planners, participants and the system which provides the communication between these two groups. No events resemble each other and each event brings different experiences to its participants. Visiting the destination in which the event takes place, sharing that environment and telling other people about the experiences are significant factors affecting tourists' decisions to visit. The inability to participate in the event is considered as an opportunity missed by potential tourists (Getz 2008).

Event participation demands of the people who continue their lives as organised in various forms within society are increasing. The main reasons for the rise in demand are the extension of human life, technological improvements, an increase in disposable income and the importance of the concept of time (Goldblatt 2000).

Event tourism has become a powerful tourist demand generator in recent years providing a significant contribution to tourism, travel, leisure and accommodation industries. It is also a means of achieving various economic, social and environmental targets by providing benefits for communities and destinations. Due to the increasing competition between destinations, event organisation and development has become a growing sector (Karagoz 2006). Destinations compete with each other at regional, national and international levels to attract tourists who will increase the occupancy rates of museums, stadiums and hotels and raise the expenditures realised in the destination. Competitive advantage lies more in the attractiveness of the regions or cities perceived by tourists rather than the practices related to labour and tax incentives as economic precautions (Arcodia and Robb 2000).

The most important aspect of the relationship between tourism and events is the potential to transfer the image associated with the events to the destination, thereby the potential of events for supporting, empowering and changing the destination brand. This transfer is also very considerable in the stimulation of natural and physical attractiveness of the destination (Jago et al. 2002).

Event tourism includes sports events, artistic, cultural and scientific events. Systematic planning, development and marketing of events identified as tourism attractions that revitalise the natural/physical tourism resources found in destinations and that create image are defined as event tourism (Karagoz 2006).

Getz (1991), Jago and Shaw (1998) list the main features of the events as follows:

- Limited duration
- Organised once or infrequently
- Being extraordinary (other than daily life)
- Open to the public
- Congratulations on a specific theme or demonstration
- Not having a fixed structure (building, facility, etc.) (except sporting events)
- Hosting many activities separately in their programs
- Performing all activities in the same areas in general.

Some types of events are outside this framework. Fairs, sports, arts and business events are constantly taking place. Examples include sports events such as conferences, congresses and motor sports competitions, which are events that take place more than once a year, such as art exhibitions, for business purposes (Karagoz 2006).

In addition, the events not only serve to attract tourists to a destination, but also help to protect and develop the social identity there. Many societies and institutions are interested in events for their contributions to economic, cultural and environmental integration. Events create a reason to extend the length of stay in a destination, while at the same time keeping local travellers in the area (Derrett 2004).

Seasonality is one of the most important problems of the tourism industry. Events reduce the effect of seasonality and can make significant gains by using off-season natural attractions. In many destinations local residents perform celebrations in low season. This leads to more authentic events taking place. Moreover, thanks to event tourism, it is possible to spread the concentration to the less known regions within the country (Bowdin et al. 2006). To sum up, the benefits provided by event tourism are listed as follows (Karagoz 2006):

- Extending tourism season
- Diversifying tourism products
- Distributing tourism demand to different destinations
- Creating new revenue sources in the region
- Increasing the attractiveness of and recognition of destinations
- Being a motivating factor for the creation of new infrastructures and services or for the development of existing services and infrastructures
- Attracting media attention to the destination
- Contributing to the brand value of the destination by creating an effective image and cultural themes
- Promoting previous arrivals to create revisit intentions

Getz (1997) determined two different meanings to be based on management and market segments of tourism. At first, it is expressed that the events are planned, developed and marketed in a systematic way as a tourist attraction, an accelerator for other developments (infrastructure etc.), and an image creator within the scope of the destination. In the second definition, a market segment consisting of people with the potential to travel for events or participate in events when they are away from home is pointed out.

Footprints of Events in Anatolia, Turkey

The city of Iznik, called Nikaia or Nicaea in ancient times, is located in northwest Anatolia, Turkey. Nicaea is renowned especially for the first Council of Nicaea convened by the Roman emperor Constantine in AD 325 in an attempt to unify the Church. A fresco depicting the council of Nicaea can be seen in Figure 7-1. According to Sewell (1860, 332):

> A summons was issued to the bishops and clergy in all parts of the Christian world, commanding them to meet together in council and decide as to the truth or falsehood of the Arian doctrine. The place appointed for the assembly was Nice, the metropolis of Bithynia, and in the same province with Nicomedia, where Constantine then kept his court. Nice was a large city, remarkable for its handsome and regular buildings; it was situated on the bank of Ascanian Lake, and surrounded by an open, pleasant, and fertile country.

Fig. 7-1: 16th-Century Fresco Depicting the Council of Nicaea.
Source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/First_Council_of_Nicaea#/media/File:Nicea.jpg

The council of bishops met in Nicaea, which is situated in the northwest of Turkey, in the spring of the year 325 and provides wonderful opportunities for any historian concerned with the human situation. Later generations referred to it as the first ecumenical council of the Christian church. They revered its decisions and regarded them as permanently valid. Many churches still say or sing the Nicene Creed. More historically, it marks the end of early church history and the dawning of the Middle Ages (Grant 1975).

It would be true to say that on the one hand the first seven councils remained in the background, as a firm pillar one might say, and indeed enjoyed a clear priority in the later councils; on the other hand, explicit references to them were relatively rare (Tanner 1997). The legislation was intended primarily for the churches of the East but it became the first code—the template—of canon law for the universal Church. It covered a wide range of issues concerning both laity and clergy: conditions for ordination, morals and status of clergy; hierarchy among bishops; baptism and Eucharist; reconciliation through various forms of penance; holding of regular local councils; deaconesses; posture in prayer (Tanner 2011). It is interesting to note that not only did Constantine fund the council, but also sponsored the bishops and their entourage for their journey and stay in Nicaea (Freeman 2003). The list of ecumenical and general councils can be seen in Table 7-1.

Table 7-1: List of Ecumenical and General Councils

*Early Church**	*Middle Ages*	*Modern Era*
Nicaea I (325)	Lateran I (1123)	Trent (1545–63)
Constantinople I (381)	Lateran II (1139)	Vatican I (1869–70)
Ephesus (431)	Lateran III (1179)	Vatican II (1962–65)
Chalcedon (451)	Lateran IV (1215)	
Constantinople II (553)	Lyons I (1245)	
Constantinople III (680)	Lyons II (1274)	
Nicaea III (787)	Vienne (1311–12)	
	Constance (1414–18)	
*All of the seven early ecumenical (worldwide)	Basel-Florence (1431–45)	
	Lateran V (1512–17)	

councils held in today's Turkey		

Source: Tanner, N. 2011. *The Church in Council Conciliar Movements. Religious Practice and the Papacy from Nicaea to Vatican II.* Great Britain: I.B. Tauris.

It is interesting to underline some aspects of the 1st Nicaea council in view of such information in terms of events. It is a worldwide (ecumenical) meeting of bishops similar to contemporary international events but it is exciting to keep in mind that the date is 325 AD. The council was convoked and sponsored by Roman emperor Constantine. There were over 250 participants according to historical sources and participants provided funds for participating in the meeting. The Emperor was the chairman of the meeting and the meeting took 3 months with several sessions. At the end of the meeting participants signed a document called creed (canon). Later that creed became the first code—the template—of canon law for the universal Church.

As an example of events that are as old as human history, the first 7 councils that are held in today's Turkish land might be given. These first councils organised in 325, are important events in terms of Christianity, especially in the context of the participants being invited, supported and accommodated in an organised way. As an instance of the initial steps of event tourism, these councils can be seen as planned events organised in such an early time period of history in Turkey.

Event Variety and Event Cases in Turkey

From camel wrestling to Anatolian dance festivals, Turkey possesses a wide variety of fascinating folkloric traditions. Turkey hosts classical and modern festivities, drawing classical stars and popular acts. One of the traditional festivals is the Camel Wrestling Festival staged annually in Selçuk in January. In June, citizens flock to the Kirkpinar Oil Wrestling Tournament in Edirne, featuring a uniquely Anatolian sport where greased and slippery athletes in villages across the country vie for the title of last man standing.

Festivals commemorating the world religions abound all over the country. The Eastern Orthodox Easter Sunday is celebrated in Christian enclaves throughout Turkey, with Patriarch Bartholomew I offering prayers by candlelight in Istanbul's Ecumenical Patriarchate. August marks the Assumption of the Virgin Mary, and every year, a mass is held at the House of the Virgin Mary at Ephesus, led by the Archbishop of Izmir. St. Nicholas, more commonly known as Santa Claus, is honoured in December in a festival held in the canonised Bishop's adopted town of Myra, in the town of Demre/Kale on Turkey's Mediterranean Coast. Also in December, spiritual seekers of all denominations descend upon Konya to join in the celebration of the Muslim mystic, Rumi, in a massive festival of the Whirling Dervishes.

Since 1963, the annual Antalya Golden Orange Film Festival has recognised Turkish cinema and is now considered the most important film festival in the country, with the prestigious Golden Orange Feature Film Award becoming known as the "Turkish Oscar." The increasing number of world-class music festivals are even more enticing in Turkey since most or all of the performances take place in archaeological or historic settings. Spring marks the International Music Festival, Ankara, with contemporary artists playing classical, traditional and folk music from all over the world (http://www.tourismturkey.org/experience/festivals-and-events).

The Festival of Culture and Art in Selçuk in May is a local celebration that takes advantage of the Great Theatre at Ephesus as a venue for some of the concerts and theatrical presentations. Similarly, from June to July the International Izmir Festival features performances by renowned international ensembles on stages like that at the Celsus Library at Ephesus, in Ephesus's Great Theatre, or in other ancient amphitheatres. As part of the International Istanbul Music Festival, performers representing the classical, opera and ballet world present their artistry in evocative settings like the Hagia Irene in Topkapi Palace, atop the ramparts of Rumeli Hisari, or on the intimate stage at the Art Deco inspired Süreyya Opera House.

One of the most splendid of Turkey's festivals, the Aspendos Opera and Ballet Festival, takes place in the Province of Antalya, in the ancient site of Aspendos. Soloists, orchestras and ensembles join with their audiences in the sentiment of having experienced the wonder of music beneath the stars in the best-preserved theatre of antiquity. The sounds of New Orleans echo throughout Istanbul in July, when the International Jazz Festival attracts a star-studded collection. In early autumn, the Akbank Jazz Festival brings the traditional and Avant Garde to Istanbul, Ankara and Izmir. Then from November through early December, icons of America's Deep South appear in cities around the country as part of the Efes Pilsen Blues Festival.

International and local talent can be found in Bodrum in August, participating in Bodrum's International Ballet Festival in St. Peter's Castle, in a restored Byzantine chapel as part of Gümüslük's International Classical Music Festival, or at Yalikavak's Aegean Festival of food and folklore. One of the world's most prestigious art events occurs every other year with the International Istanbul Biennial. This months-long event mounts exhibitions of contemporary art in antique customs depots, ancient cathedrals, and at leading museums and galleries around the city. One of the more spectacular displays appears during Istanbul's Tulip Festival, a springtime celebration of blossoms choreographed into mini-concerts of colour and light (http://www.tourismturkey.org/experience/festivals-and-events).

At any time of the year, Turkey hosts a diverse and unique experience of art, music, culture and folklore. Some leading examples of events are given in Table 7-2.

Table 7-2: Leading Examples of Events in Turkey

Some of the best music festivals in Turkey
SunSplash Open Air Antalya Music Festival
Rock'n Coke Music Festival
Istanbul International Music Festival
Efes Pilsen Blues Festival
Mersin International Music Festival
Istanbul International Jazz Festival
Chill Out Music Festival Istanbul
Konya International Mystic Music Festival
Izmir International European Jazz Festival
Istanbul One Love Festival
Gumusluk International Classical Music Festival
Ankara International Music Festival
Ankara International Jazz Festival
Antalya International Piano Festival
Some of the major art and culture festivals in Turkey;
Antalya International Film Festival
Istanbul International Film Festival
Aspendos International Opera and Ballet Festival
Istanbul International Theatre Festival
Istanbul International Opera Festival
Izmir International Film Festival
Izmir International Short Film Festival
Antalya State Opera and Ballet Festival
Antalya International Choir Festival
Antalya International Folk Music and Dance Festival
Mevlana Whirling Dervishes Festival
Bodrum International Ballet Festival
International Istanbul Biennial Festival
Some of the best lifestyle events in Turkey;
Izmir International Fair
Istanbul Coffee Festival
Istanbul Shopping Festival
Ankara Shopping Festival
Istanbul Design Week
Istanbul Fashion Week
Istanbul International Gastronomy Festival
Istanbul International Puppet Festival
Istanbul Boat Show
Bodrum International Yacht Show

Izmir International Puppetry Festival
Urgup International Wine Festival
Some of the most exciting sport events in Turkey;
Turkish Airlines Euroleague Basketball
Presidential Cycling Tour of Turkey
Kirkpinar Oil Wrestling Championships
Bosphorus Cross Continental Swimming Race
TEB BNP Paribas Istanbul Cup
Istanbul Marathon
Extreme Sailing Series
PWA World Windsurf Competitions
Gallipoli Marathon
CEV Women's Volleyball Champions League
Top 5 traditional festivals in Turkey;
Mevlana Whirling Dervishes Festival
Mesir Paste Festival
Kirkpinar Oil Wrestling Festival
Camel Wrestling Festival
Ahirkapi Hidirellez Festival

Source: http://www.tourismturkey.org/experience/festivals-and-events.

As summarised in Table 7-3, research featured in Turkey and published in Turkish academic journals and Master or PhD dissertations (between 2005-2017) compose the list. Examples in numbers might be increased but authors would like to give some of them which have easy accessibility online. Principally 9 studies dealt with the impacts of events as a leading topic and the first runner up with three studies is classification and conceptualisation about the term. The other topics are followed as 1 success components, 1 digitalisation and social media, 1 consumer satisfaction, 1 locals' perception.

Table 7-3: Summary of Recent Event Study Examples in Tourism Literature in Turkey (2005-2017)

Author(s)	*Topic*	*Content/Data Collection*
Yildiz and Polat (2016)	Local people's perceptions towards festivals	Dimensions of urban pride, socio-economic, cultural and negative effects.
Giritlioglu et al. (2015)	Segmentation of festivals	Secondary data in municipality activity reports, 1254 festivals
Can (2015)	The relation among leisure time, recreation and event tourism	Suggestions for successful event planning in terms of concepts given
Timur et al. (2014)	Event tourism: an evaluation on success components	Success components required for the capitals of culture
Akay (2014)	Creative competition in event management practices	Digital based practices, integration to social media
Ozer and Cavusoglu (2014)	The effect of local events to rural tourism	Semi-structured interviews for defining the effect of local events to rural tourism
Kucuk (2013)	Contribution of festivals to local development	Outsiders benefit rather than local traders

Kisioglu and Selvi (2013)	The impact of local events on destination image	Questionnaire and a semi-constructed interview about image
Komurcu (2013)	Festivals as a type of event tourism	Positive effects on the promotion of Bozcaada and several economic, socio-cultural and environmental effects
Bilgili, Yağmur, and Yazarkan (2012)	Efficiency and productivity of festivals	Expectations of consumers and their satisfaction levels regarding the festival
Eryilmaz and Cengiz (2012)	The economic impacts of mega-events	The amount and distribution of the visitors' expenditure
Ekin (2011)	Festivals, event tourism and social impacts	Six social impact dimensions and five distinct clusters possessing diverse perceptions were identified
Uygur and Celik (2010)	Perceived socioeconomic impacts of event tourism	Four factors of perceived socio-economic impacts are determined
Celik (2009)	Event tourism and perceived impacts as a destination marketing element	Impacts are named as socio-economic; community cohesiveness, economic benefits, social incentives and social costs
Kizilirmak (2006)	Special local events for future usage	Classification of 1188 special local events identified by the Ministry of Tourism
Karagoz (2006)	Event tourism and economic impacts of foreign visitors' expenditures	Measurement of direct, indirect and induced economic effects of visitors' expenditures during Formula One events

Prepared by the authors

Conclusion

There are various classifications of events in terms of size, content, impact, participants, organisers etc. Whatever the classification is, events—inherently born thanks to the ancient time unions, celebrations and rituals of mankind—maintain and make progress in terms of both socioeconomic and other impacts. This relationship is intrinsically multidisciplinary itself. Additionally, when events and tourism activities intersect there exists much more complexity about being multidisciplinary. Therefore, this subject with a wide variety of multifaceted relationships has a lot of niche parts to investigate when it is dealt with using the available practices and proposed projects. Historical bases and some leading examples about this subject are given in this chapter to introduce Turkey's potential within this industry, and to consider both the two thousand years of experience in the past and the contemporary implications of such instances. The resources and experiences indicate a wealth and variety in the case of event tourism. However, as a tangible output, there is no serious and countrywide study to determine the inventory of such resources and potentials with regard to the classifications realised in event and tourism literature. For this reason, as a small-scale assessment of the examples and history of events in Turkey, this study was prepared to be a basic starting point for this goal.

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PART III

EVENTS AND EDUCATION

CHAPTER EIGHT

UK FESTIVALS AND SUSTAINABILITY: WHAT TO LEARN FROM LOVE SAVES THE DAY FESTIVAL?

ERYN WHITE

The number of festivals held each year is continuously increasing (Karlsen 2009; Jones 2012; Gelder and Robinson 2009), consequently causing multiple pressures on the natural environment (Yeoman et al. 2004). This gives rise to issues relating to environmental impacts (Yuan 2013) and sustainability and how such events should be managed (Gration et al. 2011). Most current research focuses on the economic (Thrane 2002; Pegg and Patterson 2010), social and cultural aspects relating to festivals (Karlsen 2009), leaving a gap for studies into environmental impacts and sustainability issues (Mair and Laing 2012), with specific consideration given to UK music festivals. The research in this chapter aims to fill the gap, as Laing and Frost (2010) previously attempted to do, however their research focused more on the "greening" of events and necessary engagement of all stakeholders; this chapter will focus more on attitudes towards the impacts and measures in place.

An Overview of the UK Music Festival Industry – Focusing on Environmental Impacts and Sustainability Issues

Festivals are at the heart of the UK music industry (Webster and McKay 2016 [online]), forming a significant and integral segment of the events industry (Gelder and Robinson 2009). Exact yearly figures of UK music festivals are unclear; in 2012, published numbers stated there were 1,000 annually (eFestivals 2012 [online]), however, in 2015 published figures stated there were only 500 (Smirke 2015 [online]), despite research showing a continued increase in festival numbers (Karlsen 2009; Jones 2012; Gelder and Robinson 2009). With this in mind, it is already clear that there is a lack of standardisation where festivals are concerned, especially considering the classification of festival types; Webster and McKay (2016 [online]) agree, commenting on how defining what constitutes a "music festival" is complicated.

Unsurprisingly, considering the large number of yearly music festivals, there are approximately 3.17 million UK music festival-goers annually (Powerful Thinking 2015 [online]), with the largest festivals in the UK, such as Glastonbury, admitting over 100,000 festival-goers every year alone (Gelder and Robinson 2009). The resulting environmental impacts are profound and concerning (Henderson and Musgrave 2014). Annually, 23,500 tonnes of waste are generated from the UK music festival industry, 5 million litres of fuel are consumed, 19,778 tonnes of CO_2 are produced (excluding travel), and recycling rates are lower than 32% (Powerful Thinking 2015 [online]). These figures are pretty startling alone, but worse, it was reported that 90% of attendees believe it is the festival organiser's responsibility to minimise environmental impacts (A Greener Festival 2012 [online]); conversely, it is recognised by industry professionals that these impacts are beyond the control of the event organiser (Patterson and Ward 2011). This could lead to the understanding that festival attendees do not necessarily know the impact they personally have at festivals, or how to reduce it and be more sustainable, thus laying the blame on the festival organiser.

Yeoman et al. (2004) state that there are often unintended and unplanned effects of festivals, especially on the environment, often including, but not limited to, traffic congestion and an increase in litter (Mair and Laing 2012); they add that these clearly negative impacts are likely to be played down by the organisers and local politicians (a form of "greenwashing" as previously mentioned). Many festivals, such as Glastonbury Festival (2016 [online]) and the Sunrise Celebration (2016 [online]) already pride themselves on being at the forefront of "green festival" initiatives, but there is a long way to go to get all music festivals thinking the same way. Webster and McKay (2016 [online]) state that, in addition to the previously mentioned effects, there are direct environmental impacts on local flora and fauna (Bonimy 2011), such as disruption to feeding patterns. Herein lies the problem; it could be said that sustainability and environmental impacts are a large, if somewhat overlooked issue, surrounding UK music festivals, which are frequently down-played by those who gain financially from them (Assante, Wen, and Lottig 2012). Moreover, Patterson and Ward (2011) report on the lack of knowledge and confidence officials have pertaining to sustainability legislation, suggesting this issue has filtered down from the top.

A Setting for Research – Love Saves the Day

The Love Saves the Day festival in Bristol is a weekend-long, camp-free festival, who are pushing for greener initiatives every year (A Greener Festival 2015 [online]), including; a big focus on recycling, reusable cups, efficient energy management, ethical procurement policies and alternative transport methods (Energy Revolution 2015 [online]). Additionally, as part of the Association for Independent Festivals, AIF (2016 [online]), Love Saves the Day have pledged to achieve a 50% reduction in greenhouse-gas emissions related to the festival by 2025, showing their vision for continued and improved sustainability policies and reduced environmental impacts. 2015 saw the introduction of the "Love Bus"; a green initiative to reduce environmental impacts with a shuttle-bus, cutting down on carbon emissions and complimenting their eco-power initiative (Ashcroft 2015 [online]). Continuing to add to their sustainable measures, the festival also switched to re-usable cups for 2015, aiming to save over 360,000 from heading to landfill over the following 3 years; the first sustainable measure of its kind in Bristol (A Greener Festival 2015 [online]).

Due to their ethos surrounding sustainability and environmental impacts, the festival organisers were contacted with a research proposal, subsequently agreeing to allow this research to be based around their festival. Having adopted acceptable sustainability measures (as discussed by Laing and Frost 2010) to reduce environmental impacts, with more in the pipe-line (A Greener Festival 2015 [online]), this festival was ideal for conducting primary research into attendees' perceptions and linking them to the festival's facts. By identifying the current environmental impacts and sustainability measures in place at Love Saves the Day, specific questions were generated and directed towards attendees, potentially finding areas that can be improved upon. This allowed not only for attendees' attitudes to be assessed, but also for their knowledge of general and specific impacts to be analysed, all at one of the biggest festivals in Bristol (Bristol 2015 [online]).

Literature Review

This literature review aims to first look at existing research into environmental impacts and sustainability at festivals, focusing specifically on UK music festivals, as well as how environmental impacts are generally measured. Following this, perceptions of the impacts caused by festivals are considered, with focus on attendees' attitudes, as well as acknowledging the current gap between knowledge and action.

Environmental Impacts and Sustainability at Festivals

In order to fully understand the meaning of sustainability, a statement was taken that best addressed this view; "the consumption of materials, in such a way that enables that consumption to continue forever without depleting a store or the status quo of the resources" (Franz 1998, 456). Thus, when applied here, sustainability relates to the continuation of UK music festivals, the use of materials and resources in a way that does not exceed those available and the re-use of current materials and resources, so as to not disrupt the status quo. Environmental impacts can easily be defined as "the effect that the activities of people and businesses have on the environment" (Cambridge Dictionaries 2016 [online]) and in this chapter, refers to the impacts attendees have as individuals and the impacts the festivals have independently and as a whole.

It is apparent that festival organisers are already making an effort to reduce environmental impacts caused by their events, through the creation of acceptable sustainability strategies and agendas (Gration et al. 2011; Assante, Wen, and Lottig 2012). However, Hickman (2011 [online]) questions whether they are really doing enough, especially considering the substantial environmental costs typically attributed to holding events (Jones 2008). Jones (2012) comments on how the festival industry will face challenges in the future to cut oil consumption and do more to combat climate change, in essence becoming more sustainable. Edwards (2010 [online]) adds that, whilst certain festivals promote themselves as green, their carbon footprint shows they are not, leading to the conclusion that organisers are either lying or altering results, showing they may not be as sustainable as they claim. Additionally, festivals are now labelling themselves as "green" if they have made an effort to reduce impacts and be more sustainable (Mair and Laing 2012), essentially "greenwashing" their festival (Jones 2012; Mair and Laing 2012; Laing and Frost 2010); there is evidence to suggest the cause is due to economic concern, or rather making the environmental impacts seem less than they are to gain more financially (Assante, Wen, and Lottig 2012). Webster and McKay (2016 [online]) add that this show of bias and reported "superiority" could be down to the need to position their festival favourably within the local and national markets, especially as government support is generally determined by predicted economic success and sustainability (Jones 2008).

With huge music festivals, such as Glastonbury, boasting that they recycled 49% of waste generated at their last festival (Hickman 2011 [online]), can they really be called "green"? It could be argued that 49% is, in fact, quite a low percentage, which can definitely be improved upon. Yeoman et al. (2004) believe that environmental consideration is incredibly important and that damage to the natural environment should be as small as possible, leading to an opportunity for education into sustainable practices. This is a notion shared by Amuquandoh (2010), as well as Lou and Deng (2008). However, it should be noted that historically, sustainability relates to the maximisation of what is available rather than environmental conservation (Gration et al. 2011).

Focusing on UK Music Festivals

There is relatively little research into environmental impacts and sustainability at festivals (Quinn 2006; Mair and Laing 2012), and even less focusing on those in the UK. A recent study by Bottrill, Liverman, and Boykoff (2010) focused on the greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions related to the UK music industry, reporting on the lack of research into the associated emissions of live music performances at festivals, which Bottrill et al. (2008 [online]) put down to the fragmented and not easily obtained data currently available. From the 500 licenced music festivals in 2007, Bottrill, Liverman, and Boykoff (2010) estimate the associated GHG emissions to be 84,000 tonnes of carbon dioxide equivalent (CO_{2e}) per year, although this does not account for international travel to the UK. Powerful Thinking (2015 [online]) created a report compiling all known UK research on the environmental impacts of festivals, finding that the UK music festival industry is responsible for 100 kilotonnes of CO_{2e} annually. This figure is not far off that estimated by Bottrill, Liverman, and Boykoff (2010), especially considering the studies were conducted 8 years apart; however, averaged out, there is a suggested mean increase of 2,000 tonnes of CO_{2e} every year.

Environmental impacts are not restricted to the carbon emissions of UK music festivals and, in fact, go far beyond this aspect; waste and energy are also factors that can negatively impact the environment (Getz 2009; Powerful Thinking 2015 [online]; Patterson & Ward 2011). Shockingly, it was estimated that 500,000 bin-bags of waste would be collected from Glastonbury Festival 2016, not including the 57 tonnes of reusable items and 1,022 tonnes of recycling (Denham 2016 [online]; Webb 2016 [online]). Energy consumption also throws up appalling figures; Glastonbury Festival uses the same amount of electricity over one weekend as the city of Bath in the same time period, over 30,000 megawatts, although they have tried to offset these figures by using solar-powered vehicles and biodiesel fuel in their generators, which produce 85% less carbon dioxide than regular diesel (Jackson 2013 [online]). When considering these figures, it is worth bearing in mind that, although very high, they are only representative of one festival and the figures for the entire UK would be much higher and the usage could differ dramatically between festivals (potentially those that are more "green" than their counterparts).

Perceptions of Festivals, Environmental Impacts and Sustainability Measures

A number of studies have been conducted, addressing one or all of these factors; Zhou and Ap (2009) researched primarily into residents' perceptions at a mega-event; Barber, Kim and Barth (2014) looked at environmental impacts and sustainability regarding recycling, also assessing attendees' perceptions on the topic; Gursoy, Spangenberg, and Rutherford (2006) researched attendees' perceptions of festivals and the impact their perceptions had on attendance. However, Kuvan and Akan (2005), who believe that studies into environmental impacts lag behind those in economic and social impacts (cited in Amuquandoh 2010, 224), have argued that studies into environmental impacts and the opinions and attitudes towards them are very limited, if not ignored, which is seconded by Zhou and Ap (2009). Gursoy, Spangenberg, and Rutherford (2006) add that there is extensive research into attendees' motivations, although research into attitudes towards festivals is relatively untouched. Research into environmental impacts relating to tourist consumption and more sustainable methods was conducted by Collins, Munday, and Roberts (2012) after they felt efforts to quantify environmental impacts had received little attention in other literature.

The main themes that can be derived from previous research strongly relate to attendees' perceptions of events and their impacts; essentially it appears that the more eco-conscious an individual, the more likely they are to perceive the negative side of an event and its impacts, and the opposite if the individual is not eco-conscious (Amuquandoh 2010). Barber, Kim, and Barth (2014) note that attendees who are more aware of the environmental consequences of an event are more likely to contribute personally to help reduce impacts. Polonsky et al. (2012) had similar findings; the more knowledgeable people are on specific issues, the more positive their attitude will be towards acting pro-environmentally (i.e. purchasing green products). Additionally, Barr and Gilg (2007) found that attitudes towards environmental action and how likely individuals were to utilise sustainable measures were largely down to their everyday lifestyles, suggesting that even with all the sustainable measures in place at the Love Saves the Day festival, if individuals do not reduce their impacts in everyday life, they may not at the festival either.

Filling the Gap between Knowledge and Action

It is widely suggested that an increase in knowledge/better education on sustainability and environmental impacts would be beneficial and increase the number of people that carry out sustainable measures (Jones 2012; Amuquandoh 2010; Barber, Kim, and Barth 2014; Franz 1998; McCarty and Shrum 2001, cited in Barber, Kim, and Barth 2014). However, Barr and Gilg (2007) as well as Getz (2009) take this a step further, suggesting a new policy for sustainable and responsible festivals needs to be institutionalised. Additionally, this "gap" may be due to a lack of consideration of festival-goers' perceptions on the issues, which Gration et al. (2011) and Gursoy, Spangenberg, and Rutherford (2006) believe are of great importance in understanding and combatting the underlying problems.

In contrast, Heeren et al. (2016) believe it is a common misconception that acting unsustainably is due to a lack of knowledge in the area. Kollmuss and Agyeman (2010) agree, stating that research shows, in most cases, increased knowledge and awareness does not in fact lead to pro-environmental behaviour, and yet many organisations still base their campaigns to rally such behaviour on this simplistic assumption. The "gap" between knowledge and action here is based on discrepancies between attitudes and behaviour; attitudes being based on knowledge and behaviour relating to action (Kollmuss and Agyeman 2010), suggesting that individuals' attitudes do not always relate to their behaviour. For example, having a positive attitude towards recycling and good knowledge in the area does not mean that the individual will actually put this into action and recycle themselves. However, Gursoy, Spangenberg, and Rutherford (2006) state that attitudes are a direct predictor for behaviour.

Additionally, Kollmuss and Agyeman (2010) comment on the difficulty of designing valid research that measures and compares attitudes and behaviour, although this can be overcome by measuring attitudes to a particular behaviour. This study has high influence when considering the research design in this paper; questions on attitudes have been linked directly to a behaviour, such as "recycling behaviours" and "waste reduction behaviours", rather than taking a general look at attendees' attitudes.

Findings and Analysis

From the 500 questionnaires administered at Love Saves the Day, there were 396 sets of useable data (79.2% of those administered); questionnaires that were incomplete or gave false answers (for example, those that ticked the same box the whole way down) were disregarded and considered unusable, as per the advice of Gray (2014).

Questionnaire Results and Analysis–Descriptive Statistics

From the 396 sets of useable data, 159 (40.2%) respondents were male and 237 (59.8%) were female (similar in dispersion to the data collected by Barber, Kim, and Barth 2014); a total of 338 were aged between 18-34 (85.4%) with the remaining 58 respondents being either under 18 or 35+; education levels varied, with the majority of respondents being either A-level educated (104; 26.3%) or having a University Degree (172; 43.3%). A comprehensive set of percentages can be seen in the frequency tables for respondents' ages (Table 8-1) and for their highest level of education (Table 8-2).

Table 8-1: Age of Attendees; Frequency Table

	Frequency	Percent
Under 18	10	2.5
18-24	199	50.3
25-34	139	35.1
35-44	33	8.3
45+	15	3.8
Total	396	100.0

Table 8-2: Attendees' Highest Level of Education; Frequency Table

	Frequency	Percent
GCSE or GCSE Equivalent	31	7.8
NVQ or Equivalent	50	12.6
A-Level	104	26.3
University Degree	172	43.4
Masters or Equivalent	31	7.8
Doctorate	8	2.0
Total	396	100.0

Attendees' attitudes were measured through their agreement/disagreement with specific statements, which related to a positive or negative attitude towards that statement. Those that responded with "neither agree nor disagree" were disregarded and not taken into account for the calculations, as these responses could not be seen as either positive or negative. To summarise the key findings; overall, 56.7% of respondents at Love Saves the Day had a positive attitude towards sustainability measures and environmental impacts, compared to 22.1% who had a negative attitude. Although the majority of attendees displayed a positive attitude, it could be said that 56.7% is quite a low percentage. That being said, the fact that attendees display positive attitudes is encouraging, especially when Passafaro et al. (2015) found that positive attitudes predict more sustainable choices, and potentially an active reduction of environmental impacts.

When broken down into sub-categories attitudes could be measured against (as advised by Kollmuss and Agyeman 2010), the percentages changed somewhat; a breakdown can be viewed in Table 8-3. Most noticeably, positive attitudes towards everyday recycling displayed the highest percentage, and equally the lowest percentage of negative attitudes. This finding is unsurprising when recycling has been found to gain the most active support, in the home and at events (Barr, Gilg, and Ford 2001; Barr and Gilg 2007; Barber, Kim, and Barth 2014).

Table 8-3: Summary of Attitude Averages towards Specific Categories

	Average (mean) Positive Attitude	Average (mean) Negative Attitude
Overall	56.7	22.1
Everyday Wastage	53.6	23.6
Festival Wastage	51	27.9
Everyday Recycling	66.2	16.6
Festival Recycling	59.4	21.6
Everyday Environmental Impacts	55.1	23.6
Festival Environmental Impacts	41.5	29.6
Pro-environmental Behaviour	61.3	20.3

Changing focus from attitudes, attendees' knowledge towards specific environmental impacts and sustainability measures, at both Love Saves the Day and in general, was gauged using a yes or no response to a range of factual statements; in most cases, the majority of respondents were unaware of the facts given to them. The areas that respondents had the most knowledge of were; Fairtrade product use at Love Saves the Day (50.3% aware) and sustainable travel promotion at Love Saves the Day (53.5% aware). The areas respondents had the least knowledge of were; fuel consumption as a result of festivals (88.4% unaware) and Love Saves the Day measuring their carbon emissions every year (87.1% unaware).

These results show attendees have a clear lack of knowledge of environmental impacts and sustainability measures, not only at Love Saves the Day, but on general facts pertaining to the UK music festival industry. Unfortunately, there is too much data here to look into why there is a lack of knowledge in any detail, or whether knowledge of these impacts directly relates to attendees' attitudes. However, these findings support the notion that better education into sustainability and environmental impacts are required (Amuquandoh 2010; Lou and Deng 2008; Franklin and Blyton 2011; Jones 2012; Barber, Kim, and Barth 2014; Franz 1998), regardless of whether or not they lead to better attitudes towards the issues and more pro-environmental behaviour.

Questionnaire Results and Analysis–Bivariate Statistics

Using SPSS software, a range of statistical analyses were conducted; the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to determine if there was a significance between the dependant variable (attitude scores) and the independent variable (demographic information). Any Sig. value below 0.05 (5%) is statistically significant, with those having a Sig. value of 0.00 being of high significance (Gray 2014; Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill 2012); this was applied to the collected data.

The attitudes were analysed on an individual level (each individual behaviour/attitude) and collective level (the average of all attitude scores), against age, gender and highest level of education. A summary of the one-way ANOVA significant statements relating to education against attitudes can be seen in Table 8-6; there were 11 significant statements, some being of high significance, as they had a value lower than Sig. 0.00. The one-way ANOVA summary relating to age against attitudes can be seen in Table 8-7; there were 7 significant statements, 5 of which were of high significance as they were below the Sig. 0.00 value. The one-way ANOVA summary relating to gender against attitudes can be seen in Table 8-8; there were 8 significant statements either at or below the 5% mark.

Investigating the significant results in more detail, the one-way ANOVA showed that with attitudes compared to education, the highly significant statements included; making a conscious effort to reduce energy consumption at home, never leaving their tent behind at a festival, and considering that festivals are so short that the impacts must be low. The significance of these statements could be due to living in a "throw-away" society, resulting in a standardised lack of consideration of the environmental impacts, which will continue until individuals have been properly educated on the subject (Barr, Gilg, and Ford 2001). Level of education was also found to be significant by Amuquandoh (2010), who states that the higher an individual's education, the more positive they are about environmental impacts.

There were three highly significant statements of the one-way ANOVA relating to attitudes compared with age; only recycling when others are around, always trying to recycle at festivals, and being less likely to clean up their own waste if their friends haven't. These results have similarities to those of Barr, Gilg, and Ford (2001), who found that although people wanted to recycle, they were less likely to do so if they had to put in extra effort. Additionally, Tucker (1999) found that the social pressures of peers may result in individuals acting in a similar way to those around them, confirming that attendees are more likely to recycle and clear up their waste if their friends have. However, finding that there was no significance of average attitudes against age is inconsistent with the findings of Lou and Deng (2008), who reported that age was the only variable that affected attitudes in their study.

Table 8-6: Summary of One-Way ANOVA; Level of Education/ Individual or Average Attitudes

Statement	Sig.
"Recycling is vital for reducing environmental impacts"	.008
"Festivals should reduce waste through recycling"	.020
"Festivals should do more to reduce environmental impacts"	.024
"I am responsible for reducing my environmental impact"	.033
"I use my own bags when I go shopping"	.012

"I make a conscious effort to reduce energy consumption at home"	.001
"I wouldn't use public transport to get to festivals"	.016
"Festivals are so short that the environmental impacts must be low"	.004
"I would never leave my tent behind at a festival"	.003
"The more I know about environmental impacts, the more I want to help"	.018
"Better education on environmental impacts will lead to pro-environmental behaviour"	.011
Average of Attitudes	.170

Table 8-7: Summary of One-Way ANOVA; Age of Respondent/ Individual or Average Attitudes

Statement	Sig.
"I only generate a small amount of waste"	.025
"I try to always recycle when in my own home"	.037
"I only recycle when others are around me"	.002
"I try to always recycle my waste at festivals"	.005
"I support every effort festival organiser's make to reduce festival impacts"	.040
"I make every effort to clean up waste around my pitch at a festival"	.031
"I am less likely to clear up waste at festivals if my friends haven't"	.009
Average of Attitudes	.225

Table 8-8: Summary of One-Way ANOVA; Gender/ Individual or Average Attitudes

Statement	Sig.
"I try to always recycle when in my own home"	.010
"I only recycle when others are around me"	.023
"I try to always recycle my waste at festivals"	.050
"I use my own bags when I go shopping"	.001
"I re-use containers and jars rather than dispose of them"	.024
"I make a conscious effort to reduce energy consumption at home"	.042
"Festivals are so short that the environmental impacts must be low"	.047
"The more I know about environmental impacts, the more I want to help"	.006
Average of Attitudes	.408

Looking closer at the final highly significant statements, the one-way ANOVA analysing average attitudes with gender provided two main statements; using their own bags when going shopping and wanting to help with the environment the more that is known about it. The latter is similar to the findings of Barr, Gilg, and Ford (2001), who found women were more conscious of the environment and recycled more, however it contradicts the findings of Marks, Chandler, and Baldwin (2016) who found no significance between genders when it came to changing to more pro-environmental behaviours; although it cannot be said from this data whether males or females are more willing to help, there is obviously a clear divide between them. These findings also bring up the topic of requiring more education on sustainability and environmental impacts; Barr, Gilg, and Ford (2001) believe that better education would help, however these findings would suggest that it would only really encourage either males or females. Knowing there is a clear divide between genders is of great importance, as it means the way sustainability measures and reducing environmental impacts are taught needs to have a differentiated approach, confirming the findings of Jani and Philemon (2006) and Croes and Lee (2015).

Validation Interview Results and Analysis–Narrative Analysis

To validate the findings presented through the descriptive and bivariate statistics, an interview was conducted with an industry professional (IP). IP worked as the Procurement and Sustainability Manager for a company who specialise in festival and event production (Team Love 2017 [online]) between 2012-16, being part of the core production team for Love Saves the Day (LinkedIn 2017 [online]). However, they also have an impressive history working within the events industry on projects including; Glastonbury Festival, Shambala Festival and Boomtown Festival (LinkedIn 2017 [online]).

The main finding from the descriptive statistics was that, in general, attendees' attitudes towards environmental impacts and sustainability measures were positive. When presented with this information, IP commented they felt "reassured"; it shows that attendees are engaging with the information given to them on how to reduce environmental impacts, even if this engagement is much less than the attention other festival aspects receive. Giving consideration to the efforts of Love Saves the Day, IP believes "the fact that attitudes are positive would suggest that the measures we put in place are working and that our audience understands why we are doing them"; this is a possibility when Barr, Gilg, and Ford (2001) found that those who are better educated have more of an appreciation of reducing impacts and being more sustainable. However, when presented with the fact that, even though the majority of attendees displayed a positive attitude, this figure was only 56.7% of attendees, IP argued that more should be done to reach those attendees that are still displaying a negative attitude; this gives evidence to the opinion that 56.7% is in fact quite a low percentage.

Taking a closer look at attendees' attitudes, it was clear from the descriptive statistics that there were higher levels of positive attitudes towards everyday environmental impacts and sustainability measures, than those surrounding festivals (similar to the findings of Barr and Gilg 2007). IP feels these findings may be due to attendees' obliviousness of the considerable footprint most festivals incur, resulting in a lack of consideration and concern relating to the environmental impacts at festivals, and sustainability measures that have to be put in place. The findings also showed attendees at Love Saves the Day had little knowledge of the environmental impacts and sustainability measures facts and figures given to them, either specific to Love Saves the Day or UK music festivals in general; this would suggest that the cause for different attitudes between every day and festivals is due to a lack of education in the area.

Given there is such a clear lack of knowledge, changes should be made to better educate festival attendees. This could be difficult though, as IP believes this lack of knowledge could simply be down to a lack of interest in the area; "impacts and measures are likely to be of less interest to festival-goers than musical offerings and entertainment". To counteract this, IP feels that by adopting a strategic approach through integrated marketing communications, the information on festival impacts and sustainability measures could be fed to attendees over an extended period of time; online sources such as social media platforms would be a good way to reach attendees, whilst this communication should continue onsite. Any strategy would require sophistication, considered thought and a focus on long-term goals, according to Jones (2012), but an approach as suggested by IP could help increase attendees' knowledge without them even realising, as through the integrated approach, they would be met with the same information over and over; this repetition could help solidify the information in attendees' minds.

When provided with the results of the bivariate statistics, IP had some interesting thoughts on the highly significant statements that were found. Considering attitudes compared to education, the significant areas were; making a conscious effort to reduce energy consumption at home, never leaving tents behind at a festival, and considering that festivals are so short the impacts must be low. IP believes it might suggest that attendees' lack of understanding surrounding festivals is the cause, and as such, they should be better educated about the impacts of temporary events.

Finally, the last comment made by IP was relating to the significant statements found comparing attitudes and gender; using their own bags when going shopping and wanting to help with the environment the more that is known about it. IP believes that there may be some relation to the measures recently enforced in the UK to encourage shoppers to use their own bags, whilst wanting to do more to help the environment could be higher for those that know how to help or feel they have the power to do so. However, this does not account for the reason there is such a clear divide in these areas between males and females. Palan (2001) believes these findings are to be expected, as gender is a good predictor for explaining differences in attitudes, whilst Croes and Lee (2015) note that there is a clear difference between the behaviours of males and females. It is likely that females are the more environmentally conscious, as similar results were found by Barr, Gilg, and Ford (2001), however this view in literature is generally mixed (Croes and Lee 2015).

Conclusion and Recommendations

After reflecting on the descriptive and bivariate statistics, which were given substance through the narrative analysis, there were four key issues;

1. There is a clear lack of knowledge of environmental impacts and sustainability measures at UK music festivals.

2. There is a clear difference between attitudes of individuals when considering everyday or festival environmental impacts and sustainability measures.
3. There is indication that level of education has an impact on attitudes of festival attendees.
4. There is indication that gender has an impact on attitudes of festival attendees.

Similar results were found by Barr, Gilg, and Ford (2001), who found knowledge and gender had a large impact on behaviour towards sustainability measures. Although, they also note that educating people in the value of acting sustainability is not an issue; convincing people that this action is simple and convenient is the issue (Barr, Gilg, and Ford 2001). With music festivals being considered an arena for learning (Karlsen 2009), whilst holding considerable value in society that can be used to engage attendees with educational matter (Jones 2012), it could be concluded that, although there are negative impacts of UK music festivals, they can also be the catalyst for their own recovery. That being said, Jones (2012) warns that competing objectives could stop festival organisers from implementing these changes that would see increased sustainable action from attendees.

There is clearly room for increased sustainability measures, education, and an understanding into attendees' attitudes towards impacts, in order to address them successfully. Although this research has concluded there are more attendees with positive attitudes than negative, it is also clear that this percentage is lower than it could be, whilst having divides between different sustainable behaviours. Festival organisers actively want to educate attendees about sustainable practices (Mair and Laing 2012), although not all are confident with how to reach this goal, and some believe the government should take a more active role in helping organisers (Patterson and Ward 2011).

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CHAPTER NINE

FRAMING THE STUDENT, CLIENT AND TUTOR RELATIONSHIP: COLLABORATIVE PARTNERSHIPS IN EVENT MANAGEMENT EDUCATION

WENDY SEALY

The neo-liberal marketisation and the widening participation agenda of higher education have bought about a shift in paradigm regarding how university courses are designed and delivered in the UK. This narrative concerns the student, industry partner (client), and lecturer experiences with a semi-vocational honours degree in event management at a post-1992 university. The event management degree at this university represents a major innovation in higher education with students delivering “live event” projects for “real” clients instead of writing a thesis in their final year. The study involves students collaborating with a local business or charity to deliver a complex event to meet the goals and objectives of the partner organisation who act as “clients”. The narrative methodology is underpinned by an ethnographical approach to research. A narrative is a form of storytelling from the perspective of the researcher. This method of investigation is gaining prominence in social action research, particularly in the fields of social work and education (Fraser 2010; Sandelowski 1991; Sealy 2017). This study will capture the subjective experiences, beliefs and feelings of those who are the subject of the investigation, through narratives.

The shift in economic power from the north to the south and the continuous concentration, saturation and globalisation of consumer markets have precipitated much political discourse and rhetoric regarding the knowledge economy and the role that universities will play in economic reform (Wilton 2008). Graduates are expected to make an immediate impact on the economy and to achieve a competitive advantage for the firms that hire them. Linking higher education to the world of work is essential in preparing graduates to function as engaged and responsible citizens in a world that is becoming more globalised, multi-cultural and heterogeneous. However, higher education has often been criticised as divorced from practice, non-relevant and lacking in a real-world orientation. Higher educational institutions have responded by embedding practical pedagogic initiatives into the curriculum as a way of giving students the opportunity to develop employability skills. The extent to which universities can produce employable graduates depends on the extent to which the corporate sector is willing or able to collaborate, cooperate and engage with HEIs to provide suitable experiential projects and other opportunities for students through placements, internships or volunteer work (Sealy 2017).

The contribution of experiential learning to student development in event and hospitality studies cannot be overstated (Fletcher-Brown, Knibbs, and Middleton 2015; Jackson 2013; Pool and Sewell 2007; Sealy 2017; Tsai 2013). Seminal author Klob’s (1984) theoretical model of experiential learning recommends that students be given opportunities to put into practice the abstract concepts and theories introduced in the classroom to a real-life work environment. The experiential learning model is a departure from the transmission-reception model where the learner is the passive receiver of knowledge transmitted by the teacher. This transmission-reception approach promotes surface learning by memorisation and its reproduction for assessment purposes with little or no recognition for the emotional, cultural and social aspects of learning (Carnell and Lodge 2002). A major problem with the transmission-reception model is that it does not encourage students to make connections and apply their knowledge in complex business circumstances; and, it does not always stimulate the social, cultural and emotional responses, which kinaesthetic and pragmatic learners appreciate as part of their student experience (Sealy 2017). The popularity of event management degrees in the UK has seen the emergence of experiential learning partnerships known as the “live event” project involving students staging events in collaboration with a business or charity. The “live event” assessment, as an innovative and discursive experiential learning exercise, promotes and supports a more constructivist approach to learning as students construct their own meanings from their experiences in an organic and authentic "real-world" setting. To promote "deep", rather than "surface", learning and to challenge students outside of their "comfort zone", clients present students with a business problem and clearly defined business objectives which the students must achieve through the design and delivery of the "live event". This study focuses on the dynamics of the relationships between the main stakeholders: students, tutors and clients.

Methodology

Modelled from ethnographic research, reflection is now a well-established practice in professional education (Harrison 2010). Reflective practice is essentially the integration of knowledge to comprehend important processes within the teaching profession and to reflect on how these processes can be integrated or modified for the best possible outcomes. With narrative and reflective practice being the underlying principle behind this investigation, an iterative and eclectic approach to data collection was undertaken resulting in a triangulation of data from three graduating student cohorts and the researcher's practice and reflective log. Based on semi-structured focus group interviews, otherwise called exit interviews, the student narratives yielded lengthy transcripts that were analysed and organised into emergent themes. The focus groups were held at the end of semester two of 2012/13 and 14, two weeks after the students had completed all their course work. A key issue in designing pedagogic research is the timing of the data collection process and it was felt that at this time students would be better able to reflect on their learning and achievements and would be in a more relaxed frame of mind to provide constructive feedback on the entire course of study (Hounsell 2003).

Table 9-1: Schedule of Student Focus Groups

Year of Focus Groups	Total Responses	Total Enrolment	Number of Focus Groups
April 2012	22	36	4
May 2013	24	32	4
May 2014	12	14	2

The narratives were analysed using the coding procedures suggested by Strauss and Corbin's (1990) grounded theory. Open coding was used to identify categories, concepts and themes. After the preliminary coding process, a further coding system was employed where codes were related to each other through the identification of core code categories and sub-categories, which were then organised and collated into themes and sub-themes (Hammersley and Atkinson 1995; Robson 1993). A synthesis of the major themes is presented and discussed below.

Student Experiences and the Client Relationship

Students welcomed the opportunity to work for a client as it offered opportunities to see the inside workings of organisations and to be exposed to professionals and organisational culture. The experience of working with an external client and liaising with suppliers and civic society was a major benefit of the client relationship. Students agreed that the final year projects made them more commercially aware and gave them a sense of what their future careers may realistically entail. As this student pointed out: "Having the chance to work with a client gave us an insight into what future careers may be like and allowed us to put everything we had learnt into practice." Through engagement with clients, suppliers and other types of stakeholders, students could appreciate the realities of the event industry. Due to the different roles and responsibilities associated with delivering "live" events, students could see the multiple career paths, which helped them to reassess their career goals. Others thought that the projects helped them to identify personal strengths and weaknesses. The "live" events were instrumental in helping students to develop their employability portfolios and to discover and develop dormant skills. Some students took advantage of their client's extensive network of contacts to learn more about the industry by shadowing someone from their organisation once a week to gain more insights into management and organisational culture and for networking. Students found that exposure to professionals aided the development of their professional demeanour, manners, maturity, diplomacy and emotional intelligence. The projects also justified and contextualised earlier modules and learning.

Modules such as finance, health and safety law, marketing, business decision-making and management and organisation were resisted by some students earlier in the course claiming that they “had nothing to do with events”. Being able to see how the event planning process and earlier modules tied together was a welcomed benefit of the “live” assessment. Exposure to external organisations and the complexities of hosting an important event brought forth a high level of self-fulfilment. There was agreement that the “live event” assessment structure, which gave them the opportunity to act as consultants, assisted in harnessing their communication skills and building self-confidence and efficacy. As this student noted: “I am now fully confident about entering the events industry”.

The “live event” assessment presented risks to the university, clients and many challenges for these students. Students reported that clients were not always available, supportive or good examples of best practice. A group of students became upset when a client took just over two weeks to schedule an appointment. Finding time to meet with students and to mentor them through their projects presented challenges for some clients. Clients were quick to point out that upcoming events were their main priority and any projects that were in the distant future would be put on hold. This meant that some students could not meet interim assessment deadlines related to the projects. Some client organisations had very high turnovers of staff, which meant that students went through several different mentors/contacts in the year leading up to the event. In other instances, mentors were just not available to deal with student concerns or to facilitate the handover of promised resources due to other priorities. Some students did not respond very well to these occurrences and interpreted them as flaws with the academic and client organisations rather than the reality of the workplace. Some clients had standard operating procedures that deviated from that of the university, particularly about health and safety management. According to this group of graduates, something as simple as the decision to get qualified security, a legal requirement, at their event “was one that we had to push for”. The client, in this case, argued for someone “big and strong” who was the brother of one of the delegates rather than a qualified SIA agent, to avoid the expense. Another group of students asked to change their client as they felt that the client was expecting them “to plan the event in an unprofessional, illegal and unrealistic manner”. The “student” label meant that some clients had no faith in the students’ abilities and one group reported how a client made derogatory and demeaning comments to them in front of suppliers. Another client cancelled a project midway in the academic year claiming that they were no longer able to fund the event and took the venue with them. This left the students stranded without a project and venue for their gala fundraising ball midway in the academic year. Some clients downgraded the event to a level and size that they could manage and deliver themselves without the agreement of the tutor despite a pre-signed learning agreement. This changed the nature and characteristic of the “live” project and threatened the learning outcomes and academic credibility of the assessment. Disputes arose due to conflicts of interest resulting in the university pulling students out of a project because the client insisted on using suppliers who did not have the required legal permits and licences. Such events caused conflict, discord and confusion between students, tutors and the client organisation.

The multiple and complex nature of events coupled with conflicting stakeholder agendas has prevented the introduction of standardised practices and methodologies that are universally recognised (Goldblatt 2000) resulting in differences in the standard operating procedures used by students, tutors and clients. This situation was further exacerbated due to the lack of a mandatory credentialing authority for event organisers. It became evident that several event organisers in the region are self-taught freelancers who did not undertake any theoretical studies. Consequently, clients could not always relate to the methodologies that students used to plan the “live event”. This caused confusion and conflict between the stakeholders. The bigger and more professional companies in the area made it clear that having students organise an event for them would put their business at risk and thus declined to participate in the programme. These realities make it difficult to find clients who are good examples of professional practice instead of those who insist on unsystematic, archaic or unsophisticated ways of organising events. Clearly, there were differences in the level of commitment and support offered by clients with some organisations more supportive than others. Participants felt that this gave some students an unfair advantage over students who had less supportive or knowledgeable clients. However, even when supportive clients offered students valuable feedback on their work this was often met by fierce criticism and tantrums by some students. Participants were quick to point out that they felt that the client projects could have been better organised and that the university should have screened the clients better. “We should have been warned about how clients behave”, lamented one student. Students felt that the marketing material produced by the university and the open day presentations were deceptive and did not present a true picture of the realities of the event industry and course structure.

What was evident is that many students enter the degree programme with unrealistic notions of the event profession and very limited career awareness. This created an expectations gap between the students, university and client. There is an on-going issue about the reality mismatch between the expectations of students entering higher education and the needs of the professional sector (Wickens and Forbes 2004; Sealy 2012; Temple et al. 2016). As this student stated: “I imagined myself floating around in a ball gown welcoming guests as the event unfolded. I know now this was unrealistic”. Some students felt that the staging of “live events” was very difficult and that the marking criteria were unrealistic. Several students alluded that the demands of the clients, the district council and venue managers, on top of the challenges encountered selling sponsorship, tickets and advertising space were too much for undergraduates to bear. A simple request from a client for a 2.5% return on their investment and a financial plan with a stated breakeven point was deemed unreasonable and annoyed some students. The performance-related goals are a reality of the workplace (Sealy 2017); thus, the justification for their inclusion in the client brief. This client was quick to point out that a minimum fundraising needed to be guaranteed if they were to collaborate in the future. The client was referring to the need to justify to their trustees the commitment of financial resources and time to an event with an adequate return on investment. However, some students continued to feel that performance targets were unfair, unrealistic and unjustified and that their challenges were reflective of flaws with the assessment, the university and client organisation. The students admitted that they experienced “surprise”, “shock”, “frustration” and “disillusionment” when they saw what was involved in planning an event. “I thought that we would just book a band and rent a tent and we would have an event”, this student admitted. The fact that event management consisted of mainly administrative tasks and the realisation that it was “hard work” was a “bitter pill to swallow” for these event management students.

Students questioned the value of their degrees considering the inflationary influx of event graduates on the market and the concomitant declining value of HE credentials (Tomlinson 2008). The participants indicated that marks are very important, as they are a way of “standing out” from other graduates with similar profiles. The narratives suggest that these graduates seem to give primacy to marks as a way of evaluating their positional value in the labour market. It is the obsession with marks that precipitated comments about group work and relationships between student peers. The narratives revealed that some students felt that their degree classification was put at risk due to the collaborative nature of the projects, which required students to work in groups of 6-8. Students felt that the structure of the degree meant that they were not always in control of their final marks due to an excessive amount of group work in the final year. This student noted: “…throughout my whole third year I didn’t do anything by myself…This would be fine if you’re at school but we pay for university so we want to get the best mark possible… I don’t want to have to count on other people for my degree… my degree should reflect my ability alone”. This situation was exacerbated as the “live” projects and composition of groups were assigned by the course leader to get the best mix of skills using the “Belbin’s” Team Roles but some students felt that this put them at a disadvantage. As stated by this graduate: “Everyone works differently and when the teachers decide whom we should be working with there is always the possibility that we won’t get on”. Other narratives drew attention to the view that event group work created perennial “freeloaders” who benefited from high grades on the backs of those who were more conscientious. The danger with this is that some students were awarded degrees that they did not earn and ones that did not reflect their true ability. Other participants pointed out that due to the high emphasis on group work it was difficult to progress and complete assignments or to attend group meetings due to the different subject groups, the nature of the group work and the time that had to be dedicated to the various group tasks… “I found it hard to commit to group times as all three modules in the last term included group work and each one was in a different group…” Others claimed that group meetings clashed with extracurricular activities and other commitments like paid work and family.

Discussion and Recommendations

It was evident that the transition from student life to work can be quite traumatic and represents a quantum leap in learning for some individuals. It was clear that along with logistical and human difficulties students needed training in client relations**.** Tutorials on client management and organisational culture have been introduced so that students identify and understand the different ways clients may behave during their event and after graduation. Additional training for students in stress and conflict management, business etiquette, cultural leadership and communications assists in preparing students for “live” projects. Students’ misguided notions about the nature of the event management industry were a key influence on their attitude towards certain experiential tasks, often producing an apathetic approach to learning. Consequently, an accelerated campaign to encourage students to go out on professional placements has been initiated to provide them with further exposure to professional organisations in preparation for commercial event projects. As well as the traditional one-year sandwich placement, an additional ten (10) week placement opportunity has been created to give students further scope for work-based learning. It was observed that students who went out on placement had more positive attitudes towards the "live" projects and were better able to cope with the stress and workload. More realistic expectation setting was achieved through clear messages on the course website and open day presentations about the nature, and the realities, of the event profession. Although tutors were careful to stress the rewards of working in event management it was also necessary to impress upon potential graduates that the industry was not as glamorous or as easy as they may perceive. An overview of the various career pathways and the risks of a "live" project is articulated during recruitment events.

Consternation brought about by the inclusion of performance related targets in the client brief brought tutors to the realisation that work had to be done to inspire students to accept learning challenges as part of their development. Seminars that ensure students understand the rationale behind the assessment pedagogies and programme structure may make students more "pedagogically intelligent" and aware of how these targets relate to industry practice. Students need to be encouraged to embrace assessment challenges as opportunities for growth and development rather than to view them as threats (Sealy 2017). They need to understand that the degree is designed to take them beyond entry level jobs into management and that they should set higher goals and aspirations for themselves while acknowledging the different career route possibilities in event management. Pedagogic literacy may help to dispel some of the distress that students experience because of the "live event" assessment brief. Tutors need to challenge students to take their learning to a deeper level, to reflect often and to develop their own abstract concepts and contextualise their learning from concrete experience and subsequent reflection if experiential learning is to be successful (Kolb 1984).

The focus on individualism in modern society has created a conflict about the need for greater cooperation and collaboration between students, employers and tutors. In individualistic societies, personal goals over the goals of the collective whole take precedence (Triandis 2001). To give students autonomy over their degree classification an alternative assessment route is recommended in the final year. Students can opt for the "live" event project or can instead write a thesis, which they complete unilaterally. While consideration was given to eliminating "live" projects, their role in eventual high levels of satisfaction and self-efficacy was considered too valuable to annihilate them. Students opting to undertake the "live" projects are made aware of the risks and are required to sign a statement of acknowledgement. While group work is essential in preparing graduates for work, the inherent problems associated with it cannot be easily resolved due to group dynamics and the idiosyncrasies of the individuals involved. It is essential that the correct balance is achieved between group and individual work throughout the 3rd year of the degree to ensure that students have some element of reasonable control over their final degree classification. Where group work is involved these challenges have resulted in programme amendments that will ensure both the collaborative and individual student contribution to team based assessments can be recognised through a peer assessment. Groups that formed by agreement between the members, rather than groups that were formed by default or by the tutor, tended to have more harmonious and productive relationships.

HEIs should think carefully before implementing "live events" as an assessment for event management students in collaboration with external organisations. Besides the risk from cancellation due to bad weather and the financial and reputational implications for the client and university, the actions of the external organisation will have a positive or negative impact on how students perceive the university, which could affect its position in the league tables. The assumption that collaborative partnerships in business education could be synergistic producing mutually beneficial results was not necessarily the case for this institution. The bigger charities were fraught in bureaucracy, which ensured that centralised decision-making was slow. This meant that students could not always access resources needed to meet academic deadlines. Charitable organisations' ethos was centralised around their stakeholders and supporters which they wanted to protect, sometimes at the students' expense. Other charities' missions were more concerned with maximising fundraising even if this meant flouting health and safety legislation. Although agreements were explicit regarding the responsibilities and roles of all stakeholders the results that they produced were very different with each project. Covert and overt struggles for power characterised some relationships resulting in hostilities and conflicts that created bad relations as students, clients and tutors fought for control over the event.

This study identified that there are different stakeholder agendas, motivations and objectives for participating in "live event" projects, which created an expectations gap between students, clients and tutors. The study highlights the need for a stakeholder-integrated approach to collaboration on "live event" projects. This involves the cultivation of relationships and a common understanding of the commitment required by all those involved through improved communications from the outset between client and tutors (Patrick, Peach, and Pocknee 2009). The study identifies the importance of designing employer engagement as an integral part of the curriculum from year one rather than as a "bolt on" experience at the end of the course. This would allow students, clients and tutors to get to know each other and the opportunity for the university to screen clients better before assigning students to them. All stakeholders should have a shared understanding of their purpose and role in student learning. When developing a "live event" assessment there must be congruency between the goals of the university, client and students so that the project holds equal relevance and mutual benefits for those concerned. There must be a shared understanding of the academic and pedagogic underpinnings and all stakeholders should seek the same outcomes (Garlick 2014). Consequently, the client's role is now one of a partner in knowledge exchange and the delivery of pedagogy rather than the delivery of an event. This degree of goal alignment makes it difficult to find suitable clients due to conflicting agendas and the highly intensive and competitive commercial nature of the event environment (Rutherford-Silvers et al. 2006). However, this model of engagement has worked well and is best for maintaining good community and collegiate relations and for enhancing the student experience of "live event" assessment. To further ensure that clients do not put the students' degrees at risk the university had to take full control of the "live events" by assuming ownership of them. Consequently, clients are now beneficiaries of fundraising and mentors to students rather than investors and are asked to be more sensitive, supportive and gentler in their interaction with them. It had to be made clear to clients that participation in "live" projects with students did not guarantee that the event would raise funds and that they should not include the projected fundraising into any financial projections. What was evident is that the charities that emphasised building awareness and reaching out to the community ahead of any fundraising agendas were more sensitive and receptive to the students' needs.

Concluding Remarks

The "live event" projects provided a viable alternative for event students who did not go out on a traditional placement. The projects did much to enhance the students' employability prospects for entry-level jobs by building their awareness of career opportunities, networking and the development of personal attributes. The projects were also instrumental in building confidence and efficacy, which played a part in preparing students psychologically for the world of work. The role of the projects in the development of higher self-esteem and in creating high levels of gratification and student satisfaction cannot be discounted.

However, there is little evidence to suggest that "live events" will give graduates an advantage in the labour market. When examining the wider social and political context of the graduate labour market, conflict theorists are quick to point out that access to opportunities is still based on social stratification and not by merit. Unequal access to opportunities based on gender, class, race, disability and corporate politics is still a reality in the workplace (Cranmer 2006; Wilton 2008, 2011). Wilton (2008, 2011) notes that graduates from new universities are unlikely to be in professional occupations and more likely to be in *niche* jobs or other posts for which a degree is not a requirement. Brown and Scase (1994) note that employer perceptions regarding the "quality" of graduates from universities high in the league tables continue to influence undergraduate recruitment for entry level, high profile, jobs. They further assert that middle class graduates are more likely to find graduate-level employment and to be employed in professional or managerial occupations because they have been socialised into the dominant culture and can draw on other assets including family connections and forms of economic and cultural capital to gain a competitive advantage in the labour marketplace. The non-traditional backgrounds of students attracted to the event degree has been regarded as a key influence on their attitudes and negative reactions to the coursework and client relationships (Bennett and Kottasz 2006). Furthermore, the reputational risks to which a university may be exposed due to "live event" assessments should be a cause for concern. There is no way of knowing in advance if a university would not face a joint responsibility claim along with a third party in a court case for any injury or damage caused to a visitor or supplier due to student or supplier negligence. It has been demonstrated in numerous court cases, that even when individual employees are clearly culpable, the company employing them also takes liability. The roller-coaster accident in Alton Towers was caused by an employee ignoring alarm warnings, but the HSE still fined the company more than a half million pounds for joint responsibility.

While recruitment needs and responding to the skills shortage were identified as key motivators for most employers' involvement in "live events", for charities the opportunities for third stream funding were the major motivators. For the university, the opportunity to reach out to the community, knowledge transfer and positive press coverage were major benefits. This research has presented a cogent and pragmatic discussion on a single case of experiential learning in event management at a post-1992 university in the UK. It is not intended to be transferable to other educational or institutional contexts. It is perhaps axiomatic, but worth mentioning, that further research is required in cross-institutional, educational and industrial contexts to further advance our understanding of collaborative partnerships for event management education and other business subjects. The study illustrates the value of the "student voice" in participative decision-making and highlighted contextualised areas in learning and teaching that warrant further research and consideration. It represents the subjective experiences, beliefs, feelings and attitudes of the event students and tutors who were the subject of the investigation.

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CHAPTER TEN

WHAT MOTIVATES PEOPLE TO BE INVOLVED IN SPORT TOURISM EVENTS? THE GREEK CASE OF SFENDAMI INTERNATIONAL MOUNTAIN FESTIVAL

ANESTIS K. FOTIADIS, CHRIS A. VASSILIADIS AND ANASTASIA SPYRIDOY

Sport tourism adjoined to event management is an old phenomenon, ever since in ancient Greece we first saw the famous Olympic Games organised in a specific location, called Olympia (A.O.G. 2013). As small-scale events have become more important during recent years due to their economic impact, more and more academics have started exploring how to optimise sport events management and strategy (Jago et al. 2003; Daniels, 2007; Lee and Taylor 2005; Daniels 2007; Funk and Bruun 2007). Although these types of events are hosted mainly by communities for financial reasons, they can contribute in several other aspects such as community pride and positive image since usually media attention focuses on them (Daniels 2007; Kim and Patric 2005; Gibson, Willming, and Holdnak 2002; Funk and Bruun 2007). Participants' needs and wants, and how they are satisfied as in any other case of customers, are crucial indicators of success for sport events managers and public policy authorities (Mohsin 2005; Funk and Bruun 2007).

Several researchers have investigated small-scale events motivation. Several studies scrutinized highly involved participants and they have found that decision making for this segment is different than other types of participants (Beaton et al. 2011; Getz and Andersson 2010; McGehee, Yoon, and Cardenas 2003; Getz and McConnell 2014). Other studies focused on amateur small-scale participants' patterns related to motives, involvement and destination choice (Fotiadis, Vassiliadis, and Yeh 2016; Fotiadis et al. 2016; Fotiadis, Vassiliadis, and Soteriades 2016; Gibson, Willming, and Holdnak 2003; Gibson, Kaplanidou, and Kang 2012). The main purpose of this chapter is to define small-scale events while clarifying the relationship of motivations, involvement, changing travel styles, spatial and temporal patterns, and event and destination choices for amateur distance runners and mountain bike athletes in Greece.

Small-Scale Events

Events are often characterised according to their size and scale (Fotiadis, Vassiliadis, and Soteriades 2016). Common categories are major events, mega-events, hallmark events and local/community events, even if definitions are not exact and distinctions of course seems to be misleading and blurred (Shone and Parry 2004; Bowdin et al. 2011). Following an extensive review of classifications, typologies and terminology in use within the literature and published research, some authors proposed mega-events and hallmark events as subcategories of major events, while others present these categories on a scale according to size and impact (Jago et al. 2003; Jago and Shaw 2000).

Bowdin et al. (2011) mention that most communities host festivals and events that are targeted mainly at local audiences and staged primarily for their social, fun and entertainment values. These events often produce a range of benefits, including engendering pride in the community, strengthening a feeling of belonging and creating a sense of place (Prideaux 2009; Halpenny, Kulczycki, and Moghimehfar 2016). They can also help to expose people to new ideas and experiences, encourage participation in sports and arts activities, and encourage tolerance and diversity (Yoshida, James, and Cronin Jr 2013). For these reasons, local governments often support such events as part of their community and cultural development strategies.

Motivation

People participate in recreational activities because of different needs and dynamics (Ryan 2003). Motivation can be defined as "an internal factor that arouses, directs, and integrates a person's behaviour" (Iso-Ahola 1982, 230). According to Moutinho (1987, 16), motivation "refers to a state of need, a condition that exerts a 'push' on the individual towards certain types of action that are seen as likely to bring satisfaction". Crompton and McKay (1997) mentioned three reasons of why it is important to invest effort in researching the motives of the festival visitors.

1. The first reason is the role played by the research to enhance the design of the festival, believing that identifying the needs of the visitors and providing them as services during the festival satisfies the visitors.
2. The second reason is the close relationship between motives and satisfaction, since the visitors are satisfied when the event meets their expectations and motives, and thus the satisfaction will act as a motive for future visits of the same festival.
3. The third reason is that determining the motives is an essential issue in understanding the visitors' decision-making processes, which leads to enhancing the marketing activities into effective ones.

Taking into consideration these reasons, many researchers have been exploring the different motives associated to the motivation to participate in an event, and most of them came up with the following three categories of motives:

- To have the experience of the event and feel the atmosphere there.
- To create and maintain a pleasant mood.
- The challenge of the activity.

These above mentioned factors are of paramount importance for the formation of experience simply because they engage to participation and motivation. It can not only get high satisfaction levels if the organiser gives the participants what they want, but also affect how the event will be organised in the future. Regarding sport tourism, researchers claim that some motivational factors are the chance to come across different cultures and different behaviours, attitudes, and values (Slak Valek, Shaw, and Bednarik 2014; Slak Valek 2015). There is a discussion about sport tourism motives since some say that the primary motivation is the running experience and the type of event and not the travel experience (Green and Chalip 1998), since travel-pleasure motivation is different than speciality travel (Getz and Andersson 2010) such as sport tourism. Most tourism events allow registration through their websites. After registration a participant starts looking for information about the sport event, the area and supportive events. As several studies have proved, runners and mountain bicycle athletes that are highly involved tend to be significantly motivated mostly by self-actualisation higher-order needs and not too much by relaxation and socialising motivational factors. In our case and in related sport event competition events, the personal motivation factors can have an effect on participation because the participants feel that they meet their challenges and enforce their self-improvement as "opposed to social and relaxation motivation" factors (Getz and Andersson 2010, 473).

Involvement

Involvement is crucial too since a decision to travel or not to a sport event depends on past experiences, the nature of the event (Green and Chalip 1998) and the level of involvement (Williams et al. 1992). According to Rothschild (1984), involvement is a motivational factor with a multi-dimensional construct (Richins and Bloch 1986; Richins, Bloch, and McQuarrie 1992; Havitz and Dimanche 1999; McIntyre 1989) that can drive recreational properties. The level of involvement of sport tourists can affect their behaviour since some of them can choose a tourism destination and a specific event because of external factors (Funk and James 2002; Kruger 1995; Laverie and Arnett 2000), such as specified seminars or specified advertising during an event. Experienced runners are more involved since they care about winning the competition and improving their skills (Robinson and Gammon 2004). That is why they usually travel more often to overnight trips (McGehee et al. 2003), and they spend more money and time on their interests (Ryan and Trauer 2005) than medium involvement runners. Personal attitude and demographics (Ogles and Masters 2003; Funk et al. 2007; McGehee, Yoon, and Cardenas 2003) are also important in sport tourists' decisions, and as Crampton (1979) argues, they constitute the third factor after motivation and involvement which affects participation in a sport event.

Case Study Sfendami Mountain Festival

The main purpose of this study was to examine the relationship among small-scale events motivation, involvement, spatial and temporal patterns, and events and destination choices. A sample of participants for a mountain cycling and running event in Sfendami, Greece were questioned in an event survey about their motives, involvement in their sport, and event-related travel.

The S.M.—Sfendami Mountain Festival (www.sfendami.com)—is a two-day event that occurs annually in mid-April. It occurs in Sfendami Pierias, a village built at an altitude of 160m, which is 25km away from the capital of Pieria, Katerini. The population is 1,167 residents (2001 inventory) and agriculture is the main activity of the residents, like tobacco cultivation, olives, wheat and then breeding livestock. The organising started in 2007 with only mountain bicycling races but in 2008 mountain running races were added and in 2011 it was repeated for the fifth consecutive year. The aim of this organising is the spreading of sports that are less popular to people such as mountain running and mountain bicycling. The organiser is SFENDAMOS, a civic non-profit company based in Sfendami Pierias, Greece. Everything is based on an idea the chairman of the company Mr. Babis Tsanaktsidis, who was at first considered the village idiot, had.

Table 10-1**:** International Sfendami Mountain Festival Participants

	Running				Mountain Bike			
	Woman	**Man**	**Total**	**%**	**Woman**	**Man**	**Total**	**%**
2007	0	0	0	**0**	3	110	113	**0**
2008	14	143	157	**100**	10	203	213	**88.5**
2009	13	194	207	**31.8**	16	259	275	**29.1**
2010	22	219	241	**16.4**	11	268	279	**1.5**
2011	20	199	219	**-9.1**	17	341	358	**28.3**

As can be noticed in Table 10-1, there is a continuous increase in the participants of the games except for Saturday 16 April 2011, where we have a slight decrease. This was due to the weather conditions, since that day there was heavy rain.

The games occurred on 16 and 17 April. There were different categories of races, including a 1200m distance for children aged 10-12 and 600m for children aged 5-9 (in which children aged 3 and 4 could also participate accompanied by a parent). There was also a 5km category for children aged 12-15, a fun category for over 15s, as well as the main mountain running race of 22.9km. The exact same race categories happened for mountain bicycling but the main race involved a distance of 37.8km. Besides the races there was also a series of 5 seminars as well as events with bicycles, rollerblades, balloon races, local delicacies, customs and music. At the same time, there was an exhibition filled with exhibitors with new products and an area for the sports bazaar where one could sell the merchandise he has or wanted to buy.

Fig. 10-1: Map of Greece and Pieria and Sfendami Mountain Festival

The Measurement Tool

The measurement tool of this case study analysis consists of 2 basic sections. The first involves questions related with *motive styles*, *changing volume of personal motives*, *travel changes*, *event and destination choice items*, and the second one, six demographic and sample description variables e.g., sex, educational level, employment status, age, marital status and place of residence.

Sampling Procedure

The field study of this research was organised in April 2011. The researchers, with the contribution of 25 well trained students and the helpful cooperation of the organisers of the 5th IMF Sfendami Greece event, after the 2-day event period asked 75 runners in total (34.2% of the total sample) and 114 mountain bicycle athletes (31.8%). The total number of athletes that took part in the 5th IMF was 219 for the running race and 358 in the mountain bicycle category. After the event, based on the following data analysis procedure, we have not find significant differences (significance level a=0.05) between the total sample and the sample of our research study based on the six descriptive variables.

Sample Profile

Profile of Respondents

The number of athletes which the 2011 IMF of Sfendami (http://sfendami.com/content/view/161/45/lang,el/ 2011) related with the running and mountain biking racing activities were accordantly 219 runners and 358 mountain bicycle athletes. Our final sample was 34.2% (75/219) of the runners and 31.8% of the mountain biking athletes (114/358) of the total population of 2011 IMF's running and mountain biking athletes accordantly.

In the below table we describe our sample characteristics (Table 10-2).

Table 10-2: Sample Profile of the International Mountain Festival of Sfendami Respondents (n_1 = 75 runners and n_2=64 mountain bicycle athletes).

	Variables		Runners	Bicycle athletes
1	Gender	Males	**83.8%**	**84.1%**
		Females	**16.2%**	**15.9%**
2	Age			
		Under 18	**4.0%**	**7.9%**
		18–29	**23.0%**	**38.1%**
		30–39	**36.5%**	**30.2%**
		40–49	**27.0%**	**17.5%**
		50–59	**6.8%**	**1.6%**
		60+	**2.7%**	**4.8%**
3	Place of residence	Pieria county	**12.3%**	**11.0%**
		Northern Greece region	**53.4%**	**54.0%**
		Other Greek region	**30.1%**	**30.2%**
		Outside Greece	**4.1%**	**4.8%**
4	Marital status	Unmarried	**44.6%**	**61.3%**
		Married without children	**9.5%**	**9.7%**
		Married with children	**41.8%**	**25.8%**
		Divorced	**4.1%**	**3.2%**
5	Employment status	Self-employed	**28.8%**	**32.3%**
		Public servant	**26.0%**	**12.9%**
		Private clerk	**26.0%**	**21.0%**
		Retired	**1.4%**	**1.6%**
		Student	**6.8%**	**17.7%**

		Other e.g., farmer, unemployed, homework	**11.0%**	**14.5%**
6	Highest level of education	Elementary school	**2.7%**	-
		High school/secondary	**47.3%**	**52.4%**
		University degree	**40.5%**	**41.3%**
		Postgraduate degree; Master	**6.8%**	**3.2%**
		PhD	**2.7%**	**3.2%**

Males constituted 83.8% and 84.1% respectively for the runners and cyclists, and females 16.2% and 15.9% of the running and mountain bicycling sport participants respectively. 90.5% of the runners and 93.7% of the cyclists were under the age of 49. 55.4% of the runners and 38.7% of the cyclists were married, 40.5% of the runners and 41.3% of the cyclists had completed university and another 9.5% and 6.4% respectively had completed a postgraduate degree. Most of them, 28.8% of the runners and 32.3% of the cyclists, were self-employed, while 26.0% and 21.0% of them respectively were private clerks, also 26.0% and 12.9% of them were respectively public servants, and 6.8% and 17.7% of the runners and cyclists respectively were students. Most of the athletes were from outside the Pieria area and had as the place of their residence Northern Greek geographical areas (53.4% and 54.0% respectively) or other regions of Greece (30.1% and 30.2% of the runners and cyclists respectively). A small percentage of them, 4.1% of the runners and 4.8% of the cyclists, had as a place of residence foreign countries.

Results of the Study

Using Involvement as an Independent Variable

The new "Involvement" variable, obtained by adding respondents' assessments of 4 questions, can range from 4 (4 X 1) through 28 (4 X 7). The mean value in the sample is 16.0, (which is also the arithmetic mean) thus indicating a normal distribution.

As Getz and Andersson (2010, 479-80) stated "an alternative method was required in order to have a way to treat level of involvement as an independent variable against a range of dependent motivational, attitudinal and behavioural variables. Therefore, a new variable called 'Involvement' was constructed for each of the two groups of athletes (cyclists and runners) as a summed scale by adding, for each respondent, the four values representing the respondent's assessments of these four statements that cover all four dimensions of the involvement construct":

1. For the case of the running event athletes:
   - The attraction and pleasure dimension: "Competing is a particularly pleasurable experience" (the overall mean was 4.85).
   - The risk dimension: "I really hate it when an event is poorly organised" (5.62).
   - The sign or self-identity dimension: "The events I compete in say a lot about the kind of person I am" (4.95).
   - The centrality in lifestyle dimension: "Each year I spend a lot of money on running equipment" (4.39).

<u>The new involvement mean value for the runners is 20.00 (median 20.00, min=12 and max=28)</u>

2. For the case of the mountain bicycle athletes:
   - The attraction and pleasure dimension: "Competing is a particularly pleasurable experience" (the overall mean was 5.53).
   - The risk dimension: "I really hate it when an event is poorly organised" (5.67).
   - The sign or self-identity dimension: "The events I compete in say a lot about the kind of person I am" (5.31).
   - The centrality in lifestyle dimension: "Each year I spend a lot of money on running equipment" (4.17).

<u>The new involvement mean value for mountain bicycle athletes is 20.74 (median 20.00, min=13 and max=28).</u>

Conclusion

In their research which is based on the event-tourist career trajectory in Sweden, Getz and Andersson (2010) confirmed five hypotheses from the six they initially developed. In this chapter, we certainly used the same methodology and the same hypotheses to examine event-tourist career trajectory in Greece by investigating an international mountain running and bicycling event in a small village in Sfendami, Greece. In this research all the hypotheses are confirmed, even the one which was partially confirmed by Getz and Andersson (2010). According to the first hypothesis, runners and mountain bicycle athletes that are highly involved tend to be significantly motivated mostly by self-actualisation higher-order needs and not too much by relaxation and socialising motivational factors. High involvement runners and cyclists have evaluated those personal and self-improvement motivators significantly higher than the remainders. Top motivators for them are, "Improve my athletic ability" (6.09; 6.21), "To challenge myself" (5.94; 5.17), "Prove to myself that I can do it" (5.77; 5.91) and "For health benefits; to get fit" (5.62; 6.00).

The second hypothesis assumes that highly-involved runners and mountain bicycle athletes will be statistically significantly different from other runners and bicycle athletes they compete with if we consider the volume of their participation frequency. Our empirical results confirm the second hypothesis since high involvement mountain runners and cyclists: like to take long trips (5.22; 5.23), to select events on the basis of destination attractiveness (5.24) and they like also to compete in prestigious events (5.13; 5.48) more than the others. They had travelled to more events and planned to travel to more. The high involvement cyclists tend also to travel far and for many events (5.28, 5.20), significantly more than the others. The reputation and prestige of the event (5.29; 5.08), the scenery, interesting route (5.47; 5.53), the party atmosphere (5.27; 5.47) and the new experience every time (5.32; 5.16) are important destination event selection criteria, both for the high involvement mountain runners and cyclists. The results also indicate that they were significantly more likely over time to travel with their family to events and to pick a destination or event because their family or spouse wanted to go there too. The mountain bike athletes also tend to travel more without family members than the runners do.

The third hypothesis implies that the highly-involved mountain runners and cyclists will exhibit less seasonality in their travel. Results point out that both the high involvement mountain runners and cyclists (4.78; 5.13) tend to travel throughout the year more than the lower involvement mountain runners and cyclists. This confirms the results of McGehee, Yoon, and Cardenas (2003) and Ryan and Trauer (2005), who state that high involvement runners usually travel more and they spend more money and time than medium involvement runners.

The fourth hypothesis designates that highly-involved mountain runners and cyclists will travel farther, longer, and by more means of transport. As the results delineate, highly involved runners tend to travel farther, longer and more often with airplanes than low involvement athletes.

The fifth hypothesis appoints that highly-involved mountain runners and cyclists tend to participate in a lot of different types of events. Motivation is higher when the case is to participate in a famous event (5.26; 5.13) and their event selection process is affected by the reputation and prestige level of the event (5.34; 5.17). The results of our research are in agreement with those of the bibliographic report (Robinson and Gammon 2004).

The sixth hypothesis indicates that the significance of a range of event selection criteria will vary statistically significantly between higher and lower-involved runners. Empirical results inform us that high involvement mountain runners and cyclists select their sport destinations significantly differently, as they want an event experience every time (5.41; 5.16), they enjoy the scenic and interesting travel routes (5.63; 5.53), and they prefer attractive weather conditions (5.08; 5.10). They are also party and fun seekers more than low involvement mountain runners and cyclists. This realisation is in agreement with the results of bibliographical reports (Funk and James 2002; Kruger 1995; Laverie and Arnett 2000). They tend to enjoy it if a party is included in the fee (5.09; 4.86) and if the event is surrounded with a party atmosphere (5.31; 5.64). Moreover, they are satisfied if entertainment activities are available in the area (5.07; 5.21). They tend to enjoy informative user-friendly websites (5.20; 5.07) and event destinations that are reputation and prestige based (5.34; 5.17). The mountain cyclists are affected by mouth to mouth advertising since they can choose their destinations based on where their friends are going (5.55), or if someone they trust recommends the event to them (5.02).

Discussion – Future Research

Sport events in rural societies like the one in our study (International Sfendami Mountain Festival) are usually initiated by amateurs who have the madness to actualise their vision of developing their area. Academic research mainly focuses on mega-events management and marketing and not on smaller events which usually spread all around a country and affect thousands of entrepreneurs and other stakeholders. Since every country and every area has different characteristics and needs, it will be interesting to see more research and discuss issues like those this study considers.

As the results indicate mountain cyclists tend to travel without their family members more than runners do, it would be interesting in the future to investigate why this occurs. The academic society should investigate different types of sport events in Greece so as to investigate their differences and similarities. Event stakeholders will have a better idea of how to promote and manage their event.

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PART IV

EVENTS, ATTENDEES AND ORGANISERS

CHAPTER ELEVEN

IDENTIFYING LATENT VARIABLES OF PARTICIPANTS AT A COMMUNITY MARATHON EVENT

NATAŠA SLAK VALEK

Events are a major component of sport tourism, which is probably because of tourist numbers and economic impacts (Deery, Jago, and Fredline 2004). This is probably also due to the effect an event has on destination image, which tends to feature physical and cultural settings (Kaplanidou and Vogt 2007). Sports events specifically then play a great role in promoting a destination (Funk and Bruun 2007; Gibson, Qi, and Zhang 2008; Fotiadis et al. 2016), and they can also generate significant revenue (Preuss 2005; Solberg and Preuss 2007). However, there would be no events without athletes (active participants), whether it is a community, national, major or mega event. Thus, an understanding of athletes' motivation to participate at an event and other features influencing an athlete's decision is crucial at the time of organising an event. Besides other promotional tools such as logo and brand selection (Séraphin, et al. 2016), and an innovative advertising plan (Wai Kit, Lee, and Martin 2017), the sport event organisers could benefit from understanding participants' motivation. Sports events have become an increasingly important component in destination branding (Jago et al. 2003; Chalip and Costa 2005; Slak Valek, in press), and event management education also understands its importance (Fotiadis and Sigala 2015). However, event sport tourism is mostly researched from the "impact" point of view, especially the Olympic Games, while other "smaller" events and views are of interest (Getz and Page 2016). Athletes' motivation to participate at mega and major events has been researched in the past (Kim and Chalip 2004), but some studies focusing on small-scale sport events can also be found (Kapladinou and Vogt 2007; Kapladinou and Gibson 2010). Filo, Funk, and O'Brien (2011) researched motives of participants focusing on charity sport events. Higham (2005, 34) argued that the tangible and intangible elements of the sport experience are also very important. He referred to the London Marathon as an example where participation increased to include "elite athletes competing for prizes and times, domestic and overseas runners, wheelchair athletes, and corporate teams". Considering all that, the present research was developed.

The Successful Story of Abu Dhabi

Abu Dhabi, the largest among seven Emirates constituting the country of United Arab Emirates, has found its potential in tourism in order to reduce its dependence on oil (Sharpley 2002). Before the discovery of oil, Abu Dhabi and the rest of the United Arab Emirates were poor and undeveloped, with an economy based on farming in the inland oases, and on fishing and the pearling industry (Hashim 2012), but nowadays tourism statistics and the country GDP show tourism to be the second largest industry. Abu Dhabi has been successfully implementing sport events into destination branding in the last few years (Ponzini 2011; Hazime 2011; Hashim 2012). With the purpose of developing tourism as one of the strongest future economies, big investments in facilities with many mega projects and events have been implemented in Abu Dhabi (Hazime 2011). To mention just a few of them, Saadiyat Island is still in development, but probably the biggest and the richest worldwide future cultural district, and Yas Island with the Ferrari Theme Park and Yas Marina Circuit (YMC) is the major island for sports tourism offered in Abu Dhabi. A feature of sports events, amongst others, is that they can attract a large number of visitors over a relatively short period of time (Higham and Hinch 2002) and this is what Abu Dhabi has been using as a key driver. There are worldwide recognised sports events hosted in Abu Dhabi such as Formula 1, sponsored by Etihad, taking place exactly at the above-mentioned circuit YMC; Mubadala World Tennis Championship; and, the HSBC European Tour Golf Championship. Moreover, F1, apart from bringing people to Abu Dhabi, is a top event covered by major international news and sports media, which significantly contributes to destination promotion. With all of the events mentioned, the Emirate shows a big interest in developing sports tourism (Slak Valek 2015) as one of the primary tourism attractions.

However, sport participation can be increased in the Middle East. Thus, different methods are used in order to attract more people to sports and make them become active. Developing a sports culture can generate at least two economically significant dimensions, which are: 1) a healthier population (Casanova et al. 2011) and 2) the development of sports tourism (Gibson 1998). With this in mind, the present research has been developed as community sport events can generate a healthier population. Having said that, the purpose of the present study is to highlight the importance of understanding sport participants and identify the segment of people that practice sports, and also travel for and because of sports. The understanding of participants can help organisers and decision makers in developing and organising sports events that may attract more participants and visitors, focusing also on tourists and contribute to the development of sports tourism in Abu Dhabi.

Methods

The present study is based on an online-questionnaire distributed among active participants of Zayed Marathon, which took place at Yas Marina Circuit (YMC) in Abu Dhabi, United Arab Emirates on 19th March 2016. Before the results presentation, the event itself needs an explanation: Zayed Marathon is organised every year by Yas Marina Circuit (UAE) and is considered a community event. The majority of participants are expats living in Abu Dhabi, which is also reflected in our sample. One of the aims of Zayed Marathon is to raise awareness of physical activity in the Gulf and as such contribute to health in this region. Daman, a UAE health insurance government-affiliated company, is the main and general sponsor. Since the purpose of events is the contribution to national health the running distance does not reflect the real professional marathon distance (42.195 km), but consists of 10km, 5km, 3km and 1km run distances. Zayed Marathon is the official name of this yearly community event, held in honour of late UAE Shaikh Zayed, which is of great motivation to the participants. A survey was sent to all the participants right after the start of the run to assure all participants received it before the event ends. A reminder was then sent a week after initial distribution of each survey.

A questionnaire was developed based on athletes' career trajectory model developed by Getz and Andersson (2010), adding a self-administrated media-effect-dimension following Getz and Fairley's (2004) recommendations for media management. Thus, the second table is proposed in the present research that includes media-exposure items. Getz and Andersson's (2010) dimensions were used as a basis to test event and destination choice factors, but several items had to be modified in order to fit to UAE residents and also to shorten the last table. Finally, 4 dimensions of participants were studied in this research: Motivational factors (17 items), Media-exposure factors (9 items), Travel style and behavioural changes (8 items), Event and destination choice (13 items). In total, 112 surveys were completed. An explorative study was performed with data collected. Data were analysed using descriptive statistics. A factor analysis with varimax rotation and Kaiser normalisation was performed for each of the 4 dimensions in order to identify latent variables of every dimension.

The sample represented 69% of males and 31% of participating females. The majority were aged between 41 and 50 (35%), followed by 30-40 year old participants (33%) and participants aged 18-29 (21%). Respondents above 51 years old represented 11% of the total share. The majority lives in the UAE (93%) and 7% of participants live outside of the UAE. The participants' countries of origin were as follows: 20% India, 15% UK, 13% Philippines, 12% USA, 7% France, 6% Canada, other countries with 1 or 2 respondents represented the rest of the share, 27%.

Results

From 17 motivational factors 4 were significant (Kaiser eigenvalues ≥ 1), which represented 64.03% of variance. Motivational variables that have the largest loadings to Factor 1 are: Be with friends and family, Participate at a famous event, Visit a famous city and Travel to a famous place (correlation greater than 0.6), thus Factor 1 was named "Socio-travel factors". It can be concluded that socio-travel factors have a great influence in the decision-making process of the event participants' motivation. The second component of athletes' motivation can be called "Thrill and fun" as the variables with the largest loadings are For the thrill of it, To have fun and Prove to myself that I can do it. The third component consists of two variables with high correlations (even greater than 0.8), which are Challenge myself and Improve my athletic ability, confirming that self-pride is also an important motivational factor of runners at the community event. Finally, the fourth component explaining motivational factors of runners can be called "Externals" as correlations higher than 0.6 and loading this factor are Win prize money and Prove to others that I can do it. The "Externals" factor shows that runners participating at community events also consider the outside view and the echo effect of the event. Thus, in the following we took a closer look at the "media-exposure loading factors" and their importance. See Table 11-1:

Table 11-1: Motivational Factors of Runners Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component			
	Socio-travel	Thrill and fun	Self-pride	Externals
Challenge myself	.118	.208	.802	.112
Improve my athletic ability	.199	.100	.853	-.036
Win prize money	.254	-.149	-.129	.760
Be with family or friends	.658	.372	.110	-.113
Participate in a famous event	.820	.127	.204	.099
Visit a famous city, Abu Dhabi	.852	.043	.158	.278
Travel to an interesting place, to Abu Dhabi, UAE	.864	.075	.164	.231
Do something unusual	.459	.387	-.001	.227
To improve my time	.051	.302	.502	.453
Prepare for more running events	-.027	.374	.391	.553
Prove to others that I can do it	.322	.269	.154	.646
Prove to myself that I can do it	.097	.626	.198	.366
To have fun	.193	.656	.347	-.182
For the thrill of it	.088	.804	.186	.034
Raise money for charity	.524	.484	-.101	.116
Meet new people	.499	.590	-.034	.118
For health benefits; to get fit	.228	.565	.288	.206
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation. a. Rotation converged in 9 iterations.				

Among 9 items measuring media and exposure influences 3 factors representing 67.6% of variance were significant. The first factor can be named the "VIP factor" where athletes/participants assign great importance to the following two items (correlation greater than 0.8 was considered): I participate only at prestigious events and I do sport to be(come) popular. The second factor also loaded two factors with a high correlation, which are: This event needs more promotion in media and More media should cover this sport event. The second factor proves that community event participants also expect an echo effect of the event and media coverage. Finally, the third factor shows that participants do read local and international media every day, which confirms the relatively strong role of media. Results are presented in Table 11-2.

Table 11-2: Media-Exposure Factors of Runners Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component		
	VIP	Echo	News
I read/watch local media every day	.067	.136	.883
I read/watch international media every day	-.019	.017	.895
I've heard about this event by the media	.031	.498	.384
This event needs more promotion in media	.088	.879	.015
I participate only at prestigious events	.825	.018	-.117
I participate only at the events which are covered by popular media	.790	.221	.125
More media should cover this sport event	.275	.834	.046
I would like to be shown/mentioned in the media	.652	.171	.023
I do sport to be(come) popular	.829	.046	.059
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation. a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.			

Among 8 items measuring changes in travel style and behaviours 2 factors representing 67.8% of variance were significant (Table 11-3). The first factor loading 3 items with a correlation higher than 0.8 was identified as "Sport tourism". Items that strongly constitute this factor are I travel far to participate at sport events, I select my travel destinations based on sport possibilities and I combine sport events with family travel, which confirms a strong relation with sport tourism travel and destinations. The second factor solely representing a strong correlation (0.847) is the factor of "Emotions", showing that the feeling of happiness is an important factor for community event participants.

Table 11-3: Travel Style and Behaviour Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component	
	Sport tourism	Emotions
I travel more	.705	.350
I travel far to participate in sport events	.831	.095
I select my travel destinations based on sport possibilities	.870	.017
I combine sport events with family travel	.816	.121
I combine sport events with holidays	.760	.372
I select to participate in sport events organised in attractive destination	.684	.323
I feel happier	.044	.847
People like me more	.286	.760

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation.
a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

Among 13 items included into a measurement of events and destination choices by community marathon participants 2 factors representing 64.03% of variance were significant (Table 11-4). Each of the two factors loaded one item showing a high correlation ($r > 0.8$). The first factor representing that most respondents value a scenic and interesting route was called 'The route'. This factor shows how strongly important an interesting route is to the runners selecting the event and a destination to travel for participating at an event. The second factor represents the importance of gifts and awards ($r=0.814$), thus it was called "Reward". All 13 items' correlations results are presented in Table 11-4.

Table 11-4: Events and Destination Choice Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component	
	The route	Reward
A lot of prize money is awarded and a lot of gifts for competitors	.094	.814
Low entry fee and I can keep my overall cost low	.512	.353
There are many participants (the larger, the better)	.433	.585
My family/friends are going	.694	.339
The event is really well organised	.735	.092
There are major corporate sponsors	.507	.705
I want a new event experience every time	.260	.779
Recommended by someone I trust	.644	.442
The event gets a lot of media coverage	.389	.786
It's a very scenic, interesting route	.808	.173
It's in a world-class city or destination	.763	.350
Entertainment available in the area and party atmosphere	.663	.441
The reputation and prestige of the event	.702	.521

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation.
a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

Discussion

Our results show several academic and practical implications. The conducted factor analyses show how motivational factors, media-exposure factors, travel style and behaviours, and event-destination choices of runners participating at Zayed Marathon link together in the minds of respondents. In recent years there has been increasing recognition of events having a big impact on tourism destination development (Fotiadis and Sigala 2015) and destination image (Chalip and Costa 2005). Thus, an understanding of attracting active sport event participants is beneficial to event organisers. Our results show that motivational factors of runners in our sample loads into 4 groups showing the latent variables, which can be considered for attracting more athletes for future running events. The first loaded factor to consider is the "socio-travel" factor. Other loading factors are called "thrill and fun", "self-pride" and "externals". As explained by Li and Petrick (2006, 239), "understanding motivation leads to better planning of festivals and events, and better segmentation of participants". It can be concluded that the four loading factors can be considered for future promotion of the event. In fact, the promotion of the event was also tested in the present research, where respondents similarly understand the media exposure if or when participating at the event. The strongest loading factor, called "VIP", reveals that respondents participate in the Zayed Marathon to become popular and they only participate at prestigious events (Factor 1, Table 11-2). This is consistent with previous research (Getz and Patterson 2013) where the authors claimed that when one gets more involved in a pursuit, the desire to attend bigger, more challenging, unique, or more prestigious events might also increase. Participants also agree that this event deserves more attention from the media (Factor 2, Table 11-2), which we called the "Echo effect" factor. The third factor loading also revealed a high homogeneity in our sample in terms of reading media in their everyday life. Our respondents do read or watch local and/or international media every day, which may have an effect on their decision to be sport active. This view needs future research.

According to Gibson (1998) a sport tourist is one who travels for sport, thus the Factor 1 loading presented in Table 11-3 was called "Sport tourism". Participants in our sample do travel for sport and choose the destination according to sport possibilities (high correlations). Moreover, they involve other family members in sport, as they combine sport events with family travel (r=0.816), which represents a potentially bigger market for sport tourism destinations. A logical extension of this finding is the examination of sport as an attraction within the tourism destination system (Hinch and Higham 2001), but moreover to extend the destination supply with offering other activities that might be undertaken by accompanying family members. Also, this view needs further research, and research among "accompanying family members" is recommended as a further study. The second latent factor revealed by the present paper is the runners' emotions. It can be confirmed now that participating athletes do load together in a factor with a high correlation that they "feel happier" (r=0.847). That physical activity increases happiness was found before (Rasciute and Downward 2010; Huang and Humphreys 2012), but it is now confirmed as an important factor for sport event participants.

Finally, two factors load when considering event and destination choice variables. The route and rewards are very important for the runners when choosing the event to participate in.

Considering all of the above, it can be concluded that event organisers should pay special attention to socio-travel factors when trying to attract more participants and promote the event as a special one (e.g. Prestigious). Sport tourism destinations organising events may consider organising additional activities suitable for accompanying family members, and focus on choosing an interesting running route, which will make participants feel happy.

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CHAPTER TWELVE

PROTOCOL IN EVENT MANAGEMENT

MANUELA PILATO AND FRANCESCO RANERI

Today the increasingly complex and globalized social landscape cannot ignore the observance of the set of formal rules that govern and at the same time endorse official and working relationships. Public or private bodies must comply with strict formal requirements so that no adverse effects can be taken to undermine the image and the correctness of the action. Public institutions are, in fact, forced to honour these rules by virtue of the fact that the latter are direct expressions of the legal order. When this does not happen, there would inevitably be serious inconveniences that could result in serious diplomatic incidents. In this vein, the ceremonial guarantees the various modes of relationship that are put in place both by institutions and by any other organisation. In fact, in spite of what has been commonly thought, it is not an exclusive prerogative of public institutions, but an increasingly important institution for every kind of organisation, as well as communication. States have always communicated with citizens. Although essentially carried out through coercive regulations and measures, communication between governmental leaders and communities has always been the basis of the simplest of forms of life associated. The origins of a true public communication can only be traced back to the progressive affirmation of the liberal state and modern democracies: people are sovereign, and to participate in the government must be at least formally aware of the work of public administrations committed to meeting the public interest. But since communication is a behaviour with an information exchange based on a code, two new elements come into play: the active role of the recipients and the need for a common language.

The Ceremonial

The term "ceremonial" can be defined as the normative corpus that governs the formal behaviour of administrative divisions, public bodies and officials holding official positions. It is therefore a complex matter of principles that make objective forms of relationships between people and bodies, facilitating intersubjective relationships, as public life requires.

Overall, it establishes rules of state rituals, but it is necessary to make a distinction between totalitarian and dictatorial regimes, in which the ceremony is aimed at emphasising the figure of the leader, and democratic orders, where instead it is related to the temporary public service posts. Indeed, if such posts are formally equal, in a relationship between the two, it will tend to favour the "weaker", as in many relationships, it will tend to equalise the positions in order to avoid the prevalence of the "strongest". That is why, in democratic ordinances, the ceremonial, through the compression of the ego, aspires to foster formal relationships so that the substantial ones are profitable (Camerlengo 2009). All the rules in ceremonial aim at eliminating any kind of valuing behaviour, both personal and political, by codifying a predetermined set of institutional ranks on the basis of their normal value and, on equal terms, by third criteria. In the common opinion, it is not uncommon for it to be confused with etiquette which instead looks at the individual in his individuality by proposing a style of respectful bon ton, which is not to be confused with the rules of the ceremonial, mistakenly considered the expression of a formalist mentality ending in itself and anachronistic. Indeed, the ceremonial is a discipline capable of "solving" practical difficulties that, if mastered, can be an irreplaceable tool for proper management of any type of event.

The ceremonial is basically a public relations regulation code: the prescriptions and directions contained therein serve to create a common language and code of conduct for the purpose of facilitating relationships, making them mutually intelligible and avoiding those predictably unpleasant, or even serious, consequences resulting from their lack of observation (Foschi 1996). Availing of the means to treat the form, the ritual ceremonial serves as a function of safeguarding and respecting the values of substance, which is more relevant in the law of democratic order. The current development of public relations implies that anyone who has to perform a public function cannot fail to know and then practice the essential elements of the ceremonial for a more fruitful outcome of the same action.

The increasingly central role of communication in the governance of complex organisations, as well as the need to rethink all public relations activities, have undoubtedly given a new and strong impetus to ceremonial functions and protocol. They have done so remarkably recently, given that these functions are not only addressed to public ceremonies, visits or rituals, but increasingly at all times of public representation, or at least those most significant. Whenever an organisation meets its public, in fact, it lives a moment of ceremony and/or protocol, such as a press conference, a (public) session of a governing body, etc. And it is through the behaviour of every single one of its members, starting from the bodies of the summit until it reaches every single person representing it, that an organisation communicates: anyone who is in contact with an audience actually performs a ceremonial function, so the latter should stick to protocol rules. So, like all the activities and functions of external communication, ceremonial activities and protocol contribute both to the corporate communication of the organisation and to building up the corporate identity from which the reputation comes.

Ceremony and protocol are therefore a specialised function of public relations (PR), and as protocol/PR, they aim to increase the reputation of the organisation. Public relations activities are clearly the most delicate ones because they are entrusted with the moment of representation through ceremonies, acts, events, and protocollary activities (see Appendix 1-2-3). In this token, the well-known "rule of the right" must be recalled, which points out that between two symbols; between two people; between two posts; between two objects, the most important must be placed on the right side (Sgrelli 2016). The right is defined between them and not from the external observer. So this rule should be considered our guide because it leads us to the solution of various protocollary issues. The protocol and the ceremonial represent, for an institution as well as for a business, a rather considerable aspect in the management of the organisation as well as relationships, and therefore require adequate care and professional resources. The secret of the good functioning of protocol and/or ceremonial activities is not taken up in public time, but in the preparatory phase in which each of the involved parties must be aware that in that activity a significant part of a relationship is being made (Sgrelli 2016). Official relations, as well as working relationships and, more generally, social ones, are—more than ever—subject to inflexible prescriptions even on a formal level.

The Protocol of the State

In ancient times, the term "protocol" indicated the first glued sheet of a code or document, and then began to include what was written. Today, however, its meaning refers to that set of rules, codified and customary, that regulate the ceremonial in general, referring to its public aspects. Specifically, the term "protocol" is defined as official public relations and public symbolism. Its rules, democratically meaningful, have a value at national and international level, effectively regulating many formal aspects of relations between states. Indeed, the basic principles of the discipline related to the state protocol lies in identifying the objective criteria for the clarification and resolution of formal disputes that may arise within official public relations. These criteria, in their entirety, constitute the codified part of the ceremonial, which cannot lead to the establishment of identical and therefore impersonal behaviours. The state protocol, in the end, reflects the character of the various systems which, if they evolve in a democratic sense, require a review of the relationship between freedom and authority. This translates into, on one hand, the adoption of specific parliamentary laws, on the other hand, a series of predefined behaviours addressed to public office holders. In fact, it is imposed on them in special circumstances to respect the rules of form, with the aim of safeguarding the whole order in full respect of democratic values. The discipline of protocol attributes, in an admirable manner, form to the substance (Sgrelli 2016).

Fundamentals of the Ceremonial

Political Motivation

Already the Greek philosopher Aristotle believed that man's natural life was in the political community, and that outside of it, man, "social animal" could not have arisen from brutality. In Roman times, about half of the year was dedicated to festivities and this is not surprising at all, as the party itself and *per se* was a valid tool for cementing authority and people. The ceremonial allows, on these occasions, authority to be perceived as such, and thus acknowledged in its function (Invernizzi 2000).

Social Motivation

As it is well known, at the twilight of the Middle Ages, the emergence of an autonomous merchant economy led to the free flow of cash independent of patrician property. This led to a radical change in social structures, historically governed by the land economy. This situation, in fact, forced the noble possessors to compete with the rich class of the bourgeois class. Thus, the need to create a series of court rules, in order to be free from the nascent merchant class. These were rules aimed at separating public functions from those merchants. While in our days, we are witnessing the revaluation of bourgeois values, even though the bourgeois class has been overtaken by a kind of individualised society in which *civis singulus* adopts formal behavioural norms to acquire the necessary security for individual affirmation (Maimone 2014).

Economic Value

At first, we would be tempted to say that those who follow the rules of the ceremonial and courtesy produce only the effect of appearing, in the eyes of others, "evolved" in ways and style, however, if we focus on simple daily newspapers of everyday life it is not difficult to grasp the considerable economic value that the ceremonial rules cover. This is well-known to Japanese people, for whom the application of these conventional rules attributes value both to the subject and to the body at that time. An apparently banal example, but that makes the idea of how important the material value of formally correct relationships is, might be to think of the difficulty of frequenting a restaurant again where one has been treated unreasonably. Anyone who finds himself responsible for carrying out certain assignments, both public and private, cannot fail to observe the rules of the ceremonial, pending a negative representation of one's own person and the body she/he represents (Cosentino and Filippone-Thaulero 1999).

Ethical and Moral Value of the Ceremonial

The ethical principle and the whole practice of the ceremonial and etiquette support human and social values. Squeezing our *ego* it is possible to transcend the negative instinctuality of human action in view of achieving a deep rationality. Rationality is ever closer to spirituality—as the inspirational value of harmony in the correct human and social relations—which, through formal rules, promotes substantive relationships.

The Ceremonial and Democracy

In today's democratic regimes, the ceremonial not only guarantees its individual respect but also gives value to positions, symbols and moments by virtue of democracy, thus operating a compression of substantial inequalities.

The ceremonial is neither "right" nor "left", yet it can be undemocratic: if we think of the instrumental use of formal coercion that can be done in totalitarian regimes, imposing predetermined behaviours both in interpersonal relationships and in those between citizen and authority, such as greetings with a fist or a tense arm, the use of a companion or dormitory name, etc. (Pilato and Raneri 2016).

Background of the Ceremonial in Italy

With the birth of the Republic, there was no immediate revision of previous monarchical protocollary rules. The first need to emerge was to review all those fascist rules no longer representative of the new republican order, such as the Roman greeting, specific clothing for adults and children, crowds, the ban on the use of terms and foreigners' symbols, etc. It was immediately apparent, however, that it was necessary to replace the purely Savoy forms of the ceremonial of the Kingdom of Italy, with those of the protocol representative of the new form of the state. It was also necessary to eliminate all forms of personal distinction, fully applying Article 3 of the Constitution, establishing a more democratic style of behaviour and inducing anyone to exercise public functions to suppress their subjectivity, in favour of the objectivity of the position covered.

Some residual forms of the past dictatorial regime have certainly compromised the birth of the new symbolism of the state. It is thought that at the time of "institutional transition", the only rules respected were confined within the family or group. They were the years in which the national hymn had arisen, however, it was still unable to awaken any particular emotional transport in the soul of the people; they were years in which the new figure of the President of the Republic was not surrounded by the glories of the court and in which, instead, the King of the ancient monarchy benefited. The same concepts of homeland and nation were still associated with the values outlined by fascism, and therefore not easily assimilated to the ideals of the new democratic system. Moreover, the party of Christian democracy, which had won the elections in 1948 beating communists and socialists, was well placed to show its choices: the Western world and the new representative democracy. For this it also meant freedom from rituals of dictatorial matrix.

This was a scenario that led to the definition of Italy as a non-ceremonial state. It is probable that Italians were more aware of the sudden economic growth than of the redefinition of official protocollary rites and the forms of public roles. It was limited to the establishment of protocollary provisions such as the hymn, the emblem, the national flag and the De Gasperi circular of December 1950, with the new discipline related to the precedence of public positions (Padoin and Tonveronachi 1994).

Undoubtedly, the turbulent period of 1968 did not favour adapting to the formal solemnities of the new republican order; indeed, personal informality was added to the informality of institutional public apparatus. The latter, strongly entrenched with nonconformist attitudes, expressive of individual freedom, and with a persuasive aversion to national symbols, which risked leading to an apparent anti-Semitism.

The need to give substantial institutional dignity was felt only when the red brigades and right-wing aversive movements sparked a profound attack on the state. A moment in which a response of the entire population and institutions could be witnessed. This initiated a process of recognition of organisations and public functions as bodies to be respected and protected, thus enhancing the value of the institutions with the consequent formal recognition of state rules.

The first institutional personality that gave such a strong signal was President Pertini with his ritual kiss to the national flag. For the first time, one of the best-known anti-fascists turned their attention to one of the nation’s symbols. President Cossiga also, through the introduction of some provisions, focused on public symbolism, including the most solemn reading of the oath of the President of the Republic.

Other historical events also suggested the establishment of additional protocollary disciplines, the emergence of the North League with its secessionist initiatives, and its simultaneous refusal of state symbols. These behaviours pushed Italians to feel a greater attachment to the flag, to the hymn and to all those state symbols that the North League’s identity refused.

It is not a coincidence that in 1998 a law was enacted that provided for the daily exposure of the national flag, which in the past, was exhibited exclusively on specific official holidays.

In the 1990s, the direct election of representative political positions focused on personality aspects. This novelty raised the need to formally regulate any distortions, primarily the application of formal-protocollary activities that could only lead to part choices, through ceremonial rules. Thus it became possible that the latter could serve as a connective tissue between all the symbolic official aspects, in favour of an ever more cohesive and democratic national image in which form and substance coincide perfectly and therefore at the expense of the anti-democratic exaltation of the ego.

A radical turning point in this direction was thanks to President Ciampi’s advent. He, through some decisive measures of renewal of state forms, increased not only the value and dignity of the national hymn and the national flag (see appendix 4-5-6-7) but, above all, he restored the national holiday of the 2nd of June. All of this was in a frame of deep respect for every formal value, with the aim of rebuilding the Republican institutional style and ideals (Sgrelli 2016).

Following the strongest action of the Head of State, one even more incisive action was added: the Department of the State Ceremonial of the Presidency of the Council of Ministers. This was manifested by the introduction of circular regulations and instructions on national holidays (in 2002); state burials; the precedence of public positions (in 2004); distinctive insignia; honours (in 2001), etc.

Furthermore, the new community rules on the protocol have had an impact on those of internal law, such as the recognition of the European hymn and the inclusion of the European Union's posts in the Italian system of precedence, obviously in full respect of their internal grade.

It is a fact that the Italian Republic, especially after the decree of the President of the Council of Ministers of April 16 2008 (with limited amendments to the D.P.C.M. of 14 April 2006), has a national ceremonial like the other homologous states.

Italian Ceremonial and International Ceremonial

The Italian ceremonial takes care of:

- Activities of official representation of the state, its constituent bodies and public bodies in general;
- The use of the hymn and the national flag, the emblem of the state, national banners in solemn function and the honours of flags and banners;

- The hierarchy of public positions and of public importance, including, in the first instance, constitutional and those related to constitutional issues and honours, as well as the oath of public positions;
- The Republic's honours;
- The conduct of official ceremonies of constitutional relevance, of an orderly or simple public importance, including state burials;
- Acknowledgments and affiliations by the Head of State, government and representative bodies of the community;
- Military and maritime ceremonies;
- The recurrent and occasional public holidays and national mourning.

While international or diplomatic ceremonies are interested in:

- Formal aspects of international relations;
- State visits and international events;
- Honourable conferences at international level;
- Guarantees of diplomatic representatives.

Protocol Sources

The doctrine of the state protocol draws its basic foundations from the corpus of the constitutional norms of the state and by all the regulations that make up the structure of the Italian legal system.

All the provisions dictated by a specific subject are added to them, and those deriving from the practice which, in this particular field, is of great importance.

In the delineation of this regulatory framework, the international norms and practices governing the diplomatic ceremonial cannot be missed (Ricci 2016).

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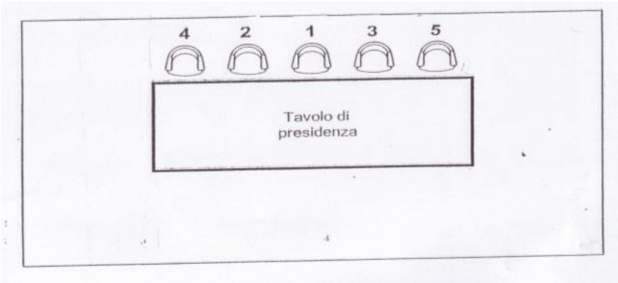
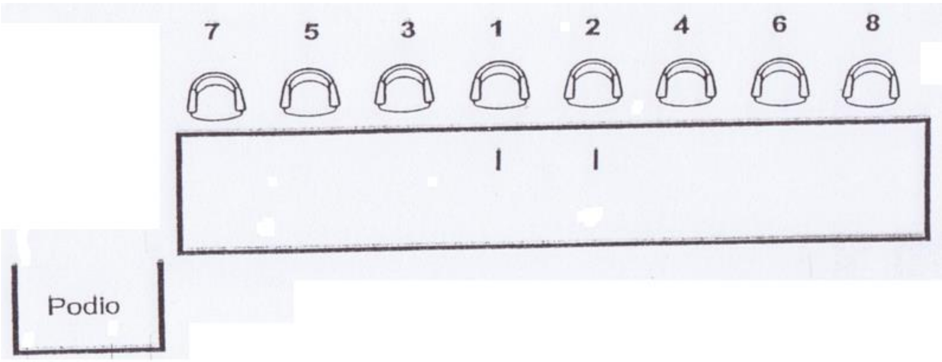
Appendices

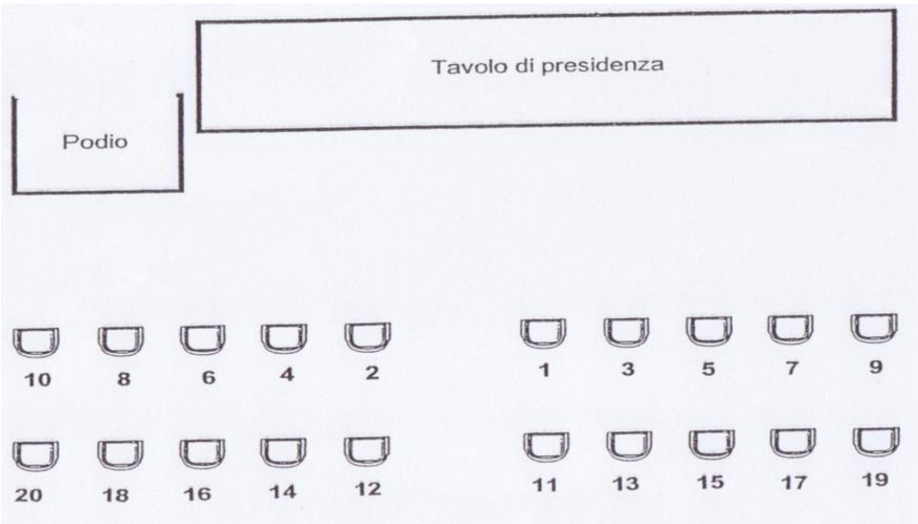
Appendix 1: Presidential table with a centre



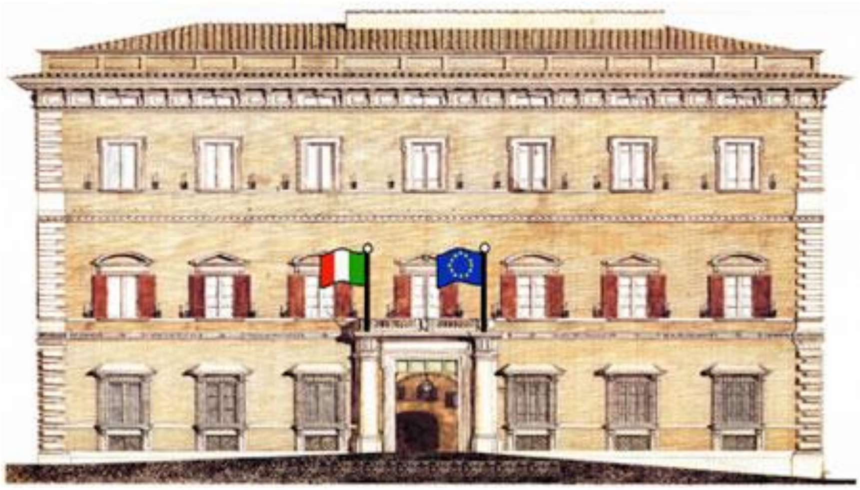
Appendix 2: Presidential table with double centre



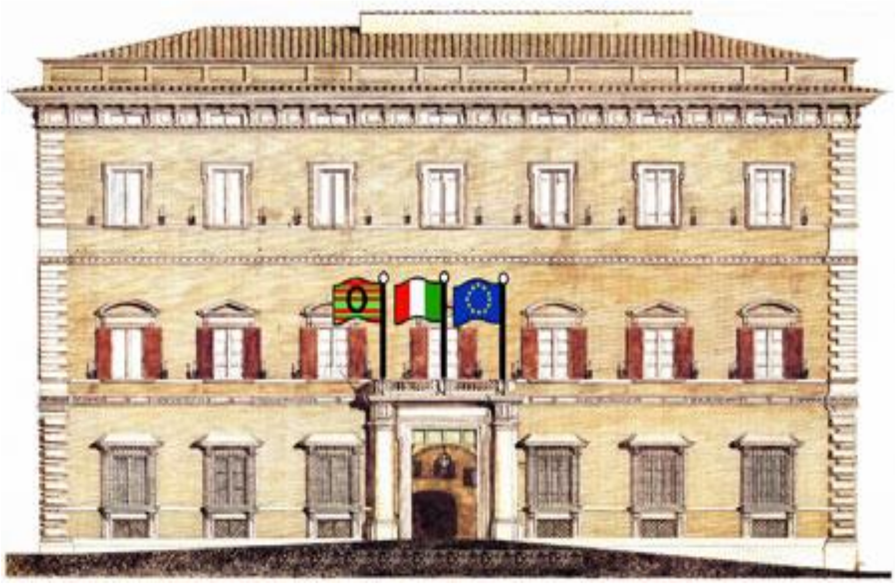
Appendix 3: Seats in audience with a central corridor



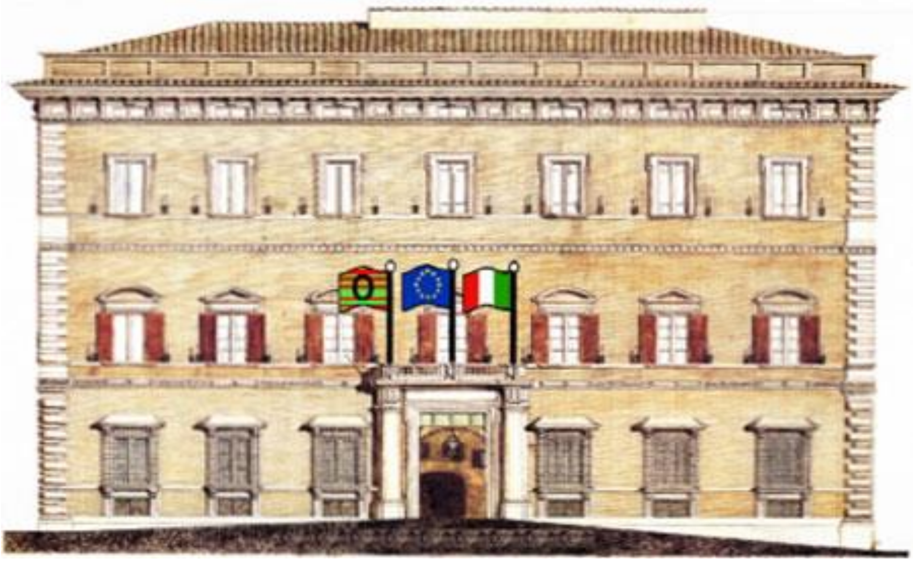
Appendix 4: Daily flags displayed in public building



Appendix 5: Flags displaying the presence of a foreign guest



Appendix 6: Flags displaying the presence of a European guest



Appendix 7: Three flags displaying a regional institution

CHAPTER THIRTEEN

SO YOU THINK WEDDINGS ARE EASY TO PLAN[1]?

MARIE HAVERLY

Since I started my wedding planning company in 2003 I have been passionate about bringing awareness to this vital and valuable role within the event industry. Over the past few years I have begun to research the industry, looking at the history of wedding planners and why this career path has notoriously become a choice that requires explanation or justification. As the wedding industry within events is still seen as a niche area of discussion, there is a distinct lack of academic theory on the subject of weddings. I hope that by writing I can open the door a little to what it is that a wedding planner might do to support a client or venue and how demanding the role can be for a practitioner. Throughout this chapter I look at the role of the wedding planner, the difficulties I have faced when starting out, the skills and passion that need to be developed to ensure success and also the role that the independent planner has within the world of event venues.

Let's Look at the World of Weddings and Wedding Planners

Weddings have become a performance, making sure you have a wedding that wows or at the very least sticks in everyone's mind as a luxurious affair is a must. However, this pressure to "perform" comes, as we know, with a price tag, one that is growing year on year. So why do we spend so much money on our wedding day? Is it that we want it to be the best, is it ego, is it the suppliers over-charging, or is it simply that we don't know when to stop? A wedding is a commodity that tends to avoid the threat of recession and financial hardship, people are spending on private events more than ever and the positive outcome of this is a steadily growing wedding and event industry, ensuring the continuation of employment and business opportunities. The wedding industry gives us a varied supply of business owners, ranging from the well-established and secure long-standing companies that offer experience and knowledge right down to the new business owner who has nervously cut their prices to gain work and build a portfolio. Word of mouth has always been the best form of advertising for many businesses; however, if you are new to the industry how do you get the word out there? And when we look at this from a bride's point of view, how she begins to work out who is worth researching further and who she should avoid.

The Wedding Planner

"What exactly can you do that I can't do myself?" is one question that wedding planners hear many times and the answer is often put simply "I can bring you contacts and experience". Working with hundreds of suppliers, many different venues and overcoming various challenges and problems, I feel this is a valuable service that only very few can provide in a professional capacity. An experienced wedding planner can save time as well as money and they can also help guide their clients so that nothing is forgotten and every detail is taken care of. A good planner will know which supplier to recommend for your wedding day, negotiate the venue's terms, advise where to cut corners, where to save money, where to invest and how to really get the best out of your plans. All of which any bride or groom can do themselves; however, how many want to, are able to or truly understand how long all of this can take? Wedding planners of course spend the majority of their time with clients ensuring they get the best value for their money, the right supplier for their requirements, and making sure everything is going to run smoothly for them. However, there is a very real need for a professional planner to offer emotional support as well as practical guidance. This planner will have a lot of experience of working with people, especially in highly charged situations so they are well placed to give help and advice when required.

Stress and Emotions

[1] This chapter is written from a practitioner point of view hence the reason there are no academic references.

One discussion to also consider is the stress involved in planning a wedding. It's well documented that wedding planning is stressful, however what isn't spoken about enough is the raw emotion that comes with this planning journey. It's not just about booking suppliers and choosing menus, couples have to handle family arguments, girls arguing over who will be bridesmaids, the over-helpful Aunt who really must make the dresses, let alone trying to be the go-between for their divorced parents who cannot bear to see each other on the wedding day. In our normal day to day lives we (thankfully) usually only have to deal with one or two emotional problems at a time. However, when you have 5 or 6 (or more) different stressful situations to handle and answer all at once, this can tip most couples over the edge. An ability to remain calm is a wedding planner's must-have, that and being able to understand people and manage expectations. Emotions can make a person act out of character at times, they might make choices they wouldn't normally make and can dread the big day rather than relish the idea of such a wonderful occasion. I often question the term "Bridezilla" and ask if this is a fair one, as not everyone can come through such a stressful situation and still smile at the end of it all. Whilst some people are very focused and confident when out of their comfort zone, not all brides can stand in front of everyone they know, or have ever known, and be completely vulnerable and share such an important moment without a little stage fright. There isn't much support out there for the stress felt as a couple embarking on a wedding planning journey, as a bride you are expected to shine brightly and with confidence on this special day; however if the bride is not brimming with confidence then this won't be an easy task for them. Many couples feel guilty at the thought of not being 100% happy smiley all the time, the expectation of guests is that this is the best day of your lives so you must enjoy every second. Of course that is every bride's aim but it's not always achievable, especially if you have a head and tummy full of nervous butterflies. A wedding planner might work through various concerns one by one with their clients, some of these worries might well be solved by answering a few questions – "will there be enough food and drink", "will the music be good enough", and "will the registrar help me with my vows". The key to many things like these is preparation, which any good wedding planner will have a handle on. For example, they will usually guide clients through a wedding rehearsal and address further concerns fully with the bridal party. With civil ceremonies it's unusual to have a rehearsal (after all the registrar or venue manager won't usually offer one) so if the couple are not getting married in a church then they might not have a clue what is about to happen. For any ceremony, however, a short run through before the big day can only go towards helping positively with preparations, the planner can explain what is likely to happen, and shed some light on common concerns and problems that may occur. They can organise the procession order, manage reserved seats and help the bridal party to understand their own duties for the day, this often helps to alleviate many concerns and helps to smooth worries for the big day. We all agree that when you know what's going to happen in any stressful situation and if you feel prepared this can help to relax the tension, it's also a great help to the planner and a good way to iron out any quirks in the plans or arrangements before the actual wedding day.

How to Start that Planning Journey

When initially meeting a couple for the first time to chat about their day the wedding planner would tend to talk through all the details in the order in which they happen. This helps everyone to focus on how the day might unfold and from here you can begin to put tasks down and form a calendar of sorts. This meeting might also include compiling a checklist, which everyone would contribute to, and develop. A good way to start the conversation might be by asking the couple to imagine waking up on their wedding day, what do they need? Where are they? Will they have hair and makeup artists present, how about clothes, breakfast, bubbly, and gifts for bridesmaids? The planner might then ask them to imagine themselves as a guest, what do they see when they arrive? Are there flowers and ribbons on the church gate maybe, how are they tied on? Do they need to weigh them down, how many do they need, do they need scissors to cut them off afterwards and so on. What the planner and the couple are doing is taking a slow walk through the day, piece by piece, and making notes so nothing gets forgotten and areas of support can be highlighted. Can you ask for help? Some couples might find it hard to ask a wedding planner to help them, this might be due to expense or it could be nerves at handing over some control for their special day. However, many a planner will tell you that when it is your wedding day you will not want to lay tables or sprinkle confetti when you should be getting into your gown. You won't want to be in a hot marquee when you should be having a sip of bubbly, or checking on suppliers when you could be chatting to friends. Setting up a marquee from scratch can take around 3 hours or more depending on what is included in the decoration and styling plan, this is precious time and couples won't want to rush through anything. Plus, as the decoration and set up takes place the couple are likely to be flooded with early guests, suppliers dropping off stuff and questions being asked by venue and catering staff. My advice as a wedding planner would be to avoid all of this and let someone else handle this for you.

The Wedding and Event Management Student

As more and more universities are offering event management programmes and courses are being produced all over the world, qualified wedding and event managers are joining the industry with a very real advantage. A well-developed study programme coupled with the experience of working with many couples and within varied events can give a wedding planner the backing to be confident in what they recommend, what they suggest and how they work. With so many tasks and duties to take on board, couples are looking for holistic support from well-researched and talented professionals.

What Is It Really Like to Work as a Wedding Planner?

When I began to study and work within the wedding industry I thought that the type of couple that would book a wedding planner would be quite disorganised, however it shocked me to soon learn that planning clients were in fact a mix of project managers, business owners and very organised people. It became clear to me that this was usually because they understand the need to have support, to have someone to run their "event" and recognise the need for recruiting help. I guess if you are not really organised you don't know what's in store? For those who wish to work in this field many seek advice from professionals with regards to getting into the wedding industry as a first step, an industry that although unregulated still remains a tricky area of the working world to navigate. One thing that became clear early on in my own career was the amount of time I'd have to devote to managing expectations, working for yourself has good points and bad points, any good self-help business manual will tell you this, and some examples are:

- Great stuff:
    - You choose your working hours
    - You set your fees and charges
    - You can choose who you work with
    - Full control over your working life
- Not so great stuff:
    - Your working hours no longer resemble a 9-5 week
    - What happened to my weekends!?
    - You will worry a fair amount about fees and packages
    - No holiday or sick pay (although you'll be surprised how healthy you become when you can't just take a "sicky")
    - Having to make all the decisions and stand by them can be challenging

I remember my first client meeting like it was yesterday; I was shaking all over and couldn't speak for nerves. I knew my subject but I hadn't worked with enough people to be able to converse confidently and articulate what it was I wanted to say. During this first meeting I decided that I needed to be honest and transparent with this new client, bluffing my way through the meeting was not going to end positively, instead I took on board all the questions and managed the couple's expectations by offering to respond once I had researched everything for them. This is something I have always found a challenge; every wedding and event is different from the previous and you need to be able to adapt your communication skills to ensure that you support your client to the best of your ability. Having knowledge of events is just one side of the pathway, you will need to be able to work with people closely, understand their wishes and manage expectations along the way of not only your client but also the team of suppliers you bring along with you. I have always thought it takes a certain person to be self-employed, I'm not sure it's for everyone as it can really take over your life, but for those who have commitment and courage then this could be for you. Over the years the UK has seen a fantastic growth in small businesses and cottage industries and this can only be a good thing, we all understand the benefit in supporting local businesses when you know the money you give them goes directly to their family rather than a large group of shareholders. It also means there are lots of choices when it comes to creative ideas, there is always something new to delight and explore, which can be extremely helpful when you are putting together plans for your clients. One other area that's important to mention with regards to event management is seasonality, and specifically the wedding season here in the UK. For many wedding professionals your busiest work period tends to be from April to September, although it does depend on where you focus your business. Therefore, as you can imagine with a busy summer season it can mean that your business might be subject to the “feast and famine” problem, where you are rushed off your feet for the summer months and then hardly any work comes in during the winter months. Couples do not want to spend any money in December, no one is thinking of weddings at this point in the year, however once the festivities are out of the way then it's all systems go – whether it's a newly engaged couple looking for guidance or a current booking now realising that their wedding is “this year”.

Working with Venues

It’s no big secret that independent wedding planners find it tricky to win any work from established wedding venues that have their own event teams in place, surely there’s no need for anyone to help from outside is there? This is something many wedding planners come across, it seems that the fear is that wedding planners might take away some of the control leaving the venue’s reputation on the line, even though the hope is that a good planner would enhance its reputation and support it rather than the opposite. Many clients also may falsely believe that the event managers within the venue will coordinate their day for them fully; as we see frequently this sadly isn’t often the case. Even the best venue event team won’t usually want to get involved in negotiating with suppliers that are not part of the venue package, they won’t visit the florist on the bride’s behalf to chat about changes and price matching, they won’t be there to support the bridesmaids when they can’t get the veil right in the morning or find an alternative to the collapsed cake currently melting in the dining hall. Being someone’s wedding planner isn’t just about the venue, there is so much more to the role, they look after every single aspect and this cannot possibly be covered by a wedding coordinator whose sole aim is to ensure the food gets out on time or the venue is set up correctly.

We could try to approach the problem of non-acceptance with an olive branch rather than fighting fire with fire, after all we need the support of the venue staff, as they might be the key to us being introduced to potential couples. A good planner will always meet with the venue’s wedding coordinator; find out all about their role and what they love the most about the role. The key is to express how beneficial it would be to work alongside them to ensure the day is perfect and their role is less stressful perhaps. You want them to see you as an asset rather than someone taking over or treading on toes, after all they know their venue better than you so respect that and learn from them. With the growing trend of festival style and outdoor, bespoke weddings taking hold we are seeing more and more requests for relaxed, private receptions and the only real way to achieve this is to have exclusive use of your wedding venue. Wedding planners have helped support private homes who have spacious grounds so that they can hold a number of wedding receptions, this can be so exciting as they often come with private gardens that a couple can hold an outdoor (non-legal) ceremony in and then picnic on the lawn afterwards perhaps. The beauty of hiring someone’s home is that the couple are likely to feel relaxed straight away, there are no staff bustling around in uniform or strict rules as to what you can eat or drink, no set timings and of course no general public. All of which can result in a much more relaxed wedding, where the couple have more control in what they do and who they have to provide their wedding requests. So as you can see there are many choices and options for couples now, the job of a wedding planner is to know which one to pick and how to negotiate with them.

I remember one venue I had managed on behalf of the owners for just under a year, we were about to hold the first series of weddings after a long marketing campaign and everyone was very excited. Unknown to us a group of local neighbours had decided that they didn’t want the venue—which was a privately-owned home in the country—holding events at all. The morning of the first wedding arrived and just as the bride arrived at the house the group of neighbours set up a blockade in the road and began to start a protest, a truly upsetting scene and clearly emotionally stressful for our couple. To manage the situation I spoke to the group leader, asked for support from them and contacted the local authorities so that they could attend the protest. We were able to move them along and ensure that our couple’s wedding was not affected, however this required a calm and confident approach – something that experience and maturity were able to provide for me on this occasion. The wedding planner’s role is so often misunderstood or wrongly pigeonholed as an extra expense that is beyond most couples’ requirements, however I am not sure how this situation would have developed if I wasn’t there to help and support.

Is the Role of the Wedding Planner Still a Mystery?

Not being understood is a constant frustration for a planner, after all when you are promoting yourself to any client then you want to be able to clearly explain what it is that you do and for others to understand very quickly how you fit into many wedding plans. Years ago the thought of paying for a professional wedding planner was unheard of, it was expensive and you just leave that job to Mum, friend, neighbour or to the hotel staff. However, as we as a nation move to having more unusual, personal and bespoke weddings which involve marquees in gardens, hiring of disused castles, swapping vows on a beach and similar, the need for a little creative help is a must. Also, people are now working longer hours as we struggle to save money for this amazing day so there is a real lack of time when it comes to actually giving the planning some attention, so having someone there to help is an asset that many couples are seeing the value in.

Nowadays there are more wedding planners working professionally than ever before and it is almost expected now by caterers and marquee companies, so much so that they often recruit their own to offer clients. Venues offer better services and planners are working harder than ever to bring support to ever busy clients. Life as a wedding planner isn't all sunshine and roses however, there has long been a certain sense of "bluffing" within the wedding industry, a fear that overcharging is common-place and inexperienced companies are able to start up without any qualifications or reputation. The wedding industry is one that does not carry any regulatory body and as a creative industry it is accepted that new businesses offering the latest exciting trend will start up and jump straight in without having to build a solid grounding first. Moving with changing styles and meeting demand in a fast-paced industry are skills that the savvy wedding business owner knows only too well. This "bluffing" is the reason the industry on the whole has become so wide and varied that couples feel genuine concern when it comes to choosing a supplier, they have no idea how to narrow down their choices, they struggle when researching what a fair price is and worry that they cannot ensure their money and wishes are protected. As the industry is not regulated it can be a minefield, therefore this is where a good wedding planner comes in handy, they can help guide and advise couples through this maze and help keep cowboy suppliers out of business. Legal requirements, insurance, budgeting, and project management are just some of the daily tasks all wedding planners take on for their clients and do so with gusto.

Wedding planners can see themselves managing tough projects, taking on tasks that couples find daunting and sometimes extremely stressful. It involves a lot of juggling, smoothing of egos and managing expectations of everyone involved in the wedding planning team. The journey begins by confirming the main structure of the wedding, establishing guest numbers, budgets, bridal party names and then you might move onto booking main suppliers, choosing the venue, securing outfits, choosing and researching suppliers such as photographers, music providers, celebrants, marquee and technical providers and catering plus managing all the main areas of the wedding, getting the timings set, handling emotions and ensuring that nothing is forgotten along the way. And this is just the beginning, as we see this industry grow the role of the planner is a secure one, but certainly not an easy one – as many couples find out, sometimes too late.

CONTRIBUTORS

Onur Akbulut works as an Assistant Professor in Mugla Sitki Kocman University, Fethiye Faculty of Business, Department of Tourism Management where he has been a faculty member since 2015. Previously he worked for Izmir Katip Celebi University Faculty of Tourism in the Department of Tourist Guiding with the same academic title. He completed his Master's Degree and Ph.D. in Akdeniz University Graduate School of Social Sciences in the years of 2004 and 2011 respectively. His research interests lie in the area of tourism management, event management and tourist guiding. He has publications in tourism related academic journals and he presented a number of proceedings in international academic conferences.

Adam Blake is a Professor of Economics in the School of Tourism, Bournemouth University. He is a specialist in modelling the economic impact of tourism and of tourism policies, with special interests in the economic impact of tourism on poverty, the effects of tourism taxes and the economic impacts of special events. He has completed research of this nature for government agencies in the UK, Scotland, Spain, Malta, Cyprus, Mauritius and Brazil. His research has provided both theoretical advances and research based evidence for government organisations. Adam is a resource editor for Annals of Tourism Research, is Head of Bournemouth University's International Centre for Tourism and Hospitality Research and is a former President of the International Association for Tourism Economics. Adam's research work has included projects for the UK Government on the economic impacts of the London 2012 Olympic Games as well as in other tourism and taxation related fields.

Alexandru Capatina is Professor and Head of the Business Administration Department, "Dunarea de Jos" University of Galati, Romania and Business Coach at Executive Agency of SMEs, European Commission. His research is focused on Customer Relationship Management, Competitive Intelligence and Business Simulations.

Yakin Ekin, works as an Assistant Professor in Mugla Sitki Kocman University, Fethiye Faculty of Business, Department of Tourism Management where he has been a faculty member since 2015. Previously he worked for Izmir Katip Celebi University Faculty of Tourism in the Department of Tourism Management with the same academic title. He completed his Master's Degree and Ph.D. in Akdeniz University Graduate School of Social Sciences in the years of 2004 and 2011 respectively. His research interests lie in the area of tourism management, destination competitiveness ad event management. He has publications in such tourism related academic journals as *Journal of Hospitality Marketing and Management*, *Tourism Analysis*. He has presented a number of proceedings in international academic conferences.

Anestis K. Fotiadis, PhD, is an Associate Professor at Zayed University, College of Communication and Media Science, Abu Dhabi, UAE. His research focuses on event management, rural tourism and sustainable development. He has published more than 40 research papers in international academic journals such as *Tourism Management* and *Journal of Business Research* along with several books and book chapters. Anestis K. Fotiadis is the corresponding author and can be contacted at: Anestis.Fotiadis@zu.ac.ae

Faouzi Ghidouche is a senior lecturer at HEC Algiers (business school – Kolea University Center). He also served there as the head of Business Science Department then as a Director of Studies. He developed a Master's programme in SCM & Distribution and he teaches supply chain management, inventory management and merchandising. Mr. Ghidouche completed his PhD in business sciences and received an accreditation to direct researches from Hec Algiers. His major research interests are: large scale trade, supply chain management and place branding, he contributed in many conferences related with trade and services in emergent countries.

Kamila Ghidouche Ait-Yahia is a senior lecturer at ENSM school of management (Kolea University Center which is located in Algeria). She was previously at Ecole des Hautes Etudes Commerciales (HEC Algiers – business school). She currently teaches marketing principles, consumer behaviour and communication. She holds a PhD in Business Sciences from HEC Algiers and a Master's degree in International Business from the University of Evry Val d'Essonne (France). She also obtained in 2013 an accreditation to direct researches issued by the HEC Algiers business school. Her major research interests are related to different marketing applications; more specifically: place branding, city image assessment and improvement, events' effect on cities, territorial attractiveness, and citizen participation. She is a member of scientific committees in various international conferences on marketing and tourism in North Africa.

Gaitree (Vanessa) Gowreesunkar is a lecturer at the University of Technology Mauritius. She has undertaken her PhD in Tourism Destination Management and Marketing, a merit scholarship based on her outstanding academic achievement. She is also the Executive Vice Chairperson at ANPRAS (www.anpras.org). She is engaged in various local projects related to community-based tourism, social entrepreneurship and island tourism.

Marie Haverly is a wedding expert, successful business owner and event management lecturer. Having run a successful wedding planning business since 2003, Marie has project managed over 650 events to date and built an enviable list of contacts within the world of events and hospitality. Marie is passionate about a fair and transparent event industry and is currently researching good business practice within the industry; alongside this she enjoys passing on her experience within the wedding community to students, suppliers and sharing knowledge with other industry experts alike. Further research interests include wedding planning and the growth of the wedding industry over the past century.

Ian Jones is Head of Department/Associate Professor in the Department of Sport and Physical Activity at Bournemouth University. His teaching and research interests are in the areas of sport behaviour, sport spectatorship and sport events. He is author of *Research Methods for Sport* (Routledge 2015) and co-author of *Qualitative Research in Sport and Physical Activity* (Sage 2012). He is a member of several editorial boards, including *Leisure Studies*, the *International Journal of Festival and Event Management*, and the *Journal of Sport & Tourism*. He is a member of the executive committee of the Leisure Studies Association

Maximiliano E. Korstanje is editor in chief of *International Journal of Safety and Security in Tourism* (UP Argentina) and *International Journal of Cyber Warfare and Terrorism* (IGI-Global US). He was elected as Foreign Faculty Member of AMIT, Mexican Academy for the study of Tourism Mexico. Besides being a Senior Researcher in the Department of Economics at University of Palermo, Argentina, he is a global affiliate of Tourism Crisis Management Institute (University of Florida US), Centre for Ethnicity and Racism Studies (University of Leeds), The Forge (University of Lancaster and University of Leeds UK) and The International Society for Philosophers, hosted in Sheffield UK. With more than 950 published papers and 40 books, Korstanje is subject to biographical records for Marquis Who`s Who in the World since 2009. He was nominated for 5 honorary doctorates for his contributions to the study of the effects of terrorism in tourism. In 2015 he became Visiting Research Fellow at School of Sociology and Social Policy, University of Leeds, UK and the University of La Habana Cuba. His recent books include, *Terrorism in a Global Village: How Terrorism Affects Our Lives* (Nova Science Publishers 2016), *The Rise of Thana Capitalism and Tourism* (Routledge 2016), *Terrorism and Tourism* (Studium Press 2016) and *Terrorism, Tourism and the End of Hospitality in the West* (Palgrave-Macmillan 2017).

Shem Wambugu Maingi is a Lecturer in the Department of Tourism Management at Kenyatta University in Kenya. He has been working in the University for the last six (6) years as both a tutorial fellow and Lecturer. He is currently pursuing research interests towards postdoctoral studies in Sustainable Tourism and Events Development in African contexts. Dr Maingi completed his PhD at Kenyatta University in 2014, Master's Degree at Moi University in 2007 and an Undergraduate Degree at the University of Nairobi in 2002. His research interests include sustainable tourism and events management, marketing and development. Dr Shem Maingi has published nine (9) articles in refereed journals internationally, one of which received a joint-award as article of the year 2011. He is committed to research and academic development and is pursuant of these values in East Africa.

Rami Mhanna is a Senior Lecturer in Event Management in the Department of Applied Management Studies at the University of Winchester. Rami's research interests focus on Olympic studies, leveraging legacies of international sport event and sport tourism. He received his PhD from Bournemouth University exploring and critically evaluating factors contributing to leveraging legacies from sport events over the long term in different host destinations. His recent work has explored a number of research themes connected with the London 2012 Olympic Games such as the long term tourism legacy, international business legacy, sponsorship and the role of media in leveraging legacy outcomes from such international sport events. Rami designed, led and delivered leadership and management education across undergraduate, postgraduate and executive education levels at a number of UK institutions. He has active interests in sport, tourism and events education.

Ncedo Ntloko is a Lecturer and Programme Coordinator in the Department of Tourism and Events Management at Cape Peninsula University of Technology (CPUT). He is the subject coordinator for tourism development and has been instrumental in driving the research agenda in the department through the Centre for Tourism Research in Africa (CETRA), conducting both academic and industry research. Prior joining CPUT, Ntloko worked as a Junior Researcher at the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) for the Urban, Rural and Economic Development-Human Development, Environment and Tourism section and worked on a number of research projects commissioned by government and private sector. He later worked for Independent Development Trust (IDT) as a Programme Implementation Manager for the Presidential Programme called Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Programme (ISRDP). His responsibilities included building capacity on the implementation of the programme at provincial and nodal/district level; systems implementation; reporting to national government by submitting and presenting Cabinet Legkotla Reports about the status of programme implementation and provided Local Economic Development Support to the Province and Chris Hani District Municipality (CHDM).

Manuela Pilato holds a PhD in Agrifood Business. She has been working in research and management positions in different European universities in the Agribusiness and EU policy sector, including the University of Catania (Italy), the London School of Economics and Political Science (LSE) and the University of Bucharest (Romania). Since 2014, she has been working for the University of Winchester within the Faculty of Business, Law and Sport and the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, expanding her research and teaching interests in Responsible Management, Sustainable Development and Global Issues. She has extensive research experience and robust analysis testified by participation in conferences, international networks, publications in peer-reviewed journals and edited volumes in the Agribusiness; Environmental and Sustainability issues.

Chris Powell is Director of The Event Expert. He specialises in helping individuals and teams design, plan and deliver their own high-quality event experiences. Chris has been designing, planning and delivering events for the past 20+ years. He has been a local authority events manager and events director of a range of events and festivals, as well as helping a variety of organisations to deliver their events – as a freelance events manager and coach. For the past 16 years he has been delivering in-house, bespoke event management courses and coaching programmes covering all types of public and business events. His clients are first time event planners right through experienced event professionals and include major corporate, local authorities, UK and European training companies, and a variety of marketing agencies and individuals.

Francesco Raneri is a renowned expert and Professor of Ceremonial and Communication at the University of Catania, Italy. He teaches Relational Skills at the School of Specialization in Nephrology at the University of Catania. He teaches Communication techniques at the Conservatory "Vincenzo Bellini" of Catania. He is author of several publications in the field of journalism, ceremonial and communication, he trains executives and officials at national and regional level and public and private bodies in the field of ceremonial and communication. He holds the position of president of the Ceremonial National Academy of Art, Image and Communication (A.C.C.) and is the Director of the International Journal on-line of the *Journal of Applied Ceremonial and Communication in Management*.

Wendy Sealy is Senior Lecturer and Programme Coordinator for the BA (Hons) Event Management at the University of Chichester, Business School, in the United Kingdom. Originally from Barbados, Dr Sealy has worked in the corporate event and hospitality industry for twenty (20) years. She has worked at some of the world's finest resorts including Marriott International and Almond Beach Resorts (now Sandals) and Ramada Jarvis Hotels in the United Kingdom. During her career she has staged events for prestigious corporate entities, celebrities and royalty. Dr Sealy has been teaching event management for over seven (7) years. Before moving to Chichester she taught Sports Management at the University of the West Indies, Cave Hill and Tourism Management at Bucks New University, Buckinghamshire. She has published in peer reviewed academic journals and texts on Caribbean tourism. Her current research interests include embedding experiential learning into vocational degrees and safe event management best practice but she also has a keen interest in golf tourism and tourism distribution systems. Dr Sealy is a consultant to hospitality and event businesses in West Sussex and London. She is also on the editorial committee of the new journal *Tourism and Sustainability* and is a reviewer for the *Journal of Student Engagement*.

Natalie Semley became a lecturer at Plymouth University in 2008, after successfully completing her BSc (hons) and MSc with a first and distinction, respectively. Since joining the teaching team, she has completed her PhD and become a Senior Fellow of the HEA. Natalie is currently the Programme Leader for the undergraduate Tourism pathways and is the module leader for the Festivals and Event Tourism module at Plymouth University. Her research interests are broad and include visitor motivation, the impacts of tourism-related crime, and community responses to tourism impacts alongside specific areas of special interest tourism, such as festival tourism.

Hugues Séraphin holds a PhD from the Université de Perpignan Via Domitia (France). He is also a fellow of the HEA. Hugues Séraphin joined the University of Winchester (Business School) in 2012. Dr Hugues Séraphin has been teaching for over 10 years. He started his career as a lecturer in French at Golden Hillock School (Birmingham, UK), and then taught Travel and Tourism at Kingston College (London, UK) for 6 years. He also used to be a visiting lecturer at Normandy Business School (France), Sup de Co Larochelle (France), ESC Pau (France), IEFT (Groupe IDRAC, France) and Université de Perpignan Via Domitia (France). His teaching and research interests include Event Management and Tourism Management.

Nataša Slak Valek Ph.D. in Business, specialises in Tourism. She teaches Tourism related courses at undergraduate and graduate level at Zayed University in Abu Dhabi, UAE. Dr Slak Valek earned her doctorate in Business from the University of Ljubljana at Faculty of Economics. Her research focuses on Tourism and Tourism Marketing, and as a former professional athlete she is interested in Sport Tourism research as well. Prior to ZU, she worked for ten years at the National Tourism Office of Slovenia, first as a Professional Researcher and later Marketing Manager, where her responsibilities were PR and Marketing activities in promoting a country as a tourism destination. She worked as well at the Faculty for Tourism at University of Maribor (Slovenia) and in the International College, Department for Entertainment management of I-Shou University in Taiwan R.O.C. She is a member of European Travel Commission and registered as a professional researcher at the Slovenian Research Agency.

Anastasia Spyridou, PhD Candidate, is currently a PhD candidate for Gdansk University of Technology, Faculty of Management and Economics. Her research interests are event management, tourism economics and bankruptcy issues.

Kamilla Swart is a Professor in the Faculty of Business and Management Sciences at Cape Peninsula University of Technology (CPUT). Her research interests include sport and event tourism, with a specific focus on mega-events and event policies, strategies and evaluations. She was instrumental in driving the 2010 FIFA World Cup Research Agenda and served as the City of Cape Town's Research Coordinator for 2010. She serves as the project lead for CPUT for the CARNiVAL project. Kamilla has published on varied topics related to the bidding and impacts of sport tourism events in South Africa and has co-edited three special issues on the 2010 FIFA World CupTM. She completed her doctoral degree in education and sport tourism and graduated from Illinois State University (ISU) in December 2001. While enrolled in the doctoral program at ISU, she served as a Research Associate for the Bureau of Tourism and Recreation Research (BTRR) from 1998-1999. Kamilla has, from 2004-2013 published 30 peer reviewed articles, 11 book chapters and 4 conference proceedings as well as numerous conference presentations and technical reports. Kamilla co-authored the first U.S. text on sport tourism in 2002.

Chris Vassiliadis, PhD, is a Professor of Marketing at the University Macedonia, Department of Business Administration, Thessaloniki, Greece, where he teaches marketing courses at postgraduate and graduate level. Also, he is a Collaborating Member of the Greek Open University. His research interests focus on marketing of services and the management of tourist destinations, and his work has been published in various international journals and conferences including *Tourism Management*, *Journal of Travel Research*, *The Services Industries Journal*, *Journal of International Tourism Research* and *Journal of Vacation Marketing*. In addition, he is the author of two books.

Eryn White holds a Bachelor of Arts (BA) in Events Management from the University of Winchester, from which she graduated in October 2017. Here, she was included on the Winchester University Scholars Scheme for 1st Class Students, partook in the Winchester University Research Apprenticeship Programme, and won an Award for Outstanding Academic Achievement. Prior to her career in Events Management, she worked as a Chef from 2009, before moving on to teaching in 2013. During this time, she witnessed the mass-wastage that generally accompanies the catering industry, as well as seeing first-hand a lack of education in wastage, recycling and sustainability. It wasn't until 2014 that she started her career as an Events Manager, working for a Manor House in Dorset; this led to her seeking further education and an interest in all areas surrounding events. In particular, Eryn has a passion for investigating areas lacking standardisation, or those frequently looked over, especially sustainability and environmental impacts surrounding organised events. It is her hope that she may actively contribute to a more sustainable future and enlighten those that may be less aware of the issues.

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