# SPECIAL EVENTS AND TOURISM BEHAVIOUR: A CONCEPTUALISATION AND AN EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS FROM A VALUES PERSPECTIVE

by

Leo Kenneth Jago
B.E., B.Ec., M.Bus.

This thesis is presented in fulfilment of
the requirements of the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy.

Department of Hospitality, Tourism and Marketing
Faculty of Business

Victoria University

1997

# DECLARATION

This thesis contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any university or other institution. To the best of my knowledge, this thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person, except where due reference is made in the text.

_____

Leo Kenneth Jago

# ABSTRACT

Despite the fact that special events have become key components of the tourism development strategy for many regions, the amount of research that has been conducted within the field of special events does not reflect its importance. It is unlikely that the substantial growth rate that the field of special events has experienced in recent years is sustainable and an understanding of consumer patronage in relation to special events will be crucial for the development and promotion of events in the future. This study seeks to help address these shortcomings.

In seeking to understand the field of special events, a model that involved the perspectives of six major parties was proposed. The fundamental aim of this study was to explore one of these perspectives, namely, that of consumers. This perspective was then used as the basis for a proposed consumer decision making model in relation to visitor attractions, including special events, that underpinned the second part of the thesis.

The first part of this study sought to conceptualise systematically, special events from a consumer perspective and to conduct a comparative methodological assessment of three approaches to market segmentation in terms of their ability to explain consumer behaviour in relation to special events. The three approaches used were personal values, psychographics and demographics.

A comprehensive and systematic literature review was conducted to identify the attributes that could be used to categorise an event as 'special'. Based upon this review, a schema of event categories was proposed as well as a listing of the core and qualifying attributes that could be used to describe each of the special event categories. A set of definitions for each of the main special event categories was then developed. In order to operationalise the term 'special event', primary research was then conducted to identify the attributes that consumers believed were important in describing a special event. Several distinct measuring techniques, including elicitation, attribute rating and conjoint analysis, were used in the questionnaire for this part of the study, in an effort to derive a comprehensive view of the consumer understanding

of special events and to facilitate the convergent validation of the various techniques. It was found that there were four principal attributes that consumers used to describe a special event, these being: the number of attendees, the international attention due to the event, the improvement to the image and pride of the host region as a result of hosting the event, and the exciting experience associated with the event. The study also found a high degree of convergence between the techniques used.

The second part of this study sought to understand and predict consumer behaviour in relation to visitor attractions in general, and special events in particular. This further developed the consumer perspective that was the key underlying theme of the thesis. In the second part of this study, 500 randomly selected Melbourne residents were asked to indicate their visit behaviour in relation to a range of visitor attractions including special events. Three dimensions of visit behaviour were measured in order to overcome limitations noted in earlier studies. The visit dimensions used were actual visitation, visit interest and visit intention. This enabled analysis of respondents' visit behaviour on three dimensions to be assessed at both the generic level and at the individual attraction level. Being an origin-based study, unlike most of the studies that have been conducted in this field which have been destination-based, enabled consumers and non-consumers alike to be considered. Although the consumer decision making model, referred to earlier, which was used in this part of the study, included a range of variables thought to impact upon the consumer decision process, the focus of this thesis was on the comparative abilities of personal values, psychographics and demographics to explain consumer behaviour. Personal values were measured in the questionnaire via the List of Values (LOV) and psychographics were measured using a battery of AIO statements (Activity, Interest and Opinion). Assessing the explanatory power of three techniques on three dimensions of visitation to a wide range of visitor attractions enabled a systematic evaluation to be conducted that was more methodologically rigorous than many of the other studies that have been reported in this field.

Analysis of the data found that special events were regarded by consumers as a separate category of visitor attractions and that the segmentation approaches assessed in this study were better able to explain behaviour in relation to special events than

they were able to explain behaviour in relation to permanent attractions. Although psychographics demonstrated explanatory power well ahead of both the LOV and demographics, the explanatory power was not high for any of the approaches.

Based on the research that has been reported on the importance of personal values to consumers, it would be expected that values should have substantial explanatory power. The fact that the LOV was not able to provide substantial explanatory power in relation to special events in this study was suggested to be related to the measurement of values as opposed to a more fundamental problem with values themselves. Results of this study questioned the comprehensiveness of the LOV.

The finding that none of the variables used in this study was able to account for a large percentage of consumer behaviour suggested strongly that there were other important independent variables not measured in this study. The influences of travel party and travel occasion on behaviour were seen as two such variables.

# ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

# TABLE OF CONTENTS

## SPECIAL EVENTS AND TOURISM BEHAVIOUR:
## A CONCEPTUALISATION AND AN EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS
## FROM A VALUES PERSPECTIVE

<div align="right"><b>Page</b></div>

# LIST OF TABLES

# LIST OF FIGURES

# CHAPTER 1

# INTRODUCTION

## *1.1 Background*

There are few developed countries for which tourism is not an important sector of the economy. For many developing countries, the growth potential of tourism provides a particularly attractive opportunity, especially in economies where traditional industries are in a state of decline.

Modern international tourism commenced at the end of the Second World War (Crouch 1992) and growth in tourism since this time has been rapid. Mass tourism has been the engine behind much of this growth. This is likely attributable to the 'production mentality' that underpins many developed societies, whereby operating costs are reduced as output increases. As a consequence, it has often been assumed that large tourist numbers would naturally lead to increased profitability of the industry. However, there is now concern in some quarters, that the benefits of mass tourism have been overstated and the costs understated, if not ignored altogether. In 1992, the Pacific Asia Travel Association produced a report that critically evaluated the mass tourism phenomenon (PATA 1992). This report contended that mass tourism was not a sustainable form of tourism as it had major negative impacts on both the natural and social environments. The report also contended that mass tourism in many parts of the world did not produce the promised economic benefits and in fact led to what the report termed "profitless volume" (p. 9).

During the 1990s, there has been a growing number of people advocating a move away from mass tourism to forms of tourism that will be sustainable and will deliver greater economic benefits. Often these alternative forms of tourism have been categorised as 'special interest tourism', the important characteristics of which have been claimed to be low volume and high value (Hall 1995). There are many forms of special interest tourism including ecotourism, heritage tourism, cultural tourism, adventure tourism, rural tourism, industrial tourism and special event tourism. The

final form in this list, which is the topic of this thesis, has experienced substantial growth in recent years and special events "are now widely recognised as one of the fastest growing types of tourism attractions" (Crompton and McKay 1997, p. 429).

An important factor in the growth of the field of special events has been the role played by the media, especially in relation to large special events such as the Olympic Games or the Formula One Grand Prix. As a result of this media focus on the larger special events, many people fail to recognise that these events make up only a very small proportion of the special events that are on offer.

The variety of special events on offer is substantial and there are many reasons why host regions wish to stage them. Some of the more common reasons are to inject money into the region, to enhance the awareness of a region, to build community spirit, and to improve facilities for the region. As with tourism itself, however, it is important to recognise that there are costs associated with special events and detailed planning is required to ensure that the relationship between benefits and costs is optimised.

In recognising the importance to the tourism industry of special events, most of Australia's state and territory government tourism organisations have established special event divisions to enhance the number and size of special events being offered in the relevant region. Since the demand for special events has greatly exceeded the supply in most places, the need for research in this field has been given low priority, which has resulted in a dearth of research being conducted. With the rapid growth in the number of special events that has occurred in more recent times, however, there is an increasing likelihood that the market for special events is approaching saturation (Janiskee 1994). In order for special events to survive in a saturating market, it becomes more important for special events to be tailored specifically to meet the needs of the consumer. This requires a detailed understanding of consumer behaviour in relation to special events, which is an area of research that has received little attention (Gorney and Busser 1996).

Of the research that has been done in this field, much has been descriptive in nature and lacking in rigour (Mount and Leroux 1994), and it has often been quite misleading (Burns, Hatch and Mules 1986). Despite the importance of special events and the dearth of research in this field, leisure scientists have been slow to address the problem (Cousineau 1991; Butler and Smale 1991). According to Roche (1994), little of the research that has been done has focussed on causation and explanation; instead it has tended to concentrate on the effects, thereby doing little for the understanding of special events. Given the focus now accorded to special events, it is quite urgent that research into the field of special events be advanced (Mohr, Backman, Gahan and Backman 1993).

As a result of its rapid growth, the field of special events is highly unstructured and little has been done to reduce the semantic ambiguity of the field. With respect to the need to develop an understanding of consumer needs in relation to special events, most of the few studies that have been conducted to examine segmentation and consumer motives have been destination-based as contrasted with origin-based. The major drawback of destination-based studies is that they consider only the needs of patrons and ignore the needs of the wider consumer market (Ryan 1995).

### *1.2 Research Aim and Scope*

The aim of this thesis was to contribute to overcoming these shortfalls using a consumer orientation in order to achieve three key objectives:

1. To develop a systematic conceptualisation of special events,
2. To develop an explanatory model of consumer choice in relation to special events, and
3. To compare and evaluate the performance of three segmentation techniques in explaining consumer behaviour in relation to special events.

Although a number of researchers has discussed various definitions of special events, little has been done to draw together the results of these analyses in order to build a conceptual framework for the field. No research has been found that

attempts to conceptualise special events from a consumer perspective and to develop a definitional typology which is essential for comparing studies.

An origin-based study was adopted rather than the more commonly used destination study, in order that the behaviour of the entire market could be considered, not just current consumers. Since respondents to the study were selected at random, it is possible to generalise the findings to the total population relevant to this study.

Many research studies appear to utilise a single data gathering technique and to subject the data to single methods of analysis. This may raise questions about the stability of the findings to changes in techniques and there is often insufficient rigorous comparison of techniques in research studies. Since methodological rigour was seen as an important element of this study, convergent validation was employed in this thesis wherever possible so that comparative assessments of techniques could be conducted. Personal values was chosen as the prime criteria in the segmentation part of the research, with psychographics and demographics being selected for comparative purposes. Personal values has been proposed in a variety of settings, as a valuable technique to segment markets and understand consumer behaviour (see, for example, Beatty, Kahle, Homer and Mirsa 1985; Madrigal and Kahle 1994; Pitts and Woodside 1984). Values, which are said to underpin attitudes, are claimed to guide behaviour in a general sense and have been used effectively for this purpose by various researchers. This study assessed the use of values as a means of segmenting the market in relation to special events and for explaining special event related behaviour.

Since an origin study was adopted, it was possible to include a range of attractions so that generic tourism behaviour could be explored, rather than simply behaviour in relation to a specific special event.

Past visitation has been the measure of consumer behaviour in most studies conducted in this field to date. Such a measure is adequate for developing some aspects of descriptive and explanatory models of behaviour but less so for the

development and testing of predictive models. Proposing a model that was able to predict behaviour was seen as an important outcome of this research and in order to facilitate the testing of this outcome, visit interest and visit intention were measured for each attraction as well as visit history.

## 1.3 Importance of the Subject

Special events have become a key element in the tourism development strategies of many regions, with an increasing number of cities now adopting special event related designations such as 'festival city' (Getz and Smith 1994). In Australia, special events are listed as important strategic areas in most state and territory tourism plans and each of the state and territory government tourism organisations believes that it has a competitive advantage in the field of special events (Jago and Shaw 1995).

Of the small amount of research that has been conducted in the field of special events to date, much has been from a supply perspective where events and their impacts are the foci of study. A market perspective of special events is crucial if particular special events are to survive in an increasingly competitive market where the cost of staging such events has risen substantially. Developing explanations for consumer behaviour in relation to special events will assist organisers of special events to create or modify events that meet the needs of consumers and to promote them in the most effective means. This information would also assist state and regional tourism organisations in developing their marketing strategies in order to maximise the benefits of special event tourism.

## 1.4 Limitations and Assumptions

The key limitation of the primary research component of this study is that it was restricted to Melbourne residents and, therefore, it is not possible to generalise the findings beyond this region. However, the conceptualisation of special events that was conducted, was based on an extensive literature review and is international in scope.

## 1.5 A General Model of Special Events

There is a variety of types of theoretical models, each of which serves a different purpose. According to Getz (1986), theoretical models can be described as 'descriptive' where the model simply defines the system's main elements, 'explanatory' where the model looks at the relationships between components without necessarily specifying causality, and 'predictive' where the relationship of causality is explored to permit forecasting.

Although a number of models has been developed to describe or define tourism (see, for example, Leiper 1995; Mill and Morrison 1992; Witt and Moutinho 1995), only two references to any kind of special event tourism models have been found: one by Sparrow (1989) and the other by Getz (1997). In his introduction, Sparrow (1989, p. 250) stated that his purpose was "to provide a discussion on a suggested model for defining what constitutes a tourism hallmark event", which does not seem consistent with the actual title of his model, being, 'Planning for Tourism Hallmark Events Model'. The reality of the Sparrow model is that it would be better classed as a diagrammatic description of the steps involved in the planning of hallmark events than as a theoretical planning model. It certainly has no application beyond the practical planning process.

The Getz (1997) model was based on the key perspectives and inter-relationships associated with special events and the diagrammatic representation of this model is presented as Figure 1.1. Getz indicated clearly his belief that one must consider special events from a number of perspectives in order to fully grasp the meaning of special events. In his model of perspectives, which would be classed as a descriptive model, Getz listed six perspectives of special events: organiser, sponsor, customer, community, environment and economy. After reading the descriptions that Getz provided for each of the six perspectives, the merit of the final two perspectives was not clear. Unlike the other perspectives, these two did not relate to people and although they impacted upon, and were impacted by special events, it is not clear that they should have been classed as perspectives.

*Figure 1.1 Getz Model of Special Events.*
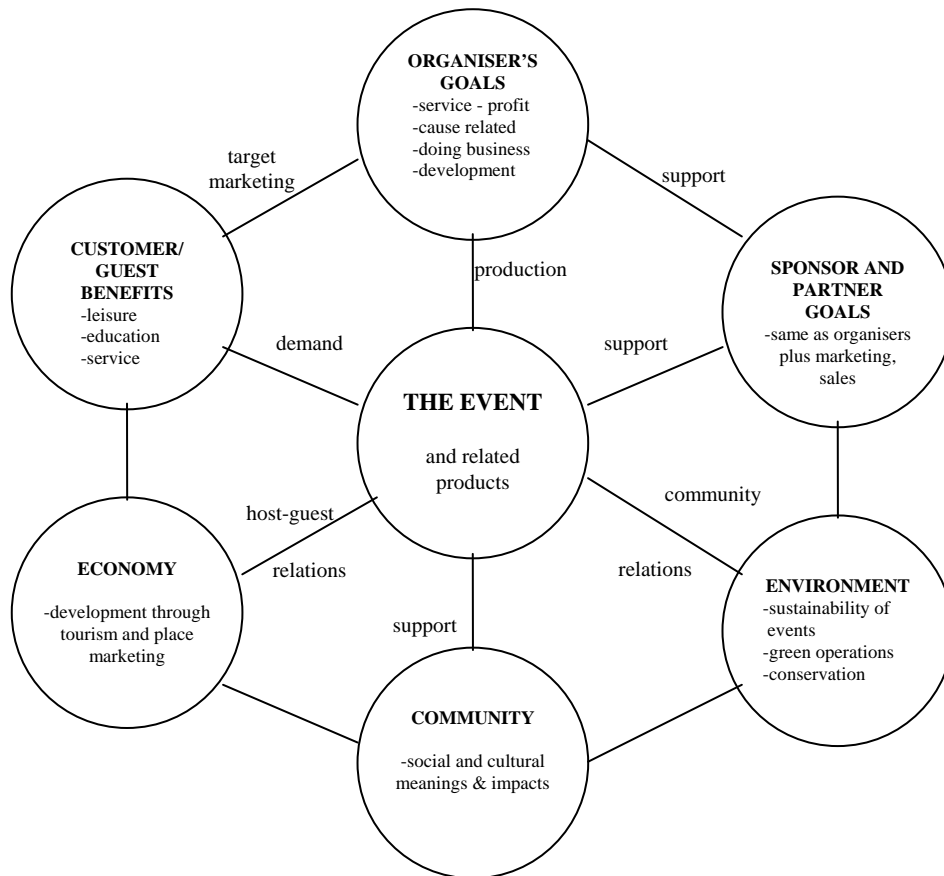
Source: Figure 3.1 in Getz (1997).

The concept of examining special events from various perspectives prompts one to recognise the complexity of the field and the need to consider the interests of different groups. Therefore, a model based on perspectives has been presented here to represent special events. This model, which was derived from that provided by Getz, includes the additional perspectives of suppliers and government, and deletes reference to environmental and economic perspectives. A diagrammatic representation of this model is presented in Figure 1.2. In a schematic sense, the model shows the relationship between the various parties involved in the operation of a special event using labelled arrows to identify the main flows that occur between the different parties. There is clearly a high degree of inter-relationship between the groups involved.

*Figure 1.2 Model of Special Events.*

Awareness
& Sales

Community

Labour & Payment

Support

Popularity

Government

Support

Patrons

Awareness &
Economic
Benefits

Economic
Benefits &
Popularity

Special
Events
Patrons

Patrons

Special
Event

Payment

Organiser

Need
Satisfaction

Resources

Revenue

Goods
&
Services

Co-ordination

Marketing Efforts

Suppliers
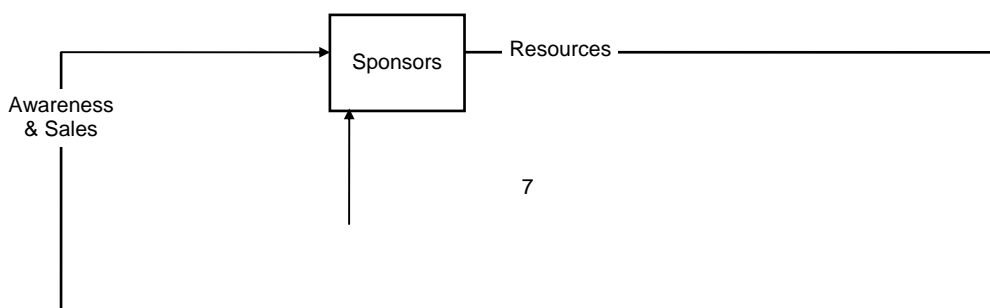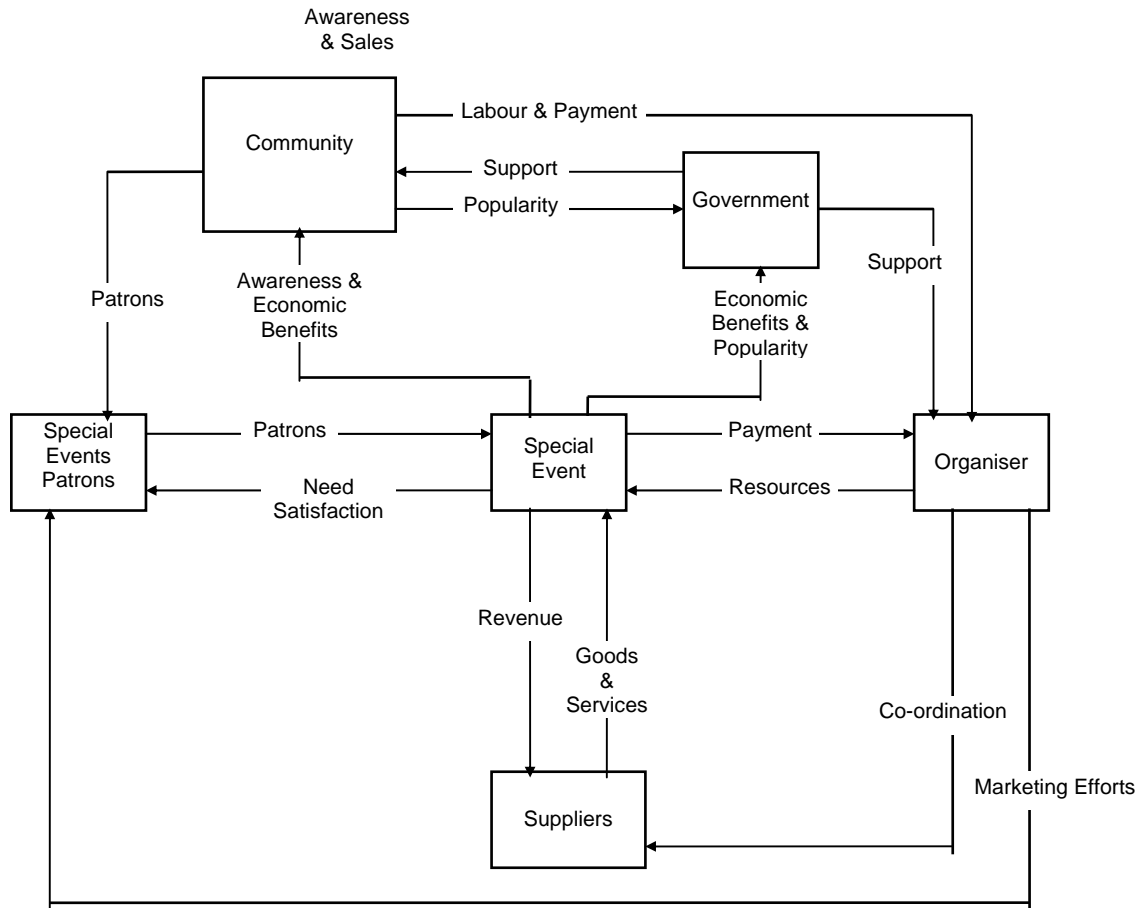
In considering this model, it is important to recognise that expectations and terms of success vary for each of the perspectives. It would therefore be possible for a particular special event to be regarded as a success by some of the participant groups, and as a failure by others. In order to assess the event's success from the different perspectives, therefore, it is necessary to understand the objectives and criteria of the various groups. The timeframe should also be considered in assessing special events as some perspectives would consider the event in relation to short term goals whilst others would consider a longer term perspective.

The model presented in Figure 1.2 provides a useful overview of the various groups involved in the conduct of a special event and how these groups relate to each other in a general sense. However, to fully understand the operation of a special event, one needs to explore in a detailed sense, the relationships between each of the parties identified in this model. The complexity is such that each of these relationships would become a study in its own right. This thesis explores in detail one perspective identified in the model, namely, that of the consumer. Given that the consumer

orientation is fundamental to modern marketing, it is essential that this perspective be thoroughly understood if special events are to reach their potential. This is not meant to undermine the importance of the other perspectives, but it does provide a reason for considering the consumer perspective first.

## *1.6 Special Event Consumer Behaviour Model*

Although, in recent years, a number of researchers has developed and explored tourism choice behaviour models (see, for example: Woodside and Lysonski 1989; Um and Crompton 1990; Crompton 1992; Crompton and Ankomah 1993; Ryan 1994), very little event-specific research on motivation and behaviour has been conducted (Uysal, Gahan and Martin 1993).

Despite the fact that the terms used to describe different stages of the consumer purchase decision process vary, there is wide recognition that the key elements of the process are:

- Problem recognition
- Information search
- Alternative evaluation
- Purchase decision
- Postpurchase behaviour

(See, for example, Assael 1992; Berkowitz, Kerin and Rudelius 1989; Engel, Blackwell and Miniard 1995; Mowen 1993; Schiffman, Bednall, Watson and Kanuk 1997).

Berkowitz, Kerin and Rudelius (1989) presented a diagrammatic representation of the influences on the consumer purchase decision process that included the marketing mix influences, psychological influences, sociocultural influences, and situational influences. This model is useful to identify the range of factors that influences the decision making process. However, it fails to explore the relationships between the different influences themselves and does not specifically address the role of consumer experience in the process.

Schiffman, Bednall, Watson and Kanuk (1997) proposed a more sophisticated model of consumer decision making which was divided into three discrete, but interrelated sections. Although this approach facilitates the reader's ability to understand the components of the model, it implied that the process was more sequential than reality would suggest. The double headed arrows between the different sections suggested a two-way flow between sections but even the titles of the groups themselves, namely, input, process, and output, reinforced the idea of a process flow. Ignored in this model were any influence of the buying situation itself, which can be quite substantial, and any reference to the relationship between memory and experience in interpreting the firm's marketing efforts.

A more widely cited model of the consumer decision process was developed by Engel, Blackwell and Miniard (1995) and the diagrammatic representation of this model is presented in Figure 1.3. This model is more complex than the one provided by Schiffman, Bednall, Watson and Kanuk (1997) in that it broke down into component parts, the decision process and provided more details regarding the interrelationships between the various influences on the process. It included the buying situation, which is potentially an important influence, and it made quite extensive reference to the prominence of memory in the process. Although the buying situation was specifically listed under environmental influences, it should be considered important enough to warrant a distinct category. It was also unfortunate that this model did not identify a direct relationship between consumer experience, product, and memory. Such experience is an important element of memory. Another shortfall with the Engel, Blackwell and Miniard model was that it did not identify consumer interest and intention as stages in the purchase decision process. This is somewhat surprising given the importance that is accorded to intention in particular, in the Theory of Planned Behaviour and the Theory of Reasoned Action, both of which are discussed at length by Engel, Blackwell and Miniard (1995).

*Figure 1.3 Engel, Blackwell and Miniard Consumer Decision-process Model.*

**Need Recognition**

10
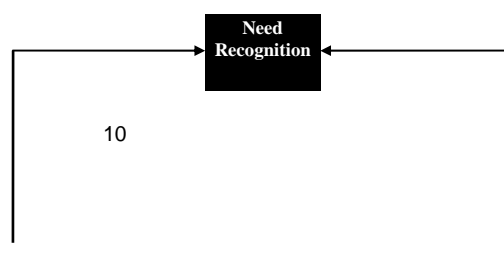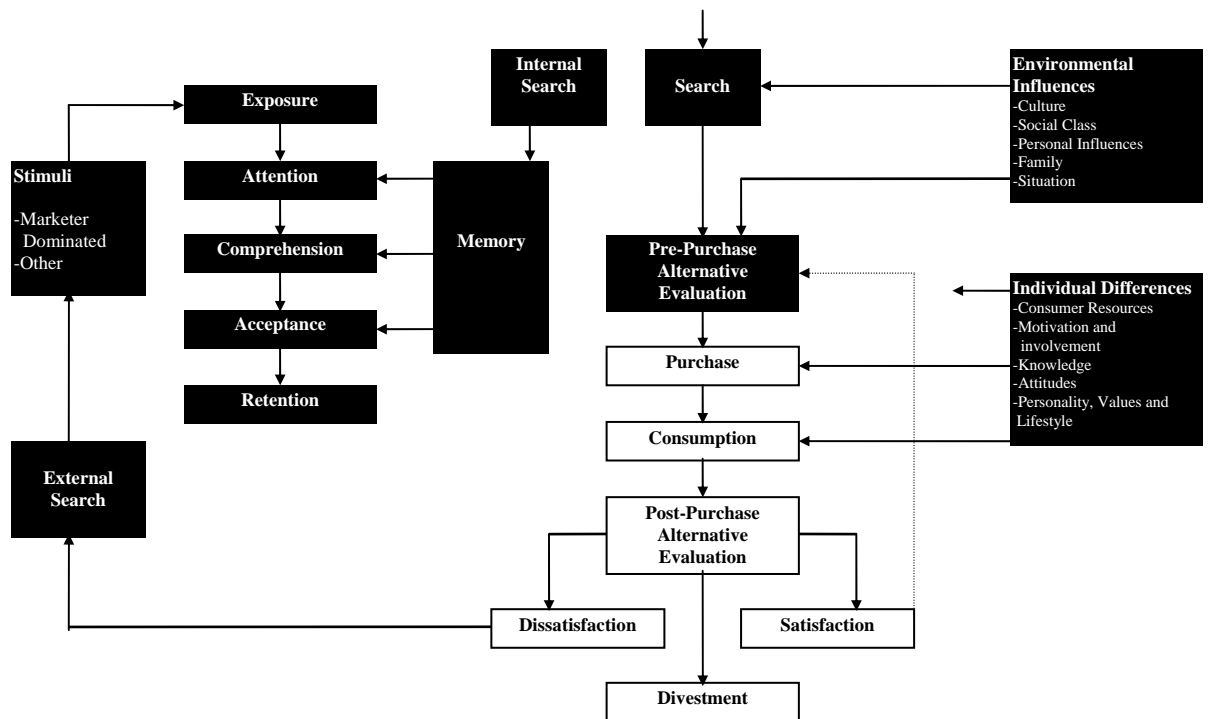
Source: Figure 4.7 in Engel, Blackwell and Miniard (1995).

In developing a consumer decision process model that could be used to underpin this study, the models proposed by Schiffman, Bednall, Watson and Kanuk (1997) and Engel, Blackwell and Miniard (1995) were used extensively. The distinction between special events and other types of tourist attractions was an important component of this model as were the roles of interest and intention as precursors to actual behaviour. The proposed model distinguishes between generic behaviour and behaviour that is related to specific attractions and seeks to place more emphasis on the relationship between product experience and memory than occurred in the aforementioned models. The environmental and individual influences that are included in the proposed model are similar to those that have been included in other models. However, in the proposed model, these influences are shown to impact upon a variety of stages of the consumer decision process, not just at the search and purchase stages as occurs in many of the other models. The influence of marketing efforts has also been broken down into generic and specific influences in the proposed model and the impact that environmental influences may have on individual influences is identified. A diagrammatic representation of the model proposed in this study is presented in Figure 1.4.

Although the proposed model does not differ in any substantial way from many of the other consumer decision models, it is anchored in the visitor attraction field and more specifically related to special events. Representing this model in the form presented in Figure 1.4 prompts one to consider some important factors that influence actual visitation, namely, interest versus intention, at the site specific and global levels.

In order to simplify the presentation of this model, all non-attraction options were screened out in the third stage of the model. That is, the choice options of doing nothing, working, or choosing non-attraction related behaviour were grouped together and classed as 'other' in the third stage of the model and consumers choosing such options exit this particular model.

In developing a model, it is important that the relationships upon which the model is based can be tested empirically. As part of this thesis, therefore, endeavours have been made to establish instruments that can be used to test some of the key relationships between variables. In particular, the importance of individual consumer differences in relation to personal values, lifestyles and demographics, were assessed in terms of their importance in explaining behaviour at the generic and attraction specific levels for a range of named attractions, with behaviour being measured in terms of actual visitation, visit interest and visit intention.

### *1.7 Structure of the Thesis*

The model that was proposed in the previous section and presented in Figure 1.4, was used as the basis upon which this thesis has been structured. The various chapters in this thesis relate to different components of the proposed model.

The thesis is divided into two parts, the first containing two chapters and the second containing five chapters. Part One is entitled *A Conceptualisation of Special Events*, and Part Two is entitled *The Ability of Individual Differences to Explain Special Event Behaviour*.

*Figure 1.4 Consumer Decision Process Model.*
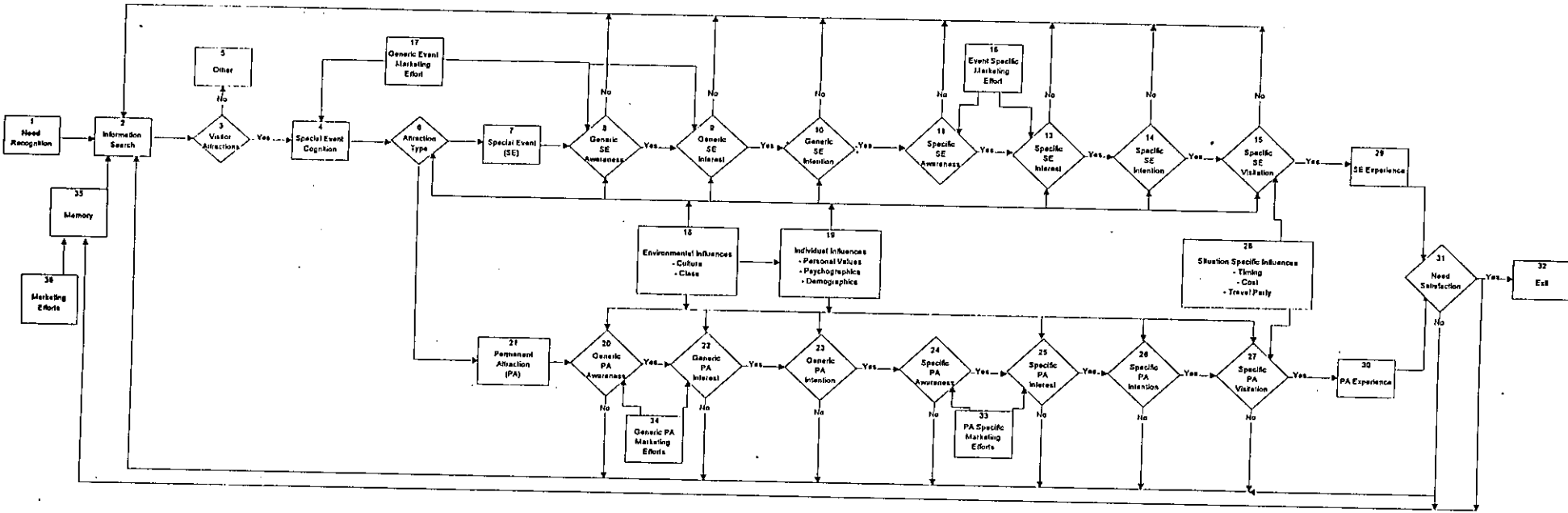
Part One of the thesis relates to the section of the model listed as 'Special Event Cognition'. The background to the field of special events is described in Chapter Two which helps to set the context for the thesis as a whole. This chapter looks at the history of special events, discusses the reasons for their rise in importance, and examines some of their impacts. The chapter then reports on a comprehensive and systematic search of the literature that was conducted in an effort to operationalise the term 'special event'. A definitional typology, based upon this search, is then proposed.

The categorisation framework for special events that was proposed in Chapter Two was used as the basis for some primary research that was conducted to explore the consumer perspective of special events and is reported in Chapter Three. This research identified the key attributes of special events and proposed a classification of attributes into core and qualifying for the categories of special events identified in the previous chapter.

The primary research that was conducted for this study comprised two stages that each involved administering a questionnaire. Even though these two questionnaires were administered to the same group of people, they were quite distinct components and are discussed in separate parts of the thesis. This has meant that it has been necessary to discuss the methodology in two separate sections. Some of the methodology has been discussed in Chapter Three in order to provide background to the consumer study relating to the meaning of special events, and the remainder of the methodology has been discussed in Chapter Six in the second part of the thesis.

Part Two of the thesis examines the importance of consumer differences in understanding and predicting behaviour in relation to attractions in general, and special events in particular. Behaviour is considered at both the generic and attraction specific levels, and includes visit interest and visit intention as well as the more traditional measure of actual visitation. In the model presented in Figure

1.4, this part of the thesis relates to the section between 'Attraction Type' and 'Specific Visitation'.

The context for the research associated with understanding consumer behaviour in relation to special events is presented in Chapter Four. After outlining the importance of segmentation and understanding consumer behaviour in relation to special events, this chapter discusses the techniques that can be used to segment the market and provides a critique of some of the other studies that have been conducted in this area. Research hypotheses that flow from the literature review, or are prompted by it, are presented in Chapter Five.

Chapter Six provides the remainder of the information relating to research methodology and outlines the development and pilot testing of the questionnaire used in the second part of the primary research.

The results are analysed and discussed in Chapter Seven and the final section provides a summary of the results of the hypothesis tests.

Chapter Eight reviews the overall results and discusses the implications of the findings. A final section then provides some suggestions for further research.

# PART I

# A Conceptualisation of Special Events

In this thesis, it was always intended that a market perspective would be adopted for the study of special events, but it was initially envisaged that this would entail moving directly into the study of consumer behaviour in relation to special events. Upon embarking on the research, it was soon discovered that there was a gap in the literature in relation to the conceptualisation of special events. Since it was considered that this gap had hindered the development of the field, it was decided that some attempt should be made to address this gap prior to moving on to considering behaviour in relation to special events. Not only does Part One of the thesis report on the work that was done to conceptualise special events, it also provides background information on special events necessary for the research conducted in Part Two. In the Consumer Decision Process Model that was presented in the previous chapter, this part of the thesis relates to the early section listed as 'Special Event Cognition'.

This conceptualisation was done in two distinct parts. The first component, which is discussed in Chapter Two, involved a systematic review of the literature to identify the attributes that researchers had proposed as being important in describing special events. This literature review led to the presentation of a list of core and qualifying attributes that could be used to describe the various types of special events and the analysis culminated in a range of definitions for the different categories of special events.

Chapter Three then moves to the next stage of actually seeking direct information from consumers as to the attributes that they consider important in describing a special event. This research employed a questionnaire that used a number of separate techniques to measure these attributes which also permitted convergent validation of the various approaches. A comparison was then made of the findings derived from the analyses conducted in Chapters Two and Three.

# CHAPTER 2

# BACKGROUND, DEFINITION AND A TYPOLOGY OF SPECIAL EVENTS

## 2.1 Introduction

This chapter commences with an examination of the history and growth of special events. A review is then conducted of the reasons proposed for special events becoming fundamental components of tourism development strategies in recent times.

Although special events have become an important element of the tourism product in many regions, there is still no widely accepted definitional framework for the term 'special event'. This chapter seeks to address this problem by proposing a conceptual and definitional framework based upon an extensive review of the published literature on special events. The literature review identified the key attributes that researchers have used to describe special events. These attributes are then prioritised into core and qualifying, so that a definitional framework can be presented based on the hierarchy of attributes identified by researchers. A schema is presented to illustrate the relationship between the various categories of special events.

## 2.2 History and Growth of Special Events

Special event tourism has gained in prominence and shown substantial growth in recent years (Light 1996). A tangible means of demonstrating the substantial growth in special events is to note the increase in size of the annual special event calenders that are produced by many tourism organisations. Although observation and anecdotal evidence would suggest that the number of special events has increased substantially in recent years, little empirical work has been found to substantiate these suggestions (Getz 1991a; Getz and Wicks 1994; Janiskee 1994). In the United States of America, research conducted by Janiskee indicates that "recurring community festivals increased in number at an average annual rate of approximately 4.6% between 1930 and 1991" (Janiskee 1994, p. 13). Getz and Frisby (1988) found in a study of festivals in Ontario, that the majority of festivals had been in existence

less than two decades, thus indicating the importance of recent history in the growth of festivals. The extensive media coverage that special events such as the Olympic Games receive, would likely have contributed to the increased interest in staging special events as a means of raising the profile of the host region.

Tourists attending special events are often termed big spenders (Getz 1997), or high yield tourists (Prosser 1993). According to Getz (1994a), event tourists have a higher than average daily expenditure, although the expenditure profile varies with the type of event. The events which are the most attractive in an economic sense are "those which attract older and more affluent visitors, such as the World Masters Games" (Mules and Faulkner 1996, p. 112). Event tourists have the potential to be classed as high 'quality tourists' (Getz 1994c) as they not only increase the yield of the industry, but they are concerned also about the social and environmental impacts of their travels. Not only can special events minimise environmental and social impacts, they can contribute to sustainable development (Uysal and Gitelson 1994). Hughes (1993a), however, suggests that it is still not clear that special event tourists are in fact more beneficial than other categories of tourists. One should be careful, therefore, in ascribing too much importance to the aforementioned assertions of Getz, Prosser, and Uysal and Gitelson as not all special events or special event patrons can be categorised as beneficial.

Accompanying this increase in the number of special events being held, has been an increase in the number of special event producing agencies (Getz 1997), as well as the establishment of a number of specialist companies whose function is to organise or support the operation of special events. Recognising the growing consumer interest in special events of all types, many communities, sporting bodies and special interest groups, have organised special events as a means of bringing people together in a social setting, as well as raising awareness and funds. Roche (1994) suggests that regions are influenced to host special events by the fact that other regions have already done so. This may be seen as an example of the demonstration effect.

The field of special events has become recognised as a specific sector of the tourism industry and organisations have formed to promote the needs and interests of sector

participants and to help professionalise the sector. Two examples of such sector bodies are the International Festival and Events Association (IFEA) and the International Special Event Society (ISES). IFEA, formerly the International Festival Association (IFA), was founded in 1956 and by 1996 had approximately 2200 members (Getz 1997). ISES was founded in 1987.

Although the publicity given to special events has increased recently, special events are not a new phenomenon; the first Olympic Games were held in 776 BC and countless religious events and festivals have been held throughout the ages. In the past, special events were held to celebrate an occurrence whereas now they are often held to achieve other specific goals (Youell 1995). What is new, however, is the fact that there are now cities which seek to specialise in the creation and hosting of a wide range of special events because of the economic importance of these events (Lynch and Veal 1996).

No history of the use of the term 'special event' has been found, but it is suggested by Hawkins and Goldblatt (1995) that the term was first used by the Disneyland organisation to "identify happenings in the park different from the norm" (p. 42). The term 'event tourism', which formalised the link between events and tourism, was coined in the 1980s (Getz 1997). "Event tourism has been defined as the systematic planning, development and marketing of festivals and special events as tourist attractions, catalysts, and image builders" (Getz and Wicks 1993a, p. 2). Although this definition identifies planning, development and marketing as separate functions, it should be recognised that planning and development are really components of marketing.

In Australia, the increasing interest in special events arguably derives from Australia's winning of the America's Cup in 1983. Although Australia had been associated with major events prior to this time (such as with the 1956 Olympic Games in Melbourne and the 1982 Commonwealth Games in Brisbane), the winning of the America's Cup and the subsequent build-up to the defence of the cup in Fremantle in 1986, really focused attention on the field of special events.

"All available indicators strongly suggest that the number, diversity, and popularity of festivals and special events have grown spectacularly over the past several decades" (Getz 1991a, p. 67), and the important role that special events play in establishing destination appeal is now well recognised (Getz 1989).

The success of special events in capturing market appeal has been attributed to the fact that they match important changes in the demand for leisure activities, namely, they are "short-term, easily accessible, with a flexible time commitment, and offer options for all ages" (Robinson and Noel 1991, p. 79). Some of the reasons for the dramatic increase in the popularity of special events could stem back to some demographic and psychographic changes that have occurred in certain sectors of the community, such as:

-Increasing levels of average disposable income,

-A move to more frequent short term holiday breaks,

-Increasing interest in experiential travel,

-Increasing interest in authenticity,

-Increasing interest in culture.

### 2.3 Importance of Special Events

In general, attractions are needed to entice visitors to an area, making attractions a fundamental element of tourism (Cooper et al 1993; Dickman 1994; Gunn 1994; Inskeep 1991; Lew 1987; McIntosh and Goeldner 1990; Mill and Morrison 1992; Page 1995). Some regions have been fortunate that they have been well endowed with natural attractions, such as climate (Queensland), scenery (the Great Ocean Road, Sydney Harbour and Ayers Rock) or flora and fauna (the Barrier Reef and Phillip Island). Whilst these so called 'natural attractions' are site specific, built attractions can be developed in most areas. Regions that have been less fortunate with respect to natural attractions have had to entice visitors with built attractions such as theme parks (Ballarat), historic sites (Port Arthur) or convention facilities (Melbourne).

Another type of attraction that has been used to supplement natural and existing man-made attractions, is the special event (Burns, Hatch and Mules 1986). A major

benefit of special event tourism is that for many special events, little additional infrastructure is required and they can be held in most regions. In principle, they can be scheduled at times and in places to reduce the impacts of seasonality or to reduce crowding and damage in more sensitive areas (Getz 1991a). "This is the age of special events" (Janiskee 1996b, p. 100), with special events satisfying consumers needs for "structured leisure experiences that are high in entertainment value" (p. 100). Robinson and Noel (1991), however, make the point that special events are in fact an alternative to the highly structured leisure programs of the past.

"Although the majority of events have probably arisen for non-tourist reasons … there is clearly a trend to exploit them for tourism and to create new events deliberately as tourist attractions" (Getz 1989, p. 125). Special events can be an important motivator for travel behaviour, both day trip and overnight. Pleasure travel as a result of attendance at special events accounts for about three per cent of the total pleasure travel in the US but it is one of the fastest growing segments of the tourism industry (Backman et al. 1995). In a study conducted by Wicks and Fesenmaier (1995) that involved a survey of 2100 randomly selected households, it was found that 57 per cent of all pleasure trips in the previous year had included a special event. Of these, 55 per cent indicated that attendance at a special event resulted in an overnight stay, which demonstrated the importance that the field of special events was to the tourism industry.

An emerging trend in the tourism and leisure fields is that a growing number of people are tending to seek more participative experiences, and hence the increasing use of the term 'experiential tourism'. These people are no longer satisfied with simply looking at a tourist attraction and wish to be in some way involved with the experience. Consumer satisfaction with a tourist attraction is enhanced with visitor participation (Pearce 1991). Special events, particularly festivals, are important from this perspective as they often provide the attendee with the opportunity for a participative experience. Participation can take many varied forms including the tasting of local produce and the involvement in games and activities aligned to the theme of the event. There are some notable exceptions to this generalisation, such as

the Olympic Games, which is highly successful in terms of patronage, but does not really offer a great deal in the way of a participative experience.

It could be said, however, that it has only been in the 1990s that the field of special events has become regarded as a serious area of study. There is a number of key indicators to support the claim that special events have evolved into a field worthy of academic interest:

- Books: A number of books on special events, both academic and general, has been written since 1990 (see, for example, Goldblatt 1990, Getz 1991a and 1997, and Hall 1992). Many books have also been written during this period that include chapters dedicated to special events (see, for example, Theobold 1994, Ryan 1997, and Murphy 1997);

- Journals: An academic quarterly journal entitled *Festival Management and Event Tourism* commenced in 1993. Articles submitted to this journal are subjected to a double blind refereeing process. Many other leading journals, especially in the tourism and leisure fields, have published academic papers on special events (see, for example, *Annals of Tourism Research, the Journal of Travel Research*, and *the Journal of Applied Recreation Research*);

- Conferences: Many of the national and international tourism and leisure conferences now have sessions dedicated to the presentation of academic research in the field of special events and there are international conferences dedicated to special events;

- Postgraduate study: More universities around the world are offering postgraduate programs in special event management (see, for example, Victoria University in Melbourne, Australia, and George Washington University, USA).

Special events are the new 'Image Builders' and "are starting to dominate natural or physical features in the identification of cities" (Burns, Hatch and Mules 1986, p. 5). They can have very large impacts on a host region and the types of impacts are varied, which means that a given special event can be staged for a large number of

reasons. The reasons for staging special events are found throughout the literature and can be summarised as:

- increased visitation to a region (Getz 1989 and 1991a; Hall 1992; Kang and Perdue 1994; Light 1996; Ritchie 1984; Tourism South Australia 1990),

- positive economic impact (Burns, Hatch and Mules 1986; Faulkner 1993; Getz 1991b; Goeldner and Long 1987; Hall 1990 and 1992; Kang and Perdue 1994; Light 1996; McCann and Thompson 1992; Mules and Faulkner 1996; Murphy and Carmichael 1991; Ritchie 1984; Ritchie 1996; Witt 1988),

- increased employment (Hall 1992; Ritchie 1984),

- improvement of a destination's image or awareness (Backman, Backman, Uysal and Mohr Sunshine 1995; Burns, Hatch and Mules 1986; Hall 1990, 1992 and 1996; Kaspar 1987; Ritchie 1984; Ritchie and Smith 1991; Roche 1994; Travis and Croize 1987; Wells 1994; Witt 1988),

- enhanced tourism development (Chacko and Schaffer 1993; Faulkner 1993; Getz 1989; Hall 1987; Pyo, Cook and Howell 1988; Ritchie and Yangzhou 1987; Spilling 1996),

- ability to act as a catalyst for development (Evans 1995; Getz 1991a and 1997; Hall 1990 and 1992; Hodges and Hall 1996; Hughes 1993b; Kaspar 1987; Law 1993; Light 1996; Mihalik 1994; Roche 1994; Spilling 1996),

- reduction of seasonal fluctuations or extension of the tourism season (Getz 1989, 1991a and 1997; Goeldner and Long 1987; Kaspar 1987; Ritchie and Beliveau 1974),

- animation of static attractions (Getz 1991a),

- enhanced community pride (Getz 1989; Hall 1992; Light 1996; Ritchie 1984; Roche 1994; Williams, Hainsworth and Dossa 1995).

- advancement of political objectives (Getz 1994b; Hall 1992)

Governments have become interested in special events largely because of their ability to attract visitors, and hence visitor spending, as well as their ability to raise the awareness of the host region for future tourism (Mules and Faulkner 1996). In Australia, for example, the importance of special events for Australia's tourism

industry was recognised in the National Tourism Strategy (Commonwealth Department of Tourism 1992), and most state tourism strategies produced since 1992 acknowledge special events as an important tourism development option (see, for example, Tourism Victoria 1993 and 1997). As a consequence of these strategies, special event divisions have been established in most of Australia's State and Territory Tourism Organisations (Jago and Shaw 1994).

In a study that involved interviewing representatives of the special event division in each of the state and territory tourism organisations, all representatives indicated that their particular region had a competitive advantage in the field of special events (Jago and Shaw 1994). This view has no doubt contributed to the proliferation of special events in Australia, a growth that reflects trends that have occurred in the US and Canada.

## 2.4 Need for a Definition

Despite the outcomes of special events being well recognised, if not necessarily precisely measured, and the fact that there has been discussion regarding the definition of special events in general, and hallmark events in particular (Burns, Hatch and Mules 1986; Getz 1989 and 1991a; Hall 1991 and 1992; Jago and Shaw 1994), there is still no inclusive and widely accepted definition for special events. "Defining event is a straightforward matter; determining what makes one special is problematic" (Getz 1991a, p. 43). Much of the literature focuses on the various characteristics of special events (Stokes 1996) and some of the reasons that they are staged. The literature does not, however, detail what special events are, in such a manner that would enable one to determine the range of events that would be classed as special, versus those that would not. Shultis, Johnston and Twynam (1994) stated that "it is a measure of the adolescence of research on these tourist events that terminology utilised by researchers ... has not yet become standardised" (p. 167), and they implied that the "lack of a unified terminology" (p. 168) should be resolved with more research.

The requirement for a widely accepted definition of a special event is not just an academic exercise, as a definition helps ensure that subsequent studies include

common elements, which is fundamental for both the reliability and validity of these studies. In order to analyse thoroughly special events, a clear definition and a typological framework are needed as a starting point. Without these, one's ability to "exploit [special events] for tourism and to create new events deliberately as tourist attractions" (Getz 1989, p. 125) will be greatly impeded. Clear definitions are essential if there is to be any chance of comparing special event statistics collected by different government organisations, let alone make comparisons between research studies. In the general field of tourism, the World Tourism Organisation has expended substantial effort attempting to rationalise definitions relating to international tourism as it is recognised that "the standardisation of definitions is important for research purposes and necessary for measuring tourism as an economic activity" (French, Craig-Smith and Collier 1995, p. 4). There are many examples in other fields of study to illustrate the long term confusion that results from unclear definitions or hazy distinctions. Consider, for example, the confusion that has existed over the distinctions between: products / goods / services; travel / tourism; tourism / hospitality; and marketing / promotion / advertising. Definitions and typological frameworks for special events are also important in the planning and other aspects of the management of such events (Hall 1992), which include the development of marketing programs for these events.

In the special event field, the definitional problem is exacerbated by the common use of a number of related terms such as event, special event, hallmark event, major event, mega-event, festival, and fair, which tends to blur further whatever boundaries do exist between the different categories.

The practical need for this definitional exercise arose from a discussion with a General Manager of a State Tourism Organisation, where the terms 'event', 'special event', and 'major event' were used both interchangeably and also to denote differences between event types. When asked about the interchangeable use of these terms, the General Manager stated that the definitions were more than a little hazy and caused confusion within his organisation. The confusion regarding definitions had led this particular State Tourism Organisation to make more use of the term 'event' rather than 'special event', and to then use a size descriptor, such as 'major'

or 'hallmark', to denote larger events. Therefore, from a practical perspective there is a clear need to provide a universal definition, or at least a definitional framework, for the term 'special event'.

Although the need for a commonly accepted definition is clear, the likelihood that such an outcome can be achieved is subject to some doubt, according to various researchers. Defining the term 'special event' is a difficult task because of the very diverse range of event types that could potentially be included (Hawkins and Goldblatt 1995). The range of event types and the variety of terms used to describe them have complicated the search for a single definition in that the relationship between the various categories of events is unclear. Are they really different categories or just different names for the same phenomenon? A project team established by Tourism Canada in 1986 to define festivals and events, concluded "that festivals and events, by their very organisation and nature, are difficult to define" (Tourism Canada 1989, p. 2). The term special event can embrace a wide variety of elements including "contests, concerts, exhibitions, dancing, theatre, sports, children's events, parades, beauty contests, flea markets, raffles or lotteries, races, and tours" (Sonmez, Backman and Allen 1993, p. 111-112). Getz (1991a) argued that "a universal definition is probably not practical" (p. 125) and suggested that the definition of special events varies with the perspective of the individual. According to Getz, the problem of defining special events was so difficult that he provided a glossary for reference purposes. In the years since 1991, Getz obviously hardened his view regarding a special event definition as he made the comment in his second book that "it will never be possible to come up with a universal, standardised definition, nor a classification of which types of events are exceptional or special" (Getz 1997, p. 4). An additional complication was proposed by Hall (1992), who suggested that events are not frozen in time and that both the meaning and significance of events could change with changes in society.

## *2.5 Leisure Versus Tourism*

An issue that needs to be resolved at the outset of this analysis is whether special events should be regarded as part of the leisure field in general, or restricted to the tourism sector. Roche (1994) described special events as "multi-dimensional and

multi-purpose phenomena with diverse impacts, [but] it is nonetheless conventional to see them particularly in relation to tourism" (p. 3). This view was supported by a perusal of academic journals in various disciplines which indicated that the majority of research and publication on special events that has occurred in recent years, has come from researchers associated with the tourism industry. Much of the attention that has been accorded special events has also been tourism based, as regions come to recognise the power of special events to attract visitors from outside the region. This no doubt explains the fact that the special event divisions that have been established by many cities generally fall within the tourism departments. It is suggested that the focus on the tourism aspects of special events is a result of the economic injection that tourists attending a special event have and the chance to profile the community to people outside the region.

One should be careful with this focus as it ignores the importance of the local community's role in special events, as special events usually depend heavily on the patronage of the local market for their success (Getz 1997). Indeed, Crompton and McKay (1997) suggested that for most special events, patrons are "overwhelmingly local" (p. 437). The percentage of special event patrons that could be classed as visitors to the area varies greatly from event to event. Tourism Canada conducted a survey of patrons at 21 major festivals and found that between five per cent and 15 per cent were foreign to the area (Getz 1991a). For some smaller community events, patronage from people residing outside the region would be close to zero. One must, therefore, be careful not to overlook the importance of local residents given that they generally make up the majority of patrons at special events (Crompton and McKay 1997). Some Australian examples to demonstrate the importance of local patronage, even for large scale special events are: 65 per cent local residents at the 1993 Melbourne Van Gogh Exhibition (The Centre for Hospitality and Tourism Research 1994), 56 per cent locals at the 1991 Tooheys Australian Motorcycle Grand Prix at Eastern Creek (Dignam 1991), 83 per cent locals at the 1990 Ford Australian Open Tennis (NIEIR 1990), and 70 per cent locals at the 1992 Formula One Grand Prix (Price Waterhouse 1993).

Getz and Cheyne (1997) suggested that patronage at special events was predominantly a leisure experience. Therefore, a special event should be regarded primarily as providing a leisure activity that has the potential to attract tourists. In other words, it should be regarded as something that is usually done as part of one's normal leisure time which can also be done as part of a tourism experience. Tourism in general can be considered as a subset of the more general leisure market (Smith and Godbey 1991; Leiper 1995), although the business tourism segment does not fit readily into a definition of leisure.

According to Gunn (1994), there is a growing sense of cooperation between the recreation and tourism fields despite the fact that they have substantially different origins. Special events provide an excellent bridge between these two sectors as they provide attractions for residents and tourists alike (Getz and Frisby 1990). In discussing the meaning of the term 'leisure', Lynch and Veal (1996) referred to the Olympic Games as being an important leisure activity from the classical Greek era. They also suggested that the 'carnival' was an important leisure activity in Medieval Europe involving a range of street theatre and other events. Both of these examples demonstrate the strong leisure based origins of special events.

Deciding whether to classify special events as a tourism or a leisure experience depends largely on the definition of tourism that is adopted. More traditional definitions of tourism, such as that proposed by the World Tourism Organisation, state that "tourism comprises the activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes. The term *usual environment* is intended to exclude trips within the area of usual residence…" (McIntosh, Goeldner and Ritchie 1995, p. 11). On this basis, therefore, special event attendance would be classed largely as a leisure experience since the vast majority of patrons for most special events come from the local area, as has already been discussed. However, other definitions of tourism have taken a significantly more inclusive perspective and have included many 'day trip' activities as part of tourism. For example, The Australian Government Committee of Inquiry into Tourism conducted in 1987 included "all overnight and certain day trips" (Hall 1995, p. 7). Although some of the day trips

included in this definition required a return trip travel distance of at least 50 kilometres, trips to most attractions were exempt from the distance requirement. Adoption of this definition would result in special event attendance being classed as part of tourism.

Increasingly, tourism literature and research includes day trip activities under the definition of tourism as the economic activities associated with day trips are so closely aligned with those of overnight trips (see, for example, Tourism Victoria 1996). Pragmatism has likely played a part in this trend as it is difficult to distinguish between the two groups in terms of activities and impacts, with the requirement for overnight accommodation being the only obvious difference.

Therefore, special event attendance is regarded as part of tourism in this study.

## 2.6 Attraction Versus Activity

A second issue that requires early resolution is whether a special event should be classed as an attraction, an activity, or a combination of both. Swarbrooke (1995) explained the relationship between attractions and activities such that "attractions are a resource that provides the raw material on which the activity depends" (p. 7). As an attraction, a special event acts as a lure to bring tourists to the host region but it is more often the activity side of a special event that acts as a drawcard for local patrons. Whilst recognising the importance of the activity component of special events, they should still be regarded as fundamentally attractions and will be treated as such in this study.

Attractions are essential to the tourism industry as they provide the stimulation for many people to travel. Without attractions, tourism would not exist. Swarbrooke (1995) discussed some of the definitions that have been put forward for attractions, highlighting the fact that there had not been any universally accepted definition of a visitor attraction. Swarbrooke then proposed a typology of attractions comprising four types: the natural environment, man-made structures not designed to specifically attract visitors, man-made structures specifically designed to attract visitors, and special events. This typology of visitor attractions is similar to that presented by Getz

(1991a) who proposed three types: ambient, permanent and events. The main distinguishing feature of events in relation to the other types of attractions is the fact that events by their very nature are temporary, which is an essential element of their appeal (Getz 1997).

## 2.7 Literature Review

As noted earlier, the quarterly journal entitled *Festival Management & Event Tourism; An International Journal (FMET),* commenced publication in 1993. Despite the focus of this journal being on special events, there has been no detailed discussion regarding the definition of a special event in the articles published thus far, although a number of the articles has discussed some of the definitional problems (see, for example, Janiskee 1994 and Walle 1996). In the editorial in the first issue of this journal (Getz and Wicks 1993a), 'event management' and 'special event management' were used interchangeably, but can the terms 'event' and 'special event' really be treated as synonyms? Does not the addition of the word 'special' add a dimension to the concept of an event?

Given that *FMET* is a key forum for research being conducted into the special event field, an analysis was made of the titles of the refereed articles in this journal for all issues between Volume 1, Number 1 and Volume 3, Number 4. The purpose of this analysis was to examine the frequency of occurrence of the various descriptors used for special event categories in the titles of the refereed articles. The results are presented in Table 2.1.

*Table 2.1  Descriptors used in the Titles of Refereed Articles in FMET*

| Descriptor | Frequency |
|---|---|
| Festival | 20 |
| Special Event | 11 |
| Event | 8 |
| Mega-event | 2 |
| Major Event | 2 |
| Sport Event | 2 |
| Short-term Event | 1 |

As the name of *FMET* suggests, there are two main categories of descriptors, festivals and events. Table 2.1 shows that 42 per cent of the titles containing a 'non-festival event-related term' used the term 'special event'.

*The Oxford English Dictionary* (1933) defined an event as "an occurrence of some importance" (Vol. III, p. 338), and defined special as "additional to the usual or ordinary" (Vol. X, p. 542). Getz (1991a) observed that dictionary definitions are somewhat confusing given that the concept of special is basically included within the definition of event itself. Using these dictionary definitions, however, suggests that a special event is a highly important occurrence with the emphasis being placed on highly important. At its most basic level, one could simply define a special event as something that is different from one's everyday experience (Hawkins and Goldblatt 1995). Clearly, however, the event would have to be something that one is interested in for it to be regarded as special.

A project team assembled by Tourism Canada in 1986 to define festivals and events, comprised practitioners, bureaucrats and academics versed in the field of festivals and events. The project team identified and listed the following primary characteristics of a festival or special event:

"- it is open to the public

- its main purpose is the celebration or display of some theme

- it takes place once a year or less frequently

- it has pre-determined opening and closing dates

- to the extent that it uses buildings, these are not permanent structures that are owned by the festival or special event

- it is not normally run to make a profit, although a surplus of revenue earned over expenses is often sought in order to support a charity or to develop a reserve fund

- all its activities take place in the same city, town or tourist region" (National Task Force on Tourism Data 1986, p. 7).

The Project team also specifically excluded the following types of events from its definition:

"- trade shows and commercial exhibitions

- all fairs with permanent buildings

- permanent attractions such as summer theatres

- regular sports events

- day to day entertainment and cultural activities" (National Task Force on Tourism Data 1986, p. 7).

The Project Team proposed the following definition of festivals and events:

"A celebration or display of some theme to which the public is invited for a limited time only, annually or less frequently" (p. 2).

Although Tourism Canada (1989) specifically stated that this definition "covers most categories of festivals and events" (p. 2) including hallmark events, international festivals, events and exhibitions, annual community festivals, celebrations of national events, and major sports events, Getz (1991a) believed that this definition was biased towards community based festivals at the expense of other types of special events.

Goldblatt (1990) acknowledged that there had been a variety of definitions proposed for the term 'special event' due largely to the fact that there was such an array of special event types and practitioners. Special events were described by Goldblatt (1990) as being always planned, always arousing expectations and usually being motivated by a celebration, which are characteristics that contrast with what Goldblatt termed as 'daily events'. He subsequently proposed the following definition: "A special event recognises a unique moment in time with ceremony and ritual to satisfy specific needs" (p. 2).

An early definition was provided by Geier (1986) who stated that:

"a special event [is] defined as any activity:

a. outside of an organisation's normal program

b. presented for and/or with a group of people

c. that has a specific time frame" (p. 1).

This definition was subsequently developed by Getz (1991a) who has conducted the most comprehensive analysis of the term 'special event' to date. His is the most commonly cited definition in the tourism literature, and he concluded that the meaning of the term special event differed depending on one's perspective. The two main perspectives identified by Getz were those of organisers and of customers:

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

This definition provides an overview of special events but it is limited in its ability to facilitate the operationalisation of the term, and is silent regarding the relationship between special event and the other terms that are used; do these terms describe different categories of special events or are they simply synonyms for the term special event?

Getz (1991a) suggested that the term special event and its synonyms needed to be considered contextually and that a typology of special events was required to overcome the market confusion that existed in relation to special events. According to a study by Tourism Canada, special events "usually refer to prestige activities such as World Fairs or the Olympic Games" (Getz and Wicks 1993b, p. 170). A list of factors that enhance the 'specialness' of an event was provided in Getz (1997), and contained in this list were factors such as uniqueness, quality, festive spirit, authenticity, tradition, theming and symbolism.

In the Tourism Canada (1990) plan for developing the festivals and events sector, the terms 'festival' and 'event' were regarded as synonyms, defined as "celebrations or displays of some theme to which the public is invited for a limited time only, annually or less frequently" (p. 1). This report, whose focus was on international tourism, suggested that the aforementioned definition was remiss in not including an international dimension. The report then provided the following definition for a festival or event:

"A major celebration or display of some theme, open to the public for a limited time only, which may recur annually or less frequently and which generates interest outside the community where it takes place. The event or festival must be capable of attracting international travellers or have the potential to do so" (p. 2).

Although this definition referred to 'festival or event', the substance of the definition is more relevant to a 'major festival or major event' which, indeed, was the terminology used in subsequent discussion in the report. Clearly not all festivals and events will have the ability to attract international attention which appeared to be an inconsistency in the report.

Festivals Versus Special Events

There is confusion regarding the relationship between festivals and special events. Using the dictionary definitions referred to earlier, it is clear that festivals could be classed as events but it is open to discussion as to whether they should be classed as special events. "While all festivals are special events, not all special events are festivals" (Getz and Wicks 1993a, p. 2). Hall (1992) and Law (1993) also acknowledged that festivals were a component of special events, as did Getz (1991a), although the title of his text is *Festivals, Special Events and Tourism.* If festivals are indeed a subset of special events, it would appear superfluous to list them as a separate entity in the title of this text. Tourism South Australia (1990) distinguished between festivals and special events based on the role of the public at such events, with festivals maximising the public involvement in the experience and special events involving the public as spectators to the experience. Contrasting with this, Tourism Canada (undated) suggested that the terms festival and special event could, essentially, be regarded as synonyms with the key difference between them being that festivals are held annually and special events tend to be once-off events. This distinction between festivals and special events based on frequency of occurrence was used by Getz and Frisby (1990) in the survey upon which their report was based. The relationship between festivals and mega-events was explored to some extent by Walle (1996), who suggested that mega-events often included festivals as a

component and, indeed, some festivals have become so popular that they have emerged as mega-events in their own right.

Festivals

A festival can be defined as 'a public themed celebration' but the term was "originally intended to refer to religious feast-day rites and celebrations" (Tourism Canada undated, p. 3). The use of the term festival has expanded somewhat and ties with the religious aspects have all but disappeared. However, most festivals still embrace a celebratory aspect even if it is not related to any religious event or occasion. Festivals have also moved from being somewhat spontaneous celebrations that emanated from the community, to events that are more often organised by professionals at times suitable for the tourist market (Gauthier 1987).

The term 'festival' is derived from the Latin term 'festum' which had two meanings, namely, 'public joy or revelry' and 'abstinence from work in honour of the gods' (Falassi 1987). Festivals involve an inversion of the daily routine whereby during the festival, "people do something they normally do not; they abstain from something they normally do; they carry to the extreme behaviours that are usually regulated by measure; they invert patterns of daily social life" (Falassi 1987, p. 3). It is this inversion that gives festivals their meaning (Abrahams 1987).

Studies have shown that there are a number of important constituents of festive events that can be classed as rites (Abrahams 1987). These rites, which include valorisation, passage, reversal, conspicuous display, conspicuous consumption, exchange, competition and devalorisation, can be observed in festivals of today.

Anticipation is an important ingredient in daily life for most cultures, and festivals are a means of enhancing anticipation by introducing into the yearly calendar, a range of events that the local population can look forward to as a break from their regular routine. Many festivals were based in agricultural communities and were, therefore, traditionally organised during "flat times of the year" (Abrahams 1987, p. 178) when nothing essential to the production cycle was required. Abrahams (1987) likened a festival to a firecracker in that they were both exciting and hence attracted

attention, and both lasted only for a short period. This, perhaps, explains the fact that fireworks are often an integral part of many festivals.

Abrahams (1987) also explored, to an extent, the relationship between festivals and fairs. Fairs were traditionally devised to display the produce of a district, often in a competitive manner. The produce is central to the fair and is preserved. At festivals on the other hand, things, including produce, are often destroyed, further reinforcing the earlier analogy with a firecracker. A major connection between festivals and fairs, however, is the fact that both involve a sense of nostalgia whereby participants are constantly reminded of how things were done or produced in the past. According to Abrahams (1987), there has been a merging of the two terms fair and festival in modern times with the terms having essentially become synonyms. The key difference between the two is the focus; elements that are core to the festival are peripheral to the fair, and vice versa.

The key distinguishing characteristic of festivals is that they are public celebrations conducted by the community for the community. A festival is a public display of a community's fundamental values, and it is this authenticity that makes so many festivals attractive to visitors outside the community (Delamere and Hinch 1994). Although festivals are largely for the local community, the fact that many festivals also attract outsiders to the community as observers tends to reinforce the internal sense of community (Lavenda 1991). Besides enhancing a community's sense of pride, a festival can also greatly enhance a community's sense of place.

### *2.8 Typology*
A common manner of identifying the attributes of special events has been via categorisation schemata or typologies. A typology is a means of describing an event in a manner that enables others to clearly understand what is being discussed. The typology provides a framework that can be used to assist in the understanding of the various categories of special events. In the literature, a number of key dimensions has been identified as a basis for developing a special event typology and these dimensions will be discussed in this section.

<u>Scale</u>

Scale is an important dimension used to categorise special events and, indeed, Mules and Faulkner (1996) emphasise that size is the most important characteristic to distinguish between different types of events. Special events can range in size from community gatherings in a local park, to international events. Although size is a continuum, in practice the size element appears to have been regarded as a simple dichotomy, namely, hallmark or mega-events in one category, and all other events in the other category.

The literature clearly identifies that much of the research carried out to date in the field of special events has tended to focus on the larger special events, more commonly called hallmark or mega-events (Ritchie 1984; Hall 1992; Burns, Hatch and Mules 1986; Ritchie and Smith 1991; Roslow, Nicholls and Laskey 1992; Witt 1988; Soutar and McLeod 1993; Roche 1994; Walle 1996). Getz, however, has tended to concentrate more specifically on the smaller scale community events. Bos (1994) is the only researcher found to date who has used a more comprehensive scale to categorise special events. According to Bos, the Netherlands Board of Tourism used five categories to describe event types: local events, small regional events, regional events with an above-regional importance, national events with only domestic importance, and big events with a truly international level of attraction. Even here the categories related more to 'regional significance' or 'prominence' than size per se.

The seminal text by Burns, Hatch and Mules (1986) included a section entitled "Definition of a Special Event" (p. 6). However, the definition proposed in this section was really for a major special event or hallmark event:

> "...a one-off occurrence or, by extension an infrequent occurrence, with a few key characteristics. These include:
>
> 1. The major demand generated by the Special Event is, for the most part, not the demand for the event itself but demand for a range of related services - typically accommodation, food, transport and entertainment.
>
> 2. This demand is condensed into a relatively short period of time, from a single day to a few weeks and, as services cannot be produced ahead of

time and stored, this leads to the typical 'peaking' problems experienced in the main service industries mentioned.

3. 'Peaking' influences both the level and the distribution of benefits received.

4. The net impact of redirecting local funds towards Special Events is relatively small; the major benefits arise from the attraction of new funds from outside the region by way of the export of goods and services, especially services" (p. 6).

An interesting component of this definition was the aspect relating to demand for ancillary services and it was proposed that an event could not be classed as special if there was not such demand, irrespective of the size of the event in terms of attendance.

Although the implication of much of the literature is that a major event is a larger scale special event, there is still some confusion regarding the term major event. Torkildsen (1992), for example, suggested that a major event could be a special event but then stated that "all major events are perceived as being something special" (p. 374). As has been seen in some of the definitions cited earlier, major events seem to have included hallmark and mega-events.

Even though the term mega-event seems almost self explanatory, it is important to try to identify the threshold for use of this term. Ritchie and Smith (1991) supported the concept of a threshold with their comment that major events became Hallmark events when they "reach such a size or attain such a stature that their impacts become quite substantial, even overwhelming" (p. 3). Rooney (1988), suggested that there was a number of important attributes associated with mega sporting events such as: tradition, historical significance, mystique, being complemented by other events, and being tied to specific places. An important outcome of a mega-event was the attraction of a large number of visitors from outside the region and, indeed, the larger the size of the event, the greater the drawing power of the event in terms of distance. Marris (1987) suggested that mega-events could be defined using three scales: by volume, some money measure such as revenue or capital cost, and psychology.

Marris illustrated these scales using volume of at least one million visits, cost of more than 500 million Canadian dollars, and psychology as a 'must see' event. According to Travis and Croize (1987), events could be defined based on the number of participants that they were able to attract, with French studies suggesting that big events had between 100,000 and 200,000 participants and mega-events involved in excess of 500,000 participants.

Hodges and Hall (1996) acknowledged that there was a number of definitions that could be used for a mega-event. The important common characteristic of these definitions was the "sheer size of the event" (p. 153), but as well as this characteristic, Hodges and Hall suggested a mega-event led to the provision of new infrastructure that was large in relation to the region's existing infrastructure.

Spilling (1996), in recognising the inadequacy of the literature in precisely defining a mega-event, essentially chose to combine the definitions provided of a hallmark/mega-event by Ritchie and Yangzhou (1987), with that of a special event by Burns, Hatch and Mules (1986). This resulted in a definition of a mega-event as "an event that generally attracts a large number of people, for instance more than 100,000, involves significant investments and creates a large demand for a range of associated services" (p. 131). Spilling expressed surprise that the role of the mass media had not been included in any of the definitions discussed in the literature, and stated that since the mass media were so fundamental to the interest surrounding these events, "the role of the mass media should be added to the definition of mega-event as an essential precondition" (p. 131). The media aspect was developed by Ritchie (1996), who suggested that the important distinguishing characteristic of events was their duration and implied that long duration was an important aspect of mega-events as well as their large scale and ability to attract both tourists and media attention.

In contrast to these interpretations, Getz (1991a) considered that it was the ability of a special event to attract a substantial number of overnight visitors to the region that determined whether it should be classified as a mega-event. Walle (1996) suggested that it was difficult to define mega-events because they needed to be considered in

relation to the area in which they were held and proposed that mega-events could be considered as large in relative terms, not simply in absolute terms.

The widely accepted definition of hallmark events was provided by Ritchie (1984), who stated that hallmark events were "major one-time or recurring events of limited duration, developed primarily to enhance the awareness, appeal and profitability of a tourism destination in the short and/or long term" (p. 2). A problem with this definition is that the term 'major' is too general, and therefore subject to substantial variation in interpretation. Ritchie (1984, p. 2) referred to a hallmark event as "a major event which has the ability to focus national and international attention on the destination...". His failure to include this element in his definition of a hallmark event was an unfortunate omission as it would have given further meaning to the term 'major'.

Ritchie (1990) stated that "it is desirable to move toward a merging of the concepts of hallmark events and mega-events" (p. 259) which suggests that hallmark and mega-events are different, but not substantially different. Ritchie made no comment as to why such a merger was desirable. The definition that combined hallmark and mega-events was provided by Ritchie and Yangzhou (1987). This definition was almost exactly the same as the Ritchie (1984) definition of hallmark event except that it had the following sentence added: "Such events rely for their success on uniqueness, status, or timely significance to create interest and attract attention" (Ritchie and Yangzhou 1987, p. 20). In contrast to this, Kang and Perdue (1994), stated that mega-events and hallmark events occupied different positions on the scale continuum with a mega-event being essentially a very large hallmark event. Kang and Perdue suggested that "mega-events also included international events that are not necessarily developed primarily for tourism purposes but can serve to promote a destination" (p. 206). In support of a simpler definition of a mega-event, Socher and Tschurtschenthaler (1987) required a mega-event to satisfy two criteria, namely, "large numbers of participants or visitors and worldwide publicity" (p. 103). This latter point reinforced the Spilling (1996) argument regarding the importance of the media in relation to special events.

The terms 'hallmark event' and 'special event' were regarded as synonyms by Shultis, Johnston and Twynam (1994), but as separate terms to both 'mega-event' and 'festival' which "have different or additional characteristics than hallmark or special events" (p. 167). This contrasted with other literature that linked mega-events with hallmark events and special events with festivals.

Hall (1992) basically accepted the Ritchie (1984) definition of hallmark events, but took issue with the concept that hallmark events must by necessity be large scale events. He suggested that hallmark referred to "the importance of the economic, marketing, socio-cultural, and spatial context within which hallmark events take place" (Hall 1992, p. 4). This contrasted with Hall's earlier views, according to Mules and Faulkner (1996), who suggested that Hall excluded from the definition of hallmark events, large regional and national events because they were not unique.

Getz (1991a) tended to support Hall's proposition that 'hallmark' was a relative term and suggested using the term 'hallmark event' when a destination was largely known for the event. Mount and Leroux (1994) concurred with Getz that a hallmark event tended to be one for which a destination became largely known whereas mega-event referred more to large scale 'one-off' events such as an Olympic Games. Janiskee (1994) also suggested that a community festival could be considered a hallmark event if it was very large for that particular community, thereby reinforcing Hall's argument. Hall's use of the relative size of the event would seem appropriate provided that the event was seen as large by those outside the community.

Within the category of hallmark events, Ritchie (1984, p. 2) presented the following classification:

1.  World fairs/expositions
2.  Unique carnivals and festivals
3.  Major sports events
4.  Significant cultural and religious events
5.  Historical milestones
6.  Classical commercial and agricultural events
7.  Major political personage events.

Ritchie provided a number of examples of events that he would include in each of the seven classifications listed. Most of the classifications were self explanatory and seemed to fit comfortably with Ritchie's definition of hallmark events, however, the second and sixth in the list would need some additional interpretation as these two classifications, without examples, do not necessarily denote a scale effect.

Hall (1992, p. 22) provided a classification of hallmark tourist events that was similar to the Ritchie classification:

1.    Religious and sacred events
2.    Cultural events
            - Carnivals and festivals
            - Historical milestones
3.    Commercial events
4.    Sports events
5.    Political events.

Hall also provided examples to illustrate each of his classifications but once again the classifications without the examples do not necessarily conjure up a picture of a hallmark or mega-event. For example, there can be festivals that have substantial visitor drawing power and there are others that are put on purely for local consumption and would not, therefore, be classified as a hallmark event under this system.

Nicholls, Laskey and Roslow (1992) took a somewhat different view on the definition of a Hallmark event, defining it as "a special event, of limited duration, of significant scale, attended by large crowds whose attention is focused on a distinct theme" (p. 215). The use of the term 'limited duration' is confusing in that this is generally accepted as a fundamental attribute of special events. Nicholls et al (1992) suggested that their definition was somewhat different to the more commonly accepted Ritchie (1984) definition as it included locals as well as visitors to the region. Despite this comment, however, it is not clear that Ritchie (1984) excluded locals from his definition of Hallmark Event.

McCann and Thompson (1992) used Hallmark Event and Special Event interchangeably, and in fact alternated use of the terms in the introduction to their article. Schofield (1995, p. 7) observed that "scale was the hallmark of the nineteenth century festival", indicating that size was the key ingredient behind the term hallmark. Dryden (1987) emphasised the one-off nature of Hallmark events as their distinguishing characteristic stating that they could be either large scale such as the Olympic Games, or community based festivals. Zwolak (1987) used the Ritchie (1984) definition of Hallmark events but suggested that a large marketing budget and a large capital input were two other distinguishing features. According to Zwolak, Hallmark events could be one-off or recurring.

In contrast to the views already expressed, Sparrow (1989) suggested that it was impossible to provide a considered definition of a Hallmark Event because there were so many attributes of, and differences between, the various events. There is no doubt that the term includes a wide variety of attributes but to suggest that this precludes the development of a general definition seems to be avoiding the issue. Sparrow (1989) did in fact present a model of Hallmark Events as an alternative to a definition.

In summary, a hallmark event would seem to be one with which an area becomes associated, which suggests an event that is staged on a regular basis. Therefore, it would seem that the difference between a hallmark event and a mega-event is that the hallmark event occurs on an infrequent but regular basis whilst the mega-event is once-off. An Olympic Games would, therefore, be considered a mega-event as even though it occurs every four years, it is held in a different city each time. One could argue that some cities have become known for their staging of an Olympic Games, but the awareness created from hosting such an event declines rapidly with time (Bratton and Getz 1992).

Drawing Power

In the Getz (1991a) typology, events were listed in a hierarchy in descending order of their ability to attract visitors. The drawing power related to distance over which an event was able to draw patrons. The hierarchy consisted of:

1. Mega-event
2. Regional event
3. Local event
4. Touring event.

In this hierarchy, regional events drew patrons largely from within the region whilst mega-events drew patrons from outside the region, perhaps nationally or even internationally. Touring events were somewhat of an anomaly in that they moved to the market rather than drawing the market to them in a geographical sense.

Hall (1992) also considered a similar typology for hallmark events with respect to their target market, classifying the market into international, national, regional and local. Bos (1994) adopted a similar approach in the Netherlands, as already mentioned.

Production or Program

Getz (1991a) described a typology for classifying special events that related to the actual form of the event itself and suggested that this typology would be of most use to event organisers and in schedules. This typology "includes a number of dichotomies:

1. Professional versus amateur performances
2. Competitive versus non-competitive formats
3. Indoor versus outdoor settings
4. Degree of involvement by participants or spectators
5. Free versus paid admission" (Getz, 1991a, p. 51).

Theme

Classifying special events by theme has been carried out by a number of researchers (see, for example, Getz 1991a; Getz and Frisby 1988; Hall 1992; Meyer 1970; Wilson and Udall 1982). Bos, Van Der Kamp and Zom (1987) suggested, however, that whilst special events may have themes, this was not an essential requirement. The theme provides consumers with an idea about what they should expect to find or experience at the event.

Given that festivals have been defined as 'public themed celebrations', this does not mean that only festivals can be classified by theme. There are literally hundreds of themes that can be used to classify special events in general, with some of the more common ones being food and wine, art and music, culture, agriculture, ethnicity, sport, entertainment, religion, and indigenous people.

Using theme to classify special events is beneficial as far as the market is concerned as it helps identify what the actual event involves. However, "the names of events do not always reflect the diversity of activity and experience provided by the event" (Getz 1991a, p. 50). Often the theme has to be derived from the title of the event and as Getz has pointed out, event titles can be misleading. Separate descriptors should be used to clearly identify the theme of an event.

Generic Grouping

The following descriptors have been used to categorise special events:

1. Fair
2. Festival
3. Agricultural show
4. Sport

However, there is confusion regarding the specific definition of each category and there may well be overlaps between groupings. "It is apparent, however, that many terms describing festivals and events in the English language are used only regionally, while others have multiple meanings....It can be confusing!" (Getz, 1991a, p. 50). It is important, particularly from a market perspective, that clear,

consistent and well publicised definitions be used for each of these groupings to overcome much of the confusion that exists.

Miscellaneous Factors

Other factors or dimensions that have been used to classify special events are:

1.      Frequency of Staging.

   The Canadian Government Office of Tourism stated that "the primary difference between the two is that festivals are usually held annually, while special events are often one-time only observances" (Hall 1992, p. 3).

2.      Role of the Audience.

   Tourism South Australia (1990) used the role of the public to distinguish between festivals and special events, with festivals maximising the involvement of the public in the experience and special events involving the public largely as spectators of the experience.

3.      Duration of the Event.

   This can range from one day, as for many local festivals, up to a number of months as tends to occur for world expositions.

4.      Authenticity.

   The special event can be something that is a traditional event controlled and performed by local people, or it can be something that is created to meet a tourist market.

5.      Manner in which the Right to Stage the Event was Made.

   The right to stage the event could have been won via an active and competitive bidding process or via rotation of sites (Mueller and Fenton 1989).

This review of the literature has demonstrated that there is currently no obvious conceptual framework to clearly define a special event. Although a number of typologies has been suggested, there is still substantial overlap and confusion between them.

### 2.9 Attribute Summary

In order to alleviate some of this confusion and develop a typological framework of special events, a comprehensive and systematic search of the literature was conducted to list the key attributes that researchers have identified as being important in defining a special event, or its associated terms. A summary of the results of this search is presented in Table 2.2.

The coding system used in Table 2.2 enables the reader to identify the type of special event being referred to by each of the researchers, with the code being explained below the table. However, it is important that this coding system not be taken too literally, as it was found that many of the researchers used different terms as synonyms. To complicate matters further, there was no apparent consistency amongst researchers as to which terms were regarded as synonyms. Some examples of the synonyms that were used are listed below:

- Major Event = Special Event (Torkildsen 1992)
- Festival = Special Event (Tourism Canada 1989)
- Major Special Event = Hallmark Event (Burns, Hatch and Mules 1986)
- Hallmark Event = Mega-Event (Mihalik 1994)
- Hallmark Event = Special Event (Shultus, Johnston and Twynam 1994; Mules and Faulkner 1996)
- Mega-Event = Large Hallmark Event (Kang and Perdue 1994).

In the many articles where synonyms were used interchangeably, it was decided that the term which most closely related to the title of the relevant article would be adopted in this study, or where this was not clear, the first mentioned term was used.

# Table 2.2 Special Event Attributes Identified in the Literature

| ATTRIBUTES | Getz (1991a and 1997) | Ritchie (1984); Ritchie and Yangzhou (1987) | Hall (1991 and 1992) | Tourism Canada (1989, 1990 and undated) | Goldblatt (1990) | Geier (1986) | Mules and Faulkner (1996) | Rooney (1988) | Marris (1987) | Spilling (1996) | Ritchie (1996) | Burns, Hatch and Mules (1986) | Zwolak (1987) | Torkildsen (1992) | Youell (1995) | Law (1993) | Bos, Van Der Kamp and Zom (1987) | Shultis, Johnston and Twynam (1994) | Mihalik (1994) | Light (1996) | Dimanche (1997) | Walle (1996) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Attracting tourists or tourism development | S | H | H | F | | | S | M | M | M | M | H | H | | | S | E | H | M | | S | M |
| Being of limited duration | S | H | H | F | | S | | | M | S | H | H | | J | E | S | E | H | | S | M | |
| Being one-off or infrequent | S | H | H | F | | | | | M | S | H | H | | | E | S | E | H | M | S | M | |
| Raising region's image / profile / awareness | S | H | H | | | | S | | | M | S | H | H | J | E | S | | H | M | S | M | |
| Attracting media attention | M | H | M | | | | S | M | | M | M | | | J | | S | | | M | | M | |
| Having a large economic impact | M | H | | T | | S | | M | M | S | | H | | | | | | | | | M | M |
| Attracting large crowds | M | | M | | | | | | M | M | | H | | J | | S | | | | | M | M |
| Having a theme | F | | | F | | | | | | S | | | | | E | S | E | | | | S | M |
| Involving prestige & status | M | H | H | | | | | M | M | | | H | | | | S | | H | | | | |
| Leaving behind legacies / urban renewal | M | | H | | | | | | | M | | | | | | M | | | M | S | M | M |
| Incorporating festivals or other events | F | | H | T | | | | | M | | | | | J | | S | | | M | | | M |
| Offering a social experience | S | H | H | | | | | | M | | S | | | | E | | | H | | S | | |
| Being out of the ordinary | S | | | | S | S | | | | | | | | J | | S | | H | | S | | |
| Being unique | H | H | H | | | | | | M | | | H | | | | | | H | | S | | |
| Involving a large cost | M | | | | | | | M | M | M | | H | H | | | | | | | | M | |
| Being of National or internat scale or attn. | | H | M | T | | | | | | | | H | | | E | M | | | | | | |
| Involving a celebration | F | | | F | S | | | | | | | | | | E | S | | | | | | M |
| Being of large scale | M | | M | | | | | | S | | M | | | | | M | | | | | | M |
| Being planned / organised | | | | | S | | | | | | | | | J | E | | E | | | | S | |
| Offering a leisure opportunity | S | | | | | | | | | | | | | J | E | | E | H | | | | |
| Involving demand for related services | | | | | | | S | | | M | | H | | | | | | H | | | | |
| Involving tradition / symbolic /history | H | | | | | | | M | M | | | | | | | S | | | | | | |
| Being open to the public | F | | | F | | | | | | | | | | | | | | E | | | | |
| Attracting funds to region | | | | | | | | | M | | | H | | | | | | H | | | | |
| Being relatively large | H | | H | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | M |
| Being a non profit operation | | | F | | S | | | | | | | | | | E | | | | | | | |
| Providing colour / spectacle | F | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | S | | | | | | |
| Involving public money | | H | | | | | | | | | | H | | | | | | | | | | |
| Being tied to a specific place | H | | | | | | | M | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Offering a quality experience | S | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | S | | | | | | |
| Having a strong reputation | M | | | | | | | | M | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Arousing expectations | | | | | S | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Having all activities in one region | | | F | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Having festive ambience / revelry & frivolity | F | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Offering an authentic experience | S | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Having a large marketing budget | | | | | | | | | | | | H | | | | | | | | | | |
| Involvng non-ownership of buildings | | | | F | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Having pre-determined dates | | | | F | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Offering a sense of mystique | | | | | | | | | M | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Being significant | M | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Involving hallowed ground | | | | | | | | | M | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Having a purpose | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | E | | | | |

Key Used in Table 2.2

| | |
|---|---|
| Special Event | S |
| Event | E |
| Festival | F |
| Major Festival | T |
| Mega-event | M |
| Hallmark Event | H |
| Major event | J |

48

## 2.10 Definitional Framework

Although there is no consensus in the literature about the relationships between the various categories of events, the following nomological structure is suggested based on this literature review:

    1. 'Event' covers two categories:

        - Routine or common events,

        - Special events.


    2. 'Special event' is the generic term used in a tourism sense and includes the following categories:

        - Minor special events

        - Festivals,

        - Major special events (or major events).


    3. 'Major event' contains two categories:

        - Hallmark events,

        - Mega-events.


These relationships can be represented diagrammatically in Figure 2.1.

*Figure 2.1 Event Framework.*
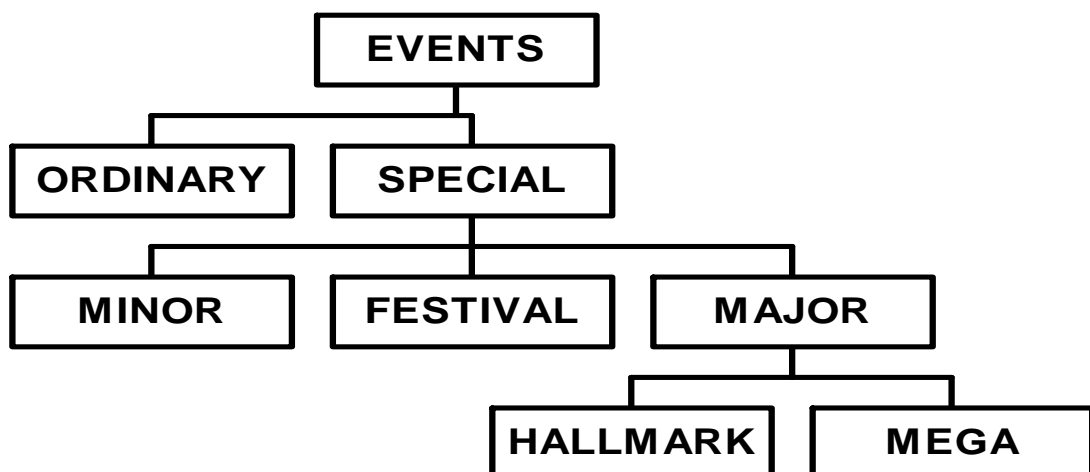


This schema is offered as a general representation of the relationship between the various categories of events. Clearly, there will be events that do not fit exactly

the structure as, for example, it is possible to have a festival that could be classed as a major event and some major events may incorporate a festival. However, this representation is offered as a generalised structure that shows reasonable consistency with the literature.

### *2.11 Core and Qualifying Attributes*

Clearly, there are no absolute boundaries between the different categories that have been proposed in this framework. Just as Getz (1991a) suggested that the definition of a special event depended upon one's perspective, so too is it suggested here that the demarcation between categories also tends to reflect one's perspective. For example, an event that is held on an annual basis may be regarded as special in its first year because it is so different, but then be regarded as routine in subsequent years as the 'newness' wears off.

Based purely on a frequency analysis of the results presented in Table 2.2, the most important special event attributes are:

1. Attracting tourists or tourism development,
2. Being of limited duration,
3. Being a one-off or infrequent occurrence,
4. Raising the awareness, image or profile of a region,
5. Attracting media attention,
6. Having a large economic impact,
7. Being out of the ordinary or unique.

The last item on this list is a combination of two attributes that seem closely allied. Of course, this list should be viewed as indicative only, because it is derived from a judgment sample of publications and compiled on a simple 'count of mentions' basis. However, the literature search that underpinned Table 2.2 was both extensive and systematic. Many articles, which are not mentioned in the table, were found that discussed definitions of special events, but the discussion in these articles referred back to other articles that were already mentioned. It would be preferable to try to induce, logically, generalisations about special events

which could then be applied, hierarchically, to new events to assess their characterisation as 'special' events.

The identification of core attributes is an important step in establishing a definitional framework, where a core attribute of a special event is defined as an attribute that must be present if a phenomenon is to be classed as a special event. Before deciding whether the seven attributes listed above are what could be termed 'core attributes', it is worth making some other observations regarding the categories of special events that were referred to more frequently in Table 2.2 within each of these seven attributes. The first four attributes in this list included the full range of event categories whereas attributes five and six referred more frequently to hallmark and mega-events. It is interesting to note that although two attributes were combined as the seventh attribute in the above list, the categories of special events associated with the two separate attributes were quite different; 'out of the ordinary' was more frequently associated with special events, whilst 'unique' was more frequently associated with hallmark events.

Based on the data presented in Table 2.2, there were only two attributes that were associated more frequently with events, special events and festivals than they were with hallmark and mega-events. These two attributes were 'having a theme' and 'involving a celebration'. There was, however, quite a number of attributes more frequently associated with hallmark and mega-events:

- Attracting large crowds,
- Involving prestige and status,
- Attracting funds to the region,
- Leaving behind legacies or urban renewal,
- Involving demand for related services,
- Being of a national or international scale,
- Incorporating festivals or other events,
- Involving tradition or symbolism,
- Involving a large cost,
- Being of a large scale.

The attribute 'offering a social experience' was associated with the full range of event categories.

Based on this analysis, therefore, the core attributes of special events are suggested to be:

1. Attracting tourists or tourism development,
2. Being of a limited duration,
3. Being a one-off or infrequent occurrence,
4. Raising the awareness, image or profile of a region,
5. Offering a social experience,
6. Being out of the ordinary.

Once a phenomenon has been accepted as a special event based on having demonstrated the presence of 'core' attributes, it can be further categorised by testing for the presence of 'qualifying' attributes. Based on the literature review conducted, the following qualifying attributes are proposed for the different categories:

For Festivals and Minor Special events.

1. Having a theme
2. Involving a celebration

For Major events (Hallmark and Mega).

1. Attracting media attention,
2. Attracting large crowds,
3. Involving prestige and status,
4. Attracting funds to the region,
5. Leaving behind legacies or urban renewal,
6. Involving demand for related services,
7. Being of a national or international scale,
8. Incorporating festivals or other events,
9. Involving tradition or symbolism,
10. Involving a large cost,

11. Being of a large scale.

The core (CORE) and qualifying (QUAL) attributes are summarised in Table 2.3.

### Table 2.3  Special Event Core and Qualifying Attributes

| ATTRIBUTE | SPECIAL EVENT | FESTIVAL | MAJOR EVENT | HALLMARK EVENT | MEGA-EVENT |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Attracting tourists or tourism development. | CORE | | | | |
| Being of a limited duration. | CORE | | | | |
| Being a one-off or infrequent occurrence. | CORE | | | | |
| Raising a region's awareness, image or profile. | CORE | | | | |
| Offering a social experience. | CORE | | | | |
| Being out of the ordinary. | CORE | | | | |
| Involving a public celebration. | | QUAL | | | |
| Having a theme. | | QUAL | | | |
| Attracting media attention. | | | QUAL | | |
| Attracting large crowds. | | | QUAL | | |
| Involving prestige and status. | | | QUAL | | |
| Attracting funds to the region. | | | QUAL | | |
| Leaving behind legacies or urban renewal. | | | QUAL | | |
| Involving demand for related services. | | | QUAL | | |
| Being of a national or international scale. | | | QUAL | | |
| Incorporating festivals or other events. | | | QUAL | | |
| Involving tradition or symbolism. | | | QUAL | | |
| Involving a large cost. | | | QUAL | | |
| Being of a large scale. | | | QUAL | | |
| Being an infrequent occurrence. | | | | QUAL | |
| Being tied to a specific place. | | | | QUAL | |
| Being large in a relative sense only. | | | | QUAL | |
| Resulting in destination & event becoming synonymous. | | | | QUAL | |
| Being a one-off occurrence. | | | | | QUAL |
| Being international in scale. | | | | | QUAL |

## 2.12 Definitions

An extensive literature review has confirmed that it is unlikely that a single, all embracing definition of special events can be developed, as such phenomena include a vast range of types. However, a framework, or model, has been presented that demonstrates the relationships between the various categories of events, and based upon this framework, a series of definitions for the various categories of events can be proposed.

The following hierarchical list of definitions follows the schema proposed in Figure 2.1 and will be adopted throughout this thesis.

### SPECIAL EVENT

A onetime or infrequently occurring event of limited duration that provides the consumer with a leisure and social opportunity beyond everyday experience. Such events, which attract, or have the potential to attract tourists, are often held to raise the profile, image or awareness of a region.

### MAJOR EVENT

A large scale special event that is high in status or prestige and attracts a large crowd and wide media attention. Such events often have a tradition and incorporate festivals and other types of events. They are expensive to stage, attract funds to the region, lead to demand for associated services and leave behind legacies.

### HALLMARK EVENT

An infrequently occurring major event that is tied to a specific place whereby the destination and the event become synonymous. Although such events are generally on a national or international scale they can be events that dominate a particular region.

### MEGA-EVENT

A one-time major event that is generally of an international scale.

**FESTIVAL**

A special event which is a public themed celebration.

Although core and qualifying attributes of the various categories of events have been identified, given the range of such attributes, it has not been possible to go to the next stage and operationalise these definitions. Such operationalisation would require the specification of inter-category thresholds for attributes such as visitor numbers, costs and economic impacts, which is difficult given the range of settings and the size of host populations. There is still the controversy that is not resolved in the literature regarding whether a hallmark event must be large in an absolute sense or in a relative sense. Marris (1987) and Travis and Croize (1987) are the only researchers found in the literature who have made any attempt to quantify these thresholds. It is not considered that such thresholds can be applied universally.

Having presented a definitional framework based upon secondary research (that is, a review of the literature), it is now important to develop a more direct appreciation of the attributes that consumers regard as important in their understanding of special events. Although the literature has speculated about consumer perceptions, more primary research is necessary to quantify the weightings which various target markets attach to event attributes. This would help identify the types of events that should be produced and the manner in which they should be promoted in order to be satisfy consumers.

# CHAPTER 3

# CONSUMER PERSPECTIVE ON SPECIAL EVENT DEFINITION AND TYPOLOGY

## 3.1 Introduction

The previous chapter proposed a framework that could be used to define the term 'special event' and to understand the relationship between 'special event' and some of its synonyms. In seeking to operationalise the definition of the term 'special event', it is essential that consumers are surveyed to gain an appreciation of the attributes that they believe are important in defining the term. Given that the consumer perspective is the focus of this thesis, exploration of the consumer understanding of special events is fundamental. The framework proposed in the previous chapter was based purely on an extensive review of existing literature and did not draw upon any direct consumer input.

This chapter contains the background to the development, purification and application of a questionnaire designed to obtain from consumers, the attributes that they regard as most important in defining a special event. The questionnaire employed four measures, namely, direct event rating, elicitation, direct attribute rating and conjoint analysis, in order to identify these important special event attributes. The attributes that were identified in the literature reviewed in the previous chapter were included in a preliminary questionnaire that was administered to a small convenience sample of students. The results of this preliminary study were used as the basis for identifying the direct attributes and conjoint dimensions that were subsequently employed in the main questionnaire used in this part of the study.

The data obtained using this questionnaire are then analysed and discussed, resulting in a consumer definition of special events. The consumer perspective is then contrasted with the findings from the literature review conducted in the previous chapter.

## 3.2 Attribute Identification

Churchill's (1979) paradigm for developing better measures was followed in the development of a questionnaire for assessing special event attributes. However, since the purpose of Churchill's model generally was to develop measures for specific constructs, the first stage of the model was changed here as a key objective of this study was to define or to operationalise a term rather than simply develop a measure. In other words, it would have been begging the question to specify the domain of the construct in the precise means proposed by Churchill.

The extensive literature review discussed in the previous chapter was the basis for compiling a list of attributes that could be used to define or describe special events. Two independent researchers subsequently reviewed the list to remove items that were seen as redundant and add others considered appropriate. This resulted in a list containing 71 attributes. The attributes were converted into statements using seven-point Likert scales asking respondents about the extent to which they agreed that the statements characterised a special event. A copy of this draft questionnaire is included in Appendix A.

A convenience sample of 62 Australian students and academics completed the draft questionnaire comprising the 71 items. Respondents were also given the opportunity to add attributes, as necessary. Ten respondents took the opportunity to provide additional attributes but upon examination of these additional attributes, it was considered that they had already been included in the base questionnaire in one form or another.

The results of the 62 questionnaires were entered into SPSS (Norusis 1994) for analysis. Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was conducted in an attempt to extract a small number of key underlying factors. Both orthogonal and oblique rotations were conducted and it was found that varimax rotation extracted factors with higher overall item loadings. Since the initial EFA extracted 21 factors which explained 82 per cent of the total variance, a further reduction of attributes was considered desirable and achieved via a number of techniques:

- Items with loadings below 0.4 were deemed to be weak and were removed from subsequent analysis (Echtner and Ritchie 1993).
- Cronbach's alpha was computed for the items comprising each factor, and items were removed to increase the overall alpha (Churchill 1979).
- Items that could in anyway be construed as being redundant were eliminated (Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Black 1995).

The subsequent EFA extracted 12 factors that explained over 75 per cent of the total variance.

The final list of 39 attributes, which is presented in Table 3.1, comprised two or three items from each of the factors plus some items from the discard list that had received high mean values in the pretest.

### 3.3 Questionnaire Design

In order to develop an in-depth appreciation of the attributes that consumers considered to be fundamental to their understanding of special events, it was decided to use more than a single measuring technique. Four distinct measuring techniques were incorporated into the questionnaire which would not only provide a base for a more in-depth understanding, but would also enable the convergent validity of the techniques to be assessed. Churchill (1979) argues that this is crucial in determining the relative merit of differing measuring techniques.

A number of studies has been conducted to assess the validity of various techniques used to measure the importance of product characteristics in final consumer choice (see, for example, Lego and Shaw 1992). According to Lego and Shaw (1992), the correlations between the results achieved by the various techniques are low or moderate. This poses problems for researchers in identifying the most appropriate questioning technique that should be used in a particular study.

*Table 3.1  Special Event Attributes*

| Variable Name | Questionnaire Statement |
| --- | --- |
| ACTIVITY: | includes a wide range of activities. |
| CATALYST: | is a catalyst for economic development. |
| COLOUR: | is a colourful experience. |
| CONVIV: | has an air of conviviality. |
| CROWDS: | involves crowds enjoying themselves. |
| CULTDISP: | involves cultural displays. |
| DURATION: | lasts more than one day each time it is held. |
| EMOTION: | provides an emotional experience. |
| EXCITING: | provides an exciting experience. |
| EXHIBIT: | involves exhibitions and displays. |
| EXHIL: | provides an exhilarating experience. |
| FAIR: | could be a fair. |
| FAMILY: | provides entertainment for all of the family. |
| FAIRFEST: | incorporates a fair or festival. |
| FESTIVAL: | could be a festival. |
| FREQUENT: | occurs one time or infrequently. |
| GOVFUND: | receives substantial government funding. |
| HALLOWED: | involves an association with hallowed ground. |
| HOSTIMAG: | contributes greatly to community image and pride. |
| IMAGE: | helps build the image of the host region. |
| INTERNAT: | attracts international attention. |
| INTMEDIA: | is of international scale with wide media coverage. |
| INTPART: | involves international participants. |
| LARGE: | is of a large scale. |
| MEDIA: | attracts wide media coverage. |
| MEET: | provides an opportunity to meet new people. |
| MULTICUL: | provides a multicultural experience. |
| MYSTIQUE: | involves a high sense of mystique. |
| ONETIME: | is not held more than once per year. |
| PATRONS: | attracts a large patronage. |
| PRIDE: | stimulates community pride. |
| RECREAT: | includes many recreational activities. |
| RELSIZE: | is relatively large for the area, even if not large absolutely. |
| SHORTPER: | is held for a short period. |
| SIMILINT: | provides the opportunity to mix with people having similar interests. |
| SOCIAL: | offers a great social experience. |
| SOCIALIS: | involves opportunities to socialise with one's friends. |
| THEME: | has an overall theme. |
| VISITORS: | attracts many visitors from outside the region. |

In endeavouring to gain an appreciation of the consumer understanding of the term 'special event', it was considered highly desirable to use several techniques

that would allow consumers to provide as much information on the topic as they were willing, as well as facilitating the opportunity to conduct convergent validity analysis. The four measures were event rating, elicitation, attribute rating and conjoint analysis.

Direct Event Rating

In this section of the questionnaire, respondents were asked to rate the 'specialness' of a series of events using seven-point Likert scales. Given that the questionnaire was to be administered to a random sample of Melbourne residents, as will be discussed in a later section, it was decided that the events listed on the questionnaire should be well recognised by this market and accessible to it. Therefore, the events selected were primarily, but not exclusively, Victorian based. The items for inclusion in this section of the questionnaire came from four categories:

1. Events that Tourism Victoria classifies as hallmark events,
2. Well known events from within Victoria,
3. Well known events from outside Victoria,
4. 'Non-special events', that is, non-event tourist attractions which were included to test consumer response styles.

The complete listing of events is presented in Table 3.2. The order in which the various events appeared on the final questionnaire was randomised.

Elicitation

The second section of the questionnaire contained a single open-ended question that asked respondents to describe in their own words the most important characteristics that would lead them to regard an event as a special event. This question was placed early in the questionnaire in order to 'elicit' from respondents unprompted special event characteristics, prior to being prompted by the attributes listed in subsequent sections (Jaccard, Brinberg and Ackerman 1986).

*Table 3.2  Listing of Events used in the Questionnaire*

| EVENTS |
| --- |
| **Category 1 (Tourism Victoria's Hallmark Events)** |

Melbourne International Comedy Festival
Melbourne International Festival of the Arts
Melbourne Food and Wine Festival
Melbourne International Flower and Garden Show
Australian Formula One Grand Prix
Australian Motorcycle Grand Prix
Ford Australian Open Tennis
Australian Football League Grand Final
Bells Beach Surf Classic
Spring Racing Carnival

**Category 2 (Range of Victorian Events)**
Melbourne Moomba Festival
Australian International Air Show
Royal Agricultural Society of Victoria Show (Melbourne Show)
Stawell Gift
Bendigo Easter Fair
Melbourne Music Festival
Australian Open Golf
Papal Visit to Melbourne
Lygon Street Festival
Port Fairy Folk Festival
Boxing Day Cricket Test Match at the MCG
Hanging Rock Picnic Race Meeting
Rutherglen Winery Walkabout
Ballarat's Begonia Festival
Uncle Toby's Iron Man Classic
Mildura International Balloon Fiesta
Australian International Badminton Championships
Maldon Folk Festival
Myer Music Bowl Carols by Candlelight
Sail Melbourne International Nissan Regatta
World Police and Fire Games
International Rotary Convention
Red Cross Murray Marathon

**Category 3 (Events from Outside Victoria)**
Sydney 2000 Olympics
America's Cup
Commonwealth Games
Brisbane Expo (1988)
Sydney's Gay and Lesbian Mardi Gras

***Table 3.2  Listing of Events used in the Questionnaire (continued)***

| EVENTS |
| --- |
| **Category 4 (Non-events)** |
|     Collingwood versus Carlton Australian Rules Football Match |
|     Sovereign Hill theme park |
|     Puffing Billy |
|     Phillip Island Penguin Parade |

Direct Attribute Rating

This section of the questionnaire contained the 39 special event attributes discussed earlier. Each attribute was expressed in statement form, the order of the statements was randomised, and the respondents were asked to indicate, using seven-point Likert scales, the extent to which they agreed that each of the statements characterised a special event. No specific or named special event was mentioned. Respondents were expected to rate a notional, or 'typical' special event in terms of its likelihood of exhibiting each attribute.

Conjoint Analysis

Recognising that a large number of attributes was identified in an earlier section of this study as being relevant to a definition of special events, it was decided to employ conjoint analysis in an effort to determine the relative importance of the key attributes in defining special events from a consumer perspective.

Conjoint analysis, a technique that has become widely utilised, enables stimuli to be evaluated in terms of their attributes. This technique recognises that the presence and relative strength of attributes affects the way in which objects are considered and assists in determining the relative importance of the various attributes. It is a decompositional technique that enables the researcher to determine the value of each attribute based upon the respondent's overall evaluation of bundles of attributes. Consumers are believed to choose alternatives with the highest overall utility which is equivalent to the sum of the utilities of the component parts (Claxton 1987).

Identifying the features to be used in a conjoint analysis study is the most critical step in the process (Claxton 1987). The features used in this conjoint analysis were

derived from the EFA discussed earlier, which was further reduced by prioritising the factors based on the key attributes identified by the leading researchers in this field, namely Getz, Hall, and Ritchie (see, for example, Getz 1997, Hall 1992, and Ritchie 1984). This resulted in nine dimensions that were named with the assistance of three independent judges. Each dimension used in this conjoint study had two levels which utilised both positive and negative tones. The complete list of conjoint dimensions and levels is in Table 3.3.

Most conjoint analyses use between five and eight features (Bretton-Clark 1987) and it is suggested that above this level, full-profile and trade-off methods of conjoint analysis start to become unwieldy (Hair et al 1995). However, it was not possible to reduce the number of features used in this analysis below nine without risking the loss of important determinants. Although it is not usual to have more than eight dimensions in a conjoint analysis, it was not considered that the inclusion of an extra dimension would pose serious problems for the analysis, especially when one considers that many corporate studies include up to 30 attributes (Hair et al 1995). The full profile method, which is the most commonly employed conjoint analysis method (Carmichael 1996), was used in this study.

Despite Hair et al (1995) having suggested that the attributes "must be distinct and represent a single concept" (p. 568), three of the attributes chosen for this study embraced more than a single concept. This occurred because it was found in the factor analysis of the pilot test results that the links between these concepts were so strong that the various pairs of concepts tended to merge. In order to support further this position, both the single concepts as well as the combined ones, were listed in the attribute section of the questionnaire.

The Conjoint Designer Program (Bretton-Clark 1987) was used to produce a fractional factorial design for the nine dimensions included in this study. The resulting design required 12 full-profile cards to test the main effects of the variables, to which two additional profiles were added as holdout tests in order to validate later the results of the conjoint analysis.

*Table 3.3  Conjoint Dimensions and Levels*

COMMUNITY IMAGE AND PRIDE
-contributes greatly to community image and pride.
-contributes little to community image and pride.

SOCIAL EXPERIENCE
-offers a great social experience.
-offers little in the way of social experience.

INTERNATIONAL SCALE AND MEDIA ATTENTION
-is of an international scale with wide media coverage.
-is not of an international scale nor receives wide media coverage.

SHORT DURATION
-is held for a short period.
-is held for an extended period.

FAIR OR FESTIVAL
-incorporates a fair or festival.
-does not incorporate a fair or festival.

GOVERNMENT FUNDING
-receives substantial government funding.
-receives little government funding.

ONE TIME OR INFREQUENT
-occurs one time or infrequently.
-occurs frequently.

MYSTIQUE
-involves a high sense of mystique.
-involves little or no sense of mystique.

EXCITING EXPERIENCE
-provides a very exciting experience.
-provides little in the way of an exciting experience.

The order in which the dimensions appeared in the full-profile cards was randomised but thereafter stayed the same in each of the profiles. Although Hair et al (1995) argued that adopting a consistent order throughout the conjoint study could affect the manner in which respondents evaluate the profiles, there is also an argument for maintaining the same order to facilitate the learning process for respondents such that they are able to complete the task more easily.

Some believe that ranking is more reliable than rating profiles (Hair et al 1995), but the ranking procedure requires more guidance for the respondent which is less feasible in a self-complete questionnaire. Hence, there was little option in this study but to ask respondents to rate each of the profiles on how closely the profile represented a special event, using a scale of 1 to 10.

Rating of Conjoint Dimensions at Specific Events

In order to complete the convergent validation process, one more stage was required. It is necessary to understand the importance of each of the dimensions used in the generic conjoint study for each of the specific, named events that was listed in the questionnaire. However, this would require the respondent to rate 378 items (nine dimensions for 42 events), which was considered far too onerous a task. As a compromise, respondents were asked to rate each of the dimensions used in the conjoint study for a selection of three known events, thereby adding only 27 additional items to the questionnaire.

In drastically reducing the number of events that would be included in this section, it was of great importance that the events that were chosen were sufficiently diverse in type to cover as broad a range of events as possible. It was also important that the events be fairly well known to the likely target respondents so that most respondents would have an informed opinion regarding these events. After considerable discussion with an expert panel of judges, the following three events were selected: the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games, the Stawell Gift, and the Melbourne Moomba Festival. It was considered that these events provided coverage of the different sizes and types of events.

### 3.4 Survey Sample
As has been stated earlier, this conceptualisation study was run in conjunction with a broader study that examined consumer behaviour in relation to a range of tourist attractions including special events. This latter study, which will be described in detail in a subsequent chapter of this thesis, required 40 minute face-

to-face interviews of a random sample of Melbourne residents. For convenience, it was decided to use the same sample for both surveys.

Since the focus of this study was Melbourne residents, it was decided to define Melbourne using the boundaries specified in the Melbourne Statistical Division of the 1991 Australian Bureau of Statistics Census (Australian Bureau of Statistics 1993). Using these boundaries to define the population from which a random sample would be drawn, facilitates the potential of later generalisation of the findings of this study to all Melbourne residents.

It was decided that a random sample of 500 Melbourne residents would be selected to participate in this project. According to Zikmund (1991), the results obtained from a sample of this size in relation to Melbourne's population of just over three million residents are between four and five per cent (plus and minus) reliable at the 95 per cent confidence level.

The following procedure was adopted in order to randomly select 500 residents from the study population. One hundred domestic addresses were randomly selected from the April 1996 revision of the Telstra White Pages telephone directory to be used as start points. The search was constrained to within the boundaries of the Melbourne Statistical Division of the 1991 Australian Bureau of Statistics Census. Beginning at each start point, five respondents from different residences were interviewed. It was recognised that using the telephone directory to obtain start points excluded those residences that did not have a telephone or had an unlisted telephone number. However, this was not considered to be a major problem as not being listed in the telephone directory precluded one from being selected as a start point but not from being in the interview sample.

### 3.5 Pilot Testing

The questionnaire was pilot tested with a group of 20 postgraduate students. A few minor changes were made to the way some of the questions were phrased in the questionnaire as a result of the pilot testing. Nothing more substantial was seen as necessary. A copy of the final questionnaire is presented in Appendix B.

### 3.6 Survey Administration

Since the main component of this research project required the conduct of 500 face-to-face in home interviews, it was decided that a team of trained and experienced interviewers would be necessary. For this reason, a professional marketing research company was contracted to administer the questionnaire.

Both questionnaires, the face-to-face questionnaire and the mailback questionnaire, were developed and pilot tested by this researcher and then delivered to the marketing research organisation along with comprehensive interviewer instruction sheets. This researcher also attended the interviewer briefing sessions to provide additional information as necessary, to facilitate the project.

In the conduct of the project, 12 trained interviewers were used. The questionnaires were administered between 16 November and 5 December 1996 to respondents aged 18 and above and in order to maximise the number of suitable candidates for the questionnaires being home, interviews were conducted during the week between the hours of 4pm and 9pm, and on weekends between the hours of 10am and 6pm. Of the 500 questionnaires administered, 294 were administered over a weekend. Ten per cent of each interviewer's work was validated with the respondents and all completed interview records were examined by an editor.

At each start point, interviewers were to proceed from house-to-house in a clockwise direction until five respondents who were at least 18 years of age agreed to participate in the survey. Callbacks were arranged where there was not a suitable person at home or where the person at home was busy. It was important that there was a fairly even gender mix of respondents to the survey, and since the marketing research organisation indicated that, based on its past experience, more females answer the door than males, it was decided that whenever there was a chance to specify gender, male was specified. In this way a fairly even gender mix was achieved.

At the completion of each face-to-face interview, the interviewer left behind a definitional questionnaire and asked the respondent to complete the questionnaire and return it in the reply paid envelope that was attached to the questionnaire. Respondents were advised that returning the completed questionnaire would enable them to be entered in a draw for a $500 prize.

## 3.7 Survey Response

Of the 500 definitional questionnaires that were distributed to the random sample of Melbourne residents, 274 questionnaires were returned representing a response rate of 55 per cent.

The data from the questionnaires were entered into SPSS (Norusis 1994) and the descriptives procedure was run to facilitate the screening of the data, in particular to identify missing values. It was found that there were 46 cases that had data for at least one variable missing and of these, 19 cases had missing data for a single variable only.

Since the sample size for this study was quite large, it was decided to delete completely all cases that had any missing data so that there would not be questions at a later stage about the inclusion of incomplete returns. Deletion of the defective cases left 228 questionnaires that had been fully completed.

## 3.8 Analysis Of Results

The data obtained from the questionnaire involving the consumer understanding of special events are analysed and discussed in this chapter. Results of the face-to-face interviews will be discussed in Chapter Seven in Part Two of the thesis.

### 3.8.1 Direct Rating of Events

A list containing the mean values of the direct rating of events in terms of their 'specialness' is presented in Table 3.4. This list has high face validity in that the events with the highest mean ratings were the larger sporting events. The 'Olympic Games' had the highest mean rating followed closely by the

'Commonwealth Games'. These two events were rated well ahead of all other events, with the mean dropping 14 per cent in moving from 'Commonwealth Games' to the event with the next highest mean on the list. The falls in mean values between all other events on the list were generally less than two per cent, although sometimes they reached four per cent. It was also interesting to note that the standard deviations of the ratings for the two Games events were substantially less than for all other events listed, indicating that support for the 'specialness' of these two events was both high and consistent. This supports the Macdonald (1994 p. 321) view that "the most influential type of special sporting event are those such as the Commonwealth and Olympic games." These two events have some characteristics that are quite different to most of the other listed events in that they are both international, occur only every four years, are staged in different locations each time, and attract substantial media coverage. The vast majority of the other events listed in this study occur on an annual basis and in the same location each year.

At first glance, it was somewhat surprising that the 'Myer Music Bowl Carols by Candlelight' was rated so highly by respondents, coming in at seventh place in terms of its mean value on a list of 42 events. However, the fact that this event is held on Christmas Eve each year, which in itself is special, and the fact that it has become an important tradition in Melbourne, probably goes a long way towards explaining its specialness in the minds of the respondents.

*Table 3.4  Ratings of Event Specialness*

| Event | 'Specialness' Rating Mean | Standard Deviation |
|---|---|---|
| 1. Olympic Games. | 6.7 | 0.9 |
| 2. Commonwealth Games. | 6.5 | 1.2 |
| 3. Ford Australian Open Tennis. | 5.6 | 1.8 |
| 4. Australian Football League Grand Final. | 5.5 | 2.0 |
| 5. Brisbane Expo. | 5.5 | 1.8 |
| 6. Australian Formula One Grand Prix. | 5.5 | 2.0 |
| 7. Myer Music Bowl Carols by Candlelight. | 5.3 | 1.7 |

| Event | 'Specialness' Rating Mean | Standard Deviation |
|---|---|---|
| 8. Melbourne Moomba Festival. | 5.3 | 1.6 |
| 9. America's Cup. | 5.3 | 1.9 |
| 10. Spring Racing Carnival. | 5.2 | 1.8 |
| 11. Australian Motorcycle Grand Prix. | 5.2 | 2.0 |
| 12. Melbourne International Festival of the Arts. | 5.2 | 1.7 |
| 13. Melbourne International Comedy Festival. | 5.0 | 1.6 |
| 14. Royal Agricultural Society of Victoria Show. | 4.9 | 1.9 |
| 15. Australian Open Golf. | 4.9 | 1.9 |
| 16. Australian International Air Show. | 4.9 | 1.7 |
| 17. Melbourne Music Festival. | 4.8 | 1.6 |
| 18. World Police and Fire Games. | 4.8 | 1.9 |
| 19. Boxing Day Cricket Test Match at MCG. | 4.7 | 1.9 |
| 20. Phillip Island Penguin Parade. | 4.6 | 2.1 |
| 21. Melbourne International Flower and Garden Show. | 4.6 | 1.7 |
| 22. Papal Visit to Melbourne. | 4.5 | 2.2 |
| 23. Melbourne Food and Wine Festival. | 4.4 | 1.7 |
| 24. Bells Beach Surf Classic. | 4.2 | 1.8 |
| 25. Lygon Street Festival. | 4.2 | 1.7 |
| 26. Stawell Gift. | 4.2 | 1.7 |
| 27. Red Cross Murray Marathon. | 4.0 | 1.8 |
| 28. Sovereign Hill Theme Park. | 4.0 | 1.9 |
| 29. Uncle Toby's Iron Man Classic. | 3.9 | 1.8 |
| 30. Puffing Billy. | 3.9 | 1.9 |
| 31. Sail Melbourne International Nissan Regatta. | 3.7 | 1.7 |
| 32. Ballarat's Begonia Festival. | 3.7 | 1.6 |
| 33. Hanging Rock Picnic Race Meeting. | 3.6 | 1.6 |
| 34. Port Fairy Folk Festival. | 3.6 | 1.6 |
| 35. Bendigo Easter Fair. | 3.6 | 1.6 |
| 36. Australian International Badminton Championship. | 3.5 | 1.7 |
| 37. International Rotary Convention. | 3.4 | 1.9 |
| 38. Mildura International Balloon Fiesta. | 3.3 | 1.7 |
| 39. Maldon Folk Festival. | 3.2 | 1.6 |
| 40. Collingwood versus Carlton Football Match. | 3.2 | 2.2 |
| 41. Rutherglen Winery Walkabout. | 3.2 | 1.6 |
| 42. Sydney's Gay and Lesbian Mardi Gras. | 3.0 | 2.2 |

*Table 3.4 Ratings of Event Specialness (continued)*

The events which had the highest standard deviations on the ratings were: 'Papal Visit to Melbourne', 'Sydney's Gay and Lesbian Mardi Gras', 'Collingwood versus Carlton Football Match' and 'Phillip Island Penguin Parade'. This indicates that there was greater variation amongst the respondents as to the

specialness of these events, which is not surprising when one examines these individual events more closely. The first two events are ones for which support would likely be strongly polarised, and the last two are not usually regarded as special events and were included in the study only to assess respondent use of the rating scale. That is, if respondents rated non-special events highly, it might indicate some degree of carelessness in their responding, and hence cast doubt on the validity of the data. The higher standard deviations obtained for these two 'non-special events' suggests that there may have been some respondent confusion regarding their level of specialness.

Of the four 'non-special events' that were included in the list of events in order to assess the manner in which respondents used the Likert scale, three were permanent tourist attractions and the fourth was a regular football match. Although these non-special events did not have the lowest mean values of the events listed, none was ranked in the highest section of the 42 item list in terms of mean values: 'Phillip Island Penguin Parade' (ranked 20), 'Sovereign Hill' (ranked 28), 'Puffing Billy' (ranked 30) and 'Collingwood versus Carlton Football Match' (ranked 40). One could argue that aspects of the Penguin Parade are, indeed, not dissimilar to a special event, which would explain its higher ranking than would have been expected. The Penguin Parade is focussed on a natural phenomenon that occurs at dusk each evening at which time penguins return en masse from the ocean to their nesting area. Spectators are grouped in a grandstand to watch this occurrence and there is an air of anticipation that perhaps provides the basis for an experience that is not dissimilar to a special event. With respect to Sovereign Hill and Puffing Billy, it is possible that some respondents were assessing the 'specialness to them' of a visit to these attractions rather than the 'specialness' of the event per se. That is, these respondents could have been rating the value of the experience rather than the event itself. The standard deviations for each of these four items were high, indicating disparate views across the respondents.

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

An EFA of the ratings of the events was conducted using a varimax rotation. This EFA extracted 12 factors with eigenvalues greater than one, which explained nearly 70 per cent of the total variance. These factors, which demonstrated both high face validity and high reliability (with all Cronbach alphas above 0.7), are presented in Table 3.5.

In the list of event mean ratings that was reported earlier, the most highly rated events were the large sporting events headed by the 'Olympics' and the 'Commonwealth Games'. In the EFA, it was interesting to note that some factors were extracted that aligned closely with these large sporting events. There was a factor that comprised just the 'Olympics' and the 'Commonwealth Games', another that embraced large sports events in general, and another that included large motor sports events. It should also be mentioned that the three 'non-special event' attractions that were included in the questionnaire as a form of reliability check, were grouped together in a single factor, confirming the acceptability of the respondents' usage of the rating scales.

*Table 3.5  Factor Analysis of Event Specialness*

| Statement Items | Factor Loading | Eigen-value | Variance Explained (Percentage) | Coef. Reliab. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Regional Events** | | 10.7 | 25.5 | 0.88 |
| Ballarat's Begonia Festival | 0.78 | | | |
| Maldon Folk Festival | 0.74 | | | |
| Mildura International Balloon Fiesta | 0.70 | | | |
| Port Fairy Folk Festival | 0.64 | | | |
| Australian International Badminton Championships | 0.59 | | | |
| Rutherglen Winery Walkabout | 0.58 | | | |
| Hanging Rock Picnic Race Meeting | 0.51 | | | |
| Sail Melbourne International Nissan Regatta | 0.49 | | | |
| Royal Agricultural Society of Victoria Show | 0.47 | | | |
| | | | | |
| **Festivals** | | 3.8 | 9.0 | 0.83 |
| Melbourne International Comedy Festival | 0.74 | | | |
| Melbourne Music Festival | 0.71 | | | |
| Melbourne Food and Wine Festival | 0.70 | | | |
| Lygon Street Festival | 0.60 | | | |
| Melbourne International Festival of the Arts | 0.55 | | | |
| Melbourne Internat. Flower & Garden Show | 0.53 | | | |
| | | | | |
| **Sport** | | 2.8 | 6.7 | 0.78 |
| Ford Australian Tennis Open | 0.76 | | | |
| Australian Football League Grand Final | 0.72 | | | |
| Boxing Day Cricket Test Match at the MCG | 0.69 | | | |
| Australian Open Golf | 0.66 | | | |
| Collingwood versus Carlton Football Match | 0.56 | | | |
| | | | | |
| **Non-event attractions** | | 1.9 | 4.5 | 0.81 |
| Sovereign Hill | 0.86 | | | |
| Phillip Island Penguin Parade | 0.86 | | | |
| Puffing Billy | 0.68 | | | |
| | | | | |
| **Technology** | | 1.7 | 4.0 | 0.75 |
| Australian Formula One Grand Prix | 0.79 | | | |
| Australian Motorcycle Grand Prix | 0.74 | | | |
| Australian International Air Show | 0.61 | | | |
| | | | | |
| **Service Oriented** | | 1.5 | 3.6 | 0.70 |
| Red Cross Murray Marathon | 0.69 | | | |
| World Police and Fire Games | 0.61 | | | |
| International Rotary Convention | 0.51 | | | |
| | | | | |
| **Mega-sport** | | 1.3 | 3.1 | 0.72 |
| Sydney 2000 Olympics | 0.83 | | | |
| Commonwealth Games | 0.77 | | | |
| | | | | |
| **City festivals** | | 1.3 | 3.1 | 0.53 |
| Melbourne Moomba Festival | 0.74 | | | |
| Bendigo Easter Fair | 0.54 | | | |

*Table 3.5  Factor Analysis of Event Specialness (continued)*

| Statement Items | Factor Loading | Eigen-value | Variance Explained (Percentage) | Coef. Reliab. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Human Endurance** | | 1.2 | 2.8 | 0.69 |
| Sydney's Gay and Lesbian Mardi Gras | 0.77 | | | |
| Bells Beach Surf Classic | 0.55 | | | |
| Uncle Toby's Iron Man Classic | 0.45 | | | |
| | | | | |
| **Intermittent International** | | 1.1 | 2.7 | 0.57 |
| Brisbane Expo (1988) | 0.77 | | | |
| Papal Visit to Melbourne | 0.50 | | | |
| America's Cup | 0.45 | | | |
| | | | | |
| **Carols** | | 1.1 | 2.5 | N/A |
| Myer Music Bowl Carols by Candlelight | 0.64 | | | |
| | | | | |
| **Other Racing** | | 1.0 | 2.5 | 0.47 |
| Stawell Gift | 0.57 | | | |
| Spring Racing Carnival | 0.49 | | | |
| | | | | |
| Total Variance Explained | | | 69.9 | |

## 3.8.2 Elicitation

Verbatim responses from the elicitation section of the questionnaire were entered into *Microsoft Word* and the 'find' function of *Word* was used to help count the number of occurrences of key words. A list containing the key words and their frequency of occurrence is presented in Table 3.6.

As indicated in Table 3.7, it was possible to recode the keywords found in the elicitation section such that they collapsed into the categories that were used in the conjoint analysis. Although there were 85 terms that did not readily fit into the conjoint categories, the other 91 per cent of elicitation keywords did fit. The majority of the keywords that did not easily fit into the conjoint categories related to 'interest'. Table 3.7 presents the rank order of conjoint dimensions based on the force-fitting of keywords in the elicitation section.

*Table 3.6  Keywords Identified in the Elicitation Section*

| Keyword | Frequency of occurrence |
|---|---|
| 1. People | 104 |
| 2. Interest… | 85 |
| 3. International | 84 |
| 4. Community | 51 |
| 5. World | 50 |
| 6. Family… | 37 |
| 7. Attract… | 36 |
| 8. Overseas | 29 |
| 9. Large | 32 |
| 10. Visitors | 27 |
| 11. Culture… | 26 |
| 12. Signific… | 26 |
| 13. Important… | 25 |
| 14. Annual… | 24 |
| 15. Excite… | 23 |
| 16. Enjoy… | 22 |
| 17. Media | 23 |
| 18. National | 18 |
| 19. Pride | 15 |
| 20. Attention | 14 |
| 21. Interstate | 13 |
| 22. Festival | 12 |
| 23. Television | 12 |
| 24. Fund… | 11 |
| 25. Unique | 11 |
| 26. Sport | 10 |
| 27. Variety | 10 |
| 28. Historic… | 10 |
| 29. Fun | 10 |
| 30. Tourist(s) | 10 |
| 31. Crowd(s) | 10 |
| 32. Popular… | 9 |
| 33. Occasion… | 8 |
| 34. Period | 8 |
| 35. Scale | 7 |
| 36. Big | 7 |
| 37. Tourism | 7 |
| 38. Social | 6 |
| 39. Plan… | 6 |
| 40. Major | 6 |
| 41. Experience | 6 |

*Table 3.6  Keywords Identified in the Elicitation Section (continued)*

| Keyword | Frequency of occurrence |
|---|---|
| 42. Skill… | 6 |
| 43. Atmosphere | 6 |
| 44. Government | 6 |
| 45. Image | 5 |
| 46. Short per… | 5 |
| 47. Publicity | 5 |
| 48. High Profile | 4 |
| 49. Famous | 4 |
| 50. Access | 4 |
| 51. Out of Ord | 4 |
| 52. Frequent… | 4 |
| 53. Infrequent… | 3 |
| 54. Colour… | 3 |
| 55. Unusual | 2 |

*Table 3.7  Rank order of Conjoint Dimensions based on Force-fitting Keywords Identified in the Elicitation Section*

| Conjoint Dimension | Frequency of occurrence | Rank order |
|---|---|---|
| International scale and media attention | 353 | 1 |
| Community image and pride | 318 | 2 |
| Exciting experience | 77 | 3 |
| One time or infrequently | 48 | 4 |
| Social experience | 43 | 5 |
| Involves a fair or festival | 32 | 6 |
| Involves government funding | 17 | 7 |
| Short duration | 5 | 8 |
| Mystique | 0 | 9 |
| Unable to fit | 85 | |

Care should be taken in the interpretation of this result due to the somewhat subjective manner in which the responses were fitted into the conjoint dimensions.

### 3.8.3 Direct Attribute Rating

The mean values of the direct attribute ratings are listed in descending order in Table 3.8. Perusal of the list of attribute ratings shows that a reasonable spread of mean values was achieved, indicating that respondents were using the scale to

differentiate between the relevance of attributes, although only one attribute had a mean below the midpoint of the seven-point rating scale.

The attributes that were ranked most highly according to their mean values fell into three main categories: the number of patrons at events, the host region's increase in image and pride, and the excitement associated with attending a special event. The most highly ranked attribute, 'many visitors', also had the lowest standard deviation indicating more uniform support for this attribute.

Although it may have been expected that the five functional attributes, 'not held more than once per year', 'large scale', 'held for a short period', 'occurs once or infrequently', and 'lasts more than one day', would be grouped together, this was not the case; these five attributes were spread from rank 13 to rank 34 on the 39 item listing. In particular, there is quite a deal of similarity between 'not more than once per year' and 'occurs once or infrequently', and yet these two items were ranked 13 and 26 respectively.

The attribute rating section of this questionnaire was also administered to a group of Canadian tourism students as part of another study and it was found that quite a number of students wrote on the questionnaire that they did not understand the meaning of the words 'hallowed' and 'mystique'. Although there were no comments made regarding the meaning of these words on the questionnaire used in this study, it is possible that some confusion did exist but that respondents were less prepared than students to admit their uncertainty. This may have contributed to the fact that these two attributes were ranked in the final two positions on the attribute list. The standard deviations for these two attributes were quite high, further supporting the possibility of confusion regarding meanings. Some care is needed, therefore, in the interpretation of these two attributes.

Another attribute that ranked well down the list was 'receives substantial government funding', which was ranked third last on the 39 item list. Since it is not always clear as to whether government funding is involved in various special events, care is needed in the interpretation of the fact that this attribute was ranked

so far down the list. Was this because the respondents did not regard the attribute as important in the description of a special event, or was it because they did not appreciate that it was a factor in many events?

*Table 3.8  Direct Attribute Ratings*

| Questionnaire Statement | Rating Mean | Standard Deviation |
|---|---|---|
| 1.  Attracts many visitors to the region. | 6.1 | 1.2 |
| 2.  Attracts international attention. | 5.9 | 1.4 |
| 3.  Contributes greatly to community image and pride. | 5.9 | 1.4 |
| 4.  Involves crowds enjoying themselves. | 5.9 | 1.4 |
| 5.  Provides an exciting experience. | 5.9 | 1.3 |
| 6.  Stimulates community pride. | 5.8 | 1.4 |
| 7.  Helps build the image of the host region. | 5.7 | 1.4 |
| 8.  Attracts a large patronage. | 5.7 | 1.4 |
| 9.  Provides entertainment for all the family. | 5.5 | 1.7 |
| 10. Is a colourful experience. | 5.5 | 1.4 |
| 11. Is of international scale with wide media coverage. | 5.5 | 1.7 |
| 12. Involves international participants. | 5.4 | 1.5 |
| 13. Is not held more than once per year. | 5.4 | 1.8 |
| 14. Provides chance to mix with people having similar interests. | 5.4 | 1.5 |
| 15. Attracts wide media coverage. | 5.4 | 1.6 |
| 16. Offers a great social experience. | 5.4 | 1.6 |
| 17. Provides an exhilarating experience. | 5.4 | 1.4 |
| 18. Is of a large scale. | 5.2 | 1.5 |
| 19. Provides an chance to meet new people. | 5.1 | 1.7 |
| 20. Has an overall theme. | 5.1 | 1.5 |
| 21. Provides a multicultural experience. | 5.1 | 1.6 |
| 22. Is held for a short period. | 5.0 | 1.6 |
| 23. Involves exhibitions and displays. | 5.0 | 1.4 |
| 24. Is a catalyst for economic development. | 5.0 | 1.5 |
| 25. Includes a wide range of activities. | 5.0 | 1.6 |
| 26. Occurs one time or infrequently. | 5.0 | 1.9 |
| 27. Provides an emotional experience. | 5.0 | 1.6 |
| 28. Could be a festival. | 5.0 | 1.6 |
| 29. Has an air of conviviality. | 4.9 | 1.4 |
| 30. Involves opportunities to socialise with one's friends. | 4.8 | 1.6 |
| 31. Is large in a relative sense for the area. | 4.8 | 1.5 |
| 32. Involves cultural displays. | 4.7 | 1.6 |
| 33. Incorporates a fair or festival. | 4.6 | 1.5 |
| 34. Lasts more than one day when held. | 4.5 | 1.9 |
| 35. Includes many recreational activities. | 4.5 | 1.5 |
| 36. Could be a fair. | 4.4 | 1.5 |
| 37. Receives substantial government funding. | 4.2 | 1.8 |
| 38. Involves a high sense of mystique. | 4.0 | 1.6 |
| 39. Involves an association with hallowed ground. | 3.8 | 1.7 |

It was interesting that 'provides an exciting experience' was the fifth most highly ranked attribute based on its mean value, whereas it was ranked so much lower down the listing in the elicitation section. This is possibly due to the way in which people use language in that reference to an exciting experience is probably not commonly used in general conversation whereas if one is specifically asked to rate the importance of such an attribute, people may recognise it as having a higher level of importance.

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

An EFA was conducted on the direct attribute rating scores in the questionnaire to determine the key underlying dimensions of special events. The EFA, which used a varimax rotation, extracted eight factors with eigenvalues greater than one, and these factors explained nearly 65 per cent of the total variance. A list of these factors is presented in Table 3.9.

As with the previous EFA, the face validity of the eight factors extracted here was high and the item loadings within each factor were quite strong. Reliabilities, based on Cronbach's alpha, were also generally high.

*Table 3.9  Factor Analysis of Attribute Ratings*

| Statement Items | Factor Loading | Eigen-value | Variance Explained (Percentage) | Coef. Reliab. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Includes a wide range of activities**. | | 11.7 | 29.7 | 0.90 |
| Includes a wide range of activities. | 0.84 | | | |
| Includes many recreational activities. | 0.76 | | | |
| Provides entertainment for all of the family. | 0.67 | | | |
| Provides a multicultural experience | 0.68 | | | |
| Incorporates a fair or festival. | 0.67 | | | |
| Involves cultural displays. | 0.61 | | | |
| Involves exhibitions and displays. | 0.60 | | | |
| Lasts more than one day each time it is held. | 0.59 | | | |
| Involves opportunities to socialise with one's friends. | 0.57 | | | |
| Provides an opportunity to meet new people. | 0.55 | | | |
| Could be a fair. | 0.50 | | | |

*Table 3.9  Factor Analysis of Attribute Ratings (continued)*

| Statement Items | Factor Loading | Eigen-value | Variance Explained (Percentage) | Coef. Reliab. |
|---|---|---|---|---|

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Raises image and pride in region.** | | 4.0 | 10.1 | 0.84 |
| Contributes greatly to community image and pride. | 0.70 | | | |
| Stimulates community pride. | 0.68 | | | |
| Helps build the image of the host region. | 0.68 | | | |
| Has an overall theme. | 0.55 | | | |
| Provides the opportunity to mix with people having similar interests. | 0.54 | | | |
| Is relatively large for the area, even if not large in absolute terms. | 0.54 | | | |
| Attracts many visitors from outside the region. | 0.52 | | | |
| **International scale.** | | 2.4 | 6.2 | 0.84 |
| Attracts international attention. | 0.81 | | | |
| Attracts wide media coverage. | 0.77 | | | |
| Is of international scale with wide media coverage. | 0.70 | | | |
| Involves international participants. | 0.60 | | | |
| Attracts a large patronage. | 0.57 | | | |
| Is a catalyst for economic development. | 0.52 | | | |
| Involves crowds enjoying themselves. | 0.46 | | | |
| **An exciting experience.** | | 1.9 | 4.8 | 0.81 |
| Provides an exhilarating experience. | 0.74 | | | |
| Is a colourful experience. | 0.69 | | | |
| Provides an exciting experience. | 0.61 | | | |
| Provides an emotional experience. | 0.55 | | | |
| Offers a great social experience. | 0.48 | | | |
| **Functional attributes.** | | 1.6 | 4.2 | 0.66 |
| Occurs one time or infrequently. | 0.78 | | | |
| Is held for a short period. | 0.71 | | | |
| Is not held more than once per year. | 0.57 | | | |
| Is of a large scale. | 0.46 | | | |
| **Festive occasion.** | | 1.3 | 3.4 | 0.70 |
| Could be a festival. | 0.80 | | | |
| Has an air of conviviality. | 0.68 | | | |
| **Government funds.** | | 1.2 | 3.1 | N/A |
| Receives substantial government funding. | 0.51 | | | |
| **Sacred / spiritual.** | | 1.1 | 2.9 | 0.66 |
| Involves a high sense of mystique. | 0.55 | | | |
| Involves an association with hallowed ground. | 0.50 | | | |
| Total Variance Explained | | | 64.4 | |

The attributes that were seen as important in terms of the ranking of attribute mean ratings were identified separately in the EFA. That is, there were factors based around the image and pride of the host region, the exciting experience, and the international attention.

### 3.8.4 Rating of Attributes at Specific Events

The purpose of this section was to investigate the manner in which respondents rated particular attributes for a range of named events. It was found that the overall rating of the possession of the attributes by the event, in terms of the mean values, was higher for the Olympics followed by Moomba and then followed by the Stawell Gift. This is consistent with the order of mean values found in the first part of this questionnaire. 'Mystique' was the lowest rated attribute for each event which is also consistent with the overall attribute rating section where this particular attribute was ranked 38th in a list of 39 attributes. Again, caution should be taken with this result because of the concern regarding possible confusion about the meaning of mystique. The rank orders of the attributes for each of these events is presented in Table 3.10.

**Table 3.10  Comparison of the Rank Order of Attributes of the Three Events**

| Attribute | Ranking of Attribute Means | | |
|---|---|---|---|
|  | **Olympics** | **Stawell** | **Moomba** |
| International scale & media attention | 1 | 7 | 8 |
| Provides an exciting experience | 2 | 3 | 5 |
| Fosters community image & pride | 3 | 2 | 2 |
| Occurs once or infrequently | 4 | 4 | 6 |
| Involves substantial govt. funding | 5 | 8 | 7 |
| Provides a social experience | 6 | 5 | 3 |
| Is of short duration | 7 | 1 | 4 |
| Involves fairs or festivals | 8 | 6 | 1 |
| Involves a sense of mystique | 9 | 9 | 9 |

Spearman Rank-Order Coefficients were calculated for the three attribute rankings in Table 3.10. These results are presented in Table 3.11 where it can be seen that there were negligible correlations between the rank ordering of the attributes for the Olympics and both other events, whilst there was a moderate correlation between Stawell and Moomba. The fact that there was such variability in the correlations of attributes for the various events suggests that respondents were able to distinguish between the same attribute at different events and use the rating scale effectively.

**Table 3.11 Spearman Rank-Order Coefficients**

| Events | Coefficient |
|---|---|
| Olympics - Stawell | 0.27 |
| Olympics - Moomba | 0.12 |

| Stawell - Moomba | 0.60 |
|---|---|

### 3.8.5 Conjoint Analysis

Results of the conjoint analysis are presented in Table 3.12. The weights shown in the table refer to the relative importance of the different attributes. They are analogous to the standardised coefficients in a regression equation and apply irrespective of the levels of the various attributes in the context of this study. It can be seen that 'fostering community image and pride', 'providing an exciting experience', 'international scale and media attention' and 'provides a social experience' accounted for 65 per cent of the relative importance whilst 'receives substantial government funding' and 'of short duration' accounted for less than 10 per cent of the relative importance.

The preferences column in Table 3.12 indicates the degree of consensus amongst respondents regarding the level of the various attributes as to which was the better indicator of an event being special. Results in this column indicated that there was quite high consensus about levels for the first eight attributes but less so for the final attribute, 'of short duration'. This seems to have face validity given that there could easily have been confusion surrounding special events like World Expositions which last for about six months.

An overall correlation of 0.8 was found between the actual scores on the two holdout profiles and the predicted scores. According to Bretton-Clark (1987), a correlation of this level is well within the acceptable range and indicates that the results are reasonably reliable. The mean absolute difference between the actual and the predicted scores was 1.8 on a 10 unit scale.

### *Table 3.12 Conjoint Analysis*

| Variables / Levels | Preferences (%) | Weights (%) |
|---|---|---|
| COMMUNITY IMAGE AND PRIDE | | 20.7 |
| -contributes greatly to community image and pride. | 87 | |
| -contributes little to community image and pride. | <u>13</u> | |
| | 100 | |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| EXCITING EXPERIENCE | | 17.0 |
| -provides a very exciting experience. | 86 | |
| -provides little in the way of an exciting experience. | 14 | |
| | 100 | |
| | | |
| INTERNATIONAL SCALE & MEDIA ATTENTION | | 13.8 |
| -is of an internat scale with wide media coverage. | 77 | |
| -is not of an internat scale nor get wide media cov. | 23 | |
| | 100 | |
| | | |
| SOCIAL EXPERIENCE | | 13.5 |
| -offers a great social experience. | 82 | |
| -offers little in the way of social experience. | 18 | |
| | 100 | |
| | | |
| MYSTIQUE | | 10.2 |
| -involves a high sense of mystique. | 72 | |
| -involves little or no sense of mystique. | 28 | |
| | 100 | |
| | | |
| ONE TIME OR INFREQUENT | | 9.2 |
| -occurs one time or infrequently. | 71 | |
| -occurs frequently. | 29 | |
| | 100 | |
| | | |
| FAIR OR FESTIVAL | | 6.2 |
| -incorporates a fair or festival. | 68 | |
| -does not incorporate a fair or festival. | 32 | |
| | 100 | |
| | | |
| GOVERNMENT FUNDING | | 5.8 |
| -receives substantial government funding. | 68 | |
| -receives little government funding. | 32 | |
| | 100 | |
| | | |
| SHORT DURATION | | 3.7 |
| -is held for a short period. | 62 | |
| -is held for an extended period. | 38 | |
| | 100 | 100 |

### 3.8.6 Correlations of Event Rating with Visit Interest and with Visit Intention

It was thought that there may be a relationship between respondents' interest and intention to visit an event, and the degree of 'specialness' that was accorded to that particular event. In other words, if respondents regard an event as more special, is that reflected in either their interest or intention to attend that event?

Correlation analysis was conducted to determine whether such relationships existed. Although almost all correlations were significant at the 95 per cent

confidence level, the actual correlations between event rating and both visit interest and visit intention, were generally quite low. As would be expected, the correlations for visit interest were higher than they were for visit intention. No correlation coefficient reached 0.5 and only four were in excess of 0.4, three of these being visit interest and one being visit intention. The three events that exhibited the strongest correlations for both visit interest and visit intention were 'AFL Grand Final', 'Food and Wine Festival' and 'Comedy Festival', although the ranking differed for visit interest versus visit intention.

### 3.8.7 Relationship Between Event Rating and Visit History

In a similar fashion, it was also proposed that a respondent's experience at an event may influence the level of 'specialness' that is accorded to that event, with experience being measured by whether the respondent had ever attended the event. Since 'visit history' was a dichotomous variable, Pearson's chi-square was used to determine whether there was a relationship between visit history and the specialness rating that a particular event was given.

Based on Pearson's chi-square test, there was a relationship between visit history and event rating for the following events at the 95 per cent confidence level: 'Ford Australian Open', 'Spring Racing Carnival', 'Art Festival', 'Food and Wine Festival', 'Comedy Festival' and 'AFL Grand Final'. However, one must be extremely careful in the use of the chi-square statistic when 20 per cent or more of the cells contain fewer than five expected cases (SPSS Australasia, undated), and in this situation, both 'Ford Australian Open' and 'Food and Wine Festival' had 28 per cent of cells containing an expected number of cases fewer than five. It should be noted that the events identified here as having a relationship between visit history and event rating also had the highest correlations between event rating and interest to visit and intention to visit.

The lack of strong correlations found in this section of the questionnaire suggest that respondents' interest and intention to attend an event was not related to their view of the specialness of that event.

## *3.9 DISCUSSION*

### 3.9.1 Comparing the Measures

Three measures have been used to identify the attributes that respondents regarded as important in their understanding of the term special event. The next stage was to examine the convergence of these different techniques. Table 3.13 compares the rankings of the first nine attributes in three of the measurement techniques used in this study. If one repeats this table but restricts the analysis to the conjoint dimensions used in this study, results as shown in Table 3.14 are obtained.

Based on the Spearman Rank Order Coefficients presented in Table 3.15, the rank orderings of the conjoint dimensions showed strong positive correlations between the three techniques. However, it must be remembered that the analysis has been restricted to the nine conjoint dimensions only.

*Table 3.13  Comparison of the Rankings Derived from the Different Measurement Techniques*

| Attribute | Conjoint Ranking | Attribute Ranking | Elicitation Ranking |
|---|---|---|---|
| Community image and pride | 1 | 3 | 4 |
| Exciting experience | 2 | 5 | 14 |
| International scale and media attention | 3 | 11 | 1 |
| Social experience | 4 | 16 | 24 |
| Mystique | 5 | 38 | 16 |
| One time or infrequent | 6 | 26 | 12 |
| Incorporates a fair or festival | 7 | 33 | 17 |
| Receives government funding | 8 | 37 | 18 |
| Short duration | 9 | 22 | 28 |
| Many visitors | - | 1 | 2 |
| International attention | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| Crowds enjoying themselves | - | 4 | 2 |
| Stimulates community pride | 1 | 6 | 4 |
| Builds image of the host region | 1 | 7 | 4 |
| Attracts many patrons | - | 8 | 2 |
| Entertainment for all family | - | 9 | 10 |
| Interest | - | - | 3 |
| Significant | - | - | 5 |
| Attraction | - | - | 6 |
| Large size | - | 18 | 7 |
| Enjoyment | - | - | 8 |
| Wide media coverage | - | 15 | 9 |

*Table 3.14  Comparison of the Rankings Derived from the Different Measurement Techniques (Conjoint Dimensions)*

| Attribute | Conjoint Ranking | Attribute Ranking | Elicitation Ranking |
|---|---|---|---|
| Community image & pride | 1 | 1 | 2 |
| Exciting experience | 2 | 2 | 3 |
| International scale & media attention | 3 | 3 | 1 |
| Social experience | 4 | 4 | 5 |
| Mystique | 5 | 9 | 9 |
| One time or infrequent | 6 | 6 | 4 |
| Fair or festival | 7 | 7 | 6 |
| Government funding | 8 | 8 | 7 |
| Short duration | 9 | 5 | 8 |

*Table 3.15 Spearman Rank-Order Coefficients of the Three Measures*

| Events | Coefficient |
|---|---|
| Conjoint - Attribute | 0.73 |
| Conjoint - Elicitation | 0.75 |
| Attribute - Elicitation | 0.82 |

## 3.9.2 Multi-Attribute Attitude Model

For each of the three specific events listed in Part D of the questionnaire, a new variable was computed that was the sum of: the attribute scores in Part D multiplied by their importance weighting determined in the attribute rating section. The maximum score for each event was 441 (9\*7\*7). In other words, this new variable represented the sum of the presence of each attribute multiplied by the importance associated with that attribute. Using more traditional multi-attribute terminology, this relationship can be represented as:

$$S_i = \sum_{j=1}^{9} B_{ij} * I_j$$

where      $S_i$    is the 'specialness' of the ith event,

             $B_{ij}$    is the belief that event i exhibits the jth attribute,

             $I_j$    is the importance of the jth attribute.

The magnitude of S could be taken as a pseudo 'specialness' rating for each event.

The score for each event was then correlated with the rating which that particular event received in the event rating section of the questionnaire. The results are shown in Table 3.16.

*Table 3.16  Event Specialness Correlations*

| Event | Pearson Correlation Coefficient | Significance |
|---|---|---|
| Olympics | 0.42 | <.05 |
| Stawell Gift | 0.34 | <.05 |
| Moomba | 0.42 | <.05 |

Moderate correlations were demonstrated for all three events. The fact that several of the attributes used in this multi-attribute analysis were themselves ranked in lowly positions in terms of mean ratings could have explained the occurrence of only a moderate correlation. One could also question whether a compensatory linear model such as the multi-attribute model applies in this situation (Lilien and Kotler 1983).

### 3.9.3 Representativeness of the Conjoint Dimensions

An issue that requires further discussion is the representativeness of the dimensions chosen for the conjoint study. These dimensions were based upon an extensive literature search, but how well do they relate to the attributes that were rated more highly in the direct attribute rating section? Table 3.17 lists the ranking that each of the conjoint dimensions achieved in the attribute rating section.

*Table 3.17  Ranking of the Conjoint Dimension Ratings*

| Conjoint Dimension | Ranking (From a 39 item list) |
|---|---|
| Provides a very exciting experience. | 5 |
| Involves a high sense of mystique. | 38 |
| Occurs once or infrequently. | 26 |
| Receives substantial government funding. | 37 |
| Incorporates a fair or festival. | 33 |
| Is held for a short period. | 22 |
| Is of an international scale with wide media coverage. | 11 |
| Provides a great social experience. | 16 |
| Contributes greatly to community image and pride. | 3 |

Only two of the conjoint dimensions were ranked in the top 10 attributes with respect to mean ratings, whilst three were ranked below 30. At first glance, this suggests that the dimensions identified in the literature as being the most important to describe special events and subsequently used as the basis for the conjoint study, were different to those that respondents identified in the attribute rating section. However, when one examines more closely the attributes that were ranked as being the most important in the attribute rating section, it is seen that many of these items are effectively a subset of, or similar to, the dimensions used in the conjoint analysis. In fact, the only dimension that was ranked within the top 10 in the rating section that was not included in the conjoint section was 'number of attendees'. The first, fourth and eighth ranked attributes related to number of attendees. Similarly, this was the second ranked attribute in the elicitation section. This suggests that the choice of dimensions in the conjoint section, although not perfect, was consistent with respondents' views provided in other areas of this study.

An alternative way of evaluating the representativeness of the conjoint dimensions chosen for the study is to relate them back to the underlying factors identified in the EFA of the special event attributes. Such a comparison between the dimensions used in the conjoint study and the key underlying factors identified in the EFA carried out on the responses to the attribute rating section is presented in Table 3.18.

*Table 3.18  Comparison of Conjoint Dimensions and Key Attribute Factors*

| Conjoint Dimensions | Underlying Factors |
| --- | --- |
| Provides a very exciting experience. | F4 (Exciting) |
| Involves a high sense of mystique. | F8 (Sacred) |
| Occurs once or infrequently. | F5 (Functional) |
| Receives substantial government funding. | F7 (Government funds) |
| Incorporates a fair or festival. | F1 (Many activities) |
| Is held for a short period. | F5 (Functional) |
| Is of an international scale with wide media coverage. | F3 (International Scale) |
| Provides a great social experience. | F1 (Many activities) |
| Contributes greatly to community image and pride. | F2 (Image and pride) |

This table demonstrates that there was a close association between the dimensions that were used in the conjoint analysis and the key underlying factors derived from the EFA.

### 3.9.4 Different Constructs

Despite the fact that there was strong convergent validity between the various techniques used in this study, one must be careful to ensure that the techniques are actually measuring the same construct. According to Myers and Alpert (1977), elicitation questions measure salience, rating scales measure attribute importance, and conjoint analyses measure determinance. Although the differences between these constructs may be subtle, the differences are, nevertheless, crucial. Salience is often confused with importance but in fact salience refers to the more obvious or prominent features which need not be the most important. Both of these constructs are different to determinance which enables one to define an object or to identify the boundaries, which may be more determinant in making choices. This would likely explain the finding that there was not total convergence between techniques.

In this study, both the elicitation and attribute rating sections ranked abstract attributes more highly than functional attributes, and the order was not dissimilar.

### 3.9.5 Key Special Event Attributes

The key special event attributes that were deemed to be most important based on this study were:

- The number of attendees,
- The international attention due to the event,
- Improvement to the image and pride of the host region as a result of hosting the event, and
- The exciting experience associated with the event.

The more functional attributes were ranked further down the list of attributes in terms of their overall importance.

As mentioned earlier, Table 3.4 presents a list of events that are ranked in terms of their mean rating of 'specialness'. If one considers the four attributes that have been identified in this study as being most important to describe a special event, in relation to the list of events presented in Table 3.4, a strong relationship becomes apparent. Of the first 11 events ranked as most special in Table 3.4, only rankings seven and eight do not demonstrate the presence of the four key special event attributes; neither 'Myer Music Bowl Carols by Candlelight' nor the 'Melbourne Moomba Festival' really attracts substantial international attention. Of the 31 events ranked below 11 in Table 3.4, only the 'Australian Open Golf' (ranked 15) and the 'Australian International Airshow' (ranked 16) would seem to demonstrate the presence of the four key special event attributes.

It would seem, therefore, that these four attributes identified as being most important in describing a special event do correlate well with the ratings of 'specialness' of specific named events as demonstrated in this study.

### 3.9.6 Categorisation of Special Events

The factors produced by the EFA that was conducted on the ratings of specialness are useful in helping to identify the underlying dimensions, or linkages, that respondents perceived between different types of special events. These underlying dimensions could be useful in categorising special events. Categorisations of special events are useful for a number of reasons, including describing special events to the consumer, listing them in a meaningful manner in special event calendars and for the linking, or packaging, of special events. Given that such categorisations are most often used for the benefit of the consumer, having a categorisation schema that is consumer-based provides an obvious benefit.

The underlying dimensions or themes that were extracted from the EFA are as follows:

- Sport  - Mega
          - General
          - Other Racing
- Regional Events
- Festivals  - Cultural
             - City
- Technology
- Service Oriented
- Human Endurance
- Intermittent International

'Myer Music Bowl Carols by Candlelight' and 'Non-special events' have been omitted from this listing as the former comprised a single item factor and the latter did not relate to special events per se.

## 3.10 COMPARISON OF CONSUMER PERSPECTIVE OF SPECIAL EVENTS WITH THE CORE AND QUALIFYING ATTRIBUTES IDENTIFIED IN THE LITERATURE

In the previous chapter, a list of core and qualifying attributes was compiled based upon an examination of the literature. In general, the literature focussed on special events from a supply perspective. Given that a consumer perspective has now been collected, it is important to compare the two perspectives.

Of the four attributes identified in this study as being those that consumers use to describe a special event, only one of them, namely, 'improvement to image and pride of the host region', was included in the list of core special event attributes in the previous chapter. Two of the others, 'international attention' and 'number of attendees', were included in the previous chapter as qualifying attributes for Major Events, whilst the fourth attribute, 'an exciting experience', was not specifically identified in the list of core and qualifying attributes. One could argue that synonyms had been used for 'an exciting experience' in the literature review in the previous chapter, by referring to terms such as 'colour and spectacle' and 'festive ambience, revelry and frivolity' which were used particularly in relation to festivals. However, although these terms are similar to 'an exciting experience', they are not the same.

Given the publicity that has been accorded the larger types of special events, as discussed in the previous chapter, it is not surprising that the special event attributes identified by respondents were more specifically related to major events.

## 3.11 LIMITATIONS

The dimensions used in the conjoint analysis acted as the basis for the comparison of attributes assessed using the various techniques. This meant that many of the items in the direct attribute rating section were ignored and constraints were imposed on the key words that were extracted from the elicitation section.

Due to the large number of events listed in the questionnaire, it was not considered reasonable to ask respondents to rate each dimension used in the conjoint analysis for each of the events. A selection of three events was chosen as a compromise for this task.

### 3.12 CONCLUSION

This study found that there was quite strong convergence between three major techniques used to identify the key attributes of a special event. This occurred despite the suggestion that the different techniques could be measuring similar, but different constructs.

This study identified four principal attributes that respondents used to describe a special event, these being: number of attendees, international attention, improvement to image and pride of the host region, and exciting experience. Establishing an instrument based on these four attributes could be used to define events that consumers would regard as special.

A categorisation of events based on an EFA of respondent ratings of special events identified some underlying dimensions that could be used to help categorise events in a manner that would have meaning to consumers. Such a schema could be of particular interest in the proliferation of Special Event Calendars that are now produced by many of the State and Territory Tourism Organisations.

# PART II

# The Ability of Individual Differences to Explain Special Event Behaviour

This part of the thesis seeks to explain and predict consumer behaviour in relation to visitor attractions in general, and special events in particular. In relation to the Consumer Decision Process Model that was proposed in Chapter One, the focus for this part of the thesis is on the section of the model between 'Special Event Cognition' and 'Situation Specific Influences'. Although the core focus of the study was on special events, it was considered important to examine the relationship between special events and permanent attractions since the two effectively compete for consumer leisure time.

In this model there are four elements that impact upon the consumer decision process, namely, environmental influences, individual influences, situation specific influences and marketing efforts. On the basis that this thesis adopted a consumer perspective throughout, the interest in this section was in the influence of individual consumer differences on the decision process in relation to visitor attractions. The other influences, whilst recognising that they exist, were ignored in this study. Of the individual differences that exist between consumers, it was decided to assess the performance of three, namely, personal values, psychographics and demographics, in explaining consumer behaviour.

Chapter Four examines the importance of market segmentation and reviews the literature in relation to the three approaches that were chosen to segment the consumer market and explain behaviour in relation to visitor attractions. This discussion leads to a series of research hypotheses that is presented in Chapter Five. The methodology that was adopted for this part of the primary research is discussed in Chapter Six.

Chapter Seven provides an analysis and discussion of the data that were collected via the questionnaire. The analysis explores the relationships between the many

items that were identified in the Consumer Decision Process Model in an attempt to explain behaviour in relation to visitor attractions. Such analysis included:

1. Special events versus permanent attractions,
2. Three levels of visitation: actual, interest and intention,
3. Three approaches to segmentation: personal values, psychographics and demographics.

The final chapter presents conclusions and implications based upon the primary research before suggesting some areas for future research.

# CHAPTER 4

# SPECIAL EVENT RELATED CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

## 4.1 Introduction

An earlier chapter discussed the potential for the special event market to become saturated and the increasing likelihood that some special events will fail. Already it appears that certain types of special events in the United States of America are reducing in their popularity (Janiskee 1994) and it is likely that this trend will continue, and indeed, spread to Australia. It becomes critical, therefore, that event organisers are able to ensure that their particular event has a clear market position that will enable the event to be successful in the longer term. In order to minimise the chance of an event failing, event organisers must be able to answer questions such as:

- Who are the people most likely to patronise this event?

- Why?

- What are the main reasons for other groups of people not attending?

- How should the event be marketed?

In order to answer these questions, one needs an understanding of who the consumers are and what motivates, or at least influences their behaviour in relation to special events, as the success of "special events is driven by consumer demand" (Wicks and Fesenmaier 1995, p. 25).

This chapter examines the importance of market segmentation in understanding consumer motives and behaviour, with specific reference to special events. A number of techniques that can be used to segment the consumer market is then discussed with the emphasis being on personal values and psychographics.

The chapter then reviews the research conducted on consumer segments and motives in relation to special events, thereby providing a platform for the research proposed in this study.

## 4.2 Consumer Behaviour

In a situation where demand exceeds supply, there is little incentive for a supplier to strive to understand the market, as all production will be consumed. This approach represents what is termed a 'production orientation' and is a reasonable approximation to the manner in which the field of special events has operated in recent years. Special events, being part of a growth sector and attracting substantial publicity, have generally been well patronised and special event organisers have not, therefore, had to spend much effort in trying to attract consumers.

Once demand for a product is exceeded by supply, producers are forced to focus more of their attention on the needs and interests of the consumer, leading to what is termed 'a market orientation'. With the very substantial growth in the number and type of special events that have been developed in many regions in recent years, there is now a concern that demand will not be sufficient to sustain all of the scheduled special events, leading to the failure of some. This puts pressure on event organisers to develop an in-depth understanding of their market, to ensure that events which satisfy the needs of the market are developed and these events are promoted in the most effective means possible. "Understanding and adapting to consumer motivation and behaviour is not an option - it is an absolute necessity for competitive survival" (Engel, Blackwell and Miniard 1995, p. 12).

Provided that products meet consumer needs and expectations, marketers can develop strategies to influence consumer behaviour. The crux, therefore, is to develop a detailed understanding of consumers so that their needs and expectations can be identified and then factored into the design of products. The overall objective is to understand consumer behaviour so that it can then be influenced in line with the objectives of the firm. A fundamental stage in this process is market segmentation.

## 4.3 Market Segmentation

According to Loudon and Della Bitta (1993), the concept of a mass market no longer exists, having fragmented in the 1980s into smaller and smaller pieces. Market segmentation is "the process of dividing a potential market into distinct subsets of consumers with common needs or characteristics" (Schiffman, Bednall, Watson and

Kanuk 1997, p. 48). Having segmented the market, an organisation can then identify the segment(s) which gives it the best opportunity to compete in the market, rather than trying to compete across the entire market. The issue, therefore, is not whether the market should be segmented, but rather, what method is the most effective means of conducting this segmentation?

When operating with a 'production orientation', there is little need to segment the market because it is expected that all production will be consumed. Consumer needs and expectations are not generally considered, which explains the often cited example of Henry Ford suggesting that consumers could purchase a T-Model Ford in any colour that they liked, provided it was black. This demonstrates the manner in which suppliers can operate when they have market power.

Since not all consumers are alike, it is not effective to treat the entire market as a single entity with single products on offer and a single promotional message. In an ideal world, marketers would focus on the needs of individuals and would develop marketing strategies for each person. Clearly, this is not feasible and marketers must consider groups of individuals who behave in similar ways with respect to their product needs or buying reasons. Marketers are then able to develop strategies appropriate for the different groups. This reflects a consumer oriented approach which, in contrast to the production orientation, focuses on the consumer and requires the development of product strategies based upon consumer needs, albeit with the profitability of the organisation as the ultimate motive.

In segmenting the market, it is important that within a segment there should be no more than minor variations in behaviour between members, but that there should be substantial variations between members of different segments. The key objective, therefore, is to find appropriate dimensions that can be used to segment the market. In order that the segmentation adopted be viable, the market segments should be:

- measurable - so that consumers exhibiting behaviour can be identified,
- accessible - so that such consumers can be reached,
- substantial - to justify pursuing such segments, and
- congruous - to ensure that consumers in a segment do fit together.

(Engel, Blackwell and Miniard 1995; Loudon and Della Bitta 1993; Soloman 1992; Schiffman, Bednall, Watson and Kanuk 1997).

The major challenge for marketers is to identify the appropriate characteristics to use in segmenting the market such that these characteristics are useful in explaining and predicting behaviour. The segmentation process used should be one that provides meaning for the segments so identified. Not all segmentation approaches enable prediction of consumer behaviour, but they all help to further understand differences between various sectors. In segmentation, it is "important to distinguish between causal and descriptive differences" (Engel, Blackwell and Miniard 1990, p. 663). The causal differences indicate motives for behaviour and are essential for effective segmentation. Once the causal differences have been identified, the descriptive differences are useful for providing additional information about members of the segments. Demographics often provide descriptive differences.

There are two fundamental approaches to market segmentation, these being the 'a priori approach' and the 'post-hoc approach' (Engel, Blackwell and Miniard 1990; Loudon and Della Bitta 1993). The a priori approach, which has been the most common, requires that the basis to be used for segmentation be selected in advance. For example, if one believes that there are differences based on frequency of product use, purchase frequency could be used as the basis for dividing the market. Segments of the market could then be described in terms of their demographic and psychographic characteristics. A limitation with this approach to segmentation is that the best basis for segmentation may not be selected and thus the segments so defined will not be the most effective. This limitation is overcome with the post-hoc approach in which the basis used for segmentation is determined by the analysis itself. In the post-hoc approach, consumers are clustered into homogeneous groups based on their responses to a wide variety of descriptors. Once these natural clusters are identified, techniques such as demographics and psychographics can be used to profile the members of the clusters and to help explain the buying behaviour of each group.

A variety of approaches has been used to segment various markets, with some of the more common approaches being demographics, personality, psychographics,

personal values, and combinations of various approaches. Demographics has been a popular approach to market segmentation, probably due to the fact that demographic information is more readily available. However, "demographic categories are far less predictive than they used to be" (Plog 1994, p. 210), particularly due to the narrowing gap within developed communities with respect to income, education, and occupational status (Loudon and Della Bitta 1993). Some would argue, however, that the income gap has in fact widened in recent years which would undermine one of the reasons proposed for the decline in the predictive power of demographic segmentation.

After reviewing a large number of segmentation studies that employed many different segmentation bases, Andereck and Caldwell (1994) concluded that demographic characteristics of segments rarely varied. Demographics provided some information that could be used to describe individuals but did little upon which marketing strategies could be based (Andereck and Caldwell 1994). The other approaches to segmentation listed here relate to intrinsic characteristics of the consumer and therefore help to provide information on the needs and motives of the consumer. Although these approaches are more difficult to measure than demographics, they are far more likely to be successful in providing causal differences between segments.

Given the somewhat varied success that the different segmentation techniques have had to date, it is important that the techniques be seen as complementary and some discretion is used as to the technique(s) that are used in any given situation. Failure to do this will reduce the explanatory power of segmentation (Bonn 1991).

### 4.4 Motivation

Motivation is the "driving force within individuals that impels them to action" (Schiffman, Bednall, Watson and Kanuk 1997, p. 90) in order to reduce tension that exists because of an unfulfilled need. "Consumer needs are the basis of all modern marketing" (Schiffman, Bednall, Watson and Kanuk 1997, p. 90) and are of fundamental importance in understanding consumer behaviour. These needs, which will be discussed in more detail subsequently, underpin all human activity and result

from a "perceived difference between an ideal state and the present state" (Engel, Blackwell and Miniard 1995, p. 425). Motives, however, "represent enduring predispositions to behave toward certain goals" (Engel, Blackwell and Miniard 1995, p. 146). "Goals are the sought-after results of motivated behaviour" (Schiffman, Bednall, Watson and Kanuk 1997, p. 93) but should not be confused with needs, although neither can exist without the other.

Although most people experience similar needs and motives, they tend to seek different goals in order to express these motives (Schiffman, Bednall, Watson and Kanuk 1997). Thus, it is vital to one's ability to predict consumer behaviour, to have a strong grasp of consumer motives. Motives cannot be inferred validly from behaviour as people seeking to satisfy the same need can select a variety of goals, and people can select a single goal to satisfy a range of different needs.

The links and differences between motives, goals and products is not always clear to consumers. Often consumers regard products as goals themselves rather than just as a means of satisfying motives (Loudon and Della Bitta 1993). This is an important dimension for marketers as it appears that the degree to which consumers regard products as goals can be influenced.

A major problem with this area of study is that the actual measurement of motives is difficult since they are hypothetical constructs. The common techniques that are adopted in motivational research are observation, depth interviews, projective tests and focus groups. Each of these techniques involves the interaction of a psychologist or interviewer and, therefore, it is not usually possible to conduct studies using substantial numbers of respondents. There is also concern that the results achieved in these tests are very dependent upon the analyst as opposed to the data themselves, thus leading to queries regarding the validity of the tests. Psychographics is another approach that can be used to determine consumer needs and motives. An additional complication to the measurement of motivation is the fact that motivation is a dynamic construct (Pearce 1993; Schiffman, Bednall, Watson and Kanuk 1997). Not only does it vary across individuals, but it also varies over time. Consumer needs and

goals are also dynamic as demonstrated by the way in which individuals will normally raise their goals once a goal has been achieved.

Substantial effort has been expended over the past 100 years endeavouring to identify and categorise human needs and motives (Loudon and Della Bitta 1993; Engel, Blackwell and Miniard 1995). The most widely known theory of human motivation is Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs which involves five basic levels of needs in hierarchical order. These needs, in order of decreasing importance, are physiological, safety and security, social, ego, and self-actualisation.

Maslow proposed that consumers seek to satisfy lower level needs before moving up the hierarchy to higher level needs, and that higher level needs increase in importance as lower level needs are largely satisfied. The model accepted that there is some overlap between levels as no need is ever fully satisfied. Even after being passed on the need hierarchy, it is possible for lower level needs to assume temporary dominance of behaviour due to some form of deprivation. For example, even from a position of affluence in a modern society, it is difficult for one to pursue self fulfilment needs in the absence of food. As one moves up the need hierarchy, one moves away from basic biogenic needs to more psychogenic needs. In this process, the individual grows "psychologically and comes to develop more wants and to seek a greater variety of ways to satisfy particular motives" (Loudon and Della Bitta 1993, p. 334).

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs provides a useful framework for considering motives in general, even though it has had limited success in predicting specific behaviour (Loudon and Della Bitta 1993). From the tourism perspective, for example, despite the fact that an individual may be operating at a higher level in Maslow's Hierarchy, travel decisions have often been found to be determined by safety requirements which reflect the importance of a lower level need. This model also provides a useful means for segmenting the market but as a result of the abstract nature of motives, it is difficult to test this model empirically.

Once a special event organiser has an understanding of what motivates groups of consumers to attend special events, or in fact what precludes others from attending, it is possible for the organiser to modify the types of special events on offer and to ensure maximum appeal to the target segments. Unfortunately, it is rare that researchers consider the motives of non-purchasers or non-attendees and yet doing so can enhance the understanding of purchaser or attendee motives (Ross 1994). Crompton and McKay (1997) suggested that it was also important to understand the motives of special event patrons because of the close association between motives and satisfaction, and to facilitate an "understanding [of] visitors' decision processes" (p. 426).

In order to understand consumer motivation, it is necessary to understand the needs that the consumer strives to satisfy. Therefore, it is necessary to devise a means of measuring consumer needs. For patrons of special events, one must discover what need, or needs they are attempting to satisfy by their attendance at special events. To date, very little work has been done in this area (Getz 1989; Uysal, Gahan and Martin 1993; Mohr et al 1993; Backman et al 1995; Getz and Cheyne 1997; Mayfield and Crompton 1995), although a number of recent studies has started to explore this field. These studies, however, have considered only the motivation of visitors from outside the host region in relation to special events and have tended to ignore the motivation of the local population.

The importance of local patronage for the overall success of a special event was discussed in an earlier chapter, and for special events to be successful, it is vital that they attract strong local support. It is, therefore, important that motivation in relation to special events be considered from a more general consumer perspective, not simply from the perspective of visitors from outside the region.

It has been suggested that "tourism may share or be subject to the same theories and concerns that characterise leisure" (Mannell and Iso-Ahola 1987, p. 315). Indeed, Iso-Ahola (1982) suggested that "tourism motivation is a part or one form of leisure motivation" (p. 257). Mannell and Iso-Ahola (1987) argued that both tourism and leisure should be viewed as an experience and that this "experience emanate(s) from

the interplay of two motivational forces: to escape from routine and stressful environments and to seek recreational opportunities" (p. 314). Mannell and Iso-Ahola concluded that the escape motivation had become the more important motivational force for tourism as demonstrated by the recent trend towards more frequent but shorter vacations where there is very much an 'escape from the bustle' focus. Pearce (1993) adopted a different view to Mannell and Iso-Ahola, believing that tourist motivation was sufficiently different to leisure motivation to justify separate theory building. According to Pearce (1993), tourist motivation had novel features in that it was "discretionary, episodic, future oriented, dynamic, socially influenced and evolving" (p. 114). However, it is hard to see that these features necessarily make tourism motivation different to leisure motivation. According to Iso-Ahola (1982), leisure activities, including tourism activities, were motivated by the desire for intrinsic rewards and individuals' desire to escape their routine environment.

An alternative proposal to explain travel motivation is the balance between 'push' and 'pull' factors (Crompton 1979). Push factors, such as relaxation, escape, desire for socialisation, and prestige, are within individuals and prompt them to travel. Pull factors on the other hand, are those that are controlled or influenced by the destination itself. Motivation to travel can be seen as a combination of both push and pull factors.

Although there has been a number of research studies into tourism motivation (see, for example, Crompton 1979; Dann 1981; Fodness 1994; Iso-Ahola 1982; and Mannell and Iso-Ahola 1987), little has been found that specifically focuses upon the special event phenomenon.

As motivation theory gained in popularity, more and more has become expected of it to the stage where there is the unreasonable expectation that it be able to explain most of the variation in consumer behaviour (Pearce 1993). There is also growing confusion regarding the concurrent use of similar terms such as values, attitudes and preferences. Pearce (1993) argued that tourist motivation was a more fundamental concept than values, as evidenced by the fact that the origins of many of the models

of values came from motivation theory. He further suggested that values were a useful segmentation tool but that the link to motivational analysis should not be overlooked.

Therefore, an understanding of consumer motivation in relation to special events should greatly enhance the ability of special event organisers to better meet the needs of the market. It is also clear that alternative, or pseudo measures, are needed to measure consumer motivation if it is to be done on a larger scale and the market should be segmented in order to provide information that is useable. Approaches to market segmentation, such as personal values and psychographics, can play a large part in achieving this objective.

### *4.5 Personal Values*

Values are regarded as beliefs about life and acceptable behaviour. They are learned (Williams 1979), closely held, and act as standards to guide behaviour (Rokeach 1979). They provide an insight into the goals that motivate individuals as well as the most effective means of attaining these goals (Engel, Blackwell and Miniard 1995). "Values represent (1) concepts or beliefs, (2) about desirable end states or behaviours, (3) that transcend specific situations, (4) guide selection or evaluation of behaviour and events, and (5) are ordered by relative importance" (Madrigal and Kahle 1994, p. 22).

An individual's value system is the way in which separate values are arranged in an hierarchical form, which enables an individual to resolve conflicts and make decisions (Kamakura and Mazzon 1991). In looking at differences between individuals, it has been asserted that it is not simply the values *per se* that should be considered, but rather the way in which the particular values are arranged into a value system (Engel, Blackwell and Miniard 1995). Single values are grouped into higher order value domains based upon their similarities and differences (Madrigal and Kahle 1994), and it has been suggested by some, that these value domains are better predictors of behaviour than is achieved using single values (Schwartz and Bilsky 1987; Kamakura and Novak 1992; Kamakura and Mazzon 1991). Rokeach (1968) argued that virtually all life situations involved more than a single value and

invariably there is conflict between a number of values. The value system is needed to resolve these conflicts. A value system is more abstract than a single value and segments identified using value systems are better able to describe key underlying consumer motives. It is important to recognise, however, that other environmental influences, such as price and promotion, must be taken into account in segmenting the market (Kamakura and Novak 1992).

Personal values has been used as a basis for segmentation or for predicting consumer behaviour in a wide range of studies including: cigarette smoking (Grube, Weir, Getzlaf and Rokeach 1984), religion (Feather 1975), travel decisions (Pitts and Woodside 1986; Muller 1989; Dalen 1989; Shih 1986; Thrane 1997), choice between work and leisure pursuits (Jackson 1973), travel style (Madrigal 1995), cross-cultural differences (Schwartz and Bilsky 1987), discontinuance of leisure activities (Backman and Crompton 1990) and choice of leisure activities (Beatty, Kahle, Homer and Misra 1985; Boote 1981; Jackson 1973; Madrigal and Kahle 1994). Although some researchers have suggested that values strongly influence behaviour (see, for example, Homer and Kahle 1988), most are more cautious in their views. Homer and Kahle (1988), in proposing values as a meaningful predictor of behaviour, suggested that an inability to correctly measure values was a factor in explaining that there had not been stronger correlations between values and behaviour in studies conducted to that time. The purpose of this study is to explore further the extent of any such relationship in a special event context.

According to Madrigal (1995), much of the work that had been carried out on values concerned their performance in relation to market segmentation, which had been impressive since "they are less numerous, more centrally-held, and more closely related to motivations than more traditional demographic and psychographic measures" (p. 126). Blamey and Braithwaite (1997) suggested that values were a useful basis for segmentation because they were less problematic to measure than needs and motives, and they had greater predictive power with respect to behaviour. They are also useful as indicators of consumer motives and for enriching the descriptions of market segments formed using more traditional approaches (Munson 1984; Pitts and Woodside 1986).

An understanding of personal values provides more information regarding consumer behaviour than does demographic information (Kahle and Kennedy 1988; Keng and Yang 1993). An understanding of values is important as "value priorities shape lifestyles and drive consumer behaviour" (Muller and Woodcock 1997, p. 33). Thus, if a marketer is able to identify segments that share common value preferences, products can be designed and promotional strategies developed that are consistent with those value preferences (Muller 1989). A number of useful examples of how promotional campaigns can be developed around segments based on individuals with similar values is provided in Muller (1989).

Unlike attitudes, values are supposedly not tied to any specific object or situation and, therefore, are able to guide behaviour in a general sense. The assertion that there are a few major value dimensions which are relatively stable over time and provide the basis for literally thousands of specific beliefs and attitudes, makes them important tools in predicting consumer behaviour. Being relatively stable over time does not mean, however, that values do not change. Muller and Woodcock (1997) reported on studies that had been conducted in the US which demonstrated that value priorities of 'baby boomers' had changed over a 10 year period. It was suggested that economic and general resource factors contributed to this change in value priorities.

It is the centrality of values to people's cognitive structures that enables them to be "effective predictors of human behaviour in a variety of situational contexts" (Madrigal 1995, p. 126). However, it is an understanding of the value system rather than a single value that is necessary to gain an appreciation of an individual's behaviour (Kamakura and Novak 1992). It has been suggested that consumers who rate particular values more highly, have different lifestyles which in turn can affect the way in which they are influenced by promotional appeals, product positioning and design, pricing approaches, and channels of distribution (Loudon and Della Bitta 1993). However, there is still the need for further research in this area to determine the origin of values, how firmly they are held by consumers, and their influence on consumer behaviour for a wider group of products.

Rokeach (1979) suggested that there are two main types of values, namely, terminal values and instrumental values. Instrumental values, such as 'honest' and 'capable', are basically the modes of behaviour by which an individual can achieve the terminal, or end value. Terminal values, which include values such as 'wisdom' and 'happiness', are acquired early in life and tend to be more stable than instrumental values which may change as a result of the socialisation process (Prakash 1984). Rokeach developed a measuring instrument called the Rokeach Value Survey (*sic*.), or RVS, that "attempts to identify major end-states of human existence and the behavioural modes for achieving them" (Rokeach 1979, p. 50). The RVS asks individuals to rank 18 terminal values and 18 instrumental values in order of importance as guiding principles, and Rokeach suggested that "extensive research with it in different societies has consistently shown that it is both a reliable and valid measuring instrument" (p. 50). The terminal and instrumental values that are contained in the RVS are presented in Table 4.1. Based on studies conducted in the United States looking at the relationship between purchases of major appliances and values, it was found that terminal values tended to guide choice among product classes and instrumental values tended to guide choice among brands (Loudon and Della Bitta 1993).

### Table 4.1  The Rokeach Value Survey

**TERMINAL VALUES**
Wisdom (a mature understanding of life)
Freedom (independence, free choice)
Self-respect (self-esteem)
A sense of accomplishment (lasting contribution)
A world at peace (free of war and conflict)
Equality (brotherhood, equal opportunity for all)
A world of beauty (beauty of nature and the arts)
Inner harmony (freedom from inner conflict)
Family security (taking care of loved ones)
Social recognition (respect, admiration)
Happiness (contentedness)
An exciting life (a stimulating, active life)
A comfortable life (a prosperous life)
True friendship (close companionship)
Mature love (sexual and spiritual intimacy)
National security (protection from attack)
Pleasure (an enjoyable, leisurely life)
Salvation (saved, eternal life)

**INSTRUMENTAL VALUES**
Intellectual (intelligent, reflective)
Capable (competent, effective)

Honest (sincere, truthful)
Responsible (dependable, reliable)
Imaginative (daring, creative)
Independent (self-reliant, self-sufficient)
Broadminded (open-minded)
Logical (consistent, rational)
Ambitious (hard-working, aspiring)
Helpful (working for the welfare of others)
Courageous (standing up for your beliefs)
Self-controlled (restrained, self-disciplined)
Loving (affectionate, tender)
Forgiving (willing to pardon others)
Cheerful (lighthearted, joyful)
Polite (courteous, well-mannered)
Clean (neat, tidy)
Obedient (dutiful, respectful)

Source: Rokeach (1979).

The RVS was considered somewhat cumbersome by many researchers as it required respondents to rank, in order of importance, two lists of 18 variables. Criticism was levelled at the RVS on two main counts; firstly, since people can only generally store about seven items in short term memory, it would be difficult for an individual to rank 18 items, and secondly, it was suggested by some (see, for example, Clawson and Vinson 1978), that less information could be derived from rankings than interval scaling (Keng and Yang 1993). In order to overcome some of the difficulties with such a task, the List of Values (LOV), which are presented in Table 4.2, was developed by researchers at the University of Michigan Survey Research Centre in 1983 (Madrigal and Kahle 1994). The LOV, which was based largely on the work of Maslow and Rokeach, uses nine terminal values that are derived from the RVS. In developing the items in the LOV, two specific terminal values from the RVS were included and the remaining seven items were amalgamations of several RVS items or a generalisation of a specific RVS item (Kamakura and Novak 1992). The LOV was based upon terminal values as they are more abstract than instrumental values and appeared more relevant to consumer behaviour (Madrigal and Kahle 1994). In administering the LOV, respondents are asked to rank the nine values and are classified according to their highest ranked value. A modification to this process asks respondents to rate each of the values, using a Likert scale, regarding the importance of the individual values as guiding principles.

*Table 4.2  The List of Values*

Self respect
Being well respected
Security
Sense of belonging
Warm relationships
Self-fulfilment
A sense of accomplishment
Fun and enjoyment in life
Excitement

Source: Kamukura and Novak (1992).

However, categorising respondents on the basis of their highest ranked value ignores the fact that single values fit together to form a value system and, indeed, "conflicts with Rokeach's concept of an ordered value system" (Kamukura and Novak 1992, p. 119). Rating each of the values rather than just ranking them, as occurred with the RVS, helps identify the intensity with which individual values are held. Even with the RVS, there has been substantial controversy as to whether items should be rated instead of ranked and this controversy has not yet been resolved (Prakash 1984). According to Kamakura and Mazzon (1991), "empirical comparisons between the ranking and rating data-collection methods have shown mixed results" (p. 209) based on the reliability of test-retest results. Richins and Dawson (1992) argued that there were problems with both ranking and rating approaches. They suggested that ranking provided fairly superficial information on any particular value, made comparison between individuals impossible, and did not indicate how important a particular value was in a person's life. The ratings approach was accused, also, of providing somewhat superficial information in that it was not possible to compare the relative importance of values. Despite the debate about the relative merits of the two measurement approaches, ranking has been used more often "because it reflects the inherently comparative nature of values" (Kamakura and Mazzon 1991, p. 209). Most of the work that has been done with the LOV has been based on single values rather than these higher order constructs (Madrigal and Kahle 1994).

The Stanford Research Institute (SRI), a management consulting firm in California, developed a system known as VALS1 and subsequently VALS2, in order to understand consumers and their purchasing behaviour. VALS, which is an acronym for Values and Life Styles, combines both concepts and has been widely used in monitoring and predicting consumer behaviour in relation to many products. The

belief that underpinned VALS was that individuals continually seek to improve themselves throughout their lives which influences their values, lifestyle and hence, behaviour (Gunter and Furnham 1992). A major problem with this system is that it is proprietary and thus it usually is not possible to gain access to the specific questions used in the studies, nor verify the findings. SRI used a 30 item questionnaire containing 22 attitudinal items and eight demographic items to classify individuals under the VALS system (Holman 1984). SRI replaced VALS1 with VALS2 because of poor performance in predicting consumer behaviour based on the VALS1 segments, and because the segments were more aligned with population demographics in the US from the previous decade (Gunter and Furnham 1992).

Although there are many similarities between VALS and the LOV, one contrast is in the order of value segments that are derived from each approach. Under the VALS approach, there is an assumption that the segments are ordered hierarchically and that members of the higher order segments have greater resources than those in the lower segments. No such order exists with the LOV.

There has been substantial debate as to whether VALS or the LOV is a more effective means of understanding and predicting consumer behaviour, but there is little doubt that the VALS system is more widely known. Novak and MacEvoy (1990) conducted a study to replicate earlier work by Kahle, Beatty and Homer comparing the predictive ability of the LOV versus VALS. The Kahle, Beatty and Homer study, conducted in 1986, found that the LOV had more predictive utility than VALS, however Novak and MacEvoy (1990) suggested that this was probably due to the fact that some demographic variables were included with the LOV. They found that the predictive power of the LOV without the accompanying demographic variables was significantly less than that achieved with VALS. Indeed, Novak and MacEvoy (1990) found that demographic variables were more effective predictors of consumer behaviour than the LOV with no accompanying demographic variables. It should be noted that in the comparative studies that have been conducted between VALS and the LOV, it has always been VALS1 as opposed to VALS2 that has been considered. Given that VALS2 was introduced to improve upon the performance of VALS1, comparisons with VALS2 may be more conclusive in their results. Since

VALS is a proprietary measurement technique, it has not been possible to access information that would enable this technique to be further analysed in this study and will not, therefore, be included further.

Since it has been asserted that values are important in understanding, explaining and predicting human behaviour (Vinson, Scott, and Lamont 1977; Howard and Woodside 1984; Munson 1984; Pitts and Woodside 1984; Homer and Kahle 1988; Madrigal and Kahle 1994; Madrigal 1995), one would expect people sharing similar value systems to relate to products in a similar fashion. Consumers have been found to use choice criteria related to their value system in product selection, with values being claimed to be more effective in determining choice behaviour among generic categories than they are in determining choice behaviour amongst specific brands within a generic category (Munson 1984). Using values as a basis for market segmentation can provide valuable insights into the needs and motives of members of the segment and provide a base for the marketer to develop appropriate marketing strategies for the particular segments (Pitts and Woodside 1984). More research is required to identify how personal values are linked to product preferences and behaviour (Munson 1984).

There is some evidence to suggest that personal values vary by some consumer demographics such as age, education, income and sex, but this relationship needs further research (Vinson, Scott, and Lamont 1977; Keng and Yang 1993). Munson (1984) suggested that some key product dimensions such as conspicuousness, value-expressiveness, involvement, and susceptibility to peer and family pressure make the usage of some types of products more closely aligned to values.

Although attitudes have been studied and measured more frequently than values (Dichter 1984; Loudon and Della Bitta 1993), this should not necessarily be taken as a measure of their relative importance, and it is essential to consider the relationship between the two concepts. Values are more fundamental and in fact provide the foundation for attitudes; in other words, values precede and colour attitudes (Dichter 1984; Kamakura and Novak 1992). Attitudes are more likely to change than values which tend to be stable over time. Attitudes focus on specific objects or situations

whereas values apply more generally and in fact help determine what attitudes should be held in specific situations (Loudon and Della Bitta 1993). "Rokeach maintains that values serve to link central beliefs to attitudes, and thus may be more useful than attitudes in understanding motives and behaviour" (Pitts and Woodside 1986, p. 20). Rokeach (1968) also suggested that attitudes were value expressive. One must decide whether values affect behaviour directly or instead affect attitudes which in turn influence behaviour. The latter option was supported by Homer and Kahle (1988).

The two most widely reported studies that have used values as a basis for explaining or predicting behaviour in the tourism field are Pitts and Woodside (1986) and Madrigal and Kahle (1994). Both studies concluded that values were useful in predicting specific tourism activity, and that values should be considered worthwhile segmentation tools.

In the Pitts and Woodside (1986) study, the values of members of a convenience sample were measured using the RVS, and respondents were asked whether they had visited nine tourist attractions in the past 24 months; in other words, only past visitation was considered. The tourist attractions used in that study were confined to "beach locations, theme parks, and state parks" (p. 22), which restricted the application of the findings to a narrow range of tourist sites. In adopting the RVS scale which ranks, but does not rate values, there is also the problem that it is difficult to identify the intensity with which a value is held. Pitts and Woodside found quite strong evidence to suggest that differences in personal values could be used to predict visitation to tourist attractions and membership of groups segmented on leisure choice.

Madrigal and Kahle (1994) used the LOV in their study of vacation activity preference, and asked respondents in a convenience sample to rate each of the values and to indicate the single most important value. Like Pitts and Woodside (1986), however, Madrigal and Kahle considered only an historical perspective. Their study was restricted to activities given as reasons for visiting Scandinavia, rather than specific attractions visited while in Scandinavia.

Although Gunter and Furnham (1992) acknowledged the claimed benefits of the LOV in explaining and predicting consumer behaviour, they suggested that the predictive power of the LOV was well short of perfect. However, Gunter and Furnham (1992) suggested that the LOV did display some utility and research into the technique should, therefore, continue. It should be noted that Gunter and Furnham did not conduct any primary analysis themselves and based their conclusions on studies reported elsewhere.

Based on this review of the literature, it can be seen that personal values have been regarded by many researchers as a valuable basis for market segmentation but few studies have explored the potential of values as a segmentation tool (Madrigal and Kahle 1994). Few would suggest that personal values be used as the sole segmentation technique but a number of researchers claim that when combined with other techniques such as demographics and psychographics, values offer meaningful insights into consumer segments (see, for example, Madrigal and Kahle 1994). In a similar way, Homer and Kahle (1988) suggested that values influence behaviour but recognised that this does not mean that all behaviour can be explained by values. "To hypothesise an influence of values upon social behaviour under specified conditions is not to make the absurd claim that all behaviour is merely an expression of values and has no other determinants" (Williams 1979, p. 28). Results from a number of studies suggest that values can offer insights into the motives and needs satisfied by a given product, yielding an understanding which can then be factored into promotional campaigns.

### 4.6 Lifestyle and Psychographic Segmentation

Personality and its relationships to human behaviour can be traced back thousands of years, but examination of a large sample of personality studies suggests that if there is a relationship between personality and consumer behaviour, it is too weak to be of any real value to the marketer (Loudon and Della Bitta 1993). Engel, Blackwell and Miniard (1995) stated that personality was unable to explain more than 10 per cent of the variation in consumer behaviour and even its use as a basis for segmentation had not been adequately justified.

As some marketers concluded that demographic segmentation no longer had the explanatory power that it once appeared to have and that segmentation based upon personality had little explanatory power, they sought other bases to use in their segmentation work. During the late 1960s, interest in lifestyle analysis grew rapidly (Hustad and Pessemier 1974) as marketers wanted to add 'colour' to their understanding of the consumer in a manner not possible with demographic segmentation. It has been found that "psychographic variables are capable of producing substantial differences between groups of consumers, and that these differences are often larger than the differences produced by the standard demographic profile" (Wells 1975, p. 207). It is basically a technique to measure lifestyles.

"Lifestyle is a summary construct defined as patterns in which people live and spend time and money" (Engel, Blackwell and Miniard 1995, p. 449) and is reflected by one's "overt actions and behaviours" (Mowen 1993, p. 236). Lifestyle research is based on personality and motivational research. It is contended that it combines the objectivity of personality research with the descriptive detail of motivation research (Wells 1975), and has improved marketers' understanding of the consumer and has enhanced their ability to predict consumer behaviour. There is a view that a person's lifestyle is a reflection of that person's value system but is more comprehensive and liable to change more rapidly than a person's value system, which is enduring (Gunter and Furnham 1992; Engel, Blackwell and Miniard 1995).

Despite the fact that 'psychographics' and 'lifestyle' are often used interchangeably, the two terms, although related, are regarded as being different by some authorities (Loudon and Della Bitta 1993; Gunter and Furnham 1992). No precise definition of psychographics has been found (Wells 1975; Loudon and Della Bitta 1993) but it is generally accepted that psychographics provides a quantifiable means of operationalising lifestyles. Psychographics could be defined as the description of the psychological makeup of consumers based on 'psych' meaning psychological and 'graph' meaning to describe. "Psychographics is the systematic use of relevant activity, interest and opinion constructs to quantitatively explore and explain the communicating, purchasing and consuming behaviours of persons for brands,

products and clusters of products" (Loudon and Della Bitta 1993, p. 60). AIOs (Activities, Interests and Opinions) are the prime measure used in psychographics and AIO is often regarded as a synonym for psychographics. Although psychographics can be used as a basis for segmentation, some believe that it is more effective to employ AIOs to understand segments that have been identified using more traditional segmentation techniques (see, for example, Engel, Blackwell and Miniard 1995). When segments are formed based upon AIO analysis, consumers are grouped on their lifestyles.

AIOs are generally presented as a battery of statements and respondents are asked to indicate, often using a Likert scale, their strength of agreement or disagreement with each of the statements. These AIOs can be either 'general' or 'specific'. In the case of general AIOs, information on the profile of groups of consumers is collated whilst in the case of specific AIOs, the statements used relate more specifically to a given product thereby enabling information regarding consumers' views on that product to be collected.

"Psychographics is a quantitative research procedure which seeks to explain why people behave as they do and why they hold their current attitudes" (Demby 1974, p. 28). It provides valuable information that can be used to help motivate consumers to take a particular course of action. However, there is still some controversy about the usefulness of psychographic studies. The main criticisms of psychographics include the lack of distinctiveness of psychographic segments, the length of AIO questionnaires, the lack of relationships between psychographic segments and behaviour, the exploratory nature of the technique, and the lack of reliability or validity of AIO instruments. The fact that AIO questionnaires tend to be so much longer than questionnaires based upon personal values is a major drawback with respect to the conduct of marketing research (Muller 1989). Supporters of the psychographic technique seem to recognise many of the limitations but argue that the technique adds substantially to an understanding of consumers (Wells 1975).

In many of the studies that are conducted using psychographics, batteries of statements are developed specifically for the study and little effort is made to ensure

the validity of the statements (Gunter and Furnham 1992). As a result, one must treat with caution the results of these studies. It is vital to the acceptance of psychographic studies that more work is done to justify the validity of the study instrument. The ultimate success of the technique will be determined by its ability to predict consumer behaviour.

Since psychographic research is quantitative in nature, generally using pre-coded self administered questionnaires, it allows the use of multivariate statistical analysis of the results (Wells 1975). In psychographic research the results are usually factor analysed in the search for a small number of underlying factors. These factors usually explain a large percentage of the total variance observed.

## 4.7 Segmenting the Special Event Consumer Market

The earlier discussion relating to the growing importance of market segmentation in general has particular importance in the field of special events. "Increased competition between visitor destinations and the high cost of promotion encourage marketing specialists and event organisers to identify the behavioural characteristics of visitors they intend to service. A clearly defined market segment permits specifically directed promotional programs, improves estimates of the size of a specialised market, and encourages the development of event opportunities that appeal to the identified groups" (Formica and Uysal 1996, p. 175).

Getz (1994a, p. 440) suggested that "event tourists are a highly segmented market" which means that it is important to also segment the special event product to match the needs of the market. At present there are "insufficient data on what festival and event visitors want, and consequent inability to segment the potential markets for more effective target marketing" (Getz 1991a, p. 4). Competition for consumer leisure time is increasing and for special events to be successful they must at least meet the growing consumer expectations (Wicks and Fesenmaier 1995).

Getz (1997) discussed segmentation in relation to special events and suggested that segmentation variables could be grouped according to six segmentation questions. The diagrammatic structure that Getz (1997) used to present these segmentation

questions and variables is reproduced in Figure 4.1. The focus of this study is to answer the question 'Who are they?'. It should be noted that the socio-economic variables have been included with the demographic variables in this study.

*Figure 4.1 Segmentation Variables for Events.*



| VISITORS FROM WHERE?<br><br>**GEOGRAPHIC**<br>- Delimit primary and secondary market areas |
| --- |

| **WHO ARE THEY?** | | |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **DEMOGRAPHIC** | **PSYCHOGRAPHIC** | **SOCIO-ECONOMIC** |
| - Age - Gender | - Personality | - Income level |
| - Marital status | - Beliefs: attitudes | - Employment status |
| - Family status | - Values | - Education attainment |
| - Race/ethnicity | - Lifestyle | |

| WHAT DO THEY WANT?<br>(BENEFITS SOUGHT)<br><br>- Trip motives<br>- Experiences desired |
| --- |

| **UNDER WHAT CONDITIONS WILL THEY ATTEND?** | |
| --- | --- |
| **TYPE OF TRIP** | **SEASONALITY** |
| - Holiday | - Peak season only |
| - Day-trip | - All-year potential |
| - Business | |
| - Visiting friends/relatives | |

| **HOW CAN WE REACH THEM?** | |
| --- | --- |
| **PRODUCT USE** | **DISTRIBUTION** |
| - Media habits | - Will buy packages |
| - Activities enjoyed | - Makes own plans |
| - Equipment owned | - Travels with affinity groups |

| HOW OFTEN WILL THEY ATTEND?<br><br>- One-time only<br>- First-time (might repeat)<br>- Repeaters and regulars |
| --- |

Source: Figure 11.3 in Getz (1997).

In discussing the merit of psychographic variables as segmentation tools, Getz (1997) suggested that they need to be combined with other segmentation variables to be of value, despite their popularity. He suggested further that "income is the greatest predictor … of entertainment expenditure" (p. 262).

A number of researchers has stressed the importance of understanding the needs and motives of special event patrons (see, for example, Formica and Uysal 1996; Getz 1997; Hall 1992; Mayfield and Crompton 1995; Mohr, Backman, Gahan and Backman 1993; Ritchie and Beliveau 1974; Robinson and Noel 1991; Uysal, Gahan and Martin 1993). Indeed, failure to understand such motives will greatly diminish the chance of success that an event will have. However, despite the fact that the need for an understanding of consumer motivation in relation to special events is widely recognised, little research has been done in this area (Getz and Frisby 1988; Mohr,

Backman, Gahan and Backman 1993; Uysal, Gahan and Martin 1993). It is important that research into consumer motivation be expanded as "the more an event manager can tell about their (sic.) visitors, the better the chance the event has in matching or exceeding the visitors previsit expectations and having that visitor leave that event very satisfied with their experience" (Mohr, Backman, Gahan and Backman 1993, p. 96).

It is also important to consider 'supply side segmentation' whereby the special events on offer are placed in appropriate categories to facilitate the match between consumer needs and the special events that are available. Some work has been done on developing and modifying databases to analyse the thematic, temporal and geographical distribution of special events (see, for example, Janiskee 1996a; Ryan, Smee and Murphy 1996).

### 4.7.1 Destination-Based Studies

A small number of studies has been conducted in recent years that has added to the body of knowledge in this area. It would appear that the first of these studies was conducted by Ralston and Crompton (1988) (reported in Getz 1991a). This marketing research study was based on the 1987 Dickens on the Strand Festival in Galverston. The questionnaire used in this study, which was distributed to patrons at the event, included 48 statements based on the literature relating to leisure motives. These statements probed respondents' reasons for attending the festival. Ralston and Crompton attempted to identify market segments defined by demographic characteristics, that exhibited similar motives but were unsuccessful, concluding that "motivations (sic.) dimensions were generic across all groups" (Ralston and Crompton 1988, quoted in Getz 1991a, p. 262). The most important motivational groups found in this study, in descending order of importance, were family togetherness, meeting or observing new people, nostalgia, learning and discovery, social contact, stimulus seeking, and escape from personal and social pressures.

Uysal, Gahan and Martin (1993) used the 1991 Travellers Rest's County Corn Festival in South Carolina as a case study to examine event patron motivation. They based their study on the tourist motivation framework proposed by Mannell and Iso-

Ahola (1987) relating to the balance between the motivational forces of escape and reward. The questionnaire that was used in this study, which was administered by volunteers to patrons at the event, included a list of 24 motivational items that was based on earlier studies. The 174 completed questionnaires were factor analysed to extract five factor groupings which together accounted for 63 per cent of the variance. The five factors were labelled: escape, excitement and thrills, event novelty, socialisation, and family togetherness. It was concluded that the results of this study supported Mannell and Iso-Ahola's proposition regarding the simultaneous operation of the two motivational forces of escape and reward.

Mohr, Backman, Gahan and Backman (1993) used the 1992 Freedom Weekend Aloft (FWA) Festival in Greenville South Carolina as the study site to assess the stability and variability of event motivation for various categories of first time and repeat visitors. Although there was no specific information regarding the basis of the 23 motivational items used in this study, they appeared similar to those used by Uysal, Gahan and Martin (1993). Underpinning this project was the view that if special events are to achieve growth in attendance over time, they must be able to convert first time visitors into repeat visitors as well as attract first time visitors. Little research had focussed upon the behaviour of the repeat visitor (Mohr, Backman, Gahan and Backman 1993), and this study sought to address this deficit by comparing the first time visitor with the repeat visitor. Volunteers were able to collect 458 useable questionnaires from patrons at the 1992 FWA.

Once again, Exploratory Factor Analysis was employed on the motivational elements of the questionnaire and this resulted in five factor groupings that accounted for 58 per cent of the total variance. The factor groupings were very similar to those extracted in the Uysal, Gahan and Martin (1993) study, although the order of factors was slightly different. Based on this, it was concluded that "different motivational dimensions are important to visitors when they attend different festivals" (Mohr, Backman, Gahan and Backman 1993, p. 95). It was also concluded that there were differences between first time and repeat visitors in their motivation for attending the festival. This study, like that of Uysal, Gahan and Martin (1993), found that festival goers were homogeneous with respect to their demographic characteristics.

Mihalik and Ferguson (1994) conducted a study on the 1988 South Carolina Fair. The prime focus of this study was to develop a demographic profile of visitors to the fair but six items were also included to assess the importance of the function's 'education', 'recreation', and 'social' aspects in patrons' decision to attend the fair. The fact that the study was constrained to six items on three dimensions prevents one from drawing too many conclusions, but it was found that, based upon the 432 fair patrons interviewed, all three functions were seen as important, with 'family togetherness' being the most highly rated item.

Scott (1996) built upon the work conducted by Mohr, Backman, Gahan and Backman (1993) and Uysal, Gahan and Backman (1993) in seeking to further explore visitor motivation at festivals. The focus of Scott (1996) was "to determine whether festival motivations were functions of combined or separate effects of festival type and past visitation" (p. 121). Scott employed a questionnaire based heavily on the Mohr et al (1993) and Uysal et al (1993) studies, and administered it to visitors at three separate festivals in Cleveland. Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) of the motivational items identified six factors of which Scott classified three as push factors, namely, 'sociability', 'family togetherness', and 'escape from routine', and three as pull factors, namely, 'nature appreciation', 'event excitement', and 'curiosity'. The relative importance of these six factors varied with the different festivals. Scott concluded that motives varied with the festival being attended and that "the kind of festival is a far better predictor of people's motivations than past experience" (p. 127). In examining the differences between first time and repeat festival visitors, the main difference found was that first time visitors to a festival were far more likely to be motivated by curiosity than repeat visitors.

Formica and Uysal (1996) compared the motivation and demographic characteristics of local residents to out-of-region visitors to the 1995 Umbria Jazz Festival. The motivational section used in this questionnaire was based upon that used in the earlier reported study of Uysal et al (1993), and the EFA extracted the same factors as in the previous study. Unlike earlier studies, however, it was found that 'event novelty' was the most important factor; earlier studies had generally identified 'family

togetherness' or 'socialisation' as being the most important factor. It was also found that there were statistically significant differences with respect to two of the motivational factors, 'socialisation' and 'entertainment', between the two geographical segments. Based on demographic and motivational differences between the two segments used in this study, it was suggested that "event attendees are not homogeneous" (p. 181).

Although the primary purpose of the study conducted by Mayfield and Crompton (1995) was to develop an instrument for identifying community reasons for staging a festival, some of the report related to patron motivation. It was suggested that a tool should be developed to measure the benefits sought by visitors to special events which would then enable better product development by comparing the benefits being sought by organisers with those being sought by consumers.

The studies that have been discussed here have used questionnaires containing a similar array of motivational statements and it is not, therefore, surprising that the EFAs that have been conducted on the responses have extracted very similar factors. There has been some variation in the order of importance of the various factors that have been extracted. Examining these studies as a whole would suggest that there are indeed motivational differences for the various types of special events. In order to determine whether cultural factors affected the motives for attending special events, Schneider and Backman (1996) essentially replicated the earlier work of Uysal, Gahan and Martin (1993) and Backman, Backman, Uysal and Sunshine (1995) but using a festival based in Jordan as the study site. The results of this Jordanian study showed very similar motives to the earlier studies in North America suggesting that motives transcend cultural boundaries.

The other consistent theme with these studies is that they were all 'destination studies'; that is, they were restricted to the patrons who were at the special event. However, it is important to understand the needs of people who do not attend a particular special event (Mihalik and Ferguson 1994). Being a destination study is in fact a major limitation as the needs and motives of the wider community are not taken into account.

Understanding why people did not attend a special event is, in many ways, probably more important than understanding why people actually attended. Ignoring the non-patron restricts one's ability to develop the market by broadening the patron profile (Backman and Crompton 1990; Davies and Prentice 1995). "Examination of the value profiles of non-visitors can provide an indication of those needs that the attraction is not perceived to satisfy and may provide useful data for future marketing strategies" (Pitts and Woodside 1986, p. 21). A number of research studies has identified that non-attendees are not a homogeneous group, and little work has been done to identify variables that could be used to segment non-attendees into sub-groups (Backman and Crompton 1990). The destination based studies are probably more useful in determining levels of satisfaction with what was on offer as opposed to understanding the needs and characteristics of those who are more likely to attend special events. Origin-based studies are essential if there is a desire to generalise the findings of a study to the wider community.

### 4.7.2 Origin-Based Studies

Relatively few origin based studies have been conducted in relation to special events. Getz (1991a) reported on two larger scale studies that had been carried out during the 1980s and which provided some information on the profile of event patrons. These studies were the 'US Pleasure Travel Market Survey' involving 9,000 interviews and the 'Canadian Tourism Attitude and Motivation Study (CTAMS)' which involved 15,000 interviews. Both of these studies were directed towards tourism in general and therefore provided only limited information regarding special events, although CTAMS did provide some insights into this segment of the tourism market. Based on CTAMS, undertaken in 1985, Getz (1991a) concluded that special events were an important motivator of travel and helped shape destination images.

Backman et al (1995) investigated the motives and activities of those who went on a festival or special event trip. This study was based on the 1985 Travel Study conducted in Canada which involved 9033 in home interviews lasting about 50 minutes with people over 16, who had made at least one pleasure trip in the previous three years. A sub-sample of these interviews using people who had taken a festival

or special event motivated vacation (533 cases) was used as the basis for this study. Since this study was restricted to vacations, it ignored the large percentage of the population who attended special events as a daytrip activity. Twelve motives and 18 activities were used to examine the underlying factors behind the trip but there was no indication as to the origins of the motives and activities that were used in this study.

Backman et al concluded that "event attendees are not homogeneous and may require a combination of segmentation strategies" (p. 23). This study supported the earlier findings of Getz (1991a), Uysal et al. (1993), and Mohr et al. (1993) that there were no statistical differences between demographic variables and motivation in relation to special event attendance.

Wicks and Fesenmaier (1995) conducted a study in 1992 in the Midwest of the US that involved mailing a questionnaire to 2100 randomly selected residents. The key interest in this study was in relation to respondents who had taken an overnight vacation trip. They found that 57 per cent of all pleasure trips taken in the previous year had included a special event. It was also found that 84 per cent of respondents indicated that the event was the main purpose of their last trip that included a special event. Individuals who attended festivals were compared with those who did not and it was found that event attendees were more active travellers. A relatively large percentage of respondents indicated that overnight accommodation was required for special events attended. It was also concluded that although special events may not have been the primary reason for a trip taking place, attendance at such events was important. This conclusion was supported by Getz and Cheyne (1997) who conducted two preliminary focus groups in which it was found that the groups as a whole considered special events to be something desirable whilst engaged in pleasure travel but they were not a strong reason to initiate the trip itself.

An important finding of the Wicks and Fesenmaier (1995) study was that event patrons tended to take more daytrips, overnight trips and long trips than did non event patrons. It was found that although there were some demographic differences between the event goers and non event patrons, these differences were not great.

The main problems with the studies discussed in this section have been that they have not been event specific and they have tended to focus only on those who have taken overnight trips. This has meant that the motives discussed have not focussed on events specifically and the large percentage of consumers who attend special events as a daytrip activity has been ignored.

### 4.7.3 Australian Studies

In Australia, the main studies for collecting information regarding people's travel behaviour are the 'Domestic Tourism Monitor' (DTM) and the 'International Visitor Survey' (IVS). Despite the interest now given to the field of special events by both state and national tourism organisations, it is surprising to find that little attention is paid to special events in these questionnaires.

<u>1992 International Visitor Survey</u>

Few questions relating specifically to special events were included in this questionnaire. There was one that asked respondents who had visited NSW during their trip about whether they had visited festivals/events, and for those visiting Melbourne, a festival and event question was combined with a question related to shopping. No options were provided for those attending festivals and events in Victoria other than in Melbourne and there were no questions relating to special events included in the sections allocated to the other states and territories in the questionnaire. In the 1993 and 1994 IVS, respondents were asked whether they had attended a local or ethnic festival or fair.

<u>1992 Domestic Tourism Monitor</u>

There were no items in the questionnaire that related specifically to special events, although there were some relating to sport. However, in the day trip section, respondents were asked whether they attended a 'festival, agricultural show, major sporting event'. Perhaps this was a recognition of the relative importance of the daytrip market versus the tourist market in the patronage of special events.

In response to this question relating to special events in the 1992 DTM, it was found that 2,462,000 Australian travellers took a day trip in 1992 to attend a special event, and that in this same year, Australian travellers took 4.2 day trips on average to attend special events.

Victorian Regional Travel and Tourism Survey

This survey, which was conducted during 1995, is the most comprehensive survey of travel within Victoria ever undertaken. The survey examined both day trip activities and overnight travel and considered demographics, travel behaviour and satisfaction. Data for the study were derived from both in-home surveys and intercept interviews. In this survey, one of the 19 activities listed in the questionnaire was to 'attend a festival, special or sport event'.

The results of this survey could be used to examine the relative importance of special events in motivating travel relative to other activities and provided demographic information on the type of people more inclined to take special event related trips, but unfortunately little more could be obtained. There was no information that could be extracted that provided other psychographic information on the respondents and, indeed, it was not possible to identify who of the travel party, actually completed the questionnaire.

Omnibus Surveys

Unfortunately, the larger general marketing research studies like omnibus surveys have not specifically isolated various types of special events. This has meant that more detailed motivational analysis in relation to special events has not been possible.

## 4.8 Summary

There is clearly a strong and growing need to develop an in-depth understanding of people's behaviour in relation to attendance at special events. This is important so that appropriate events can be developed and promotional campaigns for both existing and new events can be made more effective. Improved understanding of

behaviour in relation to special events will also enhance the opportunity to package both events and other activities to increase patron enjoyment and to maximise the economic injection into the host region.

It is only in the last three years that a small number of studies has been conducted to try to understand event patron motivation. However, the majority of these studies that have been conducted have been destination-based and have, therefore, only examined the motives of people who have attended the event; the wider community has been ignored. The few studies that have been origin based, have not had special event behaviour as the prime focus and have had to adapt results to fit the event field.

There is clearly the need for an origin-based study that seeks to understand the motivation and behaviour of people in relation to special events.

# CHAPTER 5

# RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

## *5.1 Introduction*

The objective of this chapter is to develop a series of research hypotheses for testing in the second stage of the primary research conducted in this thesis, as will be discussed in the following chapters. These research hypotheses were prompted by the discussion of the literature in the previous chapter. In the Consumer Decision Process Model that was presented in Figure 1.4, these hypotheses relate to the section of the model between 'Special Event Cognition' and 'Situation Specific Influences'.

The key elements of the model that was proposed in Figure 1.4, that are being researched in this study are as follows:

- Special events versus permanent attractions,
- The segmentation performance and predictive strengths of personal values, psychographics and demographics in both an absolute and a relative sense,
- Three dimensions of visitation, namely, interest, intention and actual,
- Visitation behaviour considered at both the individual attraction level and globally.

This makes for a diverse range of hypotheses which often do not fit neatly into a single section of the proposed model. Therefore, the hypotheses are grouped into subsections in this chapter rather than being related to specific points in the model, in order to assist the reader. It will be seen, however, that the key themes behind these hypotheses are:

- the relationship between special events and other types of attractions,
- the comparative performance of personal values, psychographics and demographics in segmenting the market,
- the relationship between actual visitation, visit interest and visit intention, and
- the prediction of special event visitation.

The hypotheses are summarised at the end of the chapter.

## 5.2 Distinctiveness of Special Events

It was discussed in Chapter Two that special events have been widely regarded in the literature as being a specific type of visitor attraction, but does this view have support in the wider community?

Hypothesis 1:

Consumers distinguish special events from other types of attractions in terms of their visit interest preferences.

Hypothesis 2:

Consumers distinguish special events from other types of attractions in terms of their visit intention preferences.

## 5.3 Stability of the LOV

The LOV comprises items that many people would regard as important guiding principles in their lives. One could ask, however, whether this list is comprehensive and whether there are other values, perhaps reflecting a less laudable side of the human make-up, that could also be important guiding principles?

Hypothesis 3:

There are values other than those included in the LOV that are the most important guiding principles in people's lives.

## 5.4 Measurement of Values

Much of the early research on values was conducted by Rokeach who adopted a ranking system, as part of his RVS, to assess values. This approach has been criticised, as ranking "yields ipsative (non-independent) data and thus violates the assumption of independence among values" (Prakash 1984, p. 145). However,

Rokeach countered such criticism claiming that the independence of values was not seriously violated because intercorrelations between values were so small.

According to Munson (1984), inherent problems with the ranking approach led a number of researchers to suggest that values could be more accurately measured using a ratings approach that employs a Likert scale (see, for example, Munson and McIntyre 1978). A major benefit of using a ratings approach is that since interval data are collected, parametric statistics can be used in the analysis of the results. Ratings also provides insights as to the intensity with which particular values are held and it allows for 'ties' which a system of forced rankings does not permit.

A problem with the ratings approach, however, is that it can lead to end-piling which reduces the overall effectiveness of the scale. Prakash (1984) suggested that since values were a relative concept as opposed to an absolute concept, rankings were, indeed, an appropriate measurement device. Reynolds and Jolly (1980) stated that ratings were less reliable than the rankings approach and that more research was needed to determine the most appropriate method.

It would seem that there is still no consensus as to the most effective approach to measuring values and a number of approaches is adopted. These include ranking, rating, and a combination of both.

Hypothesis 4:

The ratings approach to value measurement provides a different hierarchical ordering of items in the LOV than is achieved using the ranking approach.

## 5.5 Value Domains

As indicated earlier, the LOV was introduced as an instrument to measure values in order to overcome some of the shortcomings of the RVS. Although the LOV included nine individual value items and asked respondents to rank them in terms of their importance as guiding principles, respondents were "classified into groups on the basis of only their top-ranked value" (Kamakura and Mazzon 1991, p.

208). It has been suggested that using only the top-ranked value to classify respondents "may capitalise on measurement error" (Kamakura and Novak 1992, p.121).

This approach ignores the importance of the value system in which single values are arranged hierarchically based on similarities and differences between individual values. Values can be represented by higher order value domains which Schwartz and Bilsky (1987) suggested were more effective and reliable predictors of behaviour than were single values. Schwartz and Bilsky further suggested that consumer behaviour would be better explained by reformulating values at a higher level of abstraction, which would not only improve the reliability and interpretability of the results, but would be consistent with Rokeach's original theoretical concept. Despite this, however, much of the segmentation work that has been done using the LOV has classified individuals based on their highest individual value and has not considered the value system (Kamakura and Novak 1992).

Prakash (1984) suggested that more meaningful results were obtained in relating behaviour to value domains rather than individual values. This was supported by Kamakura and Novak (1992) who compared the segments and the coefficients of determination obtained using the value system versus the top-rated value, finding that the value systems were superior.

Hypothesis 5:
The values that constitute the LOV are underpinned by a small number of value domains.

Hypothesis 6a:
Value domains are more closely related to consumer attraction visit interest behaviour than are individual values.

Hypothesis 6b:

Value domains are more closely related to consumer special event visit interest behaviour than are individual values.

Hypothesis 6c:

Value domains are more closely related to consumer permanent attraction visit interest behaviour than are individual values.

Hypothesis 7a:

Value domains are more closely related to consumer attraction visit intention behaviour than are individual values.

Hypothesis 7b:

Value domains are more closely related to consumer special event visit intention behaviour than are individual values.

Hypothesis 7c:

Value domains are more closely related to consumer permanent attraction visit intention behaviour than are individual values.

## 5.6 Internal versus External Locus of Control

There are similarities between VALS and the LOV in that both techniques have identified inner and outer distinctions (Gunter and Furnham 1992). In the LOV, this distinction was between internal and external locus of control with external values comprising 'sense of belonging', 'being well-respected', and 'security', with all other values being classed as internal. "Research has supported the theoretical notion that the LOV items may be better represented at a more abstract level by value domains that reflect either an internal or external locus of control" (Madrigal and Kahle 1994, p. 23).

Studies by Homer and Kahle (1983) and Madrigal and Kahle (1994) supported the proposition that the underlying dimensions behind the LOV represented internal and external locus of control, although some of the factors extracted in the EFAs conducted in each study varied slightly. Homer and Kahle (1988) suggested that

situational factors may have caused different dimensions to be important in different contexts.

Individuals motivated by internal values tend to be more self-motivated and believe that they can influence or control outcomes, whereas 'externals' believe that success and failure is beyond their control.

In the study conducted by Madrigal and Kahle (1994), an important internal factor that was identified was termed 'hedonic' and comprised 'excitement' and 'fun and enjoyment in life', items that would appear to have some connection with special events.

Hypothesis 8:

The values that constitute the LOV reflect an internal or external orientation.

Hypothesis 9:

Consumers with a high special event visit intention place greater emphasis on external values than consumers with a low special event visit intention.

Hypothesis 10:

Consumers with a high special event visit intention place a higher emphasis on hedonic values than consumers with a low special event visit intention.

## 5.7 Relationship Between Values and Demographics

One of the reasons for the increasing use of values in market segmentation and in the explanation of consumer behaviour has been the concern that demographics are now less able to fulfil these roles due to structural changes in society, particularly in relation to the general improvement of educational standards. It is important, therefore, to examine whether there are relationships between values and demographics, especially if one technique is to be used to explain segments identified using the other technique. There is also the issue as to whether values are impacted on by demographics or the other way around.

Although a number of studies has been conducted in this area, the results are not conclusive. Timmer and Kahle (reported in Keng and Yang 1993) found correlations between values and the demographic variables age, sex, education, occupation, income and religion, suggesting that these variables influenced, and were influenced by values. A number of other studies has supported some of these findings, including education (Kramer 1984), socioeconomic class (Ness and Stith 1984) and life status (Crosby, Gill and Lee 1984).

Keng and Yang (1993) found that sex, religion, income and education were related to values but were unable to identify any correlation with age. However, it was suggested that the lack of relationship with age was likely due to the fact that age was restricted to the range of 15-39 in the sample used in the study.

Hypothesis 11a:
There is a positive relationship between age and the items in the LOV.

Hypothesis 11b:
There is a positive relationship between education and the items in the LOV.

Hypothesis 11c:
There is a positive relationship between family status and the items in the LOV.

Hypothesis 11d:
There is a positive relationship between income and the items in the LOV.

Hypothesis 11e:
There is a positive relationship between gender and the items in the LOV.

## 5.8 Generic Versus Specific Behaviour

According to Munson (1984), little research had been able to demonstrate relationships between values and specific (brand) versus more generic consumer behaviour. This is reinforced by the fact that people sharing a common value

system may adopt different final behaviour and also people sharing different value systems may adopt identical final behaviour.

The LOV was based upon terminal values which are recognised as being more abstract than instrumental values (Madrigal and Kahle 1994). As a consequence of this, the LOV is likely to be more effective at explaining behaviour at a more generic, or abstract level, than it is at the more concrete level involving specific brand choice. Munson (1984) suggested that other factors, such as attitudes towards specific products, intervene in the process to influence brand choice. It should be remembered that "since values are highly abstract, this generalisation implies that predicting very specific behaviours will not be simple" (Kahle 1984, p. 85).

Hypothesis 12a:
The items in the LOV are better predictors of generic behaviour (visit interest) than they are of more concrete behaviour (visit intention).

Hypothesis 12b:
AIOs are better predictors of generic behaviour (visit interest) than they are of more concrete behaviour (visit intention).

Hypothesis 12c:
Demographics are better predictors of generic behaviour (visit interest) than they are of more concrete behaviour (visit intention).

Hypothesis 13a:
The items in the LOV are better predictors of behaviour in relation to tourism attractions overall, including special events, than they are of behaviour in relation to special events alone.

Hypothesis 13b:

AIOs are better predictors of behaviour in relation to tourism attractions overall, including special events, than they are of behaviour in relation to special events alone.

<u>Hypothesis 13c:</u>

Demographics are better predictors of behaviour in relation to tourism attractions overall, including special events, than they are of behaviour in relation to special events alone.

## *5.9 The Different Dimensions of Visitation*

Much research has identified a relationship between attitudes and behaviour (Assael 1992) but the success of predicting behaviour based on attitudes has been quite poor (Solomon 1992). Attitudes are regarded as having three components: cognitive, affective and conative (Engel, Blackwell and Miniard 1995; Zikmund 1991). Engel, Blackwell and Miniard (1995) proposed a contemporary view of the relationships between the components of attitude and behaviour which is presented diagrammatically in Figure 5.1.

*Figure 5.1 Contemporary View of Attitude.*

```
┌─────────────┐              ┌─────────────┐
│      1      │              │      2      │
│   Beliefs   │              │  Feelings   │
└─────────────┘              └─────────────┘
        │                          │
        └──────────┐   ┌───────────┘
                   ▼   ▼
             ┌─────────────┐
             │      3      │
             │   Attitude  │
             └─────────────┘
                    │
                    ▼
             ┌─────────────┐
             │      4      │
             │  Intention  │
             └─────────────┘
                    │
                    ▼
             ┌─────────────┐
             │      5      │
             │  Behaviour  │
             └─────────────┘
```
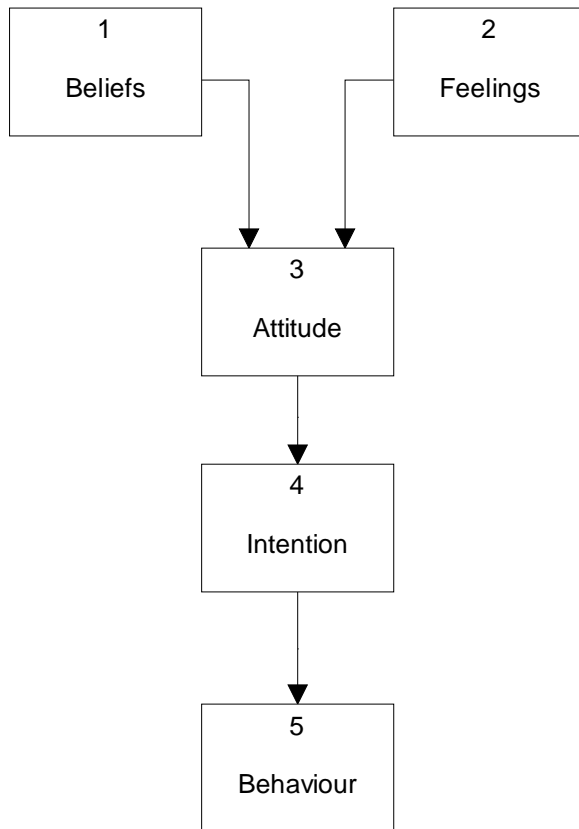
Source: Figure 11.2 in Engel, Blackwell and Miniard (1995).

Using this contemporary view, "attitude is viewed as being distinct from its components, with each component being related to attitude" (Engel, Blackwell and Miniard 1995, p. 364). This contemporary view of attitude in which the components of attitude are presented in a sequential fashion, is used as the basis for this thesis. The cognitive (beliefs) and affective (feelings) components of attitude are equated to interest which is taken as the prelude to the conative (intention) component which itself precedes overt behaviour, as presented in Figure 5.2. Assael (1992) reported on a range of studies that was conducted which supported the view that intentions could be used to predict overt behaviour.

*Figure 5.2 Model of Behaviour.*

```
┌─────────────┐        ┌─────────────┐        ┌─────────────┐
│      1      │        │      2      │        │      3      │
│  Consumer   │───────▶│  Consumer   │───────▶│    Overt    │
│  Interest   │        │  Intention  │        │  Behaviour  │
└─────────────┘        └─────────────┘        └─────────────┘
```
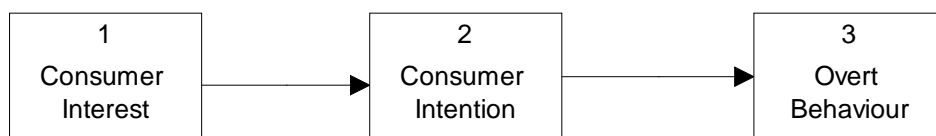
Much of the research that has been done in this area has treated interest and intention as independent variables and overt behaviour as the dependent variable.

However, it is also important to recognise that there is effectively a feedback linkage whereby behaviour influences future interest and intention; that is, behaviour is the independent variable in this scenario.

Although the linkage between intention and overt behaviour is seen as stronger than between interest and overt behaviour, there are many factors that could "interfere with the performance of the actual behaviour, even if the consumer sincerely intends to carry it out" (Solomon 1992, p. 155). As a result, past behaviour is often taken as a better indicator of future behaviour than either interest or intention.

Hypothesis 14:
There is a positive relationship between visit interest and visit intention with respect to attractions.

Hypothesis 15a:
There is a positive relationship between past visitation and overall attraction visit interest.

Hypothesis 15b:
There is a positive relationship between past visitation and overall attraction visit intention.

Hypothesis 16a:
Past visitation provides a stronger indication of special event visit interest than it does of permanent attraction visit interest.

Hypothesis 16b:
Past visitation provides a stronger indication of special event visit intention than it does of permanent attraction visit intention.

### 5.10 Explaining Behaviour in Relation to Special Events

Since this study was not longitudinal in nature, future visit behaviour was not measured. Therefore, it has been assumed that visit intention is an indicator of overt behaviour as intention is the last stage before overt behaviour in the consumer purchase process. It is recognised, however, that intention is a far from perfect indicator of behaviour (Mowen 1993).

Chapter Four provided an overview of the literature that has supported values as both a segmentation tool and as a means of explaining consumer behaviour. This overview also indicated, however, that there has not been unanimous support for values in either of these roles.

Muller (1991) and Pitts and Woodside (1986), demonstrated that values can be used to differentiate between tourists segmented on the basis of benefit criteria. Madrigal and Kahle (1994) used values as the independent variable to demonstrate that segments of tourists with similar values systems differed in their importance ratings of activities, and Pitts and Woodside (1986) suggested that "consumers with similar values will exhibit similar choice criteria" (p. 20) and behaviour. These results provided more information upon which marketers could base their strategies.

Pitts and Woodside (1986) were able to support their hypothesis that groups of individuals with similar leisure choice criteria may be identified and differentiated on the basis of the personal values of segment members. They also confirmed that leisure behaviour may be differentiated on the basis of personal values.

It should be noted that most of the studies that have been conducted exploring values in the leisure and travel fields, have been destination-based and as a consequence, have not been able to consider non-users. The study by Pitts and Woodside (1986) was a notable exception and it was suggested that values were "useful in describing those individuals who visit a specific travel attraction versus those who do not visit the attraction" (p. 24). Comparing the value profiles of visitors to non-visitors helps identify the motives and needs that the experience

satisfies. Examination of the value profiles of non-visitors will help establish the needs that are not being satisfied by the experience.

Once marketers understand the particular values that are most closely associated with special event patronage, they can then modify, as necessary, particular events to more fully exploit this association.

Hypothesis 17:

Segments comprising people with similar value systems differ in their behaviour in relation to special events.

Hypothesis 18:

Groups of individuals segmented on their intention to patronise similar types of special events may be differentiated on the basis of the personal values of segment members.

Kahle, Beatty and Homer (1986) compared the predictive performance of the LOV with VALS and concluded that the LOV was superior. VALS is a proprietary instrument and, as indicated earlier, VALS is basically a battery of lifestyle questions.

However, Novak and MacEvoy (1990) queried the findings of Kahle, Beatty and Homer (1986) suggesting that they had overstated the performance of the LOV because of the demographic variables that were included with it. The replication study conducted by Novak and MacEvoy found that VALS was as effective in predicting behaviour as was a combination of the LOV and demographics. They found that the LOV alone was less able to predict behaviour than demographics and substantially less able than VALS.

Madrigal and Kahle (1994) found that personal value systems were better predictors of behaviour than were demographics, although demographics added value to the understanding of the segments identified.

This discussion indicates that there has been no conclusive result to establish the relative ability of the LOV to predict behaviour in relation to other techniques such as demographics and psychographics.

Hypothesis 19:

The items in the LOV are better able to predict special event visit intention than are AIOs.

Hypothesis 20:

The items in the LOV are better able to predict special event visit intention than are the demographic variables.

Hypothesis 21:

A combination of the items in the LOV and the demographic variables is better able to predict special event visit intention than are AIOs.

Hypothesis 22a:

The items in the LOV are better able to predict special event visit intention than is past visitation.

Hypothesis 22b:

AIOs are better able to predict special event visit intention than is past visitation.

Hypothesis 22c:

Demographic variables are better able to predict special event visit intention than is past visitation.

### 5.11 One-time Versus Repeat Visitors to Special Events

If a particular recurring special event is to be successful over time and achieve increased attendance, it is important that there be a high level of repeat visitation (Mohr et al 1993). Despite this, little research has been conducted on the issue of repeat visitation at special events (Mohr et al 1993). The study conducted by Mohr et al (1993), which was based on a particular special event, found that there

were differences in the motives of first-time versus repeat visitors but no demographic differences were found between the two groups. Scott (1996) did not compare demographic characteristics of first-time versus repeat visitors to the three special events included in the study but did find that there were differences in motives between the two groups.

Hypothesis 23:
There is a difference with respect to the items in the LOV between one-time and repeat visitors to special events.

Hypothesis 24:
There is a difference with respect to AIOs between one-time and repeat visitors to special events.

Hypothesis 25a:
There is a difference with respect to age between one-time and repeat visitors to special events.

Hypothesis 25b:
There is a difference with respect to gender between one-time and repeat visitors to special events.

Hypothesis 25c:
There is a difference with respect to education between one-time and repeat visitors to special events.

Hypothesis 25d:
There is a difference with respect to family status between one-time and repeat visitors to special events.

Hypothesis 25e:
There is a difference with respect to income between one-time and repeat visitors to special events.

## *5.12 Comparison of High Special Event Visit Intention and Low Special Event Visit Intention*

Some people have a higher special event visit intention than others and if it is possible to identify differences between these two groups, more effective promotional campaigns can be developed in order to influence the conversion from intention to actual behaviour.

Hypothesis 26:

There is a difference with respect to value domain profile between those with high special event visit intention and those with low special event visit intention.

Hypothesis 27:

There is a difference with respect to psychographic profile between those with high special event visit intention and those with low special event visit intention.

Hypothesis 28a:

There is a difference with respect to age between those with high special event visit intention and those with low special event visit intention.

Hypothesis 28b:

There is a difference with respect to gender between those with high special event visit intention and those with low special event visit intention.

Hypothesis 28c:

There is a difference with respect to education between those with high special event visit intention and those with low special event visit intention.

Hypothesis 28d:

There is a difference with respect to family status between those with high special event visit intention and those with low special event visit intention.

Hypothesis 28e:

There is a difference with respect to income between those with high special event visit intention and those with low special event visit intention.

## 5.13 Clusters

The comments at the beginning of the last section apply equally to various approaches to clustering.

Hypothesis 29:

Segments comprising people with similar psychographic systems differ in their visit intention behaviour in relation to special events.

Hypothesis 30:

Cluster analysis based on segments comprising people with similar value systems is a better basis for predicting visit intention behaviour in relation to special events than is cluster analysis based on segments comprising people with similar psychographic systems.

Hypothesis 31:

Cluster analysis based on segments comprising people with similar value systems is a better basis for predicting visit intention behaviour in relation to special events than is cluster analysis based on segments comprising people based on their top ranked value.

## 5.14  Summary of Research Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1:

Consumers distinguish special events from other types of attractions in terms of their visit interest preferences.

Hypothesis 2:

Consumers distinguish special events from other types of attractions in terms of their visit intention preferences.

Hypothesis 3:

There are values other than those included in the LOV that are the most important guiding principles in people's lives.

Hypothesis 4:

The ratings approach to value measurement provides a different hierarchical ordering of items in the LOV than is achieved using the ranking approach.

Hypothesis 5:

The values that constitute the LOV underpinned by a small number of value domains.

Hypothesis 6a:

Value domains are more closely related to consumer attraction visit interest behaviour than are individual values.

Hypothesis 6b:

Value domains are more closely related to consumer special event visit interest behaviour than are individual values.

Hypothesis 6c:

Value domains are more closely related to consumer permanent attraction visit interest behaviour than are individual values.

Hypothesis 7a:

Value domains are more closely related to consumer attraction visit intention behaviour than are individual values.

Hypothesis 7b:

Value domains are more closely related to consumer special event visit intention behaviour than are individual values.

Hypothesis 7c:

Value domains are more closely related to consumer permanent attraction visit intention behaviour than are individual values.

Hypothesis 8:

The values that constitute the LOV reflect an internal or external orientation.

Hypothesis 9:

Consumers with a high special event visit intention place greater emphasis on external values than consumers with a low special event visit intention.

Hypothesis 10:

Consumers with a high special event visit intention place a higher emphasis on hedonic values than consumers with a low special event visit intention.

Hypothesis 11a:

There is a positive relationship between age and the items in the LOV.

Hypothesis 11b:

There is a positive relationship between education and the items in the LOV.

Hypothesis 11c:

There is a positive relationship between family status and the items in the LOV.

Hypothesis 11d:

There is a positive relationship between income and the items in the LOV.

Hypothesis 11e:

There is a positive relationship between gender and the items in the LOV.

Hypothesis 12a:

The items in the LOV are better predictors of generic behaviour (visit interest) than they are of more concrete behaviour (visit intention).

Hypothesis 12b:

AIOs are better predictors of generic behaviour (visit interest) than they are of more concrete behaviour (visit intention).

Hypothesis 12c:

Demographics are better predictors of generic behaviour (visit interest) than they are of more concrete behaviour (visit intention).

Hypothesis 13a:

The items in the LOV are better predictors of behaviour in relation to tourism attractions overall, including special events, than they are of behaviour in relation to special events alone.

Hypothesis 13b:

AIOs are better predictors of behaviour in relation to tourism attractions overall, including special events, than they are of behaviour in relation to special events alone.

Hypothesis 13c:

Demographics are better predictors of behaviour in relation to tourism attractions overall, including special events, than they are of behaviour in relation to special events alone.

Hypothesis 14:

There is a positive relationship between visit interest and visit intention with respect to attractions.

Hypothesis 15a:

There is a positive relationship between past visitation and overall attraction visit interest.

Hypothesis 15b:

There is a positive relationship between past visitation and overall attraction visit intention.

Hypothesis 16a:

Past visitation provides a stronger indication of special event visit interest than it does of permanent attraction visit interest.

Hypothesis 16b:

Past visitation provides a stronger indication of special event visit intention than it does of permanent attraction visit intention.

Hypothesis 17:

Segments comprising people with similar value systems differ in their behaviour in relation to special events.

Hypothesis 18:

Groups of individuals segmented on their intention to patronise similar types of special events may be differentiated on the basis of the personal values of segment members.

Hypothesis 19:

The items in the LOV are better able to predict special event visit intention than are AIOs.

Hypothesis 20:

The items in the LOV are better able to predict special event visit intention than are the demographic variables.

Hypothesis 21:

A combination of the items in the LOV and the demographic variables is better able to predict special event visit intention than are AIOs.

Hypothesis 22a:

The items in the LOV are better able to predict special event visit intention than is past visitation.

Hypothesis 22b:

AIOs are better able to predict special event visit intention than is past visitation.

Hypothesis 22c:

Demographic variables are better able to predict special event visit intention than is past visitation.

Hypothesis 23:

There is a difference with respect to the items in the LOV between one-time and repeat visitors to special events.

Hypothesis 24:

There is a difference with respect to AIOs between one-time and repeat visitors to special events.

Hypothesis 25a:

There is a difference with respect to age between one-time and repeat visitors to special events.

Hypothesis 25b:

There is a difference with respect to gender between one-time and repeat visitors to special events.

Hypothesis 25c:

There is a difference with respect to education between one-time and repeat visitors to special events.

Hypothesis 25d:

There is a difference with respect to family status between one-time and repeat visitors to special events.

Hypothesis 25e:

There is a difference with respect to income between one-time and repeat visitors to special events.

Hypothesis 26:

There is a difference with respect to value domain profile between those with high special event visit intention and those with low special event visit intention.

Hypothesis 27:

There is a difference with respect to psychographic profile between those with high special event visit intention and those with low special event visit intention.

Hypothesis 28a:

There is a difference with respect to age between those with high special event visit intention and those with low special event visit intention.

Hypothesis 28b:

There is a difference with respect to gender between those with high special event visit intention and those with low special event visit intention.

Hypothesis 28c:

There is a difference with respect to education between those with high special event visit intention and those with low special event visit intention.

Hypothesis 28d:

There is a difference with respect to family status between those with high special event visit intention and those with low special event visit intention.

Hypothesis 28e:

There is a difference with respect to income between those with high special event visit intention and those with low special event visit intention.

Hypothesis 29:

Segments comprising people with similar psychographic systems differ in their visit intention behaviour in relation to special events.

Hypothesis 30:

Cluster analysis based on segments comprising people with similar value systems is a better basis for predicting visit intention behaviour in relation to special events than is cluster analysis based on segments comprising people with similar psychographic systems.

Hypothesis 31:

Cluster analysis based on segments comprising people with similar value systems is a better basis for predicting visit intention behaviour in relation to special events than is cluster analysis based on segments comprising people based on their top ranked value.

# CHAPTER 6

# METHODOLOGY

## *6.1 Introduction*

An earlier chapter identified the importance of developing a detailed understanding of consumer behaviour in relation to special events if such events are to remain viable in the longer term. It was proposed that the List of Values (LOV) would be adopted to develop such an understanding, and the performance of the LOV would be compared to that of demographics and psychographics, measured using AIOs.

This chapter contains the background to the development, purification and application of a questionnaire designed to collect from consumers, information relating to their behaviour in relation to attractions in general, and special events in particular. Personal information that could be used to develop consumer profiles is also collected.

Methodological rigour was listed in Chapter One as an important objective of this thesis and there was some discussion of the useful role that convergent validation can play in achieving this objective. It will be shown in this chapter that multiple approaches to the collection and analysis of data were used wherever possible in order to gain a more detailed understanding of consumer behaviour and of some of the techniques used to assess such behaviour. In particular, this involved:

- asking respondents about visitation to a wide range of named attractions including special events,
- three dimensions of visitation being measured, and
- three approaches to segmentation being adopted.

The same approach was adopted in Chapter Three where a number of techniques was employed to develop an appreciation of the attributes that consumers considered important in their understanding of special events.

Some discussion of the survey methodology was presented in Chapter Three in relation to the mail back questionnaire on special event definitions. More detailed information on the methodology is presented in this chapter.

## *6.2 Research Methodology*

Since this study had some common elements with a study being conducted by a colleague, it was decided to link the respective questionnaires in order to apply for a research grant to cover the administration of the final questionnaire. This other study was exploring the use of Holland's Theory of Personality in order to understand consumer behaviour in relation to tourist attractions, with a particular emphasis on industrial tourism attractions.

It was decided to administer the questionnaire in the face-to-face mode since the combined questionnaire was quite large and had sections requiring the interaction of an interviewer. The only interactive section of the questionnaire that was part of this study was the one relating to behaviour at a range of named attractions. This section was facilitated by the use of show cards. It was also considered that a face-to-face in-home interview would lead to a higher questionnaire response rate.

## *6.3 Questionnaire Development*

The questionnaire was divided into four sections, each of which is discussed in the following pages.

### 6.3.1 Attractions: Permanent and Special Events

Since the questionnaire was to be administered to Melbourne residents, it was decided that the attractions chosen for the questionnaire should be clearly recognisable and easily accessible to members of this market. For this reason, the majority of the attractions listed were Victorian based, with many being in Melbourne.

The special events that were included in the questionnaire came from the following categories:

- Events that Tourism Victoria classes as the state's Hallmark Events,

- Other large Melbourne based events,

- Large international special events,

- Generic un-named special events.

A complete listing of these events is presented in Table 6.1.


## *Table 6.1  List of Special Events Included in the Questionnaire*

**<u>Victoria's Hallmark Events</u>**
Melbourne International Comedy Festival
Melbourne International Festival of the Arts
Melbourne Food and Wine Festival
Australian Formula One Grand Prix
Australian Motorcycle Grand Prix
Ford Australian Open Tennis
Australian Football League Grand Final
Bells Beach Surf Classic
Spring Racing Carnival

**<u>Other Large Melbourne Based Special Events</u>**
Melbourne Moomba Festival
Royal Agricultural Society of Victoria Show (Melbourne Show)
Australian International Air Show

**<u>International Special Event</u>**
A Commonwealth or Olympic Games

**<u>Generic Un-named Special Events</u>**
A Major Sporting Event held in Victoria
A Regional Community Festival or Fair in Victoria
A Major Cultural Event held in Victoria


The last category was included in the questionnaire in order to enable respondents to indicate other types of special events which they had attended but which were not specifically listed on the main show card. Space was left on the answer sheet for the interviewer to include the names of any such events.

The permanent attractions that were included in the questionnaire came from the following categories:

- Victoria's leading tourist attractions according to Tourism Victoria,

- Attractions and tours that could be classed as industrial tourism.

A listing of these permanent attractions is presented in Table 6.2.


## *Table 6.2  Permanent Attractions Included in the Questionnaire*

**<u>Leading Tourism Attractions According to Tourism Victoria</u>**

Sovereign Hill, Ballarat
Penguin Parade, Phillip Island
Puffing Billy, Belgrave
Rialto Towers Observation Deck, Melbourne

**Industrial Tourism Attractions and Tours**
De Bortoli Winery, Dixons Creek
National Gallery of Victoria, Melbourne
Bendigo Pottery, Bendigo
Powerworks (Formerly tour of SEC power plant), Morwell
'Pick-your-own' Fruit and Berry Farm, Drouin West
Bureau of Meteorology, Melbourne
Scienceworks Museum, Melbourne
Our World of Money, Craigieburn (Australian Mint)
Victorian Tapestry Workshop, South Melbourne
Tour of Parliament House, Melbourne
Tour of the Australian Stock Exchange, Melbourne
Backstage tour of the Victorian Arts Centre, Melbourne
Behind the scenes tour of the Melbourne Cricket Ground (MCG)
Tour of Western Wastewater Treatment Plant, Werribee

It should be noted that the second category of permanent attractions contained items that were more closely related to the other research project that was referred to earlier.

As discussed in Chapter Four, much of the research that has been conducted into consumer behaviour in relation to attractions in general and special events in particular, has been destination-based, which has meant that the focus has been on actual visitation to a specific attraction. It appears that little has been done to assess the importance of the earlier stages of the consumer purchase process with respect to a range of attractions.

The model that was developed to underpin this thesis (Figure 1.4) has consumer visit interest and consumer visit intention as important steps prior to actual consumer visitation. It is proposed that an understanding of both visit interest and visit intention is essential in order to be able to explain and predict actual visitation. Actual visitation also has an influence on subsequent visit interest and visit intention and this link needs to be understood in order to explain repeat visitation and visitation at similar attractions. It was, therefore, fundamental to this study that visitation be explored on three dimensions, namely, past visitation, visit interest, and visit intention.

Respondents were asked the following three questions in relation to each of the attractions: have you ever visited the attraction?; how interested are you in visiting the attraction in the future?; and how likely are you to visit the attraction in the next twelve months (or the next time the event occurs)? Responses to past visitation were recorded using a dichotomous yes-no scale, whilst responses to the visit interest and visit intention questions were recorded on seven-point Likert scales.

## 6.3.2 Values

The LOV was chosen as the basis for assessing values, and respondents were asked to use a seven-point Likert scale to rate the importance of particular values as guiding principles in their lives. Rokeach (1979) suggested that many respondents rate most values as important or very important, which, if true, would lead to a concentration of responses at one end of the scale. If this were to occur, the discriminating power of the values would be reduced in the sense that it would be difficult to identify the differential contribution of any particular value to the focal tourist decisions. To try to ameliorate this effect, and to assess the stability, coherence and comprehensiveness of the LOV elements, a number of additional values was added to the nine values included in the LOV. A number of the items that were added were chosen to encourage respondents to make full use of the entire scale (for example, values such as 'dominating others' and 'materialism' were expected to result in usage of the lower divisions of the scale). The additional items were randomly interspersed with the nine original LOV items. The items included in the LOV and the items that were added to it are presented in Table 6.3.

*Table 6.3  Values included in the Questionnaire*

<u>**Original List of Values (LOV)**</u>
Self fulfilment
Security
Accomplishment
Belonging
Warm relationships with others
Being well respected
Excitement
Self respect
Fun and enjoyment in life

<u>**Items that were added to the LOV**</u>
Ambition
Self reliance
Individuality
Wealth
Popularity
Spirituality
Status
Solitude
Materialism
Competing with others
Dominating others

Respondents were also asked to rank the three values that they regarded as the most important guiding principles in their lives. This step also helped to overcome the problem of position bias in that it forced respondents to commit to the values that they deemed most important in a relative sense. This also allowed for later comparison of measuring values using ratings and rankings.

## 6.3.3 AIOs
<u>Activities</u>

Despite an extensive search, no comprehensive list of leisure activities in an Australian setting was found. Tinsley and Eldredge (1995) compiled a list of 82 leisure activities in the United States which they classed as a "representative sample" (p. 124), although there was no indication in the article as to how this list was actually compiled. The list appears to be based upon earlier work by Tinsley and Johnson (1984), and given that Tinsley has been researching and publishing on leisure activities for over 20 years, the list would be regarded as having credibility. Leisure can be broken into two components, "At home at leisure" (Lynch and Veal 1996, p. 195), and leisure away from the home. Given that the topic of this thesis is special events which is an away from home activity, the

interest was in assessing which away from home activities could be seen as complements to, or replacements for, special events. The 'at home leisure activities' were therefore deleted from the 82 activities in the Tinsley and Eldredge list.

In late 1996, Tourism Victoria released the Victorian Regional Travel and Tourism Survey 1995 (RTS) (Tourism Victoria 1996) which included a list of leisure activities as a core element of the study. Since the RTS used a very large number of questionnaires to examine tourism behaviour, it was decided to incorporate the leisure activities used in the RTS so that it would be possible, if needed at a later stage, to make comparisons between the studies. Providing such a 'bridge' between the studies enhances the likelihood of being able to generalise some of the findings of this study. There was, however, an overlap between the RTS list and the Tinsley and Eldredge list.

In order to remove the 'at home leisure activities' and the activities not relevant to Australia from the list taken from Tinsley and Eldredge, the master list was edited and this edit was reviewed by three independent judges. There were 21 activities that all three judges deleted and 19 activities that two judges deleted. As a consequence, 40 activities were deleted at this stage.

Activities listed in Tinsley and Eldredge that were also listed in the RTS were deleted from the Tinsley and Eldredge list. This resulted in a further 20 deletions.

The list of leisure activities that was used in the pre-test phase of the questionnaire is presented in Appendix C.

Interests

An extensive literature review was conducted to identify key dimensions that had been used in relation to tourism and leisure behaviour, especially as it related to special events. The following list contains the key dimensions so identified: excitement/thrills, novelty, socialisation, family togetherness, stimulus seeking, meeting new people, learning and discovery, escape from routine, nostalgia,

physical exercise, creativity, relaxation, status, self actualisation, sense of separation, fantasy, peer pressure, regression, intellectual, stimulus avoidance, competence/mastery, education, and ego.

Items were derived from the literature for each of the dimensions identified, resulting in 61 statements that were used in the pre-test questionnaire. These statements are listed in Appendix C.

Opinions

The Roy Morgan Research Centre (RMRC) has been conducting a value based segmentation study for Tourism Victoria for a number of years and this segmentation is based upon consumer responses to some key opinions. Since value segmentation is an important component of this research project, it was decided to incorporate the opinions used in the segmentation work by RMRC. Four other opinion statements were added to the five used in the RMRC work, all of which are listed in Appendix C.

Pre-testing of AIOs

A questionnaire comprising the statements discussed in the previous sections was administered to a group of 62 students and academics. The data were entered into SPSS and analysed using Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) with a view to identifying key underlying factors that could be used to reduce the size of the questionnaire. The EFA extracted 11 factors with eigenvalues greater than one which explained 100 percent of the variance. The factors showed high reliabilities, with most having Cronbach alphas in excess of 0.7.

In order to reduce the total number of statements in the AIO section from 111 to a more manageable level, the following steps were taken:

Activities

The list was restricted to the 25 items that were contained in the RTM, which involved the deletion of 16 other activity items. Of the activity items deleted, half

had mean values that were ranked towards the bottom of the list of means arranged in descending order.

Interests

The two highest loading interest items were selected from each of the 11 factors that were extracted. Added to this list, were two interest items that rated highly in terms of mean value and were strongly endorsed in the literature as being important elements.

Opinions

Since there were only nine opinion statements in the preliminary questionnaire, it was decided that deletion of any would result in too little attention being given to opinions.

This resulted in a list of 58 AIO statements (25 activities, 24 interests, and nine opinions). An EFA of the pre-test results was run restricting the analysis to the 58 statements referred to above. The result of this EFA was very similar to the EFA conducted earlier, with both extracting 11 factors that explained comparable variances.

### 6.3.4 Demographics

Questions relating to age, gender, education, family status and income were included in this section of the questionnaire. Categories used in these areas were similar to those used in the RTS study to facilitate any comparison of results of the two studies that may take place at a later stage.

## 6.4  Pilot Testing the Questionnaire

A group of 50 undergraduate tourism students was asked to self-complete the questionnaire and return it to their tutor. Thirty-three questionnaires were returned representing a 66% response rate.

The data from the pilot questionnaire were entered into SPSS and analysed. Initial screening of the returned questionnaires did not identify any major problems

although there did appear to be slight confusion surrounding the wording used in a couple of the questions. The wording in these suspect questions was modified for the final questionnaire. The section that caused the most problem in terms of incorrect responses was the one that asked respondents to list the three values that were most important as guiding principles in their life. Of the respondents who did not answer this section correctly, some ranked all 20 values whilst others rated each of the values using a three-point scale. Given that the final questionnaire was to be administered in face-to-face mode by a trained interviewer, it was considered that this difficulty would be overcome with the involvement of the interviewer.

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) that was conducted on the responses to the AIO section extracted 17 factors with eigenvalues in excess of one, which explained 89% of the total variance. The factors extracted had high face validity and quite high reliability, based on Cronbach alphas. These factors were quite similar to those that were extracted during the questionnaire development phase.

An EFA of the LOV extracted factors that were consistent with the factors extracted in the work of Madrigal and Kahle (1994).

### 6.5 Questionnaire Administration

The bases for the selection of the sampling frame and the selection of the survey sample itself were discussed in Chapter Three. It has also been mentioned that receipt of research funding enabled the commissioning of a marketing research company to actually administer the questionnaire. However, it should be reiterated that the development of the questionnaire, the selection of the sampling frame, and the briefing of interviewers, were all conducted by this researcher.

A copy of the final questionnaire is presented in Appendix D.

# CHAPTER 7

# RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

## 7.1 Introduction

This chapter reports and discusses the responses to the in-home questionnaire that was used to gather data about consumer behaviour in relation to attractions in general, and special events in particular. The analysis that is reported in this chapter enables testing of the hypotheses that were developed in Chapter Five. Since three segmentation techniques were used in relation to 34 named visitor attractions over three dimensions of visitation, the analysis is, by necessity, somewhat repetitive. However, a systematic comparative assessment such as this has not been conducted previously in relation to special events and the findings help overcome a gap in the literature.

Figure 7.1 provides a diagrammatic representation of the core analysis that was conducted in relation to visitor attractions. This figure provides information on the number of elements in each category, the scale properties, and the type of analysis that was conducted in each case. It can be seen that the LOV, AIOs and demographics were examined over three levels of visitation for a range of permanent attractions and special events.

*Figure 7.1 Relationships between LOV, AIOs and Demographics, and the set of named attractions.*
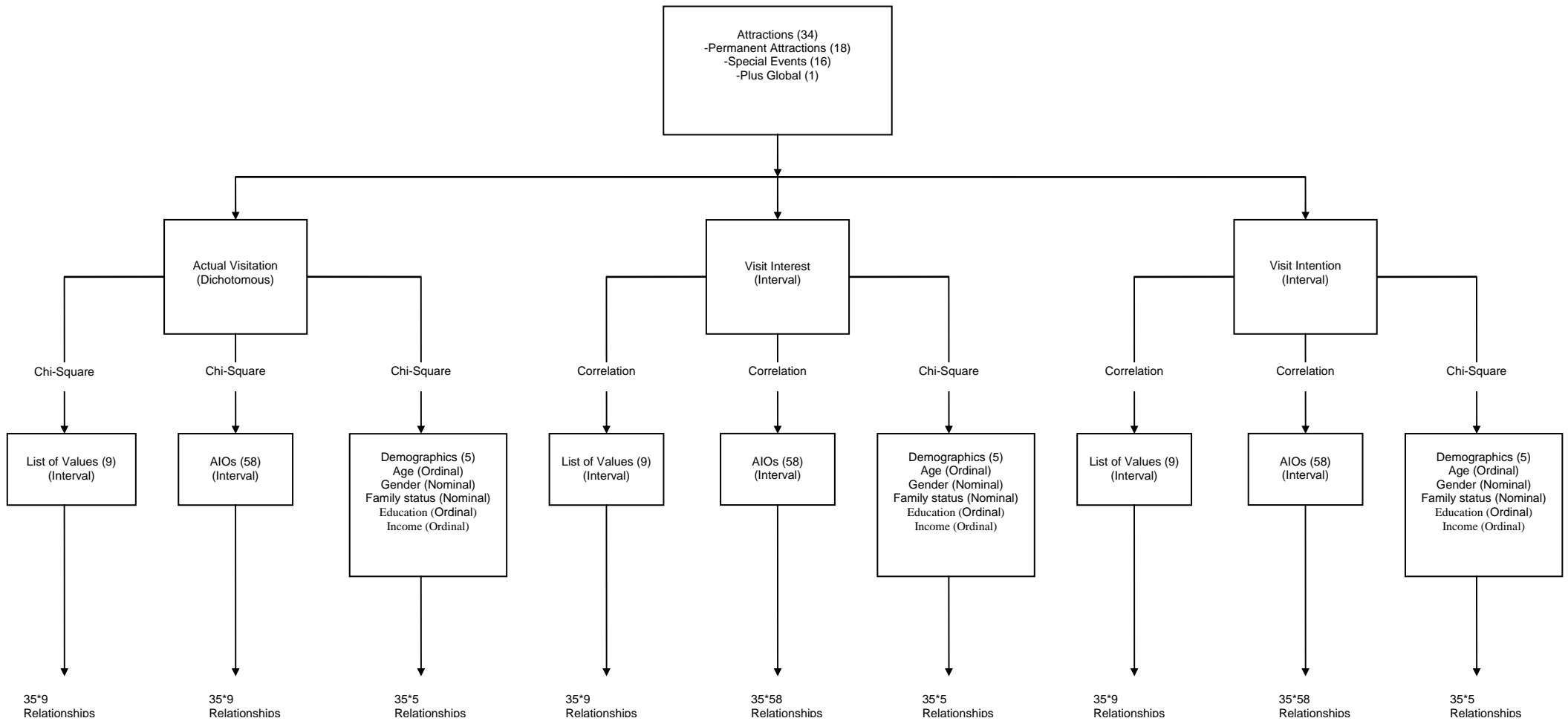
The key objectives of this study were to examine the absolute and relative abilities of the LOV, psychographics, and demographics to explain consumer behaviour in relation to attractions in general, and special events in particular. Consumer behaviour was measured as actual visitation, visit interest, and visit intention, in relation to each of the named attractions. In most of the analysis, therefore, the LOV, psychographics and demographics were treated as the independent variables with the components of visit behaviour being the dependent variables. Since most variables in this study were measured using interval scales, relationships between variables could be assessed using Pearson Correlation Coefficients. For the variables that were measured using non-interval scales, namely, demographics and actual visitation, relationships between variables were assessed using chi-square analyses. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was employed to assess the relationships between the two types of variables in situations where the independent variable was categorical and the dependent variable was measured using an interval scale.

Since much of the analysis that was conducted here was multi-dimensional in nature, the order in which the hypotheses were tested was not necessarily consistent with the order in which the hypotheses were introduced in Chapter Five. Just as the order of presentation of the hypotheses in Chapter Five was kept in line with a logical flow, so too has the order of hypotheses testing been kept in line with the natural flow of analysis. This has been done to facilitate reading the thesis. Results have been presented in sections to make the chapter easier to follow, and at the start of many of the sections there are diagrammatic representations of the analysis that has been conducted in the relevant section to further assist the reader.

The list below provides a guide to the order of analysis that was conducted and an indication of the statistical procedures and/or tests that were used in each section. Listed in square brackets, are the hypotheses that were tested in each section.

Actual Visitation for All Attractions (Dichotomous Variable)

     -Frequencies

Visit Interest for All Attractions (Seven-point Likert Scale)

[Hypothesis 1]

     -Mean ratings

     -EFA (all attractions)

     -EFA (special events)

Visit Intention of All Attractions (Seven-point Likert Scale)

[Hypothesis 2]

     -Mean ratings

     -EFA (all attractions)

     -EFA (special events)

LOV (Seven-point Likert Scale and Ranking of Top Three Values)

[Hypotheses 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 12a, 13a]

     -Mean ratings

     -EFA (complete list)

     -EFA (LOV only)

     -Rankings

     -Frequency distribution

     -Demographic differences with respect to (wrt) value profiles [ANOVA]

     -Demographic differences wrt top-ranked value [Chi-square]

     -Comparison of ratings with ranking approaches

     -Relationship with actual visitation [Chi-square]

          -All attractions

          -Permanent attractions

          -Special events

     -Relationship with visit interest [Correlation]

          -All attractions

          -Permanent attractions

          -Special events

-Relationship with visit intention [Correlation]

    -All attractions

    -Permanent attractions

    -Special events

-Relationship between value domains and visit intention [Correlation]

    -All attractions

    -Permanent attractions

    -Special events


AIOs (Seven-point Likert Scale)

[Hypotheses 12b, 13b]

    -EFA

    -Relationship with actual visitation [Chi-square]

        -All attractions

        -Permanent attractions

        -Special events

    -Relationship with visit interest [Correlation]

        -All attractions

        -Permanent attractions

        -Special events

    -Relationship with visit intention [Correlation]

        -All attractions

        -Permanent attractions

        -Special events

    -Demographic differences wrt psychographic profiles [ANOVA]

    -Relationship to LOV [Correlation]


Demographics (Nominal and Ordinal Scales)

[Hypotheses 11, 12c, 13c]

    -Relationship with actual visitation [Chi-square]

        -All attractions

        -Permanent attractions

        -Special events

-Relationship with visit interest [Correlation and Chi-square]

-All attractions

-Permanent attractions

-Special events

-Relationship with visit intention [Correlation and Chi-square]

-All attractions

-Permanent attractions

-Special events

-Relationship to LOV [Correlation and Chi-square]

-Relationship to AIOs [Correlation and Chi-square]

Global Visitation (Sum of Individual Scores Across All Attractions)

-Relationship of LOV to actual visitation [Correlation]

-Relationship of LOV to visit interest [Correlation]

-Relationship of LOV to visit intention [Correlation]

-Relationship of AIOs to actual visitation [Correlation]

-Relationship of AIOs to visit interest [Correlation]

-Relationship of AIOs to visit intention [Correlation]

Past Visitation (Dichotomous Variable)

[Hypotheses 15, 16]

-Relationship to visit interest [ANOVA]

-Relationship to intention [ANOVA]

Predicting Actual Visitation

-Using LOV [Discriminant Analysis]

-Using AIOs [Discriminant Analysis]

-Using demographics [Discriminant Analysis]

Predicting Visit Interest

-Using LOV [Multiple Regression]

-Using AIOs [Multiple Regression]

-Using demographics [Multiple Regression]

-Using combinations [Multiple Regression]


Predicting Visit Intention

[Hypotheses 19, 20, 21, 22]

-Using LOV [Multiple Regression]

-Using AIOs [Multiple Regression]

-Using demographics [Multiple Regression]

-Using combinations [Multiple Regression]


Comparison of High Versus Low Event Visit Intention

[Hypotheses 26, 27, 28]

-LOV profile differences [t-test]

-LOV item differences [t-test]

-AIO profile differences [t-test]

-Demographic differences [Chi-square]


Prediction of High Versus Low Event Visit Intention

-LOV [Discriminant Analysis]

-AIO [Discriminant Analysis]

-Demographics [Discriminant Analysis]

-Visit history [Discriminant Analysis]

-Visit interest [Discriminant Analysis]


Comparison of First Time Versus Repeat Event Patrons

[Hypotheses 23, 24, 25]

-Event differences [Chi-square]

-LOV profile differences [ANOVA]

-AIO profile differences [ANOVA]

-Demographic differences [Chi-square]


Cluster Analyses

[Hypotheses 17, 18, 29, 30, 31]

-LOV domains [ANOVA and Chi-square]

-LOV top-ranked item [ANOVA and Chi-square]

-AIO domains [ANOVA and Chi-square]

-Event visit intention domains [ANOVA and Chi-square]

## *7.2 Survey Response*

Five hundred completed questionnaires were collected and the data were entered into SPSS. Descriptives were run to identify missing or incorrect data in the questionnaire sections that were to be used in this study, namely, actual visitation, interest in visiting, intention to visit, age, education, family status, gender, LOV, and AIO. It was found that 52 cases had one or more missing data points but since the sample size was quite large and multi-variate statistics were to be employed, it was decided to delete all cases with any data missing. This would also overcome later questions about the use of incomplete returns. Deletion of cases with missing data left 448 fully completed questionnaires.

After deletion of the suspect cases as noted above, the descriptives procedure of SPSS was run on the income variable. It was found that there were 39 cases where the question relating to respondent income had not been completed, which is not surprising given past experience with income related questions in other studies. Deleting cases with a missing income response would involve losing a further nine per cent of the sample which was not desirable given that the income variable would only be used in a relatively small percentage of the statistical analysis. It was decided to determine whether there were differences between respondents who completed the income question and those who did not, prior to making a decision about whether to delete all cases in which the income question had not been answered.

The core focus of this study was the use of various segmentation techniques, including the LOV and AIOs, to predict consumer behaviour. Therefore, it was decided that responses to the LOV and AIO questions would be used as the bases to assess differences between respondents completing the income question and those who did not. 'One way ANOVA' was run to assess these differences and it was found that there were no statistically significant differences at the 95 per cent

confidence level for items in the LOV, and only five per cent of the items in the AIOs demonstrated statistically significant differences. Since the number of statistically significant differences observed was less than one would expect to find by chance, it was decided that the cases containing missing responses for the income question would not be deleted.

Table 7.1 provides demographic information on the 448 respondents that were used in this study. The results presented in this table show that a reasonable coverage of categories was achieved for all demographic variables.

*Table 7.1  Demographic Characteristics of Usable Questionnaire Respondents*

| Respondent Characteristic | Percentage |
|---|---|
| **Gender** | |
| Female | 55 |
| Male | 45 |
| | |
| **Age** | |
| 18-19 | 6 |
| 20-29 | 24 |
| 30-39 | 22 |
| 40-49 | 20 |
| 50-59 | 12 |
| >59 | 16 |
| | |
| **Education** | |
| Primary | 2 |
| Some secondary | 25 |
| Completed secondary | 14 |
| Some technical | 5 |
| Completed technical | 9 |
| Some tertiary | 18 |
| Completed tertiary | 27 |
| | |
| **Family Status** | |
| Married, children at home | 39 |
| Married, no children at home | 16 |
| Married, no children | 7 |
| Not married, children at home | 6 |
| Never married, no children at home | 24 |
| Widowed, no children at home | 4 |
| Divorced, no children | 4 |

*Table 7.1  Demographic Characteristics of Usable Questionnaire Respondents (Continued)*

| Respondent Characteristic | Percentage |
|---|---|
| **Income** | |
| **$/year** | |
| <10000 | 11 |
| 10000-29999 | 30 |
| 30000-49999 | 24 |
| 50000-69999 | 18 |
| 70000-99999 | 11 |
| >99999 | 6 |

## 7.3 Actual Visitation

*Table 7.2 Frequency of Actual Visitation*

| Visitor Attraction | Respondents Having Visited (Percentage) |
|---|---|
| Melbourne Moomba Festival | 82 |
| Penguin Parade | 79 |
| Royal Agricultural Society of Victoria Show | 78 |
| Puffing Billy | 77 |
| Sovereign Hill | 77 |
| National Gallery of Victoria | 74 |
| A Regional Community Festival or Fair in Victoria | 48 |
| Scienceworks Museum | 42 |
| A Major Sporting Event held in Victoria | 39 |
| Spring Racing Carnival | 38 |
| Rialto Towers Observation Deck | 38 |
| A Major Cultural Event held in Victoria | 37 |
| Australian Football League Grand Final | 36 |
| Bendigo Pottery | 35 |
| Ford Australian Open Tennis | 35 |
| Tour of Parliament House | 28 |
| International Festival of the Arts | 27 |
| Melbourne International Comedy Festival | 23 |
| Behind the scenes tour of the Melbourne Cricket Ground | 19 |
| Melbourne Food and Wine Festival | 19 |
| Australian International Airshow | 17 |
| Powerworks | 14 |
| Australian Formula One Grand Prix | 14 |
| A Commonwealth or Olympic Games | 14 |
| Backstage tour of the Victorian Arts Centre | 13 |
| De Bortoli Winery | 12 |
| Bells Beach Surf Classic | 12 |
| Tour of the Australian Stock Exchange | 10 |
| "Pick-your-own" Fruit and Berry Farm | 9 |
| Tour of Western Wastewater Treatment Plant | 8 |
| Our World of Money | 8 |
| Bureau of Meteorology | 6 |
| Australian Motorcycle Grand Prix | 6 |
| Victorian Tapestry Workshop | 6 |

The frequency analysis of actual visitation is presented in Table 7.2, and shows that actual visitation overall was quite low. Of the 34 attractions listed in the questionnaire, only six had been visited by over 50 per cent of the respondents, and of these only two were events. At the other end of the spectrum, there were 17 attractions that had been visited by less than 25 per cent of the respondents. An average of 32 per cent of respondents had visited any given attraction.

## 7.4 Visit Interest

```
┌─────────────────┐                        ┌─────────────────┐
│        1        │                        │        2        │
│                 │       Exploratory      │   Attraction    │
│  Visit Interest │ ─────────────────────▶ │  Visit Interest │
│  All Attractions│    Factor Analysis     │    Domains      │
│    (Interval)   │                        │                 │
└─────────────────┘                        └─────────────────┘


┌─────────────────┐                        ┌─────────────────┐
│        3        │                        │        4        │
│                 │       Exploratory      │  Special Event  │
│  Visit Interest │ ─────────────────────▶ │  Visit Interest │
│  Special Events │    Factor Analysis     │    Domains      │
│    (Interval)   │                        │                 │
└─────────────────┘                        └─────────────────┘
```
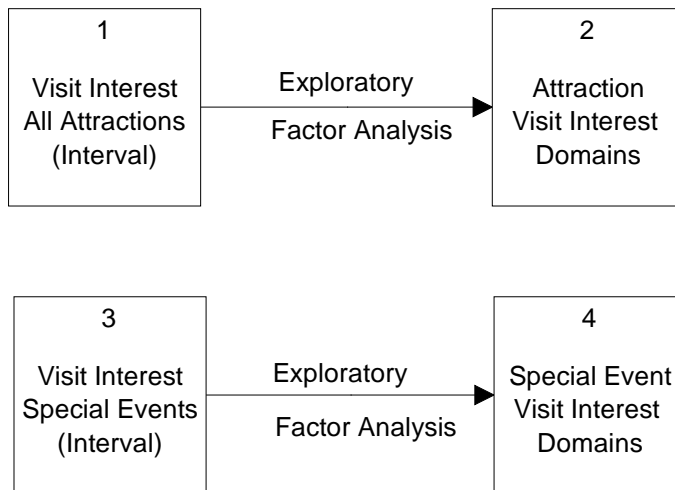
The average 'interest in visiting' across all attractions for all respondents was 3.5, which was below the mid-point, four, of the seven-point scale, thereby indicating a relatively low level of interest. There were only 10 attractions which achieved a mean value above the mid-point of the scale.

An Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was conducted on the 'interest in visiting' the attractions and, using a varimax rotation, nine factors were extracted with eigenvalues greater than one, which explained 57 per cent of the total variation. The output from this EFA is contained in Table 7.3.

Based on the calculation of Cronbach's alpha for each factor, reliabilities on factors other than the last two were quite good, being generally above 0.65. The factors had quite strong face validity which facilitated the task of selecting names that described the theme of each factor grouping. The names selected for the different factors seemed consistent with terms that are often used to categorise visitor attractions, such as, motor sport, major sport, industrial tourism attractions and community festivals.

It was interesting to note that special events and permanent attractions were generally in separate factors. Asterisks are used in Table 7.3 to denote special events as distinct from permanent attractions. It was also interesting to note that the three 'un-named events' were grouped together in a single factor. It can be seen that factors two, three and six comprise events only, whilst factors four, five

and nine involve some mixing of permanent attractions and events. Although factor four contains one permanent attraction, namely, 'a tour of the Melbourne Cricket Ground', it could be argued that this has close ties with sporting events, especially the Australian Football League Grand Final, which explains the fact that it was grouped with such events.

The inclusion of the 'International Festival of the Arts' in factor five with the 'National Gallery of Victoria' and a 'Tour of the Victorian Arts Centre' has strong face validity, especially if the 'Scienceworks Museum', which had low inter-item reliability, is deleted. There is no obvious reason for the 'Melbourne International Comedy Festival' being associated with the 'Rialto Towers Observation Deck' but it should be noted that in the factor loadings, the two items had opposite signs and that the reliability coefficient for this factor was very low.

Hypothesis 1:
Consumers distinguish special events from other types of attractions in terms of their visit interest preferences.

The EFA produced visit interest factors that were reasonably distinct with respect to permanent attractions and special events indicating that respondents did distinguish between these two types of attractions. This supports Hypothesis 1.

*Table 7.3  Exploratory Factor Analysis of Visit Interest for all Visitor Attractions*

| Factor Groupings of Statement Items | Factor Loading | Eigen-value | Variance Explained (Percentage) | Reliability Coefficient |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Industrial Tourist Attractions** | | 6.14 | 18.1 | 0.78 |
| Bureau of Meteorology. | .67 | | | |
| Our World of Money. | .65 | | | |
| Tour of Western Wastewater Treatment Plant | .64 | | | |
| Tour of Parliament House. | .59 | | | |
| Powerworks. | .56 | | | |
| Tour of the Australian Stock Exchange. | .56 | | | |
| "Pick-your-own" Fruit and Berry Farm. | .55 | | | |
| Victorian Tapestry Workshop. | .49 | | | |
| **Motor Sport** | | 3.18 | 9.4 | 0.70 |
| * Australian Motorcycle Grand Prix. | .78 | | | |
| * Australian Formula One Grand Prix. | .67 | | | |
| * Australian International Airshow. | .60 | | | |
| * Bells Beach Surf Classic. | .58 | | | |
| * Spring Racing Carnival. | .38 | | | |
| **Un-named Events** | | 2.11 | 6.2 | 0.66 |
| * A Regional Community Festival or Fair in Victoria. | .75 | | | |
| * A Major cultural Event held in Victoria. | .74 | | | |
| * A Major Sporting Event held in Victoria. | .59 | | | |
| **Major sport** | | 1.63 | 4.8 | 0.66 |
| * Australian Football League Grand Final. | .70 | | | |
| * Ford Australian Open Tennis. | .63 | | | |
| Behind the scenes tour of the Melbourne Cricket Ground. | .56 | | | |
| * A Commonwealth or Olympic Games | .36 | | | |
| **Cultural** | | 1.53 | 4.5 | 0.66 |
| National Gallery of Victoria. | .67 | | | |
| * International Festival of Arts. | .64 | | | |
| Scienceworks Museum. | .63 | | | |
| Backstage tour of the Victorian Arts Centre. | .51 | | | |
| **Community Festivals** | | 1.38 | 4.0 | 0.57 |
| * Melbourne Moomba Festival. | .73 | | | |
| * Royal Agricultural Society of Victoria Show. | .69 | | | |
| * Melbourne Food and Wine Festival. | .46 | | | |
| **Major Tourist Attractions** | | 1.19 | 3.5 | 0.56 |
| Puffing Billy. | .72 | | | |
| Penguin Parade. | .67 | | | |
| Sovereign Hill. | .48 | | | |
| **Industrial2 Tourist Attractions** | | 1.15 | 3.4 | 0.33 |
| De Bortoli Winery. | .72 | | | |
| Bendigo Pottery. | .57 | | | |
| **Miscellaneous** | | 1.00 | 2.9 | 0.13 |
| Rialto Towers Observation Deck. | .47 | | | |
| * Melbourne International Comedy Festival. | -.46 | | | |
| Total Variance Explained | | | 56.8 | |

Note: Asterisked items refer to special events.

As a consequence of this, it was decided to re-run the EFA using only the events. The EFA of the events alone resulted in the extraction of four factors with

eigenvalues greater than one, which explained 55 per cent of the total variation. The results of this EFA are presented in Table 7.4.

Except for the last two items of the first factor, the face validity of the factors was quite high. These two items seem more closely associated with the items in factor three than they do with items in factor one. In fact both items loaded quite strongly on factor three and being in factor one could simply be measurement or analysis artefacts.

*Table 7.4  Exploratory Factor Analysis of Visit Interest for Special Events*

| Factor Groupings of Statement Items | Factor Loading | Eigen-value | Variance Explained (Percentage) | Reliability Coefficient |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Motor Sport** | | 4.12 | 25.7 | 0.71 |
| Australian Motorcycle Grand Prix. | .75 | | | |
| Australian International Air Show. | .69 | | | |
| Australian Formula One Grand Prix. | .64 | | | |
| Bells Beach Surf Classic. | .52 | | | |
| A Commonwealth or Olympic Games. | .39 | | | |
| | | | | |
| **Cultural or Community Festivals** | | 2.07 | 12.9 | 0.69 |
| Melbourne Food and Wine Festival. | .68 | | | |
| Melbourne Moomba Festival. | .66 | | | |
| Melbourne International Comedy Festival. | .62 | | | |
| International Festival of Arts. | .57 | | | |
| Royal Agricultural Society of Victoria Show. | .56 | | | |
| | | | | |
| **Athletic Sport** | | 1.31 | 8.2 | 0.60 |
| Australian Football League Grand Final. | .76 | | | |
| Ford Australian Open Tennis. | .67 | | | |
| Spring Racing Carnival. | .48 | | | |
| | | | | |
| **Un-named Events** | | 1.24 | 7.8 | 0.66 |
| A Major Cultural Event held in Victoria. | .78 | | | |
| A Regional Community Festival or Fair in Victoria. | .76 | | | |
| A Major Sporting Event held in Victoria. | .65 | | | |
| | | | | |
| Total Variance Explained | | | 54.7 | |

It was interesting to note that the un-named events again grouped into a single factor and that the underlying themes behind the other factors seem consistent with the groupings that one could develop based on anecdotal evidence, namely, motor sport, athletic sport  and cultural.

## 7.5 Visit Intention

| 1 | Exploratory | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| Visit Intention All Attractions (Interval) | Factor Analysis → | Attraction Visit Intention Domains |

| 3 | Exploratory | 4 |
|---|---|---|
| Visit Intention Special Events (Interval) | Factor Analysis → | Special Event Visit Intention Domains |
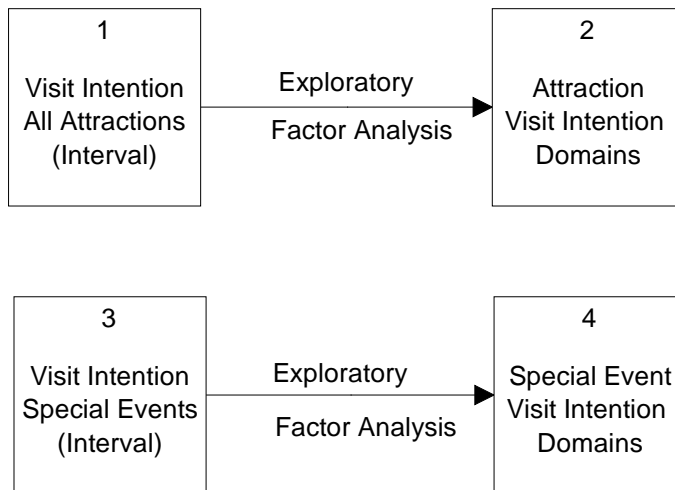
The average 'intention to visit' across all attractions for all respondents was 3.0, which was below the mid-point of the scale, thereby indicating a relatively low level of visit intention. Only one attraction, the Rialto Observation Deck, achieved a mean value above the mid-point of the scale.

An Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was conducted on the 'intention to visit' all attractions and, using a varimax rotation, eight factors were extracted with eigenvalues greater than one, which explained 55 per cent of the total variation. The output from this EFA is contained in Table 7.5. Asterisks are once again used to distinguish events from permanent attractions on the list.

The factor groupings were not dissimilar to those extracted from the EFA on 'visit interest'. Examination of the factors revealed that there was again quite a clear split between the events and the permanent attractions in the complete list of visitor attractions. The un-named events again grouped together in a single factor. Factors two, three and five involved some mixing of permanent attractions and events but most of this mixing can be fairly simply rationalised. In factor two, which was a major sport grouping, the only non-event to appear was 'a tour of the Melbourne Cricket Ground' which, for the reasons given in the previous section, was consistent with such a grouping. In factor three there were two non-event items which seem to have face validity in terms of their association since they are aligned with culture. It should be noted that these two permanent attractions also

loaded quite heavily on other factors, especially factor one. There is no obvious explanation for the inclusion of one attraction with the two events in factor five.

*Table 7.5 Exploratory Factor Analysis of Visit Intention for all Visitor Attractions*

| Factor Groupings of Statement Items | Factor Loading | Eigen-value | Variance Explained (Percentage) | Reliability Coefficient |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Industrial Tourist Attractions** | | 7.25 | 21.3 | 0.78 |
| Bureau of Meteorology. | .70 | | | |
| Tour of Parliament House. | .68 | | | |
| Tour of the Australian Stock Exchange. | .63 | | | |
| Tour of the Western Wastewater Treatment Plant. | .62 | | | |
| Our World of Money. | .58 | | | |
| Victorian Tapestry Workshop. | .56 | | | |
| "Pick-your-own" Fruit and Berry Farm. | .47 | | | |
| **Major Sport** | | 2.97 | 8.7 | 0.76 |
| * Australian Motorcycle Grand Prix. | .74 | | | |
| * Bells Beach Surf Classic. | .67 | | | |
| * Australian Formula One Grand Prix. | .63 | | | |
| * Australian Football League Grand Final. | .60 | | | |
| * Australian International Air Show. | .47 | | | |
| * A Commonwealth or Olympic Games. | .46 | | | |
| Behind the scenes tour of the Melbourne Cricket Ground. | .45 | | | |
| **Cultural** | | 2.03 | 6.0 | 0.76 |
| * Melbourne International Comedy Festival. | .73 | | | |
| * International Festival of the Arts. | .72 | | | |
| * Melbourne Food and Wine Festival. | .56 | | | |
| National Gallery of Victoria. | .54 | | | |
| Backstage tour of the Victorian Arts Centre. | .54 | | | |
| **Major Tourist Attractions** | | 1.54 | 4.5 | 0.61 |
| Sovereign Hill. | .67 | | | |
| Puffing Billy. | .66 | | | |
| Penguin Parade. | .64 | | | |
| Scienceworks Museum. | .36 | | | |
| **Social Contexts** | | 1.50 | 4.4 | 0.54 |
| * Ford Australian Open Tennis. | .64 | | | |
| De Bortoli Winery. | .60 | | | |
| * Spring Racing Carnival. | .51 | | | |
| **Un-named events** | | 1.30 | 3.8 | 0.56 |
| * A Regional Community Festival or Fair in Victoria. | .74 | | | |
| * A Major Cultural Event held in Victoria. | .67 | | | |
| * A Major Sporting Event held in Victoria. | .56 | | | |
| **Community Festivals** | | 1.09 | 3.2 | 0.60 |
| * Melbourne Moomba Festival. | .71 | | | |
| * Royal Agricultural Society of Victoria Show. | .70 | | | |
| **Industrial 2** | | 1.02 | 3.0 | 0.31 |
| Bendigo Pottery. | .60 | | | |
| Powerworks. | .52 | | | |
| Rialto Towers Observation Deck. | -.41 | | | |
| Total Variance Explained | | | 55.0 | |

Note: Asterisked items refer to events.

Hypothesis 2:

Consumers distinguish special events from other types of attractions in terms of their visit intention preferences.

The EFA produced visit intention factors that were reasonably distinct with respect to permanent attractions and special events indicating that respondents did distinguish between these two types of attractions. This supports Hypothesis 2.

Since the EFA of all the attractions listed in the questionnaire again resulted in a reasonable split between permanent attractions and events, it was decided to re-run the EFA using only the events. The EFA of the events alone resulted in the extraction of four factors with eigenvalues greater than one, which explained 55 per cent of the total variation. The results of this EFA are presented in Table 7.6.

*Table 7.6  Exploratory Factor Analysis of Visit Intention for Special Events*

| Factor Groupings of Statement Items | Factor Loading | Eigen-value | Variance Explained (Percentage) | Reliability Coefficient |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Mega-sport** | | 4.52 | 28.2 | 0.76 |
| Australian Formula One Grand Prix. | .73 | | | |
| Australian Football League Grand Final. | .70 | | | |
| Australian Motorcycle Grand Prix. | .69 | | | |
| Bells Beach Surf Classic. | .56 | | | |
| Spring Racing Carnival. | .48 | | | |
| Ford Australian Open Tennis. | .47 | | | |
| A Commonwealth or Olympic Games. | .41 | | | |
| **Cultural** | | 1.88 | 11.8 | 0.76 |
| International Festival of the Arts. | .76 | | | |
| Melbourne Food and Wine Festival. | .74 | | | |
| Melbourne International Comedy Festival. | .72 | | | |
| **Popular Festivals** | | 1.27 | 7.9 | 0.59 |
| Royal Agricultural Society of Victoria Show. | .74 | | | |
| Melbourne Moomba Festival. | .66 | | | |
| Australian International Air Show. | .59 | | | |
| **Un-named events** | | 1.18 | 7.4 | 0.56 |
| A Regional Community Festival or Fair in Victoria. | .75 | | | |
| A Major Cultural Event held in Victoria. | .73 | | | |
| A Major Sporting Event held in Victoria. | .58 | | | |
| Total Variance Explained | | | 55.3 | |

The factors extracted generally had high face validity except for some ambiguity caused by the inclusion of the 'Australian International Airshow' in factor three. However, one could argue that it was simply a measurement problem that this event was in factor three, as it also had a high loading on factor one. Based on the calculation of Cronbach's alpha, the overall reliability of factor three improved marginally if this particular item was deleted. In conducting a cluster analysis of

the intention to visit these events, it could be seen that this item grouped with the other motorised sports, namely, 'Australian Formula One Grand Prix' and 'Australian Motor Cycle Grand Prix'.

Hypothesis 14:

There is a positive relationship between visit interest and visit intention with respect to attractions.

It should be noted that there was quite a strong correlation between 'visit interest' and 'visit intention' ranging from 0.62 for 'Sovereign Hill' to 0.91 for the 'Melbourne Moomba Festival'. The average correlation was 0.83 (0.86 for special events and 0.81 for permanent attractions). These results are not unexpected given the common assertion that interest tends to lead to intention. The correlations found here lend support for Hypothesis 14.

### 7.6 Values

A list containing all of the personal values that were used in this study, arranged in descending order in terms of mean ratings, is presented in Table 7.7.

The nine items in the original LOV, which are denoted by asterisks in Table 7.7, fell within the first 12 places, with only positions six, nine and 11 being occupied by items inserted to test consumer use of the response scale. None of the original LOV items had a mean value below 5.3 on the seven-point scale. The inclusion of the additional values to encourage respondents to make greater use of the full scale succeeded in that the resultant mean values ranged from 2.5 to 6.4 on the seven-point scale. The fact that the values which were added in this study largely grouped in the lower part of the list of means lends some support to the stability of the original LOV scale. The mean value of the mean ratings for all 20 items in the list was 5.2, whilst the mean value of the mean ratings of the original nine LOV items was 5.9 on the seven-point scale.

*Table 7.7  Mean Ratings for the extended list of Personal Values*

| Personal Value | Mean Rating | Standard Deviation |
|---|---|---|
| 1. Self Respect * | 6.4 | 0.9 |
| 2. Warm relationship with others * | 6.2 | 1.1 |
| 3. Fun and enjoyment in life * | 6.2 | 1.0 |
| 4. Security * | 6.1 | 1.0 |
| 5. Self fulfilment * | 6.1 | 1.1 |
| 6. Self reliance | 6.0 | 1.2 |
| 7. Being well respected * | 5.9 | 1.2 |
| 8. Accomplishment * | 5.8 | 1.2 |
| 9. Individuality | 5.5 | 1.4 |
| 10. Belonging * | 5.5 | 1.4 |
| 11. Ambition | 5.4 | 1.6 |
| 12. Excitement * | 5.3 | 1.5 |
| 13. Popularity | 4.8 | 1.4 |
| 14. Wealth | 4.8 | 1.6 |
| 15. Spirituality | 4.8 | 1.9 |
| 16. Solitude | 4.6 | 1.6 |
| 17. Status | 4.0 | 1.7 |
| 18. Materialism | 3.7 | 1.6 |
| 19. Competing with others | 3.6 | 1.9 |
| 20. Dominating others | 2.5 | 1.6 |

*Original LOV items.

## 7.6.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)
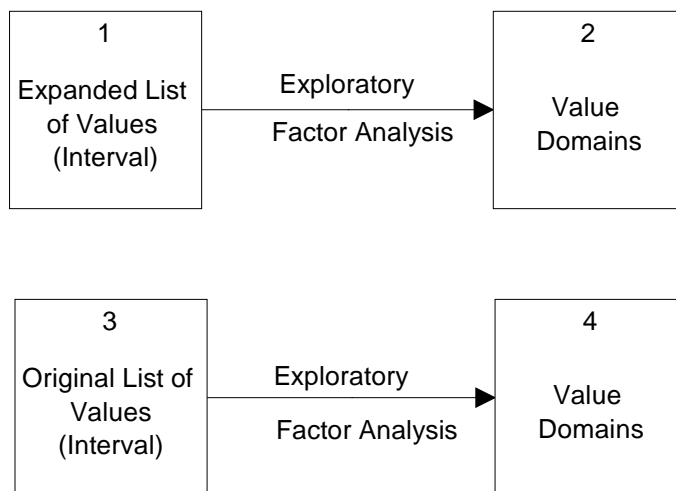


An EFA using a varimax rotation resulted in the extraction of five factors with eigenvalues in excess of one, which explained 58 per cent of the total variance. Although there was some 'mixing' within the factors of the traditional LOV items and the additional values that were added, the factors were generally divided into those comprising traditional LOV items and those comprising the additional

items. This tended to further support the stability of the original LOV scale. The output of the EFA is presented in Table 7.8.

The face validity and reliability of the factors extracted were quite high despite the fact that the items were based on the nine items in the LOV as well as a somewhat arbitrary collection of 11 other items that were inserted purely to act as a counter to the LOV items on the rating scale. Given this, it is probably unwise to read too much into these particular factors. It is interesting however, that the original LOV items fell largely into two factors.

*Table 7.8  Exploratory Factor Analysis of the Extended List of Values*

| Factor Groupings of Statement Items | Factor Loading | Eigen-value | Variance Explained (Percentage) | Reliability Coefficient |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Enjoyment** | | 5.67 | 28.2 | 0.81 |
| * Fun and enjoyment in life. | .71 | | | |
| * Excitement. | .69 | | | |
| * Self Respect. | .62 | | | |
| Ambition. | .58 | | | |
| * Self fulfilment. | .55 | | | |
| * Being well respected. | .51 | | | |
| * Accomplishment. | .50 | | | |
| | | | | |
| **Power** | | 2.21 | 11.1 | 0.74 |
| Competing with others. | .79 | | | |
| Dominating others. | .78 | | | |
| Status. | .65 | | | |
| Materialism. | .57 | | | |
| | | | | |
| **Affiliation** | | 1.44 | 7.2 | 0.58 |
| * Belonging. | .71 | | | |
| * Warm relationship with others. | .64 | | | |
| Popularity. | .58 | | | |
| Spirituality. | .54 | | | |
| | | | | |
| **Materialistic** | | 1.28 | 6.4 | 0.43 |
| Wealth. | .74 | | | |
| * Security. | .43 | | | |
| | | | | |
| **Solitude** | | 1.08 | 5.4 | 0.54 |
| Solitude. | .70 | | | |
| Individuality. | .68 | | | |
| Self reliance. | .49 | | | |
| | | | | |
| Total Variance Explained | | | 58.4 | |

* Original LOV items.

An EFA was then conducted on the items in the original LOV and using a varimax rotation, two factors were extracted with eigenvalues greater than one, which explained 53 per cent of the total variance. The results of this EFA are presented in Table 7.9. The reliability of both these factors was quite high based on the calculation of Cronbach's alpha.

*Table 7.9  Exploratory Factor Analysis of the Original List of Values*

| Factor Groupings of Statement Items | Factor Loading | Eigen-value | Variance Explained (Percentage) | Reliability Coefficient |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Achievement (LOVF1)** | | 3.75 | 41.7 | 0.74 |
| Self fulfilment. | .76 | | | |
| Accomplishment. | .70 | | | |
| Security. | .68 | | | |
| Excitement. | .63 | | | |
| Fun and enjoyment in life. | .48 | | | |
| | | | | |
| **Affiliation (LOVF2)** | | 1.01 | 11.2 | 0.73 |
| Warm relationship with others. | .81 | | | |
| Belonging. | .76 | | | |
| Being well respected. | .69 | | | |
| Self respect. | .47 | | | |
| | | | | |
| Total Variance Explained | | | 52.8 | |

Hypothesis 5:
The values that constitute the LOV underpinned by a small number of value domains.

The results presented in Table 7.9 provides support for Hypothesis 5.

## 7.6.2 Value Domains

Madrigal and Kahle (1994) hypothesised that the items in the LOV "represent a smaller number of domains that reflect either external or internal orientations" (p. 24). In a study based on a convenience sample of 394, Madrigal and Kahle extracted four factors, which are reproduced in Table 7.10, that supported their hypothesis.

The study conducted in this thesis used a larger sample than that used by Madrigal and Kahle and it was randomly selected unlike the sample used by Madrigal and Kahle. As mentioned earlier, the EFA of the LOV extracted two factors, as presented in Table 7.9, thereby supporting the hypothesis that there is a small number of dimensions underlying the LOV. The two factors that were extracted were virtually a collapse of Madrigal and Kahle's four factors: factors two and three in Madrigal and Kahle's study became factor one in this study, and factors one and four in the earlier study became factor two in this study. The one value that was an exception to this trend was 'security' which appeared in factor one in this study but should have appeared in factor two to be consistent with the

Madrigal and Kahle findings. Therefore, it could be argued that the factors produced in this study are fundamentally consistent with the work of Madrigal and Kahle (1994), but indeed comprise a more parsimonious list of the underlying values.

*Table 7.10  Madrigal and Kahle (1994) Value Domains*

| Factor | Items | Value Domain |
|---|---|---|
| 1 | Sense of belonging<br>Being well respected<br>Security | External |
| 2 | Fun and enjoyment<br>Excitement | Enjoyment/Excitement |
| 3 | Sense of accomplishment<br>Self fulfilment | Achievement |
| 4 | Self-respect<br>Warm relationships | Egocentrism |

Other EFAs were conducted on the LOV by Kahle (1983) and Homer and Kahle (1988), each producing slightly different factor groupings which were explained and justified using a variety of arguments. The single factor that was consistent in these studies was the one listed above as factor one which included 'sense of belonging', 'being well-respected' and 'security'. This factor was classed as an external factor. In the current study, this factor is the one that is split with 'security', appearing in a separate factor to the other two items. In the other studies that have been mentioned, much was made of the fact that this particular factor represented an external focus and was consistent across the studies. Table 7.11 presents the factors that were extracted in the study conducted by Homer and Kahle (1988).

*Table 7.11  Homer and Kahle (1988) Value Domains*

| Value | Value Domain |
|---|---|
| Self-fulfilment<br>Excitement<br>Sense of accomplishment<br>Self-respect | Individual |
| Sense of belonging<br>Being well-respected | External |

Security

| | |
|---|---|
| Fun and enjoyment | Interpersonal |
| Warm relationships | |

Kamakura and Novak (1992) conducted a study of the LOV that interpreted the individual values with respect to motivational domains. These motivational domains are similar to what was classed as value domains in the other studies. The motivational domains that were proposed by Kamakura and Novak are listed in Table 7.12.

*Table 7.12 Kamakura and Novak (1992) Motivational Domains*

| Value | Motivational Domain |
|---|---|
| Self-respect<br>Self-fulfilment | Self-direction |
| Accomplishment<br>Well-respected | Achievement |
| Fun and enjoyment<br>Excitement | Enjoyment |
| Belonging<br>Warm relationships | Maturity |
| Security | Security |

It was interesting to note that 'security' was a separate value in the work of Kamakura and Novak. It was also interesting that 'well-respected' went with 'accomplishment' in an achievement domain as opposed to having 'accomplishment' with 'self-fulfilment' in this domain. There was not a clear external domain in this study, unlike the others that have been reported. This demonstrates that there is substantial scope for interpretation in this work.

In the study that is the focus of this thesis, 'security' was included with 'self-fulfilment' and 'accomplishment' and it could be argued that achieving personal fulfilment and having a sense of accomplishment, gives one a sense of security. However, if one accepts that 'sense of belonging', 'being well-respected' and

'security' are the three external items, then clearly there was not a single factor here that represented an external focus.

The first factor in this study combined an achievement domain ('Self-fulfilment' and 'Sense of accomplishment') and a hedonistic domain ('Excitement' and 'Fun and Enjoyment'). Although one could argue that the extra item, 'security', could have some association with the achievement domain, the association was not as obvious as the other connections. The second factor that was extracted in this study combined a respect domain ('Being well-respected' and 'Self-respect') and an affiliation domain ('Warm relationships' and 'Sense of belonging').

*Table 7.13  Keng and Yang (1993) Value Domains*

| Value | Value Domain |
|---|---|
| Self-respect | Respect |
| Being well-respected | |
| | |
| Security | Harmony |
| Sense of belonging | |
| Warm relationships | |
| | |
| Self-fulfilment | Achievement |
| A sense of accomplishment | |
| | |
| Fun and enjoyment | Hedonism |
| Excitement | |

Keng and Yang (1993) produced value domains that are presented in Table 7.13. There are strong similarities between the groupings in Table 7.13 and the value domains identified in the factors that were extracted from the EFA of the LOV in this study. Indeed, it was once again only the value 'security' that prevented the two groupings of values from being identical. Removing 'Security' from the domain listed by Keng and Yang as harmony, converts the remaining items to affiliation. As stated earlier, one could argue a case that 'Security' could be included in Keng and Yang's domain described as achievement without substantially changing its meaning.

Thrane (1997) used the LOV to explore the vacation motives of a stratified sample of 401 Norwegian residents. The EFA conducted by Thrane extracted two factors, as presented in Table 7.14, that were very similar to those extracted in this study. Indeed, there was only a single difference between the factor groupings in these two studies and this difference once again related to 'security'.

*Table 7.14  Thrane (1997) Value Domains*

| Value | Domains |
|---|---|
| **Factor 1** | **External** |
| Security | |
| Being well respected | |
| Self-respect | |
| Belonging | |
| Warm relationships | |
| | |
| **Factor 2** | **Internal** |
| Excitement | |
| Fun and enjoyment | |
| Self-fulfilment | |
| Accomplishment | |

Thrane (1997) concluded that the two factors extracted in his study had external and internal foci respectively. Factor 1 was classed as external because it was considered that the "majority of the values relate to other persons" (p. 237) and factor 2 was classed as internal because the values indicated an internal orientation.

Table 7.15 compares the value domains of the LOV items in each of the value studies that has been discussed. It is clear from this table that 'security' in the current study has been placed in a factor that is the opposite to its location in all of the other studies. The consistency of this result does call into question the validity of the finding in this study.

*Table 7.15  Comparison of Value Factors across Studies*

| Value | This Study | Thrane (1997) | Madrigal and Kahle (1994) | Homer and Kahle (1988) | Keng and Yang (1993) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Self-fulfilment | Achievement | Internal | Achievement | Individual | Achievement |
| Accomplishment | Achievement | Internal | Achievement | Individual | Achievement |
| Security | Achievement | External | External | External | Harmony |
| Excitement | Achievement | Internal | Enjoyment | Individual | Hedonism |
| Fun and enjoyment | Achievement | Internal | Enjoyment | Interpersonal | Hedonism |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Warm relationships | Affiliation | External | Egocentrism | Interpersonal | Harmony |
| Belonging | Affiliation | External | External | External | Harmony |
| Being well-respected | Affiliation | External | External | External | Respect |
| Self-respect | Affiliation | External | Egocentrism | Individual | Respect |

Hypothesis 8:

The values that constitute the LOV reflect an internal or external orientation.

Based on the results of this study, therefore, it is clear that there is a smaller number of underlying value domains to the LOV. Earlier discussion of other studies that have explored the orientation of value domains indicates substantial flexibility in the interpretation of such domains. However, most of the earlier studies are fairly consistent with respect to the specific values that group together as the external domain. If these particular values are accepted as forming the external factor, then it is not possible to support Hypothesis 8 in this study. Given the apparent scope for interpretation of these factors, however, more research needs to be conducted to assess the true orientation of these domains.

## 7.6.3 The Relationship Between Value Domains and Behaviour
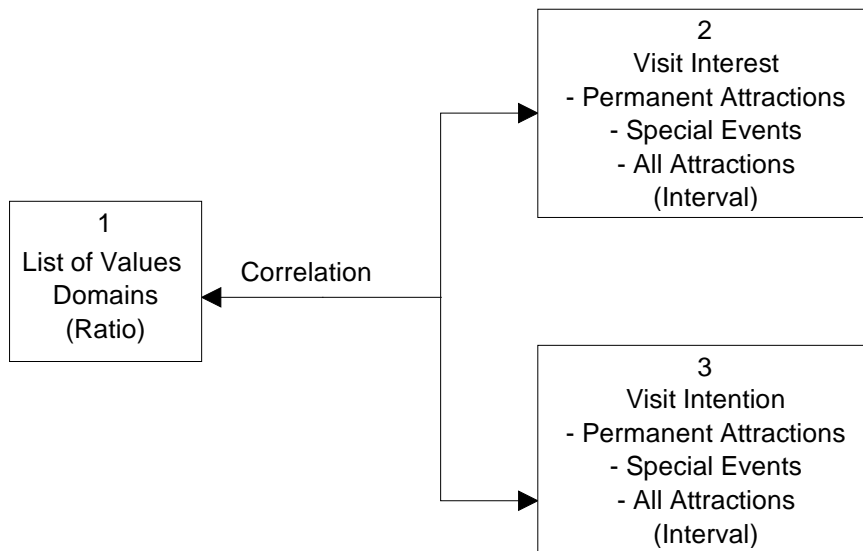


In order to assess the relationship between the value domains that were derived in an earlier section and behaviour in relation to visitor attractions, correlations were calculated using SPSS. Table 7.16 indicates the incidence of statistically significant relationships between the value domains (Achievement and

188

Affiliation), and behaviour (visit interest and visit intention), in relation to the permanent attractions, special events, and visitor attractions overall that were listed in the questionnaire. The figures in the table represent the percentage of relationships that were statistically significant.

*Table 7.16  Correlations between Value Domains and Visit Behaviour at Visitor Attractions*

| | | Statistically Significant Relationships | | |
| | | Permanent Attractions (%) | Special Events (%) | All Visitor Attractions (%) |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Visit Interest | Achievement | 0 | 44 | 21 |
| | Affiliation | 6 | 31 | 18 |
| Visit Intention | Achievement | 11 | 44 | 26 |
| | Affiliation | 6 | 50 | 26 |

The key results in Table 7.16 are:

- there were many more statistically significant relationships with special events than there were with permanent attractions,

- there tended to be more statistically significant relationships for visit intention than there were for visit interest.

## 7.6.4 Relationship Between Event Visit Intention and Value Domains
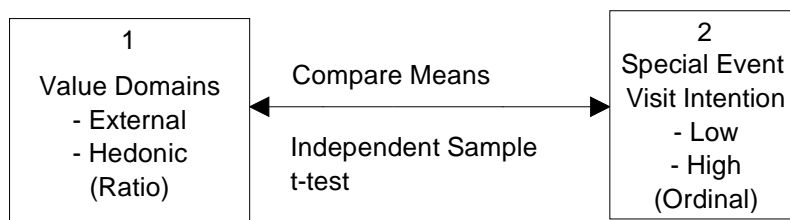


A global summate variable was formed based on respondents' visit intention in relation to the range of special events listed in the questionnaire. Given that there were 16 special events in the questionnaire and visit intention was measured on a seven-point scale, this new variable could range in value from 16 (16*1) up to 112 (16*7). This global summate variable was then converted into a dichotomous variable based on a median split to identify respondents that could be classed as demonstrating high visit intention versus respondents demonstrating low visit intention.

Although the EFA that was conducted on the LOV in this study did not extract a factor that would be classed as 'external', a number of other studies had extracted such a factor that comprised 'being well respected', 'security' and 'sense of belonging'. In order to assess whether a factor comprising these three items was related to event visit intention, the mean ratings of these three items were compared for respondents demonstrating high event visit intention with those demonstrating low event visit intention.

Hypothesis 9:

Consumers with a high special event visit intention place greater emphasis on external values than consumers with a low special event visit intention.

It was found that there were statistically significant differences in the means for only one of the three values that make up the 'external' factor, namely, 'being well respected'. Therefore, Hypothesis 9 can not be supported.

This analysis was then repeated to assess the relationship between event visit intention and the hedonic value domain comprising 'excitement' and 'fun and enjoyment'.

Hypothesis 10:

Consumers with a high special event visit intention place a higher emphasis on hedonic values than consumers with a low special event visit intention.

Statistically significant differences were found in the means for both values which make up the hedonic domain which provides support for Hypothesis 10.

## 7.6.5 Ranking of Values

The analysis of values to date has been based upon respondents' ratings of values. It has been discussed in earlier chapters that there has been substantial controversy regarding the relative merits of measuring values using a ratings versus a ranking approach, and for this reason, a section was included in the

questionnaire that asked respondents to rank the three values that they regarded as the most important guiding principles in their lives.

A weighting scale was then used to determine an overall ranking of the values. The weighting scale was based on a reverse order weighting, with three points for the first-ranked value of an individual respondent, two points for the second-ranked value, and one point for the third-ranked value. A hierarchical listing of values was then compiled based upon the weighting scale and this is presented in Table 7.17.

It was interesting to note that every value, including the values added to the original LOV, appeared at least five times in the listings of respondents' three most important values. Only the value 'excitement', which is in fact one of the original LOV, did not appear as any respondent's most important value. This finding is consistent with a study conducted by Kahle in 1983 which found that few people selected 'excitement' (Kahle, Beatty and Homer 1986).

*Table 7.17  Weighted Ranking of Values*

| VALUE | WEIGHTED SCORE | RANK |
|---|---|---|
| * Warm relationships | 397 | 1 |
| * Self-respect | 392 | 2 |
| * Fun and enjoyment | 332 | 3 |
| * Self-fulfilment | 282 | 4 |
| * Security | 235 | 5 |
| Spirituality | 195 | 6 |
| * Well-respected | 144 | 7 |
| Self-reliance | 130 | 8 |
| * Accomplishment | 129 | 9 |
| * Belonging | 98 | 10 |
| Wealth | 94 | 11 |
| Ambition | 76 | 12 |
| Individuality | 64 | 13 |
| Status | 24 | 14 |
| Solitude | 20 | 15 |
| Popularity | 19 | 16 |
| * Excitement | 17 | 17 |
| Competing | 16 | 18 |
| Dominate | 13 | 19 |
| Materialism | 11 | 20 |

* Original LOV items.

Items from the original LOV occupy eight of the first 10 places, further supporting the stability of the original scale. Of the non-LOV items, 'spirituality' and 'self-reliance' were the only two that were included in the top 10 ranked values which is not particularly surprising given that most of the other introduced values were from the less laudable end of the value scale.

## 7.6.6 Frequency Distribution of Top-ranked Value Choice

The percentage of respondents choosing each of the values as their most important value as a guiding principle in their lives is presented in Table 7.178 The findings of the study conducted by Novak and MacEvoy (1990) are also included in this table for comparative purposes. It should be noted, however, that respondents in the Novak and MacEvoy study did not have the option to choose items from outside the LOV.

*Table 7.18  Respondent Choice of Top-ranked Value*

| | Percentage of Respondents Choosing a Particular Value as Their Top-Ranked Value | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Value** | **This Study** | **This Study Adjusted (1)** | **Novak & MacEvoy** |
| Self-respect | 19 | 25 | 21 |
| Warm relationships | 13 | 17 | 17 |
| Self-fulfilment | 13 | 17 | 11 |
| Fun and enjoyment | 13 | 17 | 6 |
| Security | 9 | 12 | 20 |
| Sense of accomplishment | 4 | 5 | 17 |
| Being well-respected | 3 | 4 | 4 |
| Sense of belonging | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Excitement | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Other | 24 | N/A | N/A |

Note (1): These results were adjusted to remove the impact of non-LOV items.

In comparing the results of the two studies, it can be seen that the more hedonistic values of 'fun and enjoyment' and 'self-fulfilment' were regarded as the most important guiding principles by more respondents to this study than was the case in the Novak and MacEvoy (1990) study. To offset these differences, 'security' and 'sense of accomplishment' were seen as the most important guiding principles by more respondents to the Novak and MacEvoy study. The finding that 'security' was not seen as important in this study, which was conducted in Australia, is consistent with the image that Australians have for a 'carefree - live for today'

attitude. It may also help explain the fact that the EFA of the LOV in this study placed 'security' in a factor that was counter to all of the other studies, as was discussed in an earlier section.

It was interesting that some 24 per cent of respondents listed a value other than one of those contained in the LOV as being the most important guiding principle in their lives. This result questions whether the LOV is truly comprehensive and representative. It was also found that only 40 per cent of respondents listed three LOV items as their top three ranked values. Many of the values which were added to the LOV in this study, were from what could be termed as the 'less laudable' end of the value scale and yet many respondents selected these values as being their most important guiding principles. This suggests that there may be a need to include in the value scale, some less socially desirable values.

Hypothesis 3:
There are values other than those included in the LOV that are the most important guiding principles in people's lives.

The fact that 24 per cent of respondents chose a value that was not contained in the original LOV provides strong support for this hypothesis.

Although the previous section found that the original items in the LOV generally rated above the introduced values, the fact that so many respondents chose a non-LOV item as the most important guiding principle in their lives poses some concerns regarding the comprehensiveness of the LOV. This is something that will need to be taken into account when evaluating the performance of values to explain behaviour using the LOV as the value measure.

## 7.6.7 Value Domains based upon Top-ranked Value
Keng and Yang (1993) compared the percentage of respondents choosing the different value domains based on their top-ranked value, across a number of studies. Given that the studies compared in Keng and Yang (1993) did not give respondents the opportunity to select values that were not included in the LOV,

adjustments have been made to the results of this study to exclude those respondents who selected a non-LOV item. A comparison of the results of the various studies is presented in Table 7.19.

*Table 7.19  Respondent Choice of Value Domain based on Top-ranked Value*

| Value Domain | Percentage of Respondents Choosing a Value Domain with their top-ranked value | | |
| | This study | Singapore (1) | USA (2) |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Harmony | 32 | 57 | 45 |
| Respect | 29 | 17 | 30 |
| Achievement | 22 | 19 | 21 |
| Hedonism | 17 | 7 | 4 |

Notes:   1. The Singapore study was conducted by Keng and Yang (1993).
         2. The USA study was conducted by Kahle (1984).

In terms of percentage of respondents subscribing to a particular value domain, the only one that showed reasonable consistency across the three reported studies was 'achievement'. There was also consistency on the 'respect' domain between the study conducted in the USA and the one conducted here. Given that values are claimed to be related to culture (Engel, Blackwell and Miniard 1995; Schiffman, Bednall, Watson and Kanuk 1997), the comparison between the study conducted for this thesis and the one conducted in the USA is more relevant than the comparison with that conducted in Singapore. The major differences between the results of this study and that conducted in the USA were in the largely offsetting differences in the 'harmony' and 'hedonism' domains. This difference seemed consistent with anecdotal reports of Australians 'living for today' (hence security being less important) and actively seeking fun and excitement (hence hedonism being so highly valued).

In comparing the hierarchical listing of value domains in the three studies, one can see that there is complete consistency or ordering, if not magnitudes, between this study and the one conducted in the USA. The order of the 'respect' and 'achievement' domains is reversed in the study conducted in Singapore.

## 7.6.8 Demographic Differences Across Value Profiles
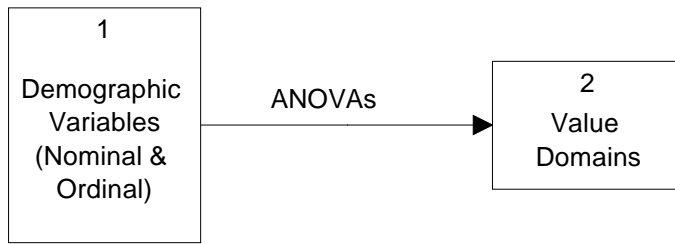


In order to assess whether there were statistically significant demographic differences across value profiles, 'one way ANOVAs' were conducted using demographic variables as independent variables and the LOV factor scores, Achievement and Affiliation, as the dependent variables. Table 7.20 summarises the results of this analysis and indicates that there were statistically significant differences in 30 per cent of the relationships. This suggests that respondents were fairly homogeneous with respect to demographic variables across value domains.

*Table 7.20  ANOVA Results - Demographic Variables and LOV Factor Scores*

| DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLE | Achievement F-Value | Affiliation F-Value |
|---|---|---|
| AGE | 4.74 * | 1.10 |
| GENDER | 0.00 | 19.37 * |
| EDUCATION | 0.70 | 1.20 |
| FAMILY STATUS | 2.29 * | 0.71 |
| INCOME | 0.90 | 1.48 |

*Significant at the $p < 0.05$ level.

## 7.6.9 Demographic Differences in Value Choices as Determined by the Top Ranked Value
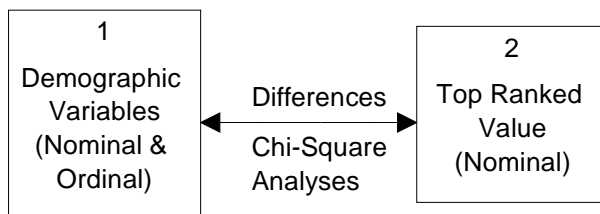


In Table 7.21, the coding that has been used to denote the various values is:

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Fulfilment | 6 | Well-respected |
| 2 | Security | 7 | Excitement |
| 3 | Accomplishment | 8 | Self-respect |
| 4 | Sense of belonging | 9 | Fun and enjoyment |
| 5 | Warm relationships | 10 | Non-LOV items |

Since none of the respondents listed 'excitement' as their most important guiding principle, there is no column relating to this item which corresponds to 7 in the above list.

Table 7.21 shows that there were statistically significant differences between respondents choosing the different values as being most important with regard to age and gender. These results are consistent with anecdotal evidence that suggests many values are gender based and that different age groups subscribe to different value systems. No statistically significant differences existed with regard to education, family status and income.

*Table 7.21  Chi-square Analyses - Demographic Variables and Top-ranked  _ Value*

| | CLUSTERS | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Respondent Characteristic** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** | **6** | **8** | **9** | **10** |
| **Gender** | | | | | | | | | |
| Female | 64 | 66 | 44 | 89 | 61 | 36 | 64 | 40 | 46 |
| Male | 36 | 34 | 56 | 11 | 39 | 64 | 36 | 60 | 54 |
| Chi-Square=23.74, df=8, p=0.003. | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | |
| **Age** | | | | | | | | | |
| 18-19 | 2 | 2 | 13 | 0 | 5 | 7 | 4 | 12 | 9 |
| 20-29 | 22 | 15 | 25 | 11 | 25 | 14 | 21 | 30 | 29 |
| 30-39 | 29 | 22 | 19 | 0 | 25 | 36 | 21 | 32 | 13 |
| 40-49 | 26 | 20 | 31 | 11 | 21 | 0 | 26 | 12 | 19 |
| 50-59 | 9 | 20 | 0 | 56 | 12 | 0 | 15 | 5 | 13 |
| >59 | 12 | 23 | 12 | 22 | 12 | 43 | 13 | 9 | 17 |
| Chi-Square=69.06, df=40, p=0.003. | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | |
| **Education** | | | | | | | | | |
| Primary | 2 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 7 | 0 | 2 | 4 |
| Some secondary | 16 | 29 | 13 | 44 | 37 | 36 | 25 | 23 | 22 |
| Completed secondary | 14 | 12 | 6 | 11 | 16 | 0 | 15 | 16 | 15 |
| Some technical | 3 | 12 | 6 | 0 | 7 | 7 | 5 | 4 | 4 |
| Completed technical | 9 | 17 | 0 | 22 | 7 | 14 | 5 | 11 | 9 |
| Some tertiary | 19 | 7 | 50 | 0 | 12 | 7 | 14 | 25 | 23 |
| Completed tertiary | 37 | 21 | 25 | 23 | 19 | 29 | 36 | 19 | 23 |
| Chi-Square = 59.94, df=48, p=0.116. | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | |
| **Family Status** | | | | | | | | | |
| Married, children at home | 38 | 41 | 38 | 78 | 46 | 14 | 39 | 39 | 35 |
| Married, no children at home | 16 | 12 | 6 | 22 | 16 | 14 | 19 | 12 | 19 |
| Married, no children | 10 | 2 | 13 | 0 | 7 | 14 | 7 | 5 | 6 |
| Not married, children at home | 10 | 7 | 13 | 0 | 4 | 14 | 8 | 4 | 1 |
| Never married, no children at home | 17 | 20 | 30 | 0 | 23 | 30 | 19 | 35 | 29 |
| Widowed, no children at home | 3 | 7 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 14 | 2 | 4 | 4 |
| Divorced, no children at home | 6 | 11 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 0 | 6 | 1 | 6 |
| Chi-Square=51.62, df=48, p=0.334. | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | |
| **Income** | | | | | | | | | |
| **$/year** | | | | | | | | | |
| <10000 | 11 | 11 | 15 | 0 | 12 | 29 | 8 | 8 | 12 |
| 10000-29999 | 33 | 45 | 15 | 38 | 20 | 21 | 21 | 37 | 33 |
| 30000-49999 | 24 | 24 | 23 | 25 | 29 | 14 | 25 | 25 | 23 |
| 50000-69999 | 19 | 8 | 15 | 0 | 25 | 29 | 21 | 17 | 14 |
| 70000-99999 | 7 | 5 | 15 | 0 | 10 | 7 | 16 | 10 | 12 |

| >99999 | | 6 | 7 | 17 | 37 | 4 | 0 | 9 | 3 | 6 |

Chi-Square = 65.48, df=64, p=0.425.

In the chi-square analysis that was conducted in Table 7.21, clearly there were a number of cells for which the expected value was less than five which means that care must be exercised in the interpretation of the results. In order to verify the results, the analysis was repeated but for demographic variables that were converted to dichotomous variables. The age, income and education variables were converted based on a median split and the family status variable was split based on the presence of children at home. The findings from this repeated analysis were:

| | |
|---|---|
| Age: | Chi-square=21.07, df=8, p=0.007 |
| Education: | Chi-square=22.09, df=8, p=0.005 |
| Income: | Chi-square=10.37, df=8, p=0.240 |
| Family status: | Chi-square=10.77, df=8, p=0.215 |

In recalculating the chi-square analyses, education was the only demographic variable that changed in terms of statistical significance. Overall, therefore, it can be seen that there were statistically significant differences between respondents choosing the different values as being most important with regard to age, gender and education. No statistically significant differences existed with regard to family status and income. With respect to gender, there was a female positive bias for each of 'fulfilment', 'security', 'warm relationships' and 'self-respect', with a particularly strong female bias for 'sense of belonging'. The other values demonstrated a male bias. The main differences with regards to age were that over 74 per cent of respondents choosing 'fun and enjoyment' were aged below 40, 78 per cent of respondents choosing 'sense of belonging' were aged above 50, and the respondents choosing 'well-respected' tended to be polarised into the youngest and the oldest groupings.

Keng and Yang (1993) also examined the manner in which the LOV varied with demographics in their study in Singapore. They found that there were statistically significant differences for gender, income and education but that there were no significant differences for age. The results obtained in the study here are in sharp

contrast to those of Keng and Yang, with consistency being found solely on the gender dimension. The fact that significant differences were found by Keng and Yang on income and education was attributed to "the importance attached to education in an Asian society" (Keng and Yang 1993, p. 424) and the impact that education has on the choice of values. Further, income was said to be closely related to education, thereby suggesting a link between income and values. As stated earlier, Keng and Yang commented that the fact that they found no significant differences with respect to age, was likely due to the restricted age group range that was included in their sample. They also suggested that other studies which had not had such restrictions had found that age did significantly influence value choice.

## 7.6.10 Comparison of Value Rating with Value Ranking
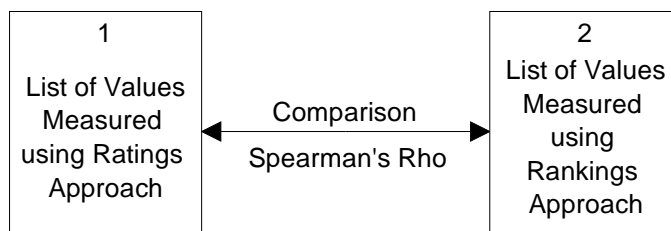


The hierarchical positions of the values listed according to mean rating and weighted count are presented in Table 7.22.

*Table 7.22  Comparison of Hierarchical Positions of Value Rating versus Value Ranking*

|  | RANK (MEAN RATING) | RANK (WEIGHTED COUNTS) |
|---|---|---|
| * Self-respect | 1 | 2 |
| * Warm relationships | 2 | 1 |
| * Fun and enjoyment | 3 | 3 |
| * Security | 4 | 5 |
| * Self-fulfilment | 5 | 4 |
| Self-reliance | 6 | 8 |
| * Well-respected | 7 | 7 |
| * Accomplishment | 8 | 15 |
| Individuality | 9 | 13 |
| * Belonging | 10 | 10 |
| Ambition | 11 | 12 |
| * Excitement | 12 | 17 |
| Popularity | 13 | 16 |
| Wealth | 14 | 11 |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Spirituality | 15 | 6 |
| Solitude | 16 | 15 |
| Status | 17 | 14 |
| Materialism | 18 | 20 |
| Competition | 19 | 18 |
| Dominate | 20 | 19 |

* Original LOV items.

Spearman's rho was calculated for the two lists in Table 7.22 with the result being: Spearman's rho = 0.84, p<0.001.

Although there were slight differences in the specific order of items, it was interesting to note that the same values were listed in the first five places irrespective of whether the rating or ranking approaches were adopted. It was also of interest to note that three of the first five most highly ranked values appeared in the first factor of the EFA. Overall, a Spearman's rho of 0.84 indicates a strong correlation between the rankings produced under the mean ratings approach and the weighted count approach.

Hypothesis 4:

The ratings approach to value measurement provides a different hierarchical ordering of items in the LOV than is achieved using the ranking approach.

A Spearman's rho of 0.84 suggests that there is consistency in the results of the LOV irrespective of whether the importance of these values is measured using a rating or a ranking approach. Based on this result Hypothesis 4 can not be supported.

This result tends to be counter to much of the literature which indicates an unresolved debate in this area. Although there has been "a scarcity of systematic comparisons between rankings and other approaches to measuring values" (Alwin and Krosnick 1985, p. 535), two studies that did attempt to conduct such comparisons found that ratings and rankings produced similar results at the aggregate level (Feather 1973; Alwin and Krosnick 1985). This finding was supported by the results of the current study, which unlike the earlier studies, was based on the LOV. Most researchers in this area have tended to adopt a particular measuring technique and simply discuss the benefits of that technique compared to the drawbacks of the alternative without actually comparing them. There may

well be circumstances in which one technique outperforms the other, but in the study conducted here the results derived from both techniques were very similar.

## 7.6.11 Relationship Between LOV Items and the Three Dimensions of Visitation

```
                              Chi-Square Analysis      ┌─────────────────────────┐
                        ┌──────────────────────────►   │            2            │
                        │                               │    Actual Visitation    │
                        │                               │      (Dichotomous)      │
                        │                               │     - All Attractions   │
                        │                               │  - Permanent Attractions│
                        │                               │     - Special Events    │
                        │                               └─────────────────────────┘
                        │
                        ▼                               ┌─────────────────────────┐
                ┌───────────────┐                       │            3            │
                │       1       │       Correlation     │      Visit Interest     │
                │ List of Values│◄──────────────────►   │       (Interval)        │
                │   (Interval)  │                       │     - All Attractions   │
                │               │                       │  - Permanent Attractions│
                └───────────────┘                       │     - Special Events    │
                        ▲                               └─────────────────────────┘
                        │
                        │                               ┌─────────────────────────┐
                        │          Correlation          │            4            │
                        └──────────────────────────►   │      Visit Intention    │
                                                        │       (Interval)        │
                                                        │     - All Attractions   │
                                                        │  - Permanent Attractions│
                                                        │     - Special Events    │
                                                        └─────────────────────────┘
```
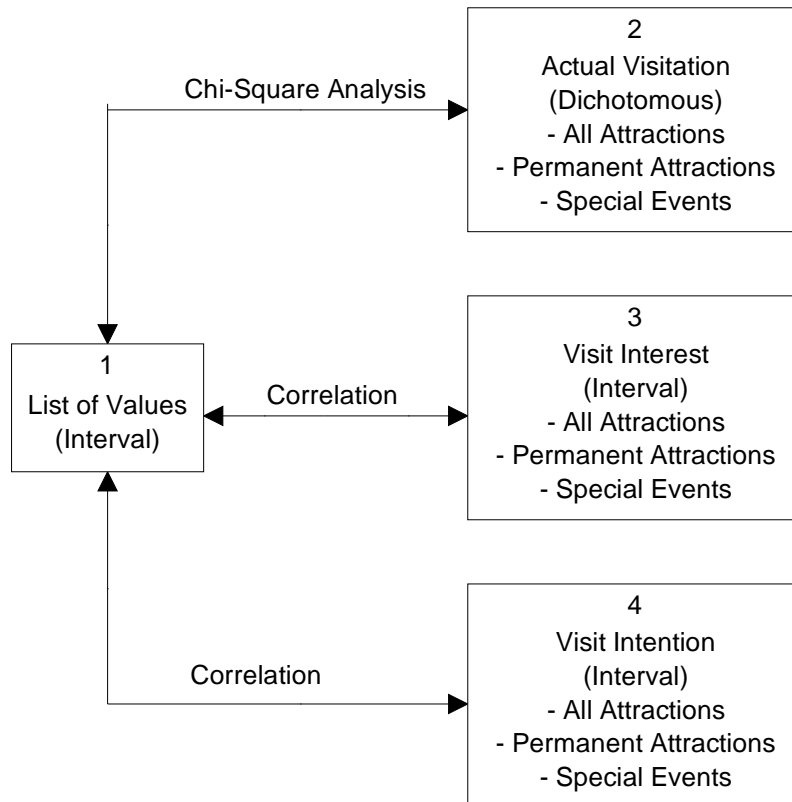
Since 'actual visitation' in the questionnaire was measured using a dichotomous scale, it was not possible to correlate actual visitation with responses to the LOV. Therefore, chi-square analysis was conducted for these two variables. Correlations were conducted between the LOV and each of the 'visit interest' and 'visit intention' variables for each permanent attraction and special event. Statistical significance was taken at the 95 per cent level and tables listing the statistically significant findings from these three analyses are presented in Appendix E.

Although only 17 per cent of results were statistically significant across the three analyses, some interesting trends appeared when the results were broken down further into component parts, as summarised in Table 7.23.

Table 7.23 indicates that there were more statistically significant results for visit intention than for visit interest for each category of attraction which is consistent with the finding in Section 7.6.3 in relation to value domains. These results appear contrary to the literature which suggested that values are better indicators of generic, or abstract behaviour, than they are for more specific behaviour. In terms of visitation, visit interest is a more abstract form than is visit intention.

*Table 7.23  Relationships between the Three Dimensions of Visitation and the LOV for all Visitor Attractions*

| Visitation Dimension | Percentage of  Statistically Significant Relationships | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| | Permanent Attractions (Percentage) | Special Events (Percentage) | Attractions Overall (Percentage) |
| Actual Visitation | 7 | 18 | 12 |
| Visit Interest | 4 | 31 | 16 |
| Visit Intention | 8 | 41 | 24 |
| Overall | 7 | 29 | 17 |

Hypothesis 12a:

The items in the LOV are better predictors of generic behaviour (visit interest) than they are of more concrete behaviour (visit intention).

Hypothesis 13a:

The items in the LOV are better predictors of behaviour in relation to tourism attractions overall, including special events, than they are of behaviour in relation to special events alone.

Results in Table 7.23 do not provide support for either of the above hypotheses.

Another key finding that can be derived from Table 7.23 is that the percentage of statistically significant results was much higher for the special events than it was for permanent attractions.

Testing of the following six hypotheses was based on comparing the results presented in Table 7.16 with those presented in Table 7.23.

Hypothesis 6a:

Value domains are more closely related to consumer attraction visit interest behaviour than are individual values.

Hypothesis 6b:

Value domains are more closely related to consumer special event visit interest behaviour than are individual values.

Hypothesis 6c:

Value domains are more closely related to consumer permanent attraction visit interest behaviour than are individual values.

Comparison of the results in Tables 7.16 and 7.23 shows that the percentage of statistically significant relationships between value domains and visit interest for special events and visitor attractions overall were higher than they were for individual values. The opposite applied for permanent attractions. This lends support for Hypotheses 6a and 6b, but not for 6c.

Hypothesis 7a:

Value domains are more closely related to consumer attraction visit intention behaviour than are individual values.

Hypothesis 7b:

Value domains are more closely related to consumer special event visit intention behaviour than are individual values.

Hypothesis 7c:

Value domains are more closely related to consumer permanent attraction visit intention behaviour than are individual values.

Comparison of the results in Tables 7.16 and 7.23 shows that the percentage of statistically significant relationships between value domains and visit intention for special events and visitor attractions overall were higher than they were for individual values. It was not possible to determine a result for permanent

attractions. This lends support for Hypotheses 7a and 7b, and suggests an indeterminate result for 7c.

*Table 7.24  Incidence of Statistically Significant Relationships between LOV and Three Dimensions of Visitation.*

| Value | Percentage of Results Demonstrating Statistical Significance | | | |
| | Actual Visitation | Visit Interest | Visit Intention | Overall Visitation |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Excitement | 21 | 26 | 24 | 24 |
| Fun and enjoyment | 5 | 20 | 15 | 14 |
| Accomplishment | 11 | 12 | 14 | 13 |
| Security | 16 | 8 | 10 | 11 |
| Well respected | 8 | 8 | 13 | 10 |
| Self respect | 8 | 10 | 8 | 9 |
| Warm relationships | 11 | 8 | 7 | 8 |
| Belonging | 8 | 6 | 10 | 8 |
| Fulfilment | 13 | 2 | 0 | 3 |
| Total | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |

Table 7.24 indicates that the value 'excitement', was clearly the one which showed the most statistically significant relationships irrespective of which dimension of visitation was considered. 'Fun and enjoyment' was ranked second in terms of frequent relationships and was especially important for visit interest. The importance of these two values in relation to special events was not surprising, although there would be some events, such as religious events, where such values may not be as important. The importance of these two values, which make up the hedonic domain, is consistent with the earlier discussion that found that there were statistically significant differences in terms of this domain between high and low event visit intention respondents. However, it is interesting to remember that 'excitement' was the lowest ranked of the LOVs in terms of its mean value and that it was the only value that was not listed by any respondents as being their most important value.

Most of the other values were similar in terms of the number of statistically significant relationships, with 'fulfilment' being the one that ranked last, being well behind the other values. The relationships between items in the LOV and visit behaviour were almost all positive. The main exception to this, which came as no surprise, was that there was a negative relationship between 'security' and

visit interest. However, there was generally a positive relationship between 'security' and visit intention.

In summary, therefore, the relationship between values using the LOV and special event visit behaviour was not strong. However, there were more statistically significant relationships between the LOV and special event behaviour than there were between the LOV and permanent attraction behaviour. For both special events and permanent attractions there were more statistically significant relationships with the LOV for visit intention than there were for visit interest or actual visitation.

## 7.7 AIOs
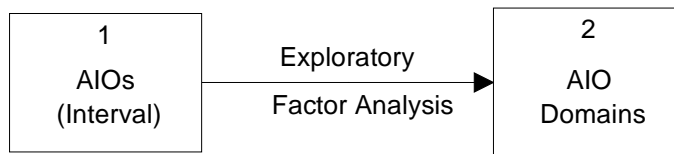


*Table 7.25  Exploratory Factor Analysis of AIOs*

| Factor Groupings of Statement Items | Factor Loading | Eigen-value | Variance Explained (Percentage) | Reliability Coefficient |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Self Improvement (AIOF1)** | | 10.10 | 17.4 | 0.89 |
| I like to learn about myself. | .74 | | | |
| I like to improve my skill and ability. | .72 | | | |
| I seek to expand my knowledge. | .71 | | | |
| I like to make things more meaningful to me. | .70 | | | |
| I like to be involved in activities that require imagination. | .70 | | | |
| I seek to satisfy my curiosity. | .69 | | | |
| I like to participate in an activity that is mentally challenging. | .69 | | | |
| I like to be creative. | .68 | | | |
| I enjoy mastering things. | .62 | | | |
| I like to be socially competent and skilful. | .58 | | | |
| I like to be entertained. | .33 | | | |
| | | | | |
| **Active Outdoors/Sports (AIOF2)** | | 4.41 | 7.6 | 0.81 |
| I frequently go sailing or boating. | .79 | | | |
| I frequently participate in adventure activities. | .71 | | | |
| I frequently water-ski. | .65 | | | |
| I frequently go swimming/surfing/diving. | .58 | | | |
| I frequently play sport (eg golf, tennis). | .57 | | | |
| I frequently go snow skiing. | .56 | | | |
| I frequently go fishing. | .55 | | | |
| I like to compete against others. | .45 | | | |
| I frequently go to a nightclub/disco/or other forms of nightlife. | .38 | | | |
| | | | | |
| **Nature (AIOF3)** | | 3.23 | 5.6 | 0.78 |
| I frequently visit animal/wildlife parks or zoos. | .76 | | | |
| I frequently visit a national park/forest. | .72 | | | |
| I frequently visit a park or garden. | .69 | | | |
| I frequently visit a theme, amusement or historic park. | .58 | | | |
| I frequently go bushwalking. | .47 | | | |

## Table 7.25 Exploratory Factor Analysis of AIOs (continued)

| Factor Groupings of Statement Items | Factor Loading | Eigen-value | Variance Explained (Percentage) | Reliability Coefficient |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Culture (AIOF4)** | | 2.69 | 4.6 | 0.76 |
| I frequently attend the theatre or a concert. | .71 | | | |
| I frequently attend a festival, special or sports event. | .67 | | | |
| I frequently visit an art gallery or craft centre. | .59 | | | |
| I frequently visit a museum or historic site. | .56 | | | |
| I frequently go to the cinema/movies. | .41 | | | |
| | | | | |
| **Affiliation/Social (AIOF5)** | | 2.46 | 4.2 | 0.72 |
| I enjoy being with my friends. | .81 | | | |
| I like to be with people who are enjoying themselves. | .74 | | | |
| I frequently visit friends and relatives. | .58 | | | |
| I like to interact with others. | .49 | | | |
| I like a change of pace from everyday life. | .43 | | | |
| | | | | |
| **Conservative (AIOF6)** | | 1.89 | 3.3 | |
| I like to do things the whole family can enjoy. | .65 | | | |
| I believe that religion should be taught in Government schools. | .65 | | | |
| I am traditional in my views on social issues and social trends in Australia. | .55 | | | |
| I believe that the smoking of marijuana should be made legal. | -.47 | | | |
| | | | | |
| **Stimulation (AIOF7)** | | 1.53 | 2.6 | 0.58 |
| I like to talk about an experience afterwards. | .62 | | | |
| I like to use my physical abilities. | .42 | | | |
| I like to participate in exciting activities. | .42 | | | |
| | | | | |
| **Participating in Causes (AIOF8)** | | 1.41 | 2.4 | 0.40 |
| I enjoy participating in activities that are seen to be trendy. | .56 | | | |
| I believe that all education should be paid for by the government. | .55 | | | |
| I frequently participate in organised tours or group activities. | .37 | | | |
| | | | | |
| **Independence (AIOF9)** | | 1.31 | 2.3 | 0.33 |
| I believe that unions have too much power. | .71 | | | |
| I believe that people should rely on themselves and not just the government. | .62 | | | |
| | | | | |
| **Away from home (AIOF10)** | | 1.24 | 2.1 | 0.50 |
| I frequently go shopping. | .74 | | | |
| I frequently dine in restaurants. | .46 | | | |
| I frequently go driving to sightsee or just for pleasure. | .39 | | | |
| | | | | |
| **Gambling/Dining (AIOF11)** | | 1.21 | 2.1 | 0.35 |
| I frequently gamble, go to a casino, or play gaming machines. | .65 | | | |
| I frequently visit a winery. | .53 | | | |
| I enjoy food and wine. | .48 | | | |
| | | | | |
| **Peace (AIOF12)** | | 1.19 | 2.1 | 0.51 |
| I like to rest and relax. | .74 | | | |
| I like to be in a calm atmosphere. | .71 | | | |
| | | | | |
| **Gender Role (AIOF13)** | | 1.08 | 1.9 | N/A |
| I believe that a woman's role is taking care of the home. | .72 | | | |
| | | | | |
| **Anomie (AIOF14)** | | 1.05 | 1.8 | N/A |
| I feel that I get a raw deal out of life in general. | .74 | | | |
| | | | | |
| **Frugal (AIOF15)** | | 1.02 | 1.8 | N/A |
| I think that it is important to save money rather than spend it all now. | .62 | | | |
| | | | | |
| Total Variance Explained | | | 61.7 | |

The mean ratings of the 58 AIO statements ranged from 1.6 up to 6.2 on the seven-point scale. An EFA using a varimax rotation extracted 15 factors with eigenvalues in excess of one, that explained 62 per cent of the total variance. The output of this EFA is contained in Table 7.25.

The face validity of most of the factors that were extracted was quite high. A number of the later mentioned items within the factors had lower factor loadings, although all were above the 0.3 that Hair et al (1995) suggest is the minimum acceptable level for factor loadings. Reliabilities of the first five factors were quite high but Cronbach's alpha dropped away substantially for many of the subsequent factors.

## 7.7.1 Relationship Between AIOs and the Three Dimensions of Visitation
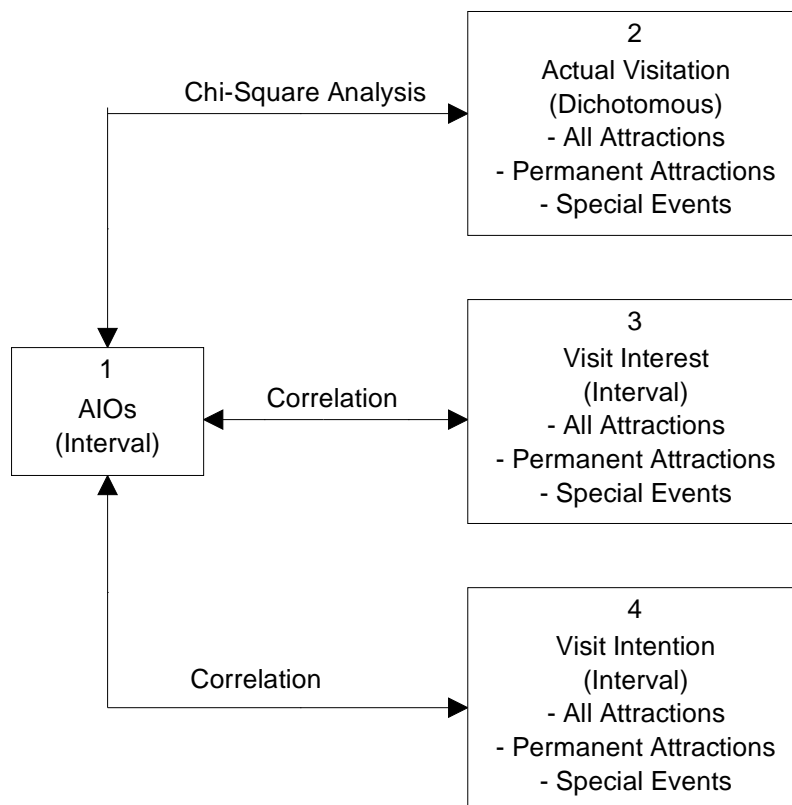
The approach that was used in an earlier section to examine relationships between the LOV and the three dimensions of visitation, was repeated with the AIOs in order to determine the incidence of statistically significant relationships with the

three dimensions of visitation. The detailed results of this analysis is presented in Appendix F.

The results were again broken down into component parts to highlight additional trends and these findings are summarised in Table 7.26.

*Table 7.26  Relationships between the Three Dimensions of Visitation and the AIOs for all Visitor Attractions*

| Visitation Dimension | Percentage of  Statistically Significant Relationships | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| | Permanent Attractions | Special Events | Attractions Overall |
| Actual Visitation | 10 | 24 | 17 |
| Visit Interest | 29 | 43 | 35 |
| Visit Intention | 32 | 45 | 39 |
| Overall | 26 | 35 | 30 |

Although the incidence of statistically significant results was much higher between AIOs and visitation than it was between LOVs and visitation, similar trends were present. The correlations with AIOs were stronger than found with the LOV but they were still weak. Again, a greater percentage of relationships with visit intention was statistically significant than was the case with visit interest, although the margin between intention and interest for the AIOs was much less than for the LOVs. The percentage of statistically significant  results was again higher for special events than it was for permanent attractions but the margin between the two was less than was the case for the LOVs.

Hypothesis 12b:

AIOs are better predictors of generic behaviour (visit interest) than they are of more concrete behaviour (visit intention).

Hypothesis 13b:

AIOs are better predictors of behaviour in relation to tourism attractions overall, including special events, than they are of behaviour in relation to special events alone.

The results in Table 7.26 do not provide support for either of the hypotheses listed above. This result is consistent with the earlier finding in relation to the LOV which also proved to be more effective at the visit intention level than it was at the visit interest level.

Table 7.27 presents the incidence of statistically significant results by individual AIO statement for the statements that accounted for the most significant relationships.

Table 7.27 provides information on the percentage of statistically significant relationships with the various dimensions of visitation that were attributable to the 10 AIO statements that showed the greatest number of relationships. It can be seen that none of the statements accounted for a substantial percentage of the relationships in its own right.

*Table 7.27  Incidence of Statistically Significant Relationships between the AIOs and the Three Dimensions of Visitation*

| AIO | Percentage of Results Demonstrating Statistical Significance | | | |
| | **Actual Visitation** | **Visit Interest** | **Visit Intention** | **Overall Visitation** |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| I frequently attend a festival, special or sports event | 5 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| I frequently visit a theme, amusement or historic park | 2 | 4 | 4 | 3 |
| I like to interact with others | 2 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| I like to participate in exciting activities | 2 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| I frequently visit an art gallery or craft centre | 3 | 3 | 2 | 3 |
| I frequently go the cinema / movies | 3 | 2 | 3 | 3 |
| I frequently visit animal / wildlife parks / zoos | 1 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| I frequently participate in adventure activities | 3 | 3 | 2 | 3 |
| I frequently visit a park or garden | 2 | 2 | 3 | 3 |
| I frequently go snow skiing | 3 | 3 | 2 | 3 |

It is possible, however, to identify the statements that accounted for the largest numbers of statistically significant relationships under each visitation dimension as well as the statements that accounted for the least numbers under each dimension. This information is listed below.

<u>Actual Visitation</u>

Many: I frequently attend the theatre or a concert.

I frequently attend a festival, special or sports event.

Few: I enjoy mastering things.

I like to be creative.

I enjoy being with my friends.

I believe that a woman's role is taking care of the home.

<u>Visit Interest</u>

Many: I frequently visit a theme, amusement or historic park.

Few: I like to rest and relax.

<u>Visit Intention</u>

Many: I frequently visit a theme, amusement or historic park.

Few: I like to rest and relax.

<u>Overall</u>

Many: I frequently attend a festival, special or sports event.

I frequently visit a theme, amusement or historic park.

Few: I like to rest and relax.

I frequently go shopping.

The face validity of the AIOs that were involved in the greatest number, and in the fewest, statistically significant results is high. One would expect a consumer who rates highly the statements 'I frequently attend a festival or sports event' and 'I frequently attend the theatre or a concert', to be someone who has a higher propensity for attraction visitation, in particular, special event visitation. Similarly, a consumer who rates highly the statement 'I like to rest and relax' would be unlikely to have a substantial propensity for attraction visitation as it would involve a degree of exertion.

## 7.7.2 Demographic Differences Across AIO Profiles
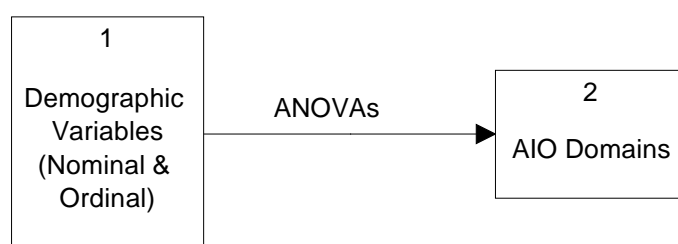
```
┌─────────────┐                      ┌─────────────┐
│      1      │                      │      2      │
│             │      ANOVAs          │             │
│ Demographic │ ───────────────────▶ │ AIO Domains │
│  Variables  │                      │             │
│ (Nominal &  │                      │             │
│  Ordinal)   │                      │             │
└─────────────┘                      └─────────────┘
```

In order to assess whether there were statistically significant demographic differences across psychographic profiles, 'one way ANOVAs' were conducted using demographic variables as independent variables and the AIO factors as the dependent variables. Table 7.28 summarises the results of this analysis listing the F-values.

*Table 7.28  ANOVA Results - Demographic Variables and AIO Factor Scores*

| DEPENDENT VARIABLES | AGE | GENDER | EDUCATION | FAMILY STATUS | INCOME |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Self improvement** | 3.52* | 0.17 | 4.72* | 1.24 | 0.45 |
| **Active outdoors** | 9.98* | 36.21* | 1.15 | 3.01* | 3.37* |
| **Nature** | 4.65* | 6.85* | 1.65 | 1.58 | 0.87 |
| **Culture** | 0.67 | 0.54 | 5.48* | 3.02* | 5.35* |
| **Affiliation** | 2.84* | 19.13* | 2.49* | 2.38* | 0.30 |
| **Conservative** | 7.67* | 5.38* | 7.01* | 9.65* | 2.12 |
| **Stimulation** | 6.29* | 3.38 | 1.79 | 4.14* | 5.65* |
| **Participation in causes** | 2.96* | 6.16* | 3.33* | 1.84 | 4.22* |
| **Independence** | 0.41 | 6.72* | 1.64 | 0.78 | 4.70* |
| **Away from home** | 2.20 | 27.90* | 0.90 | 1.75 | 4.35* |
| **Gambling** | 1.52 | 12.41* | 1.60 | 2.62* | 3.15* |
| **Peace** | 1.50 | 11.66* | 0.96 | 1.14 | 0.51 |
| **Gender role** | 2.01 | 0.03 | 2.37* | 2.05 | 1.56 |
| **Anomie** | 10.75* | 0.35 | 1.83 | 5.61* | 3.10* |
| **Frugal** | 0.35 | 1.37 | 2.19* | 0.26 | 0.38 |

*Significant at the $p < 0.05$ level.

Overall, there were statistically significant differences in 52 per cent of the relationships with each of the demographic variables demonstrating a similar number of statistically significant differences. This indicates that there were some demographic differences across psychographic profiles that can be summarised as follows:

| Self improvement | > 30 years of age, no past secondary education |
| Active outdoors | >40 years of age, male, married, income < $50K |
| Nature | < 30 or >60 years of age, male |
| Culture | No past secondary education, married, income <$30K |
| Affiliation | >30 years of age, male, tertiary educated, no children |
| Conservative | <40 years of age, male, tertiary educated, no children |
| Stimulation | >40 years of age, income <$30K |
| Participation in causes | >30 years of age, female, income >$50K |
| Independence | Female, income <$50K |
| Away from home | Male, income <$50K |
| Gambling | Female |
| Peace | Male |
| Gender role | Post secondary education |
| Anomie | >50 years of age, married, income >$30K |
| Frugal | Incomplete education levels |

## 7.8 Demographics
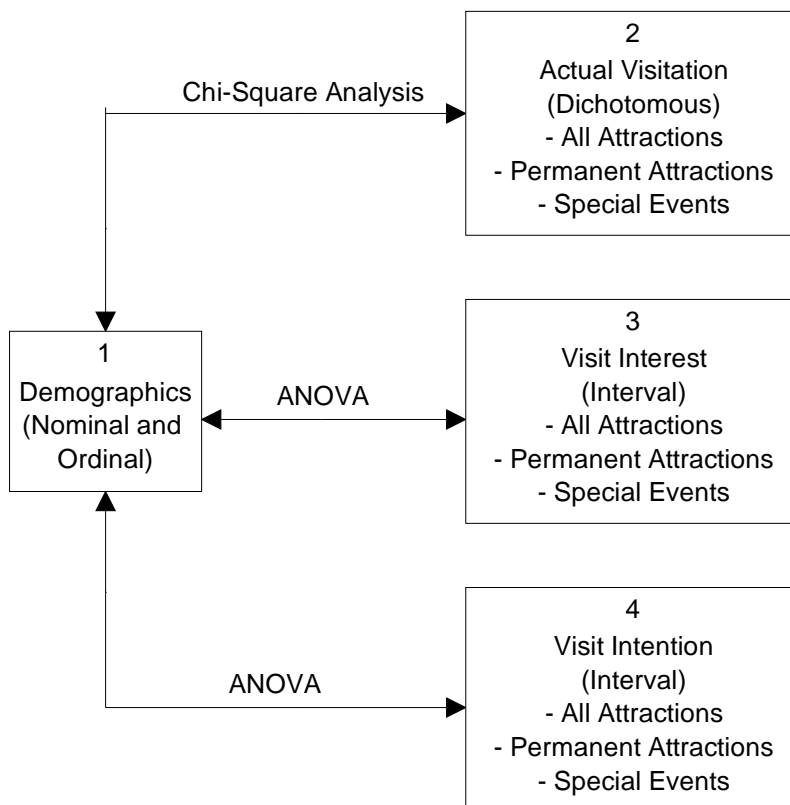
Once again, the approach that was used in an earlier section to examine relationships between the LOV and the three dimensions of visitation, was repeated with demographics in order to determine the incidence of statistically significant relationships with the three dimensions of visitation. In considering demographics, 'age', 'education', 'income', 'gender' and 'family status' were used. Table 7.29 summarises the results in terms of the percentage of statistically significant relationships in each of the visitation dimensions.

*Table 7.29 Relationships between the Three Dimensions of Visitation and Demographics for all Visitor Attractions*

| Visitation Dimension | Percentage of Statistically Significant Relationships | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| | Permanent Attractions | Special Events | Attractions Overall |
| Actual Visitation | 19 | 24 | 21 |
| Visit Interest | 28 | 34 | 31 |
| Visit Intention | 22 | 30 | 26 |
| Overall | 23 | 29 | 26 |

It was found that there were more statistically significant results for the 'age' and 'education' variables than there were for any of the other demographic dimensions.

Hypothesis 12c:

Demographics are better predictors of generic behaviour (visit interest) than they are of more concrete behaviour (visit intention).

Hypothesis 13c:

Demographics are better predictors of behaviour in relation to tourism attractions overall, including special events, than they are of behaviour in relation to special events alone.

In terms of the percentage of statistically significant relationships overall, demographics was ahead of the LOV but behind AIOs. As was found with the LOV and AIOs, there was a larger percentage of statistically significant relationships between demographics and special events than there was with permanent attractions. This does not provide support for Hypothesis 13c.

Unlike the results for LOVs and AIOs, however, there were more statistically significant relationships between demographic variables and visit interest than there were with visit intention or actual visitation. This finding applied for both special events and permanent attractions. This suggests that demographic variables may be better indicators of more abstract behaviour than they are of specific behaviour. This provides support for Hypothesis 12c.

## 7.8.1 Relationships of Demographic Variables to LOV
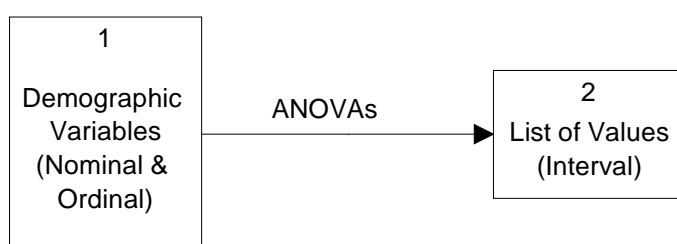


In order to assess the relationship between demographic variables and the LOV, ANOVAs were calculated. The results of this analysis are summarised in the Table 7.30 which presents the F-values.

*Table 7.30  ANOVA Results - Demographic Variables and items in the LOV*

| | F-VALUES | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| VALUE | FAMILY STATUS | INCOME | AGE | EDUCATION | GENDER |
| Self fulfilment | 1.66 | 0.87 | 1.67 | 1.50 | 0.36 |
| Security | 1.25 | 1.30 | 1.20 | 5.17* | 9.68* |
| Accomplishment | 2.46* | 0.70 | 0.66 | 0.79 | 0.02 |
| Belonging | 2.80* | 1.67 | 3.39* | 1.20 | 9.53* |
| Warm relationships | 1.60 | 0.40 | 1.18 | 0.63 | 18.50* |
| Well respected | 0.52 | 1.12 | 1.79 | 0.52 | 3.74 |
| Excitement | 0.26 | 0.18 | 5.66* | 1.54 | 0.65 |
| Self respect | 0.91 | 0.47 | 0.69 | 1.07 | 9.45* |
| Fun and enjoyment | 0.69 | 1.25 | 6.33* | 0.67 | 5.84* |

*Significant at the $p < 0.05$ level.

Several studies were reported earlier that suggested that there is a relationship between values and demographic variables, but the results in Table 7.29 suggest that this relationship is not strong and, indeed, only for 'gender' was the percentage of statistically significant relationships in excess of 50.

Hypothesis 11a:

There is a positive relationship between age and the items in the LOV.

Hypothesis 11b:

There is a positive relationship between education and the items in the LOV.

Hypothesis 11c:

There is a positive relationship between family status and the items in the LOV.

Hypothesis 11d:

There is a positive relationship between income and the items in the LOV.

Hypothesis 11e:

There is a positive relationship between gender and the items in the LOV.

Results in Table 7.30 enable testing of the five hypotheses listed above with the outcome that there was no support for Hypothesis 11d and partial support for all of the others.

## 7.9 Global Visitation Variable
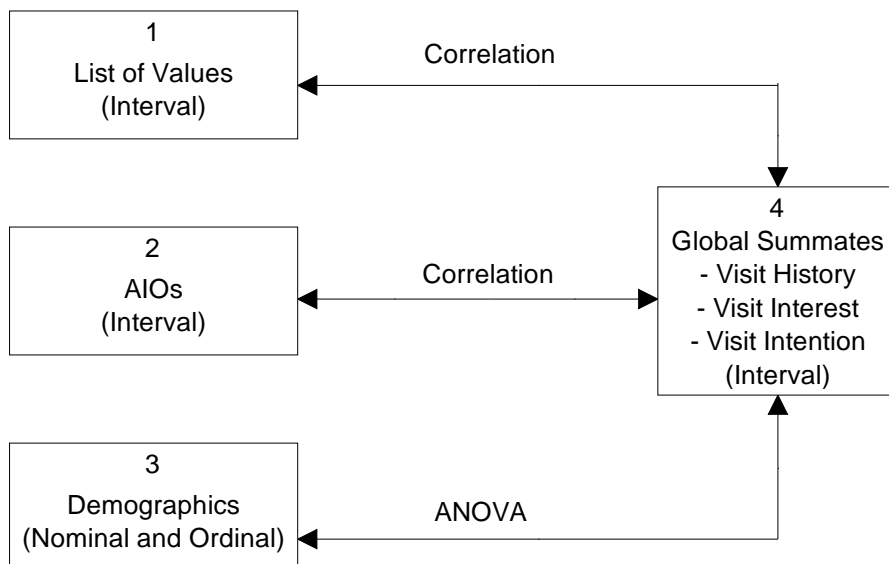


Using an approach discussed by Menon and Wilcox (1994), three new summate variables were calculated to represent global indications of tourism behaviour.

The first one, 'vishist', was the sum of each respondent's actual visitation score to each of the 34 attractions; the second, 'visinter', was a similar summation of each respondent's interest in visiting each of the attractions; the final new variable, 'visinten', was the summation of each respondent's intention to visit each of the attractions. Descriptives for these new variables are presented in Table 7.31. The score range for the first variable was 34 to 68 (that is, 34*1 up to 34*2), whilst the second two variables could range from 34 to 238 (that is , 34*1 up to 34*7).

Correlations were run between these three new variables and each of the LOV and the AIOs, whilst ANOVAs were run between the new global summates and the demographic variables. The results, in terms of the number of statistically significant correlations, are summarised in Table 7.32.

*Table 7.31  Descriptives for Global Visitation Variables*

| Variable | Mean Value | Standard Deviation | Minimum Value | Maximum Value |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| VISINTER | 120.0 | 30.4 | 34 | 216 |
| VISINTEN | 101.0 | 31.2 | 34 | 185 |
| VISHIST | 44.8 | 4.4 | 34 | 60 |

*Table 7.32  Relationship between Global Visitation Variables and Segmentation Approaches*

| | Percentage of Statistically Significant Relationships | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Visit History | Visit Interest | Visit Intention |
| LOVs | 11 | 33 | 56 |
| AIOs | 59 | 79 | 79 |
| Demographics | 20 | 40 | 40 |

The AIOs produced a larger percentage of statistically significant results than did either the LOV or the demographic variables using the global summate variables which is consistent with the result obtained using individual visitor attractions. However, the overall percentages of significant results were about the same for the LOV and the demographic variables using the global summate variables. It was also interesting to note that the percentage of significant results was the same for visit interest and visit intention for both the AIOs and the demographic

variables, unlike the earlier individual attraction analysis where visit intention consistently exceeded visit interest.

The AIOs that demonstrated statistically significant relationships with the global interest visitation variable were virtually the same as those demonstrating relationships with the global intention visitation variable. It was interesting to note that of the 12 AIO statements that did not demonstrate significant relationships, four made up the sixth AIO factor which was named 'conservative'. The remaining six AIOs which did not demonstrate significant relationships included items such as 'I like to rest and relax', 'I frequently go fishing', 'I feel that I get a raw deal out of life', and 'I frequently go shopping'. It is not surprising that these statements did not show significant relationships with variables based on attraction visitation.

In relation to the LOV, the items that showed the greatest number of statistically significant relationships with the global visitation variables were 'excitement', 'fun and enjoyment' and 'accomplishment'.

## 7.10 Correlation Between the LOVs and the AIOs

```
┌──────────────┐                    ┌──────────────┐
│      1       │    Correlation     │      2       │
│ List of Values│ ◄───────────────► │    AIOs      │
│  (Interval)   │                    │  (Interval)  │
└──────────────┘                    └──────────────┘
```
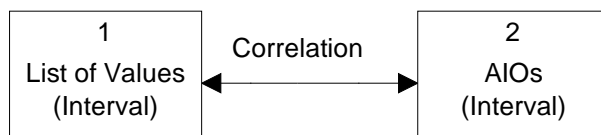
Correlations were run between the LOV and the AIOs with the table of results being presented in Appendix G. Overall, 53 per cent of the correlations were statistically significant and the distribution of statistically significant relationships was fairly evenly spread across all values, although the values 'Excitement', 'Fun and enjoyment' and 'Accomplishment' had a greater incidence of significance, whilst the values 'Security' and 'Belonging' had slightly less. These findings have high face validity.

### 7.11 Past Visitation as a Predictor of Visit Interest and Visit Intention
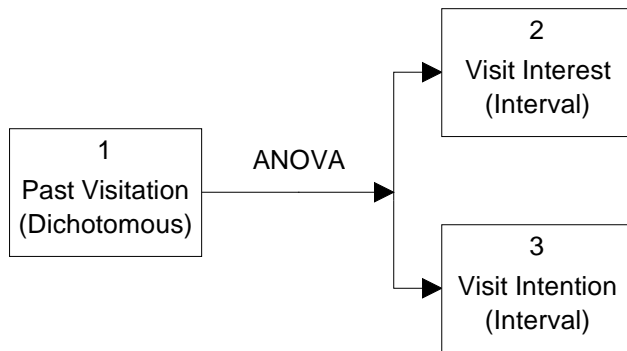


In order to assess the importance of past visitation of specific attractions in influencing future visit interest and visit intention of those same attractions, ANOVAs were calculated using past visitation as the independent variable and visit interest and visit intention as dependent variables.

For the permanent attractions, 61 per cent demonstrated statistically significant relationships with respect to visit interest and 50 per cent for visit intention. It was interesting to note that none of the 'pure tourism attractions', namely, Sovereign Hill, Penguin Parade and Puffing Billy, had statistically significant relationships on either interest or intention.

For the special events, all except for the Comedy Festival and the Olympic Games demonstrated statistically significant relationships for both visit interest and visit intention. Thus, 88 per cent of the events demonstrated statistically significant relationships between past visitation and visit interest and intention.

These findings provide the basis to support the following four hypotheses:

Hypothesis 15a:

There is a positive relationship between past visitation and overall attraction visit interest.

Hypothesis 15b:

There is a positive relationship between past visitation and overall attraction visit intention.

Hypothesis 16a:

Past visitation provides a stronger indication of special event visit interest than it does of permanent attraction visit interest.

Hypothesis 16b:

Past visitation provides a stronger indication of special event visit intention than it does of permanent attraction visit intention.

The degree of satisfaction is an important determinant of whether one would consider re-visiting an attraction, and no measure of satisfaction was included in this study. Therefore, care must be exercised regarding the conclusions that are drawn from the results relating to past visitation. However, the results quite clearly demonstrated more statistically significant relationships between past visitation and future behaviour for special events than for permanent attractions. This could possibly be explained by the very nature of events themselves in that they are more likely to change each time they are held than are permanent attractions. Therefore, if one is satisfied with the experience at a special event, it is more likely that one would be interested in returning in the future knowing that what will be on offer will not be exactly duplicated.

### 7.12 Prediction of Actual Special Event Visitation

```
┌─────────────┐
│      1      │
│   List of   │────────── Discriminant Analysis ──────┐
│   Values    │                                        │
│  (Interval) │                                        ▼
└─────────────┘                             ┌─────────────────┐
                                            │        4        │
┌─────────────┐                             │                 │
│      2      │                             │  Actual Event   │
│    AIOs     │──── Discriminant Analysis ─▶│   Visitation    │
│  (Interval) │                             │  (Dichotomous)  │
└─────────────┘                             │                 │
                                            └─────────────────┘
┌─────────────┐                                        ▲
│      3      │                                        │
│ Demographics│                                        │
│ (Nominal and│──── Discriminant Analysis ─────────────┘
│   Ordinal)  │
└─────────────┘
```
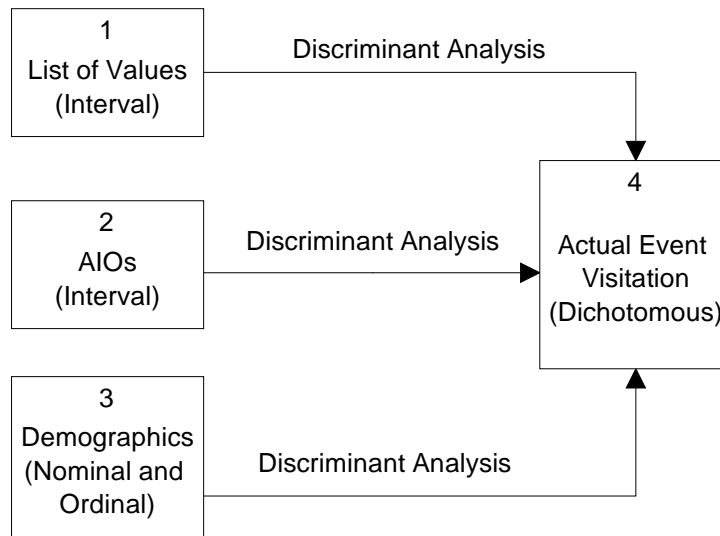
It is recognised that the term 'prediction' used in this study is not strictly correct, given that the actual visitation that is being predicted had already occurred. However, the term seemed more appropriate and self explanatory than other terms that could be used to describe this procedure, such as 'backcasting'.

In order to compare the performance of the LOV, the AIOs and the demographic variables (age, income, education, gender and family status) in predicting actual event visitation, discriminant analysis was employed. In this analysis, the LOV, the AIOs and demographics were each used separately as the independent variables to predict actual visitation of the special events listed in the questionnaire.

Overall, it was found that demographics were able to correctly classify 58 per cent of cases, the LOV was able to correctly classify 59 per cent of cases and the AIOs, 73 per cent. Given that by chance alone, one should be able to correctly classify 50 per cent of respondents, the performance of the LOV and demographics were only slightly better than would have been attained purely by chance. The AIOs performed substantially better than both demographics and the LOV in terms of their ability to correctly classify respondents with respect to actual visitation.

### 7.13 Prediction of Event Visit Intention

```
┌─────────────────┐                              ┌─────────────────┐
│        1        │                              │        2        │
│  List of Values │                              │   Event Visit   │
│      AIOs       │      Stepwise                │    Intention    │
│  Demographics   │  ─────────────────────▶      │   [Each Event   │
│  Visit History  │  Multiple Regression         │   and Global    │
│  Visit Interest │                              │    Summate]     │
│                 │                              │    (Interval)   │
└─────────────────┘                              └─────────────────┘
```
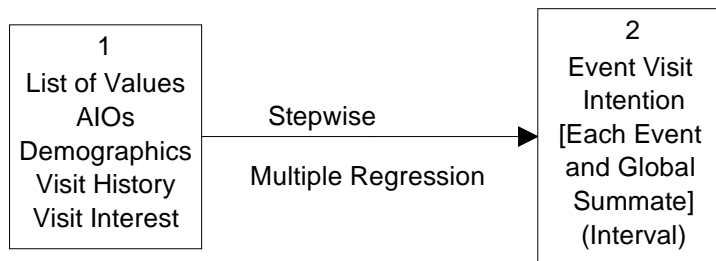
Stepwise multiple regressions were used to compare the performance of a range of independent variables, taken separately and in combination, in predicting visit intention of the events listed in the questionnaire, as well as the global event visit intention summate. The independent variables that were used in the regression analysis were the LOV, demographics, the AIOs, visit history, and visit interest. Of the demographic variables, only 'gender' was measured using a dichotomous scale. Therefore, it was necessary to convert the other four demographic variables to dichotomous variables for the regressions. The demographic variables 'age', 'income', and 'education' were also converted to dichotomous variables based on median splits, and the demographic variable 'family status', which was not ordered, was converted to a dichotomous variable based on whether there were children at home.

Table 7.33 presents the coefficients of determination (mean adjusted R-square values), that were obtained across all the events and the global event summate for each series of stepwise multiple regressions using different independent variables.

This indicates, not unexpectedly, that 'visit interest' was by far the best indicator of 'visit intention'. The Adjusted R-squares for the LOV, AIOs, demographics and the combinations of the three were all very low, particularly for the LOV and demographics. However, according to Frank, Massy and Wind (1972), cited in Novak and MacEvoy (1990), low R-squares were "typical of values found using general customer characteristics as segmentation bases" (p. 107). Novak and MacEvoy further suggested that R-squares as low as one per cent could be considered important which is lower than the values obtained in this analysis.

*Table 7.33  Multiple Regressions Using Various Independent Variables to Explain Event Visit Intention*

| INDEPENDENT VARIABLES | Mean Adjusted R-Squares |
|---|---|
| LOV | 0.04 |
| Demographics | 0.06 |
| AIOs | 0.20 |
| LOV and Demographics | 0.08 |
| AIOs and Demographics | 0.22 |
| LOV and AIOs | 0.21 |
| LOV, AIOs and Demographics | 0.23 |
| Visit History | 0.19 |
| Visit Interest | 0.74 |
| LOV, AIOs, Demographics and Visit Interest | 0.77 |
| LOV, AIOs, Demographics and Visit Interest All Events | 0.77 |

With respect to the LOV, it should be noted that the most important value by far was 'excitement' which for many of the regressions was the only value to enter the regression equation.

Hypothesis 19:

The items in the LOV are better able to predict special event visit intention than are AIOs.

Hypothesis 20:

The items in the LOV are better able to predict special event visit intention than are the demographic variables.

Hypothesis 21:

A combination of the items in the LOV and the demographic variables is better able to predict special event visit intention than are AIOs.

Hypothesis 22a:

The items in the LOV are better able to predict special event visit intention than is past visitation.

Hypothesis 22b:

AIOs are better able to predict special event visit intention than is past visitation.

Hypothesis 22c:

Demographic variables are better able to predict special event visit intention than is past visitation.

The results presented in Table 7.33 enable testing of the six hypotheses listed above with the outcome that only Hypothesis 22b could be supported.

The results that were obtained in this study can be contrasted with those reported by Novak and MacEvoy (1990) which compared the R-squares in a similar fashion, although VALs was used in the Novak and MacEvoy study instead of AIOs. In the Novak and MacEvoy study, 64 activities and media usage habits were used as the dependent variables. The numbers in Table 7.34 refer to median values of the Adjusted R-squares.

As has been discussed earlier, Kahle, Beatty and Homer (1986) claimed that the LOV had greater predictive ability in terms of consumer behaviour than did VALS. Novak and MacEvoy refuted this claim suggesting that the predictive ability of the LOV had been increased due to the inclusion of demographics with the LOV items in the Kahle, Beatty and Homer study.

The results obtained in this study are generally similar to those found by Novak and MacEvoy (1990) except for the performance of the AIOs. The AIOs achieved an adjusted R-square in this study that was substantially better than the adjusted R-square that was achieved for VALS in the Novak and MacEvoy study. The fact that the AIOs are undoubtedly different to the VALS that was used in Novak and MacEvoy (1990) likely explains much of the difference in performance between the two but, unfortunately, it is not possible to explore this further given that VALS is a proprietary instrument. It is clear that the LOV was the poorest performer in both studies and in both cases resulted in R-squares that were lower than those achieved by demographics alone.

*Table 7.34  Comparison of the Results of Multiple Regressions Conducted*
*Using Various Independent Variables in Two Studies*

| | **Median Adjusted R-Squares** | |
|---|---|---|
| **INDEPENDENT VARIABLE(S)** | **Novak & MacEvoy** | **This Study** |
| VALS (or AIOs) | .03 | .21 |
| LOV | .01 | .03 |
| Demographics | .04 | .06 |
| LOV and Demographics | .05 | .08 |
| VALS (or AIOs) and Demographics | .05 | .22 |

The fact that even demographics performed at a higher level than values poses serious doubts about the effectiveness of using values as a basis for explaining and predicting consumer behaviour in relation to attractions. However, the issue of whether the values per se are ineffective or simply the instrument that is being used to measure them is not valid, needs to be explored. This will be discussed further in the next chapter.

## 7.14 Comparing High Event Visit Intention Respondents with Low Event Visit Intention Respondents
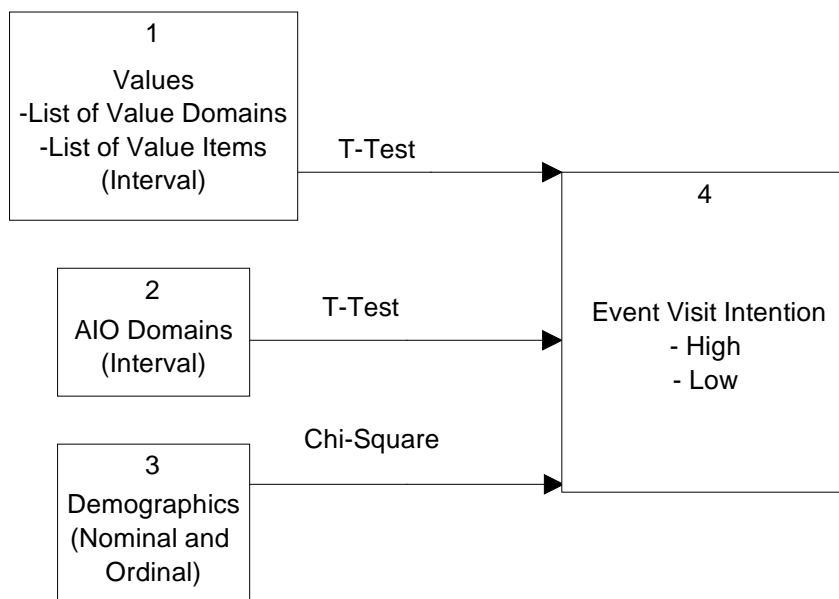


New global summate variables were formed based on respondents' actual visitation, visit interest and visit intention in relation to special events. These new

global event summates were then converted into dichotomous variables based on median splits. Comparisons were made between respondents in the high event visit intention group and those in the low event visit intention group. Chi-square analyses and t-tests were conducted to determine whether there were statistically significant differences between the two groups on a number of dimensions.

Table 7.35 shows that there were statistically significant differences on some of the demographic variables between the two groups split on their event visit intention. Age, education and family status showed differences whilst income and gender did not. Those with high event visit intention tended to be younger (under 30), they were more likely to be tertiary educated, and they were less likely to be married than those with low event visit intention.

The results presented in Table 7.35 enable the following hypotheses to be tested.

Hypothesis 28a:
There is a difference with respect to age between those with high special event visit intention and those with low special event visit intention.

*Table 7.35  Demographic Characteristics of High and Low Visit Intention Respondents*

| Characteristic of Respondents | Low Event Visit Intention (Percentage) | High Event Visit Intention (Percentage) |
|---|---|---|
| <u>Sex</u> | | |
| Male | 40.4 | 49.3 |
| Female | 59.6 | 50.7 |
| Chi-square = 3.57, df=1, p=0.06 | | |
| | | |
| <u>Age</u> | | |
| 18-19 | 2.2 | 10.3 |
| 20-29 | 15.1 | 32.7 |
| 30-39 | 23.1 | 21.1 |
| 40-49 | 19.6 | 21.1 |
| 50-59 | 16.0 | 8.5 |
| 60 and above | 24.0 | 6.3 |
| Chi-square = 54.91, df=5, p<0.01 | | |
| | | |
| <u>Income ($/year)</u> | | |
| Less than 10000 | 11.1 | 8.5 |
| 10000-29999 | 32.9 | 21.5 |
| 30000-49999 | 18.7 | 26.0 |
| 50000-69999 | 15.1 | 17.0 |
| 70000-99999 | 8.0 | 11.2 |
| 100000 & above | 4.9 | 7.6 |
| Chi-square = 13.67, df=5, p=0.09 | | |
| | | |
| <u>Education</u> | | |
| Primary | 3.6 | 0.4 |
| Some secondary | 29.8 | 20.2 |
| Completed secondary | 13.3 | 14.8 |
| Some technical etc | 5.8 | 4.5 |
| Completed technical etc | 10.2 | 7.6 |
| Some tertiary | 14.2 | 22.4 |
| Completed tertiary | 23.1 | 30.0 |
| Chi-square = 17.03, df=6, p=0.01 | | |
| | | |
| <u>Family Status</u> | | |
| Married, children at home | 38.2 | 39.5 |
| Married, no children at home | 23.6 | 8.5 |
| Married, no children | 6.2 | 7.6 |
| Not married, children at home | 6.7 | 4.5 |
| Never married, no children at home | 13.8 | 34.5 |
| Widowed, no children at home | 5.3 | 1.8 |
| Divorced, no children at home | 6.2 | 3.6 |
| Chi-square = 42.59, df=6, p<0.01 | | |

<u>Hypothesis 28b:</u>

There is a difference with respect to gender between those with high special event visit intention and those with low special event visit intention.

<u>Hypothesis 28c:</u>

There is a difference with respect to education between those with high special event visit intention and those with low special event visit intention.

Hypothesis 28d:
There is a difference with respect to family status between those with high special event visit intention and those with low special event visit intention.

Hypothesis 28e:
There is a difference with respect to income between those with high special event visit intention and those with low special event visit intention.

Since there are statistically significant differences for age, education and family status, Hypotheses 28a, 28c and 28d can be supported but Hypotheses 28b and 28e can not.

Independent sample t-tests were used to examine whether there were differences with respect to psychographic domains, value domains and LOV items between those respondents identified as having high event visit intention versus those identified as having low event visit intention. The results of these t-tests are presented in Table 7.36.

Table 7.36 shows that there were statistically significant differences with respect to eight of the 12 psychographic domains. Of the domains for which there were statistically significant differences, only for 'gender role' was the mean value of the high event visit intention group lower than that of the low group. This result is not surprising given that this particular domain likely reflects a more traditional group who would not be inclined to patronise events. The face validity of the other psychographic domains that demonstrated statistically significant differences in the other direction was quite high except for 'anomie'. It was surprising that a group comprising people believing that they get 'a raw deal out of life' would show more intention to patronise events.

***Table 7.36  T-test Results between Respondents having High Event Visit Intention and those having Low Event Visit Intention***

|  | **Low Visit Intention Means** | **High Visit Intention Means** | **t-test** |
|---|---|---|---|
| Psychographic Domains | | | |
| Self improvement | 5.15 | 5.52 | -1.5 |
| Active outdoors/sports | 2.06 | 2.85 | -5.26* |
| Nature | 3.42 | 3.85 | -0.69 |
| Culture | 3.25 | 4.06 | -5.65* |
| Affiliation/social | 5.55 | 5.97 | -3.46* |
| Conservative | 4.05 | 3.99 | 0.9 |
| Stimulation | 4.76 | 5.38 | -2.63* |
| Participating in causes | 3.29 | 3.97 | -3.37* |
| Independence | 4.49 | 4.46 | 0.9 |
| Away from home | 3.98 | 4.41 | 0.6 |
| Gambling/dining | 2.76 | 3.26 | -2.37* |
| Peace | 5.60 | 5.60 | 1.1 |
| Gender role | 2.96 | 2.35 | 3.91* |
| Anomie | 2.34 | 2.54 | -2.92* |
| Frugal | 5.02 | 5.26 | -0.11 |
| | | | |
| Value Domains | | | |
| Achievement | 5.75 | 6.04 | -2.92* |
| Affiliation | 5.90 | 6.10 | -1.87 |
| | | | |
| LOV Items | | | |
| Excitement | 4.94 | 5.57 | -4.54* |
| Fun and enjoyment | 6.00 | 6.32 | -3.24* |
| Security | 6.12 | 6.15 | -0.38 |
| Belonging | 5.41 | 5.61 | -1.58 |
| Being well-respected | 5.78 | 6.01 | -2.03* |
| Self-fulfilment | 6.04 | 6.17 | -1.24 |
| Accomplishment | 5.65 | 6.00 | -3.08* |
| Self-respect | 6.31 | 6.52 | -2.42* |
| Warm relationships | 6.11 | 6.24 | -1.23 |

*Significant at the p<0.05 level.

It was interesting to note that the affiliation domain based on the LOV did not demonstrate statistically significant differences whilst the affiliation domain in the psychographics section did. Five of the nine LOV items demonstrated statistically significant differences between the two groups and as would be expected, the differences for the 'excitement' and 'fun and enjoyment' items were the greatest. In line with earlier findings, 'security' showed small differences between the two groups.

The results in Table 7.36 provides partial support for the following two hypotheses.

Hypothesis 26:

There is a difference with respect to value domain profile between those with high special event visit intention and those with low special event visit intention.

Hypothesis 27:

There is a difference with respect to psychographic profile between those with high special event visit intention and those with low special event visit intention.

## 7.15 Discriminant Analysis to Classify Visit Intention

```
┌──────────────┐                              ┌──────────────┐
│      1       │   Discriminant    Discriminant│      6       │
│ List of Values│    Analysis        Analysis  │ Visit History │
│  (Interval)  │                              │ (Dichotomous) │
└──────────────┘                              └──────────────┘
                          ┌──────────┐
┌──────────────┐          │    5     │
│      2       │Discriminant│Event Visit│
│    AIOs      │ Analysis  │Intention │
│  (Interval)  │          │  -High   │
└──────────────┘          │  -Low    │
                          └──────────┘
┌──────────────┐                              ┌──────────────┐
│      3       │Discriminant      Discriminant│      7       │
│ Demographics │ Analysis          Analysis   │Visit Interest│
│ (Nominal and │                              │  (Interval)  │
│   Ordinal)   │                              └──────────────┘
└──────────────┘
```
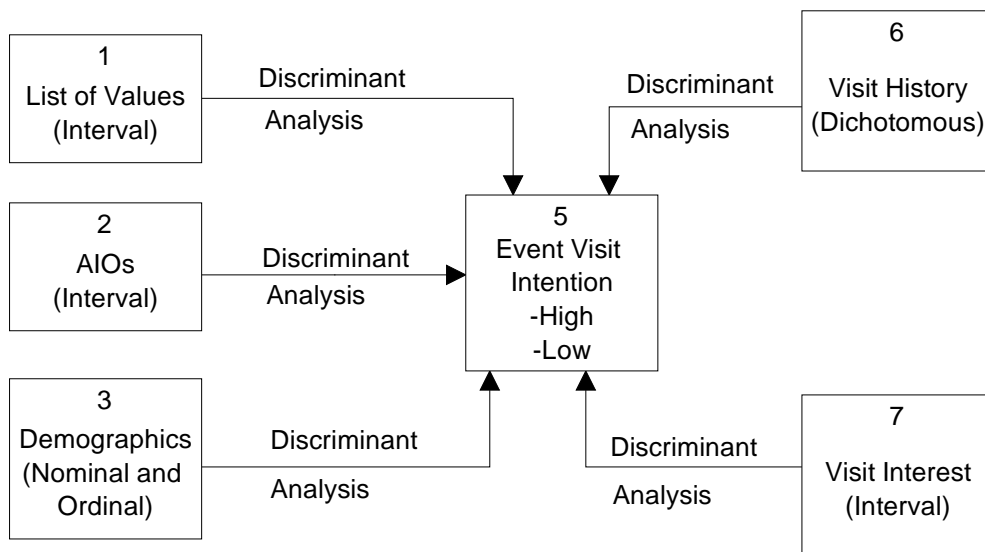
Visit interest and visit intention for each of the events listed in the questionnaire were converted to dichotomous variables based on median splits. The demographic variables were converted to dichotomous variables as discussed in an earlier section. Discriminant analysis was conducted using 'event visit intention' as the grouping variable and the LOV, the AIOs, demographics, visit history and visit interest as independent variables.

It was found that the LOV was able to correctly categorise the event visit intention for 59 per cent of respondents, demographics 60 per cent, the AIOs 75 per cent, and all three together 79 per cent. If actual visit history was added, the correct classification increased to 83 per cent and if visit interest was subsequently added, correct classification increased to 91 per cent. One should be careful with this, however, as although visit interest is a distinct variable from visit intention, the two are very closely aligned.

The LOV was a poor predictor of behaviour at both the specific event level and for events overall, as determined using the global summate.

## 7.16 Comparison Between First Time and Repeat Visitors

```
┌─────────────────────┐
│          1          │
│ List of Value Domains│─────ANOVA────┐      ┌──────────────┐
│     (Interval)      │               │      │      4       │
└─────────────────────┘               ├─────▶│  First-time  │
                                      │      │ Event Visitor│
┌─────────────────────┐               │      └──────────────┘
│          2          │               │
│    AIO Domains      │─────ANOVA─────┤
│     (Interval)      │               │
└─────────────────────┘               │      ┌──────────────┐
                                      │      │      5       │
┌─────────────────────┐   Chi-Square  ├─────▶│ Repeat Event │
│          3          │───────────────┘      │   Visitor    │
│    Demographics     │                      └──────────────┘
│   (Nominal and      │
│     Ordinal)        │
└─────────────────────┘
```
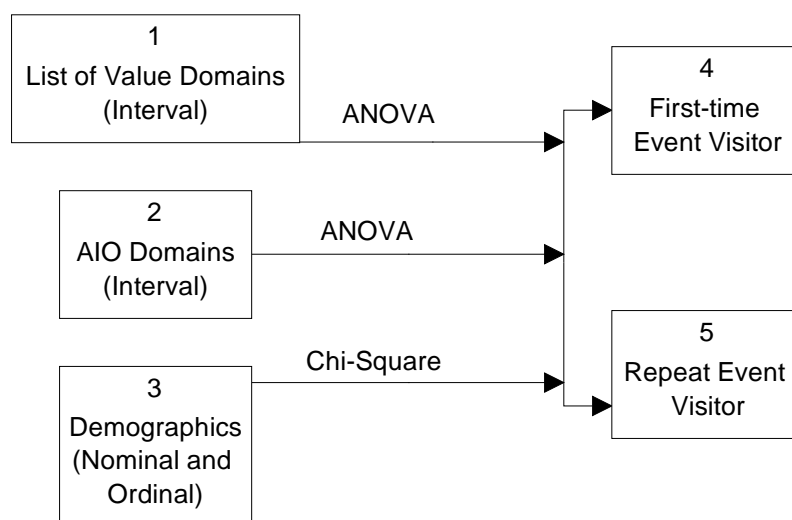
The literature has suggested that there are differences between first time visitors and repeat visitors at recurring special events, with respect to motives and other characteristics. Given that no question was used in this study that asked about repeat visitation, assumptions had to be made regarding repeat visitation at specific events. The assumptions were based upon visitation history at the events which was measured, as well as respondents' future visitation intention, which was also measured. It was assumed that first time visitors would be those who had not visited a specific event but had high intention to do so. Similarly, it was assumed that repeat visitors were those who had visited a specific event and had high intention to do so again.

Chi-square analyses were conducted for each event comparing event visit intention (high and low) with past visitation (yes and no) in order to assess whether there were differences between visitation and visit intention. Table 7.37 indicates the events for which statistically significant results were obtained and it can be seen that there were statistically significant differences for 69 per cent of the events. It was somewhat surprising to note that of the five events which did

not demonstrate significant differences, three of them related to community shows or festivals.

*Table 7.37 Chi-square Analysis - Event Visit Intention and Past Visitation*

| Event | Chi-square Result |
|---|---|
| Ford Australian Open Tennis | 28.28* |
| Spring Racing Carnival | 6.79* |
| International Festival of the Arts | 17.70* |
| Australian Formula One Grand Prix | 6.87* |
| Royal Agricultural Society of Victoria Show | 0.03 |
| Melbourne Food and Wine Festival | 27.32* |
| Australian Motorcycle Grand Prix | 7.28* |
| Melbourne International Comedy Festival | 16.87* |
| Melbourne Moomba Festival | 3.23 |
| Australian Football League Grand Final | 13.11* |
| Bells Beach Surf Classic | 9.36* |
| A Commonwealth or Olympic Games | 0.03 |
| Australian International Air Show | 0.11 |
| A Major Sporting Event held in Victoria | 11.36* |
| A Regional Community Festival or Fair in Victoria | 3.21 |
| A Major Cultural Event held in Victoria | 6.33* |

*Significant at the $p<0.05$ level.

Chi-square analyses were then conducted for each event to determine whether there were differences between first time and repeat visitors. In these analyses, actual visitation (yes and no) was run against the dichotomous visit intention variable formed by splitting the event visit intention variable about the median. Table 7.38 shows that differences were statistically significant for all events except the Olympics.

In order to see if there were demographic differences between first time and repeat visitors, Chi-square analyses were conducted for those who had visited each event and those who had not, both groups having high visit intention on each particular event. That is, Chi-square analyses were conducted of demographic variables and visitation for each event using visit intention for that event as a covariate. Table 7.39 presents the Pearson coefficients and the asterisks denote the results that were statistically significant. Abbreviations for the events have been used in Table 7.38 in order to keep the table to a manageable size. The order of events is the same as in the previous tables.

*Table 7.38 Chi-square Analysis - First Time and Repeat Visitors*

| | Chi-square |
|---|---|

| Event | Result |
|---|---|
| Ford Australian Open Tennis | 108.48* |
| Spring Racing Carnival | 64.82* |
| International Festival of the Arts | 110.48* |
| Australian Formula One Grand Prix | 45.61* |
| Royal Agricultural Society of Victoria Show | 12.93* |
| Melbourne Food and Wine Festival | 92.31* |
| Australian Motorcycle Grand Prix | 28.17* |
| Melbourne International Comedy Festival | 63.84* |
| Melbourne Moomba Festival | 4.18* |
| Australian Football League Grand Final | 76.79* |
| Bells Beach Surf Classic | 26.74* |
| A Commonwealth or Olympic Games | 1.20 |
| Australian International Air Show | 17.75* |
| A Major Sporting Event held in Victoria | 137.62* |
| A Regional Community Festival or Fair in Victoria | 117.92* |
| A Major Cultural Event held in Victoria | 95.39* |

*Significant at the $p<0.05$ level.

*Table 7.39  Chi-square Analysis - Demographic Variables and Repeat Visitation*

| Event | Age | Education | Family Status | Income | Gender |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Ford Open Tennis | 1.68 | 11.45 | 4.33 | 11.24 | 0.97 |
| Spring Racing | 21.76* | 8.58 | 8.89 | 4.88 | 7.92 |
| Festival of Arts | 10.52 | 5.00 | 6.67 | 6.76 | 0.03 |
| Formula One GP | 3.73 | 11.36 | 5.89 | 10.84 | 4.28 |
| Melbourne Show | 7.87 | 10.04 | 8.00 | 10.18 | 2.11 |
| Food and Wine Fest. | 6.41 | 6.73 | 6.72 | 3.15 | 0.05 |
| Motorcycle GP | 6.59 | 9.27 | 5.40 | 11.73 | 4.30* |
| Comedy Festival | 4.24 | 7.91 | 11.56 | 3.19 | 0.27 |
| Moomba | 10.82 | 1.98 | 2.29 | 3.92 | 0.63 |
| AFL Grand Final | 13.32* | 4.82 | 12.27 | 5.62 | 0.84 |
| Bells Beach Surf | 4.65 | 5.25 | 12.33 | 3.29 | 0.08 |
| Com. Games/Olympics | 42.60* | 9.66 | 17.15* | 7.78 | 1.59 |
| Air Show | 2.49 | 8.59 | 3.61 | 9.91 | 1.91 |
| Major Sport Event | 14.44* | 4.10 | 12.72* | 6.88 | 0.70 |
| Regional Festival | 2.07 | 8.64 | 4.96 | 8.56 | 0.96 |
| Major Cultural Event | 11.57* | 6.10 | 9.29 | 8.01 | 1.19 |

*Significant at the $p<0.05$ level.

It has been suggested in the literature that there are no demographic differences between first time and repeat visitors at special events (see, for example, Mohr, Backman, Gahan and Backman 1993). The results presented in the table above lend support to this in that only 10 per cent of the events included in the questionnaire demonstrated any statistically significant demographic differences between first time and repeat visitors, and of these, five were related to age.

In order to assess whether there were differences across the LOV factors and the AIO factors between first time and repeat visitors, multivariate ANOVAs

(MANOVAs) were calculated using actual visitation of a given event as the independent variable (yes or no), and the two LOV factors and the 15 AIO factors respectively as the dependent variables. The data file was split on the 'intention to visit that attraction variable' (a dichotomous variable based on a median split) and the analysis was restricted to those who were high on visit intention. The MANOVAs produced statistically significant F-scores for two of the 32 LOV domain options and 26 of the 240 psychographic domain options.

Thus, there were few statistically significant differences across value and AIO factors for first time and repeat visitors. This contrasts with the findings of Mohr, Backman, Gahan and Backman (1993) who found that there were differences in terms of event motives between first time and repeat festival visitors.

This analysis suggests that none of the following seven hypotheses should be supported.

Hypothesis 23:
There is a difference with respect to the items in the LOV between one-time and repeat visitors to special events.

Hypothesis 24:
There is a difference with respect to AIOs between one-time and repeat visitors to special events.

Hypothesis 25a:
There is a difference with respect to age between one-time and repeat visitors to special events.

Hypothesis 25b:
There is a difference with respect to gender between one-time and repeat visitors to special events.

Hypothesis 25c:

There is a difference with respect to education between one-time and repeat visitors to special events.

<u>Hypothesis 25d:</u>
There is a difference with respect to family status between one-time and repeat visitors to special events.

<u>Hypothesis 25e:</u>
There is a difference with respect to income between one-time and repeat visitors to special events.

For event organisers, it is important to be able to identify differences between one-time and repeat patrons in order to streamline marketing campaigns. This study has not been able to identify any such differences based on demographics, psychographics or values. However, one must be extremely careful in the interpretation of the findings here given that no information regarding satisfaction was obtained. The earlier reported success of Mohr, Backman, Gahan and Backman (1993) using motives to identify differences between the two groups suggests that further work on motives may be more rewarding in this area.

## 7.17 Cluster Analysis

In all of the clustering that follows, the K-Means technique was used. One of the most difficult parts of clustering is in determining the appropriate number of clusters to select as no objective selection procedure exists (Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Black 1995). Hair et al (1995) implied that most cluster analyses would use clusters between three and six in number and that it was best to conduct the cluster analysis for a range of cluster solutions. Some a priori criteria could then be used to decide on the best cluster solution. Since the objective of this analysis was to use the clusters to explain behaviour in relation to event visit intention, it was decided that the a priori selection criterion would be the incidence of statistically significant differences in terms of event visit intention at the range of events listed in the questionnaire. To achieve this, one-way ANOVAs were calculated for each of the cluster solutions ranging from two to six clusters,

of cluster membership (independent variable) and event visit intention (dependent variable). The solution with the highest number of statistically significant differences was selected as the optimum solution in each cluster analysis.

## 7.17.1 Clustering of Value Segments (As Determined by LOV Factor Scores)
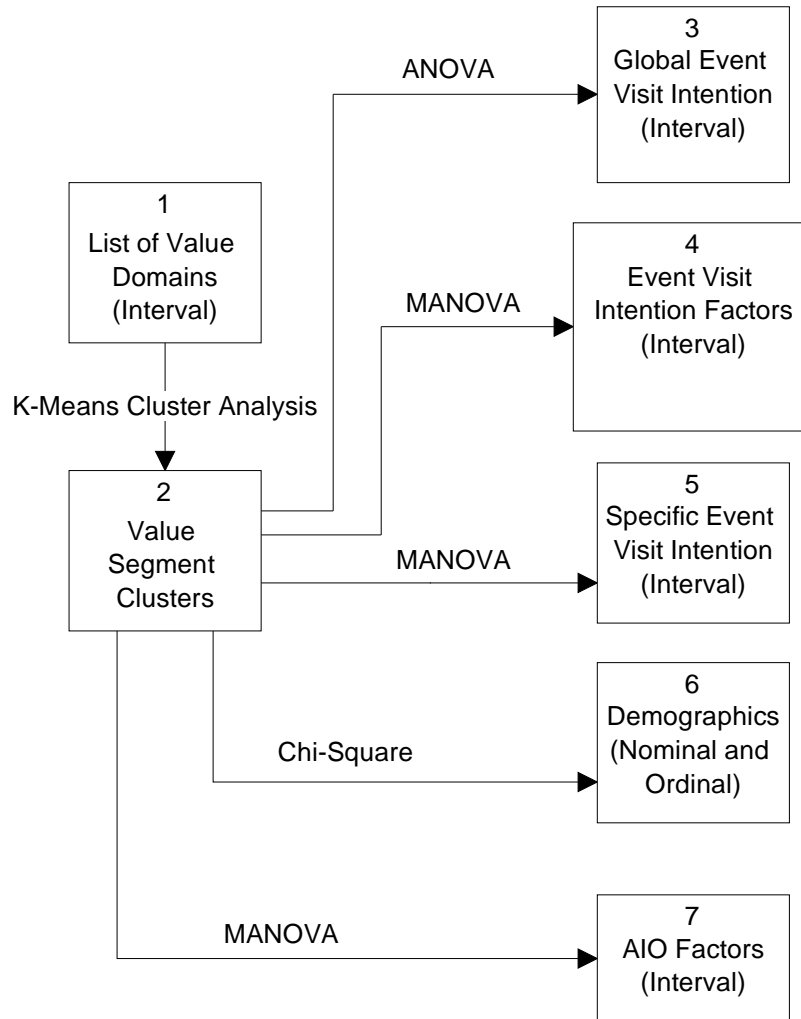


The clustering was based upon respondents' two LOV factor scores and was conducted for solutions ranging from two to six clusters. The distribution of the number of cases under the various solutions is presented in Table 7.40.

***Table 7.40  The Number of Members in the Various Cluster Solutions for Value Segments (as determined by LOV factor scores)***

|  | Cluster One | Cluster Two | Cluster Three | Cluster Four | Cluster Five | Cluster Six |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 2 Cluster Solution | 335 | 113 | | | | |
| 3 Cluster Solution | 132 | 239 | 72 | | | |
| 4 Cluster Solution | 2 | 248 | 96 | 102 | | |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 5 Cluster Solution | 182 | 77 | 118 | 69 | 2 | |
| 6 Cluster Solution | 2 | 169 | 91 | 37 | 108 | 41 |

'One-way ANOVAs' were used to assess the ability of the various cluster solutions to show statistically significant differences with respect to event visit intention at the range of events listed in the questionnaire. Using this approach, the four cluster solution was selected.

*Table 7.41  Cluster Centres for the Four Cluster Solution*

| Value | Cluster 1 (n=2) | Cluster 2 (n=248) | Cluster 3 (n=96) | Cluster 4 (n=102) |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Achievement | 1.28 | 0.30 | -1.42 | 0.58 |
| Affiliation | -5.80 | 0.59 | -0.34 | -0.99 |

Based on the figures presented in Table 7.41, it can be seen that the first cluster included those who were driven by the need for achievement and had very little regard for affiliation. Since this cluster contained only two members, it was regarded as unrepresentative of the sample and deleted from further analysis (Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Black 1995; Madrigal and Kahle 1994). Cluster two comprised those who regarded both achievement and affiliation as important, although the latter more so. The third cluster comprised those who had little regard for either achievement or affiliation whilst the fourth cluster comprised those who were driven by the need for achievement and had little regard for affiliation. This final cluster was a more moderate version of the first cluster where members were not as extreme in their need for achievement and disdain for affiliation as were the members of cluster one. After the deletion of cluster one, the remaining clusters represented quite distinct value domains.

The next part of the analysis was to determine whether there were differences in 'event visit intention' importance ratings across clusters comprising respondents grouped on the basis of their value systems. Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) calculations using the value clusters as the independent variables were used to test this. The analyses were run at three levels of event visit intention:

      1.   global, using the global event visit intention summate,

2. event groupings, using the factors extracted from the EFA of event visit intention,

3. event specific, using event visit intention of the range of named special events included in the questionnaire.

GLOBAL

(Using ANOVA)

F=11.02, p<0.001

This result demonstrated statistically significant differences between clusters with respect to overall event visit intention.

EVENT GROUPINGS (Using factors from EFA of event visit intention)

(Using MANOVA)

*Table 7.42  MANOVA of Event Visit Intention Factors by Value Clusters*

| Visit Intention | Event Visit Intention Factor Score Means | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Factors | Cluster 2 | Cluster 3 | Cluster 4 | F-Value |
| Major sport | 0.12 | -0.24 | -0.05 | 5.00* |
| Cultural | 0.14 | -0.26 | -0.10 | 6.10* |
| Popular festivals | 0.10 | -0.13 | -0.11 | 2.66 |
| Un-named | -0.02 | 0.07 | -0.02 | 0.34 |

Wilks=0.94, F=3.59, p<0.001
*Significant at the p<0.05 level.

The results in Table 7.42 demonstrate statistically significant differences between clusters overall in terms of event visit intention. There were statistically significant differences across the clusters for the first two factors but not the final two. Cluster 2 was interested in each of the first three categories of events but indifferent to the un-named events. Cluster three was inclined in the opposite direction showing particular aversion to the major sport and cultural events. The final cluster showed no interest in any of the event categories.

INDIVIDUAL EVENTS

Wilks=0.88, F=1.71, p=0.009

This result indicated statistically significant differences between clusters at the individual event level with 11 of the 16 events demonstrating statistically significant differences on value segment clusters.

Hypothesis 17:

Segments comprising people with similar value systems differ in their behaviour in relation to special events.

These results suggest that segments comprising people with similar value systems differ in their event visit intention at three levels of event visitation, namely, global, event groupings, and specific events. This provides support for Hypothesis 17.

In order to assess whether demographic differences between clusters may have contributed to the differences between clusters noted above, chi-square analyses were conducted for demographic variables and cluster membership, and the results are reported in Table 7.43.

Gender and age were the only demographic variables that demonstrated statistically significant differences across value segments which suggests that the differences in event preferences were, indeed, largely explained by differences in value preferences. That is, personal value systems seem to be better predictors of special event preferences than demographic segmentation, which is consistent with the findings of Madrigal and Kahle (1994).

*Table 7.43  Chi-square Analysis - Demographic Variables and Value Clusters*

| | CLUSTERS | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | TWO | THREE | FOUR |
| **Characteristic of Respondent** | (%) | (%) | (%) |
| Sex | | | |
|   Male | 37 | 53 | 56 |
|   Female | 63 | 47 | 44 |
| Chi-square = 13.70, df=2, p=0.001 | | | |
| | | | |
| Age | | | |
|   18-19 | 10 | 1 | 3 |
|   20-29 | 24 | 19 | 29 |
|   30-39 | 20 | 26 | 23 |
|   40-49 | 22 | 18 | 19 |
|   50-59 | 11 | 15 | 14 |
|   60 and above | 13 | 21 | 12 |
| Chi-square = 19.30, df=10, p=0.037 | | | |
| | | | |
| Income ($/year) | | | |
|   Less than 10000 | 9 | 16 | 10 |
|   10000-29999 | 31 | 31 | 26 |
|   30000-49999 | 23 | 20 | 30 |
|   50000-69999 | 17 | 18 | 18 |
|   70000-99999 | 13 | 8 | 8 |
|   100000 and above | 7 | 7 | 8 |
| Chi-square = 9.37, df=10, p=0.898 | | | |
| | | | |
| Education | | | |
|   Primary | 2 | 1 | 2 |
|   Some secondary | 24 | 22 | 31 |
|   Completed secondary | 16 | 15 | 10 |
|   Some technical etc | 6 | 4 | 5 |
|   Completed technical etc | 8 | 10 | 9 |
|   Some tertiary | 19 | 22 | 12 |
|   Completed tertiary | 25 | 26 | 31 |
| Chi-square = 9.72, df=12, p=0.640 | | | |
| | | | |
| Family Status | | | |
|   Married, children at home | 39 | 41 | 36 |
|   Married, no children at home | 15 | 18 | 18 |
|   Married, no children | 4 | 8 | 12 |
|   Not married, children at home | 7 | 2 | 5 |
|   Never married, no children at home | 28 | 18 | 21 |
|   Widowed, no children at home | 3 | 4 | 4 |
|   Divorced, no children at home | 4 | 9 | 4 |
| Chi-square = 19.51, df=12, p=0.077 | | | |

A MANOVA examining the relationship between cluster membership and the psychographic factors was conducted and the results are presented in Table 7.44. Although the overall result demonstrated statistically significant differences based on Wilks Lambda, it can be seen that these differences occurred for four factors only.

*Table 7.44  MANOVA of Psychographic Factors by Value Clusters*

| Factors | Psychographic Factor Means | | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| | **Cluster 2** | **Cluster 3** | **Cluster 4** | **F-Value** |
| Self improvement | 0.21 | -0.43 | -0.08 | 15.52* |
| Active outdoors/sports | -0.06 | 0.04 | 0.12 | 1.19 |
| Nature | -0.02 | -0.07 | 0.10 | 0.75 |
| Culture | 0.08 | -0.02 | -0.15 | 1.94 |
| Affiliation/social | 0.23 | -0.53 | -0.05 | 22.67* |
| Conservative | 0.12 | -0.17 | -0.14 | 4.39* |
| Stimulation | 0.06 | -0.26 | 0.11 | 4.41* |
| Participating in causes | 0.08 | -0.18 | -0.04 | 2.53 |
| Independence | -0.00 | -0.05 | 0.08 | 0.42 |
| Away from home | 0.01 | -0.04 | 0.02 | 0.13 |
| Gambling/dining | 0.01 | -0.07 | 0.04 | 0.30 |
| Peace | 0.04 | -0.14 | -0.00 | 1.15 |
| Gender role | -0.03 | 0.06 | 0.04 | 0.40 |
| Anomie | 0.07 | -0.06 | -0.09 | 1.21 |
| Frugal | -0.03 | -0.11 | 0.16 | 1.92 |

Wilks=0.76, F=4.30, p<0.001
*Significant at the p<0.05 level.

## 7.17.2 Clustering of Value Segments (As Determined by the Top-Ranked Value)
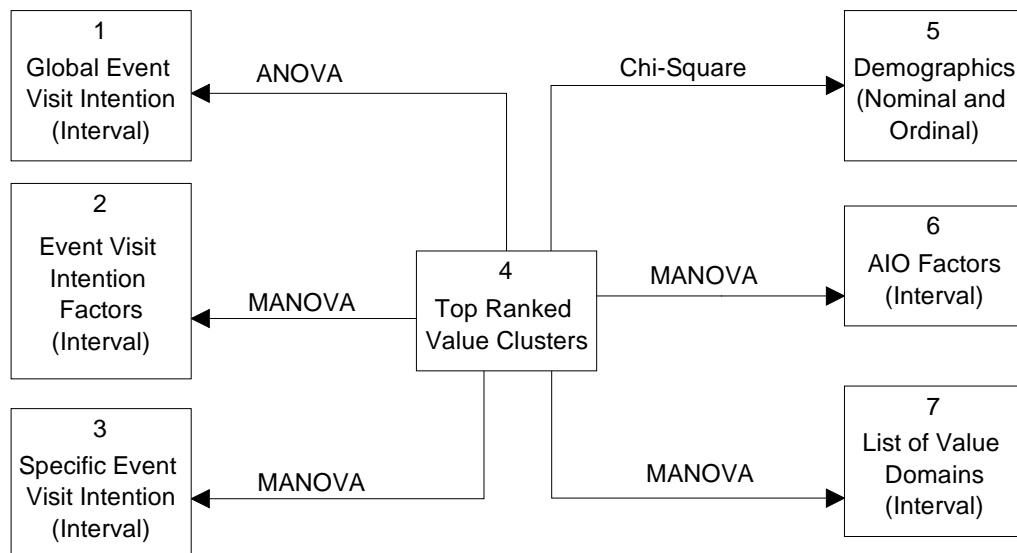


Clusters were formed based on the value that respondents listed as the most important guiding principle in their lives. This resulted in 10 clusters, nine of which related to the LOV, and one that represented the non-LOV items that were included in the questionnaire, as explained earlier.

The next part of the analysis was to determine whether there were differences in 'event visit intention' across clusters comprising respondents grouped on the basis of their top ranked value. Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) calculations using the value clusters as the independent variables were used to test this. The analyses were again run at the three levels of event visit intention: global, event grouping, and event specific.

GLOBAL

(Using ANOVA)

F=0.69, p=0.699

This result did not support the presence of statistically significant differences between clusters with respect to overall event visit intention.

EVENT GROUPINGS (Using factors from EFA of event visit intention)

(Using MANOVA)

The results in Table 7.45 demonstrate that there were no statistically significant differences between clusters with respect to event groupings.

***Table 7.45  MANOVA of Event Visit Intention Factors by Value Clusters (top-ranked)***

| Visit Intention Factors | F-Value |
|---|---|
| Major sport | 1.67 |
| Cultural | 1.64 |
| Popular festivals | 1.24 |
| Un-named | 1.02 |

Wilks=0.89, F=1.39, p=0.062
*Significant at the $p<0.05$ level.

INDIVIDUAL EVENTS

Wilks=0.67, F=1.20, p=0.058

In line with the earlier findings, this result does not support the presence of statistically significant differences across segments formed using respondents' top-ranked value. There were statistically significant differences across clusters for only two of the 16 events listed, namely, the International Festival of the Arts and the Royal Agricultural Society of Victoria Show.

Unlike the earlier clustering based on value systems, the clustering based on respondents' top ranked values did not identify differences in relation to visit intention behaviour on any of the three dimensions of events, namely, global, event grouping, or specific events. This leads to support for the following hypothesis.

Hypothesis 31:

Cluster analysis based on segments comprising people with similar value systems is a better basis for predicting visit intention behaviour in relation to special events than is cluster analysis based on segments comprising people based on their top ranked value.

In order to assess whether demographic differences between clusters may have contributed to differences between clusters, chi-square analyses were run between demographic variables and cluster membership. This was done in an earlier section of this chapter and the results were presented in Table 7.21. The results in Table 7.21, and the discussion following it, indicate that there were statistically significant differences between respondents clustered on their top-ranked value, with respect to age, gender and education.

MANOVAs examining the relationship between cluster membership and each of the LOV factors and psychographic factors were calculated, and the results are presented in Table 7.46. Neither of the LOV factors demonstrated statistically significant differences across the clusters and only two of the 15 psychographic factors, namely, 'nature' and 'anomie' showed differences. Therefore, clusters based on top-ranked value were fairly homogeneous with respect to psychographics and value domains.

***Table 7.46  MANOVA of Psychographic Factors and LOV Factors by Value Clusters (top-ranked)***

| Factors | F-Value |
|---|---|
| LOV | |
| Achievement | 1.14 |

|  |  |
|---|---|
|    Affiliation | 0.93 |

Wilks=0.96, F=1.04, p=0.415

Psychographic

| | |
|---|---|
|    Self improvement | 1.26 |
|    Active outdoors/sports | 1.15 |
|    Nature | 2.17* |
|    Culture | 1.06 |
|    Affiliation/social | 0.61 |
|    Conservative | 1.29 |
|    Stimulation | 1.34 |
|    Participating in causes | 1.24 |
|    Independence | 1.18 |
|    Away from home | 1.42 |
|    Gambling/dining | 1.52 |
|    Peace | 0.98 |
|    Gender role | 1.67 |
|    Anomie | 1.99* |
|    Frugal | 0.72 |

Wilks=0.67, F=1.32, p=0.009
*Significant at the $p < 0.05$ level.

## 7.17.3 Clustering of Psychographic Segments (As Determined by AIO Factor Scores)
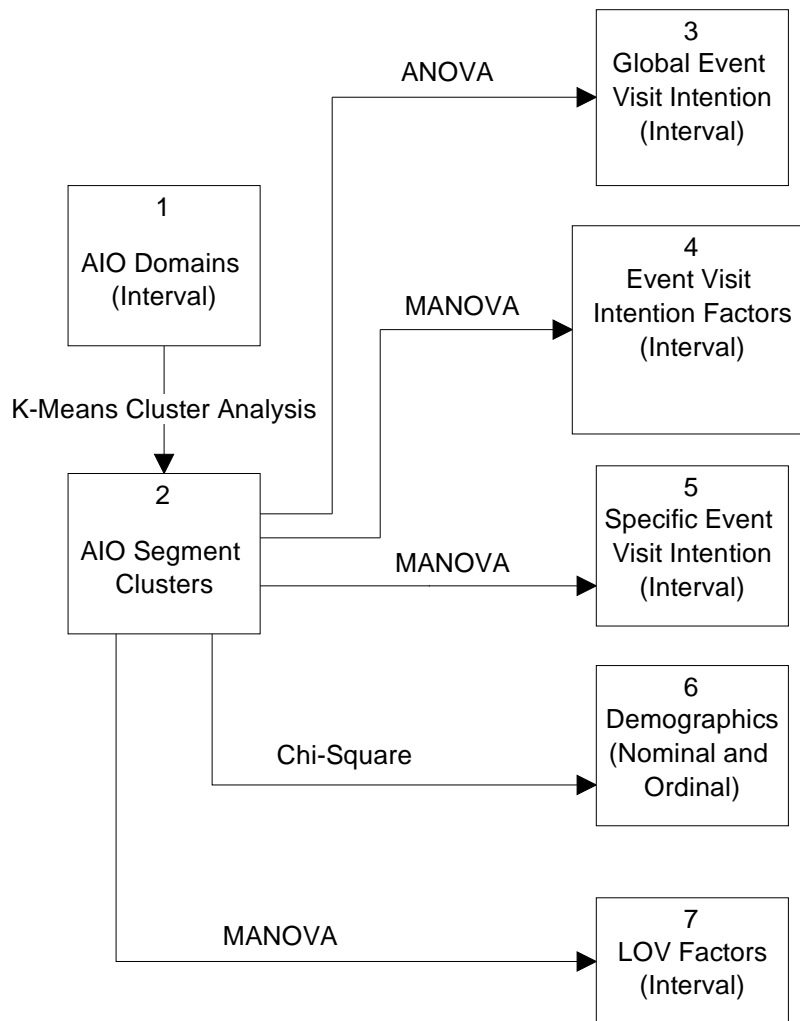


K-Means Cluster Analysis was used to cluster respondents into a small number of homogeneous groups based upon respondents' 15 AIO factor scores. The analysis was repeated for a range of cluster solutions from two to six clusters with the distribution of cases under the various solutions being presented in Table 7.47.

*Table 7.47  The Number of Members in the Various Cluster Solutions for Value Segments (as determined by AIO factor scores)*

|  | Cluster One | Cluster Two | Cluster Three | Cluster Four | Cluster Five | Cluster Six |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 2 Cluster Solution | 106 | 342 |  |  |  |  |
| 3 Cluster Solution | 77 | 140 | 231 |  |  |  |
| 4 Cluster Solution | 162 | 83 | 81 | 122 |  |  |
| 5 Cluster Solution | 119 | 65 | 77 | 118 | 69 |  |
| 6 Cluster Solution | 106 | 115 | 58 | 56 | 46 | 67 |

'One-way ANOVAs' were used to assess the ability of the various cluster solutions to show statistically significant differences with respect to event visit intention at the range of events listed in the questionnaire. Using this approach, the six cluster solution was selected.

The next part of the analysis was to determine whether there were differences in 'event visit intention' importance ratings across clusters comprising respondents grouped on the basis of their psychographic systems. MANOVA calculations using the value clusters as the independent variables were used to test this. The analyses were again run at the global, the event grouping, and the event specific levels of event visit intention.

GLOBAL
(Using ANOVA)
F=4.37, p=0.001
This result demonstrates that there were statistically significant differences between clusters with respect to overall event visit intention.

EVENT GROUPINGS (Using factors from EFA of event visit intention)
(Using MANOVA)
The results in Table 7.48 show that there were statistically significant differences across the clusters for three of the four event visit intention factors.

*Table 7.48  MANOVA of Event Visit Intention Factors by Psychographic Clusters*

| Visit Intention Factors | Event Visit Intention Factor Score Means | | | | | | F-VALUE |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | **ONE** | **TWO** | **THREE** | **FOUR** | **FIVE** | **SIX** | |
| Major sport | -0.43 | 0.14 | 0.12 | 0.68 | -0.18 | -0.11 | 11.27* |
| Cultural | 0.41 | -0.17 | -0.24 | -0.11 | 0.06 | -0.10 | 5.51* |
| Pop. festival | 0.05 | -0.15 | 0.10 | 0.21 | 0.09 | -0.15 | 1.57 |
| Un-named | 0.01 | -0.17 | -0.28 | 0.29 | 0.26 | 0.09 | 3.40* |

Wilks=0.79, F=5.49, p<0.001
*Significant at the p<0.05 level.

INDIVIDUAL EVENTS
Wilks=0.65, F=2.44, p<0.001

This result indicated statistically significant differences across clusters at the individual event level with 12 of the 16 events demonstrating statistically significant differences.

Hypothesis 29:

Segments comprising people with similar psychographic systems differ in their visit intention behaviour in relation to special events.

These results suggest that segments comprising people with similar psychographic systems differ in their event visit intention at three levels of event visitation, namely, global, event groupings, and specific events. This provides support for Hypothesis 29.

Hypothesis 30:

Cluster analysis based on segments comprising people with similar value systems is a better basis for predicting visit intention behaviour in relation to special events than is cluster analysis based on segments comprising people with similar psychographic systems.

In order to test Hypothesis 30, it is necessary to compare the performance of segments comprising people with similar value systems to those comprising people with similar psychographic systems in terms of their abilities to predict event visit intention behaviour. It was seen in an earlier section of this chapter that the clustering based on similar value systems produced statistically significant differences for the three event levels considered. A similar result was obtained in this section for clustering based on similar psychographic systems. Table 7.49 compares the outcomes of the two clustering approaches and suggests that clustering based on psychographic systems is slightly better than that based upon value systems. This outcome does not provide support for Hypothesis 30.

In order to assess whether demographic differences between clusters may have contributed to the differences between clusters noted above, chi-square analyses were run between demographic variables and cluster membership and the results are presented in Table 7.50.

*Table 7.49  Comparison of the Outcomes of Clustering Based on Values with Clustering Based on Psychographics*

| Visitation Dimension | Value System Clusters | Psychographic System Clusters |
|---|---|---|
| Global Event Visit Intention | Significant | Significant |
| Event Visit Intention Factors | 50% Significant | 75% Significant |
| Individual Events | 69% Significant | 75% Significant |

There were statistically significant differences across psychographic segments for all demographic variables except income. This would suggest that differences between clusters could be explained by demographics at least as well as by psychographics.

A MANOVA examining the relationship between cluster membership and the LOV factors was calculated and statistically significant differences were found based on Wilks Lambda. As shown in Table 7.51, there were significant differences for both value factors.

***Table 7.50  Chi-square Analysis - Demographic Variables and Psychographic Clusters***

| Characteristic of Respondent | PERCENTAGE RESPONDENTS IN EACH CLUSTER | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | ONE | TWO | THREE | FOUR | FIVE | SIX |
| **Sex** | | | | | | |
| Male | 32 | 43 | 53 | 66 | 30 | 52 |
| Female | 68 | 57 | 47 | 34 | 70 | 48 |
| Chi-square = 24.35, df=5, p<0.001 | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | |
| **Age** | | | | | | |
| 18-19 | 2 | 9 | 7 | 14 | 4 | 3 |
| 20-29 | 23 | 24 | 17 | 45 | 26 | 12 |
| 30-39 | 27 | 17 | 28 | 20 | 20 | 22 |
| 40-49 | 24 | 19 | 14 | 20 | 20 | 24 |
| 50-59 | 13 | 12 | 16 | 0 | 20 | 13 |
| 60 and above | 11 | 19 | 18 | 1 | 10 | 26 |
| Chi-square = 57.28, df=25, p<0.001 | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | |
| **Income ($/year)** | | | | | | |
| Less than 10000 | 7 | 13 | 13 | 6 | 12 | 14 |
| 10000-29999 | 20 | 37 | 40 | 22 | 33 | 29 |
| 30000-49999 | 27 | 23 | 24 | 24 | 26 | 24 |
| 50000-69999 | 22 | 9 | 16 | 30 | 12 | 19 |
| 70000-99999 | 15 | 11 | 5 | 8 | 12 | 8 |
| 100000 and above | 9 | 7 | 2 | 10 | 5 | 6 |
| Chi-square = 41.80, df=40, p=0.392 | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | |
| **Education** | | | | | | |
| Primary | 0 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 4 |
| Some secondary | 8 | 30 | 38 | 27 | 39 | 19 |
| Completed secondary | 14 | 15 | 10 | 13 | 11 | 19 |
| Some technical etc | 5 | 9 | 3 | 4 | 0 | 6 |
| Completed technical etc | 9 | 3 | 10 | 13 | 11 | 12 |
| Some tertiary | 21 | 21 | 12 | 25 | 13 | 13 |
| Completed tertiary | 43 | 19 | 27 | 18 | 22 | 27 |
| Chi-square = 63.75, df=30, p<0.001 | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | |
| **Family Status** | | | | | | |
| Married, children at home | 38 | 37 | 50 | 39 | 26 | 43 |
| Married, no children at home | 17 | 19 | 10 | 9 | 13 | 22 |
| Married, no children | 9 | 5 | 12 | 5 | 0 | 7 |
| Not married, children at home | 6 | 6 | 9 | 4 | 9 | 1 |
| Never married, no children at home | 22 | 25 | 12 | 39 | 39 | 14 |
| Widowed, no children at home | 2 | 5 | 2 | 0 | 9 | 5 |
| Divorced, no children at home | 6 | 3 | 5 | 4 | 4 | 8 |
| Chi-square = 48.66, df=30, p=0.017 | | | | | | |

*Table 7.51 MANOVA of Value Factors by Psychographic Clusters*

| Factors | ONE | TWO | THREE | FOUR | FIVE | SIX | F-VALUE |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Achievement | -0.08 | 0.33 | -0.09 | 0.14 | -0.11 | -0.40 | 5.61* |
| Affiliation | 0.12 | 0.20 | -0.03 | -0.02 | -0.09 | -0.44 | 4.07* |

Wilks=0.90, F=4.92, p<0.001
*Significant at the p<0.05 level.

## 7.17.4 Clustering of Event Visit Intention (As Determined by Event Visit Intention Factor Scores)
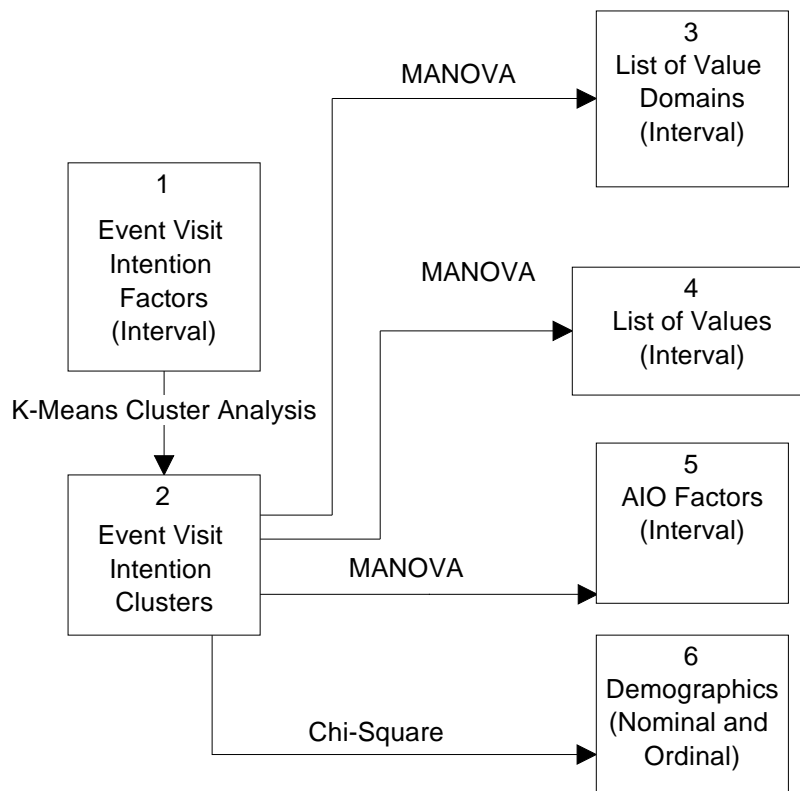


K-Means Cluster Analysis was again used to cluster respondents into a small number of homogeneous groups with the clustering being based upon respondents' four event visit intention factor scores. Analyses were conducted for solutions ranging from two to six clusters with the distribution of cases under the various solutions being presented in Table 7.52.

*Table 7.52  The Number of Members in the Various Cluster Solutions for Value Segments (as determined by event visit intention factor scores)*

|  | Cluster One | Cluster Two | Cluster Three | Cluster Four | Cluster Five | Cluster Six |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 2 Cluster Solution | 186 | 262 |  |  |  |  |
| 3 Cluster Solution | 140 | 112 | 196 |  |  |  |
| 4 Cluster Solution | 93 | 119 | 159 | 77 |  |  |
| 5 Cluster Solution | 162 | 64 | 93 | 63 | 66 |  |
| 6 Cluster Solution | 78 | 123 | 93 | 50 | 54 | 50 |

'One-way ANOVAs' were used to assess the ability of the various cluster solutions to show statistically significant differences with respect to the items contained in the LOV. Using this approach, the five cluster solution was selected.

The next part of the analysis was to determine whether there were differences in 'value domains' across clusters comprising respondents grouped on the basis of their event visit intention. MANOVA calculations using the event visit intention clusters as the independent variables were used to test this. The analyses were run at two levels of values:

1.  value domains, using the two value factors,
2.  the value ratings themselves.

VALUE DOMAINS

(Using MANOVA)

As can be seen in Table 7.53, both value factors demonstrated statistically significant differences between clusters.

*Table 7.53  MANOVA of Value Factors by Event Visit Intention Clusters*

| Visit Intention Factors | Event Visit Intention Factor Score Means | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
|  | ONE | TWO | THREE | FOUR | FIVE | F-VALUE |
| LOVF1 | -0.21 | 0.33 | -0.07 | 0.04 | 0.27 | 5.14* |
| LOVF2 | -0.22 | 0.26 | 0.07 | 0.13 | 0.07 | 3.58* |

Wilks=0.92, F=4.41, $p < 0.001$
* Significant at the $p < 0.05$ level.

INDIVIDUAL VALUES

Wilks=0.82, F=2.47, $p < 0.001$

This result supports the earlier finding of statistically significant differences with respect to values across clusters. It was found that only two of the nine items in the LOV did not demonstrate statistically significant differences across the clusters, namely, 'fulfilment' and 'warm relationships'.

Hypothesis 18:

Groups of individuals segmented on their intention to patronise similar types of special events may be differentiated on the basis of the personal values of segment members.

The earlier analysis provides support for this hypothesis irrespective of whether values are measured via the individual items or via the value domains.

In order to assess whether demographic differences between clusters may have contributed to the differences between clusters noted above in the value analyses, chi-square analyses were conducted between demographic variables and cluster membership as noted in Table 7.54.

There were statistically significant differences for all demographic variables across the event visit intention clusters.

In terms of gender, there were quite clear distinctions between clusters with clusters one, three and five demonstrating a positive female bias. Members of cluster one were older, with only 17 per cent being under 30 and 37 per cent being over 50. This contrasts with cluster two where 47 per cent of members were under 30 and only 11 per cent were above 50 years old.

The income profile of clusters showed some consistency with the age profile in that cluster one, whose members tended to be older, had a lower average income with 49 per cent of members having an annual income below $30,000 and only 11 per cent having an income above $70,000. Clusters three and four members tended to have higher annual incomes.

***Table 7.54  Chi-square Analysis - Demographic Variables and Event Visit Intention Clusters***

| Characteristic of Respondent | PERCENTAGE OF RESPONDENTS IN EACH CLUSTER | | | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| | **ONE** | **TWO** | **THREE** | **FOUR** | **FIVE** |
| **Sex** | | | | | |
| Male | 41 | 67 | 32 | 65 | 30 |
| Female | 59 | 33 | 68 | 35 | 70 |
| Chi-square = 35.74, df=4, p<0.001 | | | | | |
| **Age** | | | | | |
| 18-19 | 2 | 13 | 3 | 11 | 9 |
| 20-29 | 15 | 34 | 25 | 25 | 32 |
| 30-39 | 26 | 20 | 19 | 21 | 20 |
| 40-49 | 20 | 22 | 22 | 16 | 23 |
| 50-59 | 16 | 3 | 15 | 11 | 9 |
| 60 and above | 21 | 8 | 16 | 16 | 7 |
| Chi-square = 39.80, df=20, p=0.005 | | | | | |
| **Income ($/year)** | | | | | |
| Less than 10000 | 17 | 13 | 7 | 7 | 3 |
| 10000-29999 | 32 | 31 | 20 | 25 | 41 |
| 30000-49999 | 23 | 32 | 23 | 19 | 27 |
| 50000-69999 | 17 | 16 | 21 | 16 | 17 |
| 70000-99999 | 8 | 3 | 17 | 16 | 11 |
| 100000 and above | 3 | 5 | 12 | 17 | 1 |
| Chi-square = 65.11, df=32, p<0.001 | | | | | |
| **Education** | | | | | |
| Primary | 4 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 |
| Some secondary | 34 | 25 | 14 | 27 | 17 |
| Completed secondary | 12 | 17 | 16 | 19 | 9 |
| Some technical etc | 6 | 5 | 2 | 6 | 8 |
| Completed technical etc | 13 | 13 | 4 | 8 | 3 |
| Some tertiary | 9 | 22 | 17 | 24 | 33 |
| Completed tertiary | 22 | 18 | 47 | 16 | 27 |
| Chi-square = 71.55, df=24, p<0.001 | | | | | |
| **Family Status** | | | | | |
| Married, children at home | 46 | 44 | 33 | 25 | 38 |
| Married, no children at home | 20 | 8 | 13 | 19 | 17 |
| Married, no children | 8 | 6 | 4 | 10 | 6 |
| Not married, children at home | 7 | 3 | 8 | 2 | 5 |
| Never married, no children at home | 11 | 34 | 29 | 35 | 29 |
| Widowed, no children at home | 5 | 0 | 6 | 3 | 0 |
| Divorced, no children at home | 3 | 5 | 7 | 6 | 5 |
| Chi-square = 45.62, df=24, p=0.005 | | | | | |

Members of cluster one tended to have lower levels of education with 38 per cent having not completing secondary education, which is consistent with an older age group. Members of cluster three demonstrated a much higher average education level with over 64 per cent having had at least some tertiary education.

### 7.18 Summary of Research Hypotheses Results

The following table summarises the outcomes of the research hypotheses that were tested throughout this chapter.

| HYPOTHESIS | SUPPORT? | HYPOTHESIS | SUPPORT? |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Yes | 16a | Yes |
| 2 | Yes | 16b | Yes |
| 3 | Yes | 17 | Yes |
| 4 | No | 18 | Yes |
| 5 | Yes | 19 | No |
| 6a | Yes | 20 | No |
| 6b | Yes | 21 | No |
| 6c | No | 22a | No |
| 7a | Yes | 22b | Yes |
| 7b | Yes | 22c | No |
| 7c | Unresolved | 23 | No |
| 8 | No | 24 | No |
| 9 | No | 25a | No |
| 10 | Yes | 25b | No |
| 11a | Partial | 25c | No |
| 11b | Partial | 25d | No |
| 11c | No | 25e | No |
| 11d | No | 26 | Partial |
| 11e | Partial | 27 | Partial |
| 12a | No | 28a | Yes |
| 12b | No | 28b | No |
| 12c | Yes | 28c | Yes |
| 13a | No | 28d | Yes |
| 13b | No | 28e | No |
| 13c | No | 29 | Yes |
| 14 | Yes | 30 | No |
| 15a | Yes | 31 | Yes |
| 15b | Yes | | |

# CHAPTER 8

# CONCLUSION

## *8.1 Key Findings*

Despite the fact that the field of special events has become an integral component of the tourism industry in many regions, relatively little research has been conducted in this area. Debate has surrounded the meaning of the term itself and little has been done to understand the needs of the market in relation to special events and how consumers perceive special events relative to other leisure activities. These deficiencies must be overcome if the field of special events is to reach its full potential.

### 8.1.1 A Conceptualisation of Special Events

In Part One, research was conducted to develop a conceptualisation of special events in order to help overcome a fundamental gap in the knowledge base of special events. The first part of this conceptualisation study was based on an extensive and systematic review of the literature from which it was proposed that special events are a particular type of visitor attraction. It was found that attendees at many special events were largely from the local area and thus their presence at a special event would be classed as a daytrip activity and not part of tourism in a traditional sense. However, many contemporary definitions of tourism now recognise daytrip activities as part of tourism since the economic impacts are so similar, and it was, therefore, proposed that special events should be regarded, principally, as part of tourism. This proposition is consistent with the fact that special event divisions have been established within many of Australia's state and territory tourism organisations.

In conducting the literature search to identify the key characteristics of special events, one of the major difficulties encountered was the inconsistent use of terms to describe special events and to identify sub-categories. These terms, such as festival, mega-event, major event and hallmark event, were used as synonyms by some researchers and as specific identifiers by others, and there did not appear to

be any consistency in the actual usage. If a field of study does not have a sound definitional base, research output in that field is likely to be less effective as it will often not be clear as to the categories to which the findings apply. The field of special events has clearly suffered from the lack of a commonly accepted definitional base.

In an effort to overcome this problem and to provide a basis for the comparison of specific special events, a diagrammatic framework of events based on the literature review was proposed. The literature review was also used as the basis for identifying core and qualifying attributes of special events that were subsequently used to support a range of definitions that was proposed for different special event types. The core attributes of special events that were proposed are:

1. Attracting tourists or tourism development,
2. Being of a limited duration,
3. Being a one-off or infrequent occurrence,
4. Raising the awareness, image or profile of a region,
5. Offering a social experience,
6. Being out of the ordinary.

The primary research that was conducted in an effort to identify the attributes that consumers regarded as important in defining a special event found four key attributes:

1. The number of attendees,
2. The international attention due to the event,
3. The improvement in the image and pride of the host region as a result of hosting the event, and
4. The exciting experience associated with the event.

These attributes, which were identified using a number of techniques that demonstrated strong convergent validity, correlated well with respondents' rating of the specialness of a range of named special events.

Exploratory Factor Analysis was used to examine the underlying connections between the different special events based on respondents' ratings of event

specialness. Given that such connections or groupings were based on a consumer perspective, it was considered that they would provide a sound basis for categorising special events in the various media that are used to promote special events. The following categories were derived from the EFA:

1. Sport  - Mega
          - General
          - Other Racing
2. Regional Events
3. Festivals  - Cultural
            - City
4. Technology
5. Service Oriented
6. Human Endurance
7. Intermittent International

## 8.1.2 The Ability of Individual Differences to Explain Special Event Behaviour

The need to understand consumers in relation to special events and the importance of market segmentation in this process were discussed in Part Two. A small number of studies has been conducted in recent years that has sought to explain consumer behaviour in relation to special events, and these studies were reviewed in Chapter Four. It was found that most of these studies were destination-based which meant that only the behaviour of attendees was considered and as a consequence, it was not possible to generalise the findings of the studies to the wider population. A few studies were found that were origin-based, thus allowing generalisation of the findings to the wider population, but all of these studies had a broader focus than special events and indeed, special event behaviour was little more than an incidental element of these studies.

Three approaches to market segmentation, namely, personal values, psychographics and demographics, were adopted for use in the origin-based primary research that underpinned Part Two of this study.

Distinctiveness of Special Events

It was discussed in an earlier chapter that some leading researchers (Swarbrooke 1995 and Getz 1997), proposed that special events should be regarded as a particular type of visitor attraction. Although this proposition was based on a supply perspective, the findings of the primary research conducted in this study confirm such a proposition from a consumer perspective. The exploratory factor analyses that were conducted on both visit interest and visit intention indicated that respondents viewed special events as distinct from permanent attractions. There were also differences in terms of respondent behaviour for special events as opposed to permanent attractions. For example, past visitation was a better indicator of visit interest and visit intention for special events than it was for permanent attractions.

The fact that these differences between visitor attraction categories are based upon the consumer perspective supports the thrust of the Consumer Decision Process Model (Figure 1.4) which underpinned this thesis, and treated permanent attractions and special events as distinct forms of visitor attractions. These differences also have important implications for the manner in which visitor attractions are promoted. Given that the correlation between visit interest and visit intention was higher for special events than it was for permanent attractions, this suggests that promotion campaigns that generate interest in special events will have more impact on special event patronage than would notionally similar campaigns for permanent attractions. This goes some way to justifying the existence of specific special event divisions in many regions and the money that is spent on publications such as special event calendars which promote special events to the public. It is also important that permanent attractions be seen as complementary to special events, as a means of extending visitors' stay in a region, and providing an incentive for them to spend more money in the region.
As well as separating special events from permanent attractions, respondents grouped special events into categories that were consistent with the broad categories that are used to promote special events by the state and territory special event divisions. Such categories included 'sport', 'culture' and 'festivals'.

Although 'event visit interest' and 'event specialness' appear to be two distinct concepts, it was interesting to note that there was a similarity between the factor groupings that were extracted from the EFA of each variable. The factor groupings that were extracted from the EFA of event visit interest were largely subsets of the groupings that were extracted from the EFA of event specialness. There was also a relationship between the factor groupings extracted from the EFA of event visit intention and the factors extracted from the EFA of event specialness, but the relationship was less clear.

This link between visit interest, and to a lesser extent visit intention, and respondents' perceived degree of specialness of events was confirmed using correlation analysis. This analysis showed that there were statistically significant relationships between the concepts for almost all of the events in the questionnaire. The correlation coefficients, which were in the small to moderate range, were higher between visit interest and event specialness than they were between visit intention and event specialness.

Measurement of the List of Values (LOV)

Given the lack of consensus in the literature regarding the most appropriate means of measuring the LOV, it was decided to use both of the recognised approaches in this study, namely, ratings and rankings. Not only did inclusion of the two types of scales enable them to be compared, but it also enabled respondent behaviour to be assessed and compared based on value domains and on top-ranked value.

As was noted in Chapter Seven, most of the studies that discussed the relative merits of the two approaches did so without actually conducting comparative studies. No studies have been found that compare the two approaches in relation to the LOV. It was found that ratings and rankings produced similar results in terms of the relative importance of values as guiding principles in respondents' lives. This finding was consistent with the results of the few studies that had considered the two approaches to value measurement in relation to the RVS.

Despite the consistency that was achieved between the two techniques used in this study, this researcher believes that both approaches should be adopted in the measurement of the LOV as both techniques provide different, but complementary information that helps build a clearer picture of the respondent; the 'ratings' approach indicates the intensity with which a particular value is held and the 'rankings' approach provides information explicitly on how one value is seen in relation to another. The additional effort required to use both scales is small in comparison to the benefits derived. Since individual values should be seen as part of a value system or hierarchy, it is felt that collecting data on respondents' top three values as opposed to simply identifying the top-ranked value provides useful information. A weighting system can then be used to prioritise values overall.

Comprehensiveness and Stability of the LOV

Additional values were added to the original items in the LOV as part of this study primarily to encourage respondents to make wider use of the rating scale. A secondary reason for such an addition was to test, to some extent, the comprehensiveness of the LOV itself. One could argue that the core values of many modern economic systems include values such as power, wealth and status, which do not appear in the LOV. Although some may suggest that such values could be included in the LOV under 'achievement', this is not clear. Achievement, for example, could have both positive and negative connotations in that it could relate to achieving spirituality or achieving power. The added values generally, but not entirely, represented what could intuitively be regarded as less laudable human characteristics and it was, therefore, not unexpected that they largely grouped together at the lower end of the spectrum when ranked based on mean ratings.

Given that the LOV has been proposed as a means of measuring people's values, the instrument would be expected to be comprehensive. It was surprising, therefore, that so many respondents listed a non-LOV item as their top-ranked value and many more included at least one non-LOV item in their top three ranked values. This is all the more concerning when one remembers that the

values that were added to the LOV as part of this scale were, arguably, from the less laudable end of the spectrum. Had testing the comprehensiveness of the LOV been a more fundamental objective and had the additional items been selected more specifically for this task, it is likely that many more respondents would have chosen non-LOV items as their most important guiding principles.

This certainly brings into question the comprehensiveness of the LOV. It also poses the question of how important some of the less laudable characteristics are as guiding principles within people's lives? The nine items that make up the LOV and, indeed, all of the values listed in the RVS upon which the LOV was based, could be classed as positive values and they would rate quite highly in terms of their social desirability. Despite suggestions that today's society has become more materialistic in its outlook, it is interesting that the LOV does not contain any 'negative', or less laudable values, such as wealth, power and status. The results of this study certainly suggest that less socially desirable values should be considered for the LOV. Although values are relatively stable, they can change over time. Muller (1997) indicated that value priorities for "Baby Boomers" (p. 33) had changed over a 10 year period using the LOV. However, there was no discussion in the Muller study, nor any other study that has been found, as to whether the actual techniques that are used to measure values should be reviewed or modified to reflect changes in society. It seems to have been assumed that all changes occur within the established value systems. The results of this study challenge this assumption.

Value Domains

Much of the literature suggested that there was a smaller number of value domains that underpinned the LOV, which was a finding that was supported in this study which found two value domains behind the nine item LOV. However, this is hardly a startling discovery as it would be rare that an EFA would not be able to reduce a nine item set to a smaller number of factors.

Although it was widely accepted in the literature that these value domains reflected internal and external orientations, the values that made up the various

domains showed substantial variation across studies. There was also considerable arbitrariness in the discussions used to justify the different groupings. However, there was reasonable consistency across studies in terms of the three items that made up the external orientation. Although the value domains extracted in this study, labelled 'achievement' and 'affiliation', comprised a more parsimonious list of underlying values, the items that made up the external domain in other studies were split between the two factors with 'security' being located in the opposite factor to the other two values. Initially, this difference was seen as questioning the validity of respondent ratings of 'security'. However, after observing that the percentage of respondents ranking 'security' as their most important value in this study was well below the percentage that occurred in other studies, it is suggested that this is a function of respondent culture as opposed to any flaw in the responses.

The studies that were used for comparative purposes in relation to value domains were all sited in Europe or Asia, whilst respondents chosen for the current study were Australian. There is strong anecdotal evidence to suggest that Australians have a more carefree attitude to life in general and are less inclined to be concerned with security than many other cultures, as evidenced by the low propensity to save demonstrated by Australians as a whole. This view was also supported by the finding of this study that respondents regarded hedonistic values more importantly than did the respondents of the studies reported in the literature. This helps explain the fact that there was no clear external domain identified in this study and supports a link between personal values and culture.

Relationship between Values and Demographics

There was strong consensus in the literature regarding the relationship between values and demographic variables, with most studies demonstrating relationships for gender, age, income and education. Using respondents' top-ranked value, the results of this study showed some support for the literature with demographic differences being shown for age, gender and education, but not for income. There were also some specific trends that were not consistent with the other studies. For

example, security was seen as more important in many of the other studies by the more highly educated respondents and those on a higher income, which was not the case here. Again, this could be attributable to the manner in which security is regarded in Australia.

It should also be noted that although significant demographic differences were found across respondents grouped on the basis of their top-ranked value, this was not the case for respondents grouped on the basis of their value factor scores. In these analyses, fewer than 30 per cent of relationships demonstrated statistical significance.

Care, therefore, should be exercised in the use of blanket statements regarding the demographic homogeneity of value segments as it is important to know the basis used to form the segments. Recognising the results of this study and many others reported in the literature, it seems clear that there are demographic differences based on top-ranked value but this study does not support demographic differences across value domains, and the literature found to date has been silent on this issue. Although segmentation based upon the top-ranked value is more conveniently calculated than that based upon value domains, the results of this study indicate that the latter form of segmentation is a better indicator of behaviour. Therefore, the use of segments based on the top-ranked value are of limited benefit irrespective of the demographic differences that are shown.

Values and Behaviour

It was noted earlier that values at a global or abstract level are better indicators of behaviour than the individual values themselves (Kamakura and Novak 1992). This line of argument was based on the theory that individual values combined to form a value system and it was the value system that guided behaviour. The results of this study demonstrated clearly that segmentation using value domains was better for explaining behaviour than was segmentation using top-ranked values, where behaviour was taken as special event visit intention. This clearly

supports the view that values are of more benefit when considered in a more abstract form and is consistent with "Rokeach's theoretical concept of value systems" (Kamakura and Novak 1992, p. 121).

It has been argued in the literature that since the LOV was based upon terminal values which are more abstract than instrumental values, the LOV is likely to be more effective at explaining abstract behaviour than it is at explaining concrete behaviour. Contrary to this, however, was the finding in this study that values were better predictors of more concrete behaviour than they were of abstract behaviour, on the basis that values showed more statistically significant relationships with visit intention than visit interest. It should be remembered that the relationships in both situations were weak.

Although the assertion that the LOV should be better able to explain abstract behaviour because it is was based on terminal values has some appeal, no support for this assertion has been found nor studies that actually test this proposition. Given that this study found the LOV to have more relationships to visit intention than to visit interest at both the specific attraction level and globally, there is reason to question the assertion noted above.

The LOV demonstrated many more statistically significant relationships with special events than it did with permanent attractions over all dimensions of visit behaviour. This was largely due to the two individual values, namely, 'fun and enjoyment' and 'excitement', which appear to be more closely associated with special events. This finding is consistent with the results derived from the mail-back questionnaire in Part One of this thesis.

Comparative Performance of Values

Despite the claims of many of the proponents of values as a segmentation technique and an important tool for explaining behaviour, in this study the LOV was far less effective than psychographics over a range of scenarios. These scenarios included relationships with various dimensions of behaviour for different types of visitor attractions at the attraction specific and global levels, as

well as classification and forecasting procedures using discriminant analysis and multiple regressions. The increased performance of psychographics over the LOV was substantial in all situations.

Indeed, the LOV generally performed at a lower level than demographics, a segmentation technique that the LOV was expected by some to replace. It is important to note that not only were demographics generally superior to the LOV, but neither technique produced results that were comparable to those produced by psychographics in the discriminant analysis; neither the LOV nor demographics performed much better than chance alone. This study confirmed that it was possible to segment people on the basis of their value domains and then to explain behaviour, at least in part, in relation to special events at three levels. However, AIOs were able to do this as well and, indeed, more successfully than the LOV once again.

The results of this study do little to support the claims that values are a powerful influence on behaviour, underpin lifestyles and provide more useful information than demographics. However, this researcher believes that values do underpin lifestyles and purchase behaviour and that failure to determine strong supporting evidence for such a proposition in this study was a function of the validity of the measuring tool as opposed to a flaw in the concept itself. There is strong face validity for the concept of a range of inner stable elements that influence behaviour and this face validity is enhanced by the enduring nature of the study of values and the fact that they have been researched in so many varied settings. The consistency between the rankings and ratings approach to measuring values using the LOV provided some support for the internal convergent validity of the technique. However, there was also evidence to question the comprehensiveness of the LOV and its predictive validity in terms of behaviour in relation to visitor attractions was relatively low. Overall, the results of this study indicate that despite the convenience of the LOV as a measure of values, it has limited, at best, use as a segmentation tool or technique to explain behaviour, but there is enough evidence to justify exploring further the use of values, per se, in such a role.

<u>Special Events</u>

As stated in an earlier section of this chapter, respondents viewed special events as distinct from permanent attractions based on EFAs of their visit interest and visit intention behaviour. The existence of these differences was supported by the fact that special events were well ahead of permanent attractions in terms of the number of statistically significant relationships with the LOV, AIOs and demographics. There was also a much stronger relationship between past visitation and visit intention for special events than there was for permanent attractions. This finding suggests that, other things being equal, repeat visitation would be easier to achieve for a recurring special event than for a permanent attraction. This supports the increasing incidence of special events being held in conjunction with permanent attractions in order to provide consumers with a reason to return to the attraction.

In comparing first-time with repeat visitors to special events, there appeared few demographic, value or AIO differences across the two groups which lends support to earlier studies which suggested that the two groups are fairly homogeneous. It should be remembered, however, that since there were no specific measures of repeat visitation or of visit satisfaction in this study, some simplifying assumptions had to be made in this section.

Respondents clustered on value segments showed differences in event visit intention behaviour at three levels, namely, event specific, event grouping and globally. They also varied according to gender. Developing clusters based on respondents' top-ranked value did not produce statistically significant differences at any of the three levels.

In comparing respondents classed as having a high event visit intention versus those having a low event visit intention, it was found that there were demographic, value and psychographic differences between the two groups. The high event visit intention group had a higher proportion of males, was younger, less likely to be married and more highly educated, and placed more emphasis on the achievement domain and on hedonistic values. With respect to psychographic

differences, the high event visit intention group placed more emphasis on outdoor activities, culture, and affiliation and was less conservative. It was interesting that the 'affiliation' dimension, which has been identified in other studies as an important motive for attending special events, was identified in the psychographic section but not in the values section. The differences between the two groups that were identified in this study seem consistent with conventional wisdom and may provide the basis for developing promotion campaigns for those people more inclined to patronise special events.

Past visitation showed statistically significant correlations with visit interest and visit intention for a moderate number of permanent attractions and for a large number of special events. This again demonstrated that special events should be regarded as a distinct type of visitor attraction. The increased number of correlations with special events was consistent with the view that special events, being transitory, tend to be different each time that they are held, thereby providing additional incentive to revisit. Obviously consumer satisfaction with the attractions has a substantial bearing on this and care should be exercised in the interpretation of this result given that no specific measure of satisfaction was included in this study.

Predicting Special Event Behaviour

The final outcome in the Consumer Decision Process Model that was presented in Figure 1.4 is actual visitation. The discriminant analysis that was used to test the absolute and relative abilities of the LOV, psychographics and demographics to classify respondents on whether they had attended the special events listed in the questionnaire, provided fairly disappointing results. Psychographics was far more successful than either the LOV or demographics but still was only able to correctly classify 73 per cent of the respondents.

Similar findings were derived from the multiple regressions that were conducted to explain event visit intention using a range of independent variables taken from Figure 1.4. In these regressions, only the visit interest variable was able to produce coefficients of determination that were above 0.7. Combining all of the

independent variables in the regression equation, increased the resultant coefficient to 0.77. This indicates that in order to explain the variation in event visit intention, either there are other variables that were not measured in this study or there are variables that were not measured accurately. It is suggested that both these factors contributed to the lower than anticipated explanatory power of the model.

The ability of the LOV to accurately measure consumers' personal value systems so that values can be used as a basis to explain behaviour was questioned in an earlier section. The view that a more accurate measure of personal values would help explain the variance in behaviour in relation to special events is reiterated here. In particular, recognition needs to be made that there may be other less socially desirable values that drive people's behaviour.

It is also proposed that the measurement of a 'travel party' variable would enhance the explanatory power of the model. This variable was identified in the model under 'situation influences' but was not measured because this study focused specifically on the 'individual influence' section of the model in Figure 1.4. There is strong anecdotal evidence to suggest that travel party has a substantial influence on travel behaviour. In a family situation, for example, holiday destinations and activities are often chosen by the parents to satisfy the desires of their dependent children which means that the behavioural outcome may relate more closely to the value system of the children rather than that of the parents. An alternative means of overcoming this problem may be to introduce a value that assesses the importance of children in respondents' lives.

### 8.2 Summary

The field of special events now plays an important role in the economic well-being of many regions and often helps determine, or at least influences, the image that is projected for the various regions. An in-depth understanding of special events and consumer behaviour in relation to these events is critical if regions are to maximise the net benefits that are derived from these events. This thesis has added to the body of knowledge on both counts.

A conceptualisation and definitional framework has been proposed that will enable the various categories of special events to be compared in research projects. The consumer perspective upon which the conceptualisation was based, will enable special events to be developed and promoted in a manner that has relevance for the consumer.

The three individual influences that were used in this study to examine consumer behaviour in relation to a range of visitor attractions including special events, provided additional information on consumer segments but were varied in their ability to explain a substantial percentage of the variation in behaviour. Personal values, in particular, performed at a level well below that claimed by proponents of the technique. The various segmentation techniques were able to demonstrate differences between respondents having a high event visit intention and respondents having a low event visit intention. These differences could be of value to event organisers and promoters. The fact that behaviour was measured on three dimensions and in relation to a wide range of visitor attractions enabled a systematic assessment to be made.

Although the individual influences section of the Consumer Decision Process Model was not able to explain all of the variation in consumer behaviour, it was proposed that other elements of the model would likely account for much of this, yet unexplained, variation.

Since the primary research that underpinned this thesis was based upon a randomly selected sample of 500 Melbourne residents, the findings of the research can be generalised to the Melbourne population with a reasonable degree of confidence.

## 8.3 Future Research

Four key attributes were identified in Part One of this study as being important to consumers in defining events as special. Having identified these attributes, it

would be useful to attempt to operationalise them and to develop an instrument based on these four attributes that would help categorise events.

Despite the fact that values were not able to explain all of the variation in consumer behaviour in relation to visitor attractions based on measurement of the LOV, personal values still has appeal as a basis for explaining behaviour. Research needs to be undertaken to explore further the instruments used to measure personal values before the fate of values as a segmentation tool can be decided; is the poor performance of values a fundamental problem with the values concept, or merely a problem with the measurement tool?

The importance of the situation specific influences, in particular travel party and travel occasion, that appeared in the Consumer Decision Process Model need to be assessed.

It could be useful to the understanding of consumer behaviour in relation to special events to explore further the links between the two primary research components of this study. Is there a connection between consumers' understanding of special events and their behaviour in relation to them?

In order to develop further an understanding of the influence of past visitation on future visit interest and visit intention, it is necessary to include the issue of satisfaction in future studies. This will help improve the likelihood of converting first-time visitors into repeat visitors which is important for the long term success of special events. The issue of 'novelty seeking' also needs to be assessed as a consumer who is motivated by 'novelty seeking' could be highly satisfied with an event visit, but not be interested in revisiting that particular event. Scott (1996) found that "first-time visitors were far more likely to be motivated by curiosity than repeat visitors" (p. 127).

The aforementioned suggestions for further research are based upon trying to improve the explanation of consumer behaviour in relation to special events in particular. This endeavour is related to the consumer perspective which is a single

perspective in the proposed Model of Special Events that was presented in Figure 1.2. In order to develop a comprehensive understanding of the field of special events, it is important that research be conducted on the other perspectives that were identified in Figure 1.2, such as those of organisers, local communities, sponsors and governments.

# BIBLIOGRAPHY

Abrahams, R. (1987). An American Vocabulary of Celebrations, In Falassi, A. (ed), *Time Out of Time: Essays on the Festival*, University of New Mexico Press, Albuquerque, 173-183.

Alwin, D. and J. Krosnick (1985). The Measurement of Values in Surveys: A Comparison of Ratings and Rankings, *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 49, 535-552.

Andereck, K. and L. Caldwell (1994). Variable Selection in Tourism Market Segmentation Models, *Journal of Travel Research*, 33 (2), 40-46.

Assael, H. (1992). *Consumer Behavior & Marketing Action* (fourth edition). PWS-KENT Publishing Company, Boston.

Australian Bureau of Statistics (1993). *Victoria's Statistical Geography, Catalogue No. 1103.2*, Commonwealth of Australia, Canberra.

Backman, S. and J. Crompton (1990). Differentiating Between Active and Passive Discontinuers of Two Leisure Activities, *Journal of Leisure Research*, 22 (3), 197-212.

Backman, K., S. Backman, M. Uysal, and K. Mohr Sunshine, (1995). Event Tourism: An Examination of Motivations and Activities, *Festival Management & Event Tourism*, 3 (1), 15-24.

Beatty, S., L. Kahle, P. Homer, and S. Mirsa (1985). Alternative Measurement Approaches to Consumer Values. *Psychology and Marketing*, 3, 181-200.

Berkowitz, E., R. Kerin and W. Rudelius (1989). *Marketing* (second edition), Irwin, Boston.

Blamey, R. and V. Braithwaite (1997). A Social Values Segmentation of the Potential Ecotourism Market, *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 5 (1), 29-45.

Bonn, M. (1991). *The Relative Utility of Sociodemographics, Psychographic Scales and Benefit Scales for Segmenting Pleasure Vacation Travel*, PhD Dissertation, University Microfilms International, Ann Arbor.

Boote, A. (1981). Market Segmentation by Personal Values and Salient Product Attributes, *Journal of Advertising Research*, 21, February, 29-35.

Bos, H. (1994). The Importance of Mega-events in the Development of Tourism Demand, *Festival Management & Event Tourism*, 2 (1), 55-58.

Bos, H., C. Van Der Kamp and J. Zom (1987). Events in Holland, Resolutions of the 37th Congress of the AIEST, Calgary, *Revue de Tourisme*, 4, 16-19.

Bratton, B. and D. Getz (1992). *The Economic Impact of Hosting Amateur Sports Events in Calgary and Alberta*, Unpublished Research, University of Calgary, Calgary.

Bretton-Clark (1987). *Conjoint Analyzer*, Version 2, Bretton-Clark, New York.

Burgan, B. and T. Mules (1992). Economic Impact of Sporting Events, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 19 (5), 700-710.

Burns, J., J. Hatch and T. Mules, (eds), (1986). *The Adelaide Grand Prix: The Impact of a Special Event*, The Centre for South Australian Economic Studies, Adelaide.

Butler, R. and B. Smale (1991). Geographic Perspectives on Festivals in Ontario, *Journal of Applied Recreation Research*, 16 (1), 3-23.

Carmichael, B. (1996). Conjoint Analysis of Downhill Skiers Used to Improve Data Collection for Market Segmentation, *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 5 (3), 187-206.

Chacko, H. and J. Schaffer (1993). The Evolution of a Festival: Creole Christmas in New Orleans, *Tourism Management*, 14 (6), 475-482.

Churchill, G. (1979). A Paradigm for Developing Better Measures of Marketing Constructs, *Journal of Marketing Research*, 16, February, 64-73.

Claxton, J. (1987). Conjoint Analysis in Travel Research; A Manager's Guide, In Ritchie, J. and C. Goeldner (eds), *Travel Tourism and Hospitality Research; A Handbook for Managers and Researchers*, John Wiley and Sons Inc, New York, 459-469.

Clawson, C. and D. Vinson (1978). Human Values: A Historical and Interdisciplinary Analysis, in Hunt, H. (ed) *Advances in Consumer Research*, Ann Arbor: Association for Consumer Research, Michigan.

Cooper, C., J. Fletcher, D. Gilbert, and S. Wanhill (1993). *Tourism; Principles & Practice*, Pitman Publishing, London.

Commonwealth Department of Tourism (1992). *Tourism, Australia's Passport to Growth: A National Tourism Strategy*, Australian Government Publishing Service, Canberra.

Cousineau, C. (1991). Festivals and Events: A Fertile Ground for Leisure Research, *Journal of Applied Recreation Research*, 16 (1), 1-2.

Crompton, J. (1979). Motivations for Pleasure Vacation, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 6, 408-424.

Crompton, J. (1992). Structure of Vacation Destination Choice Sets, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 19 (3), 420-434.

Crompton, J. and P. Ankomah (1993). Choice Set Propositions in Destination Decisions, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 20 (3), 461-476.

Crompton, J. and S. McKay (1997). Motives of Visitors Attending Festival Events, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 24 (2), 425-439.

Crosby, L., J. Gill and R. Lee (1984). Life Status and Age as Predictors of Value Orientation, In Pitts, R. and A. Woodside (eds), *Personal Values and Consumer Psychology*. Lexington Books, Lexington, 201-218.

Crouch, G. (1992). *Marketing International Tourism: A Meta-Analytical Study of Demand*, Doctoral Thesis, Graduate School of Management, Monash University, Melbourne.

Dalen, E. (1989). Research into Values and Consumer Trends in Norway, *Tourism Management*, 10, 183-186.

Dann, G. (1981). Tourist Motivation: An Appraisal, *Annals of Tourism Research*. 8 (2), 187-219.

Davies, A. and R. Prentice (1995). Conceptualising the Latent Visitor to Heritage Attractions, *Tourism Management*, 16 (7), 491-500.

Delamere, T. and T. Hinch (1994). Community Festivals: Understanding Resident Perspectives and Priorities, In Murphy, P. (ed), *Quality Management in Urban Tourism: Balancing Business and Environment*, Proceedings, University of Victoria, Victoria, 355-367.

Demby, E. (1974). Psychographics and from Whence It Came. In Wells. W. (ed), *Lifestyle and Psychographics*, American Marketing Association, Chicago, 9-30.

Dichter, E. (1984). How Values Influence Attitudes, In Pitts, R. and A. Woodside (eds), *Personal Values and Consumer Psychology*. Lexington Books, Lexington, 139-144.

Dickman, S. (1994). *Tourism in Australia; An Introductory Text* (Second edition). Edward Arnold, Melbourne.

Dignam, M. (1991). *Evaluation of the Impact of the 1991 Tooheys' Australian Motorcycle Grand Prix at Eastern Creek NSW*, Reark Research, Sydney.

Dryden, P. (1987). Assessing Economic Impacts of Regional Short Term Events, *Marketing Sport and Recreation Events in Country Regions*, Conference Proceedings, Department of Sport and Recreation, Melbourne, 70-84.

Echtner, C. and J. Ritchie (1993). The Measurement of Destination Image: An Empirical Assessment, *Journal of Travel Research*, 31 (4), 3-13.

Engel, J., R. Blackwell, and P. Miniard (1995). *Consumer Behavior* (eighth edition). The Dryden Press, Orlando.

Evans, G. (1995). The Role of the Festival in Urban Regeneration: Planning for the British Millennium Festival, Paper presented at *International Festivals Association Second European Research Symposium*, 17 August 1995, Edinburgh.

Falassi, A. (1987). Festival: Definition and Morphology, In Falassi, A. (ed), *Time Out of Time: Essays on the Festival*, University of New Mexico Press, Albuquerque, 1-10.

Faulkner, B. (1993). *Evaluating the Tourism Impact of Hallmark Events*, Occasional Paper No. 16, Bureau of Tourism Research, Canberra.

Feather, N. (1973). The Measurement of Values: Effects of Different Assessment Procedures, *Australian Journal of Psychology*, 25 (3), 221-231.

Feather, N. (1975). *Values in Education and Society*, The Free Press, New York.

Fodness, D. (1994). Measuring Tourist Motivation, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 21 (3), 555-581.

Formica, S. and M. Uysal (1996). A Market Segmentation of Festival Visitors: Umbria Jazz Festival in Italy, *Festival Management & Event Tourism*, 3 (4), 175-182.

French, C., S. Craig-Smith and A. Collier (1995). *Principles of Tourism*, Longman, Melbourne.

Gauthier, M. (1987). *Festivals: A New Clientele*, Paper presented at the TTRA Annual Conference, *International Festivals Association 2nd European Research Symposium*, Edinburgh.

Geier, T. (1986). *Make Your Events Special; How to Plan and Organise Successful Special Events Programs for Nonprofit Organisations*, Cause Effective: Nonprofit Resource Development Centre, New York.

Getz, D. (1986). Models in Tourism Planning; Towards Integration of Theory and Practice, *Tourism Management*, 7 (1), 21-32.

Getz, D. (1989). Special Events: Defining the Product, *Tourism Management*, 10 (2), 125-137.

Getz, D. (1991a). *Festivals, Special Events, and Tourism*, Van Nostrand Reinhold, New York.

Getz, D. (1991b). Assessing the Economic Impacts of Festivals and Events: Research Issues, *Journal of Applied Recreation Research*, 16 (1), 61-77.

Getz, D. (1994a). Event Tourism: Evaluating the Impacts, In Ritchie, J. and C. Goeldner (eds), *Travel, Tourism, and Hospitality Research*, John Wiley & Sons, New York, 437-450.

Getz, D. (1994b). Event Tourism and the Authenticity Dilemma, In Theobald, W. (ed), *Global Tourism; The Next Decade*, Butterworth Heinemann, Oxford, 313-329.

Getz, D. (1994c). In Pursuit of the Quality Tourist, Paper presented at *Tourism Down-under Conference*, Massey University, Palmerston North, December.

Getz, D. (1997). *Event Management and Event Tourism*, Cognizant Communications, New York.

Getz, D. and J. Cheyne (1997). Special Event Motivations and Behaviour, in Ryan, C. (ed) *The Tourist Experience; A New Introduction*, Cassell, London, 136-154.

Getz, D. and W. Frisby (1988). Evaluating Management Effectiveness in Community-run Festivals, *Journal of Travel Research*, 27 (1), 22-27.

Getz, D. and W. Frisby (1990). A Study of the Role of Municipalities in Developing Festivals and Special Events in Ontario, *Occasional Paper No. 16*, Department of Recreation and Leisure Studies, University of Waterloo, Waterloo.

Getz, D. and S. Smith (1994). *Festivals and Event Tourism: Selected International Perspectives*, Report prepared for the Scottish Tourist Board, Calgary.

Getz, D. and B. Wicks (1993a). Editorial, *Festival Management & Event Tourism*, 1 (1), 1-3.

Getz, D. and B. Wicks (1993b). Policy Report: Cultural Tourism Studies in Australia and Canada, *Festival Management & Event Tourism*, 1 (4), 163-170.

Getz, D. and B. Wicks (1994). Professionalism and Certification for Festival and Event Practitioners: Trends and Issues, *Festival Management & Event Tourism*, 2 (2), 103-109.

Goeldner, C. and P. Long (1987). The Role and Impact of Mega-Events and Attractions on Tourism Development in North America, *Proceedings of the 37th Congress of AIEST*, Calgary, 28, 119-131.

Goldblatt, J, (1990). *Special Events; The Art and Science of Celebration*, Van Nostrand Reinhold, New York.

Gorney, S. and J. Busser (1996). The Effect of Participation in a Special Event on the Importance and Satisfaction with Community Life, *Festival Management & Event Tourism*, 3 (3), 139-148.

Grube, J., I. Weir, S. Getzlaf and M. Rokeach (1984). Own Values System, Value Images, and Cigarette Smoking, *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 10, 306-313.

Gunn, C. (1994). *Tourism Planning* (third edition*). Taylor & Francis, New York.

Gunter, B. and A. Furnham (1992). *Consumer Profiles: An Introduction to Psychographics*, Routledge, London.

Hair, J., R. Anderson, R. Tatham and W. Black (1995). *Multivariate Data Analysis* (fourth edition). Prentice Hall, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey.

Hall, C. (1987). The Effects of Hallmark Events on Cities, *Journal of Travel Research*, 26 (2), 44-45.

Hall, C. (1990). The Impacts of Hallmark Tourist Events, Workshop Paper at *Metropolis 90*, 3rd International Congress of the World Association of the Major Metropolises, Recreation & Tourism Development Branch of the City of Melbourne, Melbourne.

Hall, C. (1991). Hallmark Tourist Events: Analysis, Definition, Methodology and Review, In Syme, G., B. Shaw, D. Fenton, and W. Mueller (eds) *The Planning and Evaluation of Hallmark Events*, Gower Publishing Company, London, 3-19.

Hall, C. (1992). *Hallmark Tourist Events: Impacts, Management & Planning*, Belhaven Press, London.

Hall, C. (1995). *Introduction to Tourism in Australia; Impacts, Planning and Development* (second edition). Longman Australia Pty Ltd, Melbourne.

Hall, C. (1996). Hallmark Events and Urban Reimaging Strategies, In Harrison, L. and W. Husbands (eds), *Practising Responsible Tourism; International Case Studies in Tourism Planning, Policy and Development*, John Wiley & Sons, Toronto, 366-379.

Hawkins, D. and J. Goldblatt (1995). Event Management; Implications for Tourism Education, *Tourism Recreation Research*, 20 (2), 42-45.

Hodges, J, and C. Hall (1996). The Housing and Social Impacts of Mega-events: Lessons for the Sydney 2000 Olympics, In Kearsley, G. (ed) *Tourism Down Under II; Towards a More Sustainable Tourism*, Centre for Tourism, University of Otago, Dunedin, 152-166.

Holman, R. (1984). A Values and Lifestyles Perspective on Human Behaviour, In R. Pitts and A. Woodside (eds), *Personal Values and Consumer Psychology*. Lexington Books, Lexington, 35-54.

Homer, P. and L. Kahle (1988). A Structural Equation Test of the Value-Attitude-Behavior Hierarchy, *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 54 (4): 638-646.

Howard, J. and A. Woodside (1984). Personal Values Affecting Consumer Psychology, In Pitts, R. and A. Woodside (eds), *Personal Values and Consumer Psychology*. Lexington Books, Lexington, 3-12.

Hughes, H. (1993a). Olympic Tourism and Urban Regeneration, *Festival Management and Event Tourism*, 1 (4), 157-162.

Hughes, H. (1993b). The Role of Hallmark Event Tourism in Urban Regeneration, Paper presented at *The First International Conference on Investments and Financing in the Tourism Industry*, Jerusalem.

Hustad, T. and E. Pessemier (1974). The Development and Application of Psychographic Life Style and Associated Activity and Attitude Measures, In Wells, W. (ed), *Life Style and Psychographics*, American Marketing Association, Chicago, 31-70.

Inskeep, E. (1991). *Tourism Planning: An Integrated and Sustainable Development Approach*, Van Nostrand Reinhold, New York.

Iso-Ahola, S. (1982). Toward A Social Psychological Theory of Tourism Motivation: A Rejoinder, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 9 (2), 256-262.

Jaccard, J., D. Brinberg and L. Ackerman (1986). Assessing Attribute Importance: A Comparison of Six Methods, *Journal of Consumer Research*, 12, 463-468.

Jackson, R. (1973). A Preliminary Bicultural Study of Value Orientations and Leisure Attitudes, *Journal of Leisure Research*, 5, 10-22.

Jago, L. and R. Shaw (1994). Categorisation of Special Events: A Market Perspective, *Tourism Down Under: Perceptions, Problems and Proposals*, Conference Proceedings, Massey University, Palmerston North, 682-708.

Jago, L. and R. Shaw (1995). Special Event Calendars: Conceptual and Research Issues, *Proceedings of the National Tourism and Hospitality Conference*, CAUTHE, Melbourne, 60-73.

Jago, L. and R. Shaw (1995). Special Event Calendars: Some Exploratory Research, *Festival Management & Event Tourism*, 3 (2), 49-58.

Janiskee, R. (1994). Some Macroscale Growth Trends in America's Community Festival Industry, *Festival Management & Event Tourism*, 2 (1), 10-14.

Janiskee, R. (1996a). The Temporal Distribution of America's Community Festivals, *Festival Management & Event Tourism*, 3 (3), 129-137.

Janiskee, R. (1996b). Historic Houses and Special Events, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 23 (2), 398-414.

Kahle, L. (1984). The Values of Americans: Implications for Consumer Adaptation, In Pitts, R. and A. Woodside (eds), *Personal Values and Consumer Psychology*. Lexington Books, Lexington, 77-86.

Kahle, L., S. Beatty and P. Homer (1986). Alternative Measurement Approaches to Consumer Values: The List of Values (LOV) and Values and Life Style (VALS), *Journal of Consumer Research*, 13, December, 405-409.

Kahle, L. and P. Kennedy (1988). Using the List of Values to Understand Consumers, *Journal of Services Marketing*, 2 (4), 49-56.

Kamakura, W. and J. Mazzon (1991). Value Segmentation: A Model for the Measurement of Values and Value Systems, *Journal of Consumer Research*, 18, 208-218.

Kamakura, W. and T. Novak (1992). Value-System Segmentation: Exploring the Meaning of LOV, *Journal of Consumer Research*, 19, 119-132.

Kang, Y. and R. Perdue (1994). Long-term Impact of a Mega-Event on International Tourism to the Host Country: A Conceptual Model and the Case of the 1988 Seoul Olympics, In Uysal, M. (ed), Global Tourist Behaviour, International Business Press, New York, 205-225.

Kaspar, C. (1987). The Role and Impact of Mega-Events and Attractions on National and Regional Tourism Development; Introduction into the General Topic of the 37th AIEST Congress, *Proceedings of the 37th Congress of AIEST*, Calgary, 28, 11-12.

Keng, K. and C. Yang (1993). Value Choice, Demographics, and Life Satisfaction, *Psychology and Marketing*, 10 (5), 413-432.

Kramer, H. (1984). The Value of Higher Education and Its Impact on Value Formation, In Pitts, R. and A. Woodside (eds), *Personal Values and Consumer Psychology*. Lexington Books, Lexington, 239-251.

Lavenda, R. (1991). Community Festivals, Paradox, and the Manipulation of Uncertainty, *Play and Culture*, 4, 153-168.

Law, C. (1993). *Urban Tourism; Attracting Visitors to Large Cities*, Mansell Publishing Limited, London.

Lego, R. and R. Shaw (1992). Convergent Validity in Tourism Research: An Empirical Analysis, *Tourism Management*, 13 (4), 387-393.

Leiper, N. (1995). *Tourism Management*. TAFE Publications, Melbourne.

Lew, A. (1987). A Framework of Tourist Attraction Research, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 14 (3), 553-575.

Light, D. (1996). Characteristics of the Audience for 'Events' at a Heritage Site, *Tourism Management*, 17 (3), 183-190.

Lilien, G. and P. Kotler (1983). *Marketing Decision Making: A Model Building Approach*, Harper & Row, New York.

Lynch, R. and A. Veal (1996). *Australian Leisure*, Addison Wesley Longman Australia Pty Ltd, South Melbourne.

Loudon, D. and A. Della Bitta (1993). *Consumer Behavior* (fourth edition). McGraw-Hill, Singapore.

Macdonald, R. (1994). Special Events; The Urban Context, The British Example, *Tourism Down Under: Perceptions, Problems and Proposals*, Conference Proceedings, Massey University, Palmerston North, 317-330.

Madrigal, R. (1995). Personal Values, Traveler Personality Type, and Leisure Travel Style, *Journal of Leisure Research*, 27 (2), 125-142.

Madrigal, R. and L. Kahle (1994). Predicting Vacation Activity Preferences on the Basis of Value-System Segmentation. *Journal of Travel Research*, 32 (3), 22-28.

Mannell, R. and S. Iso-Ahola (1987). Psychological Nature of Leisure and Tourism Experience, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 14 (3), 314-331.

Marris, T. (1987). The Role and Impact of Mega-events and Attractions on Regional and National Tourism Development, Resolutions of the 37th Congress of the AIEST, Calgary, *Revue de Tourisme*, 4, 3-12.

Mayfield, T. and J. Crompton (1995). Development of an Instrument for Identifying Community Reasons for Staging a Festival, *Journal of Travel Research*, 33 (3), 37-44.

McCann, C. and G. Thompson (1992). An Economic Analysis of the First Western Australian State Masters Games, *Journal of Tourism Studies*, 3 (1), 28-34.

McIntosh, R. and C. Goeldner (1990). *Tourism Practices, Principles, Philosophies* (sixth edition). Wiley, New York.

McIntosh, R., C. Goeldner and B. Ritchie (1995). *Tourism Practices, Principles, Philosophies* (seventh edition). Wiley, New York.

Menon, A. and J. Wilcox (1994). *USER: A Scale to Measure Use of Market Research*, Technical Working Paper, Report No. 94-108, Marketing Science Institute, Cambridge.

Meyer, P. (1970). *Festivals: USA and Canada*, Ives Washburn, New York.

Mihalik, B. (1994). Mega-Event Legacies of the 1996 Atlanta Olympics, In Murphy, P. (ed), *Quality Management in Urban Tourism: Balancing Business and Environment*, Proceedings, University of Victoria, Victoria, Canada, 151-161.

Mihalik, B. and M. Ferguson (1994). A Case Study of a Tourism Special Event: An Analysis of an American State Fair, *Festival Management & Event Tourism*, 2 (2), 75-83.

Mill, R. and A. Morrison (1992). *The Tourism System* (second edition). Prentice Hall, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey.

Mohr, K., K. Backman, L. Gahan, and S. Backman (1993), An Investigation of Festival Motivations and Event Satisfaction by Visitor Type, *Festival Management & Event Tourism*, 1 (3), 89-97.

Mount, J. and C. Leroux (1994). Assessing the Effects of a Mega-event: A Retrospective Study of the Impact of the Olympic Games on the Calgary Business Sector, *Festival Management & Event Tourism*, 2 (1), 15-23.

Mowen, J. (1993). *Consumer Behaviour* (third edition*).* Macmillan Publishing Company, New York.

Mueller, W. and D. Fenton (1989). Psychological and Community Issues, In Syme, G., B. Shaw, D. Fenton and W. Mueller (eds), *The Planning and Evaluation of Hallmark Events*. Gower Publishing Company Limited, Hants, England, 274-285.

Mules, T. and B. Faulkner (1996). An Economic Perspective on Special Events*, Tourism Economics*, 2 (2), 107-117.

Muller, T. (1989). Using Personal Values to Define Segments in an International Tourism Market, *International Marketing Review*, 8 (1), 57-70.

Muller, T. and N. Woodcock (1997). Tracking the Values of Ageing Baby Boomers: will Middle Age be Making a Difference?, *Australasian Journal of Market Research*, 5 (1), 33-48.

Munson, J. (1984). Personal Values: Considerations on Their Measurement and Application to Five Areas of Research Inquiry, In Pitts, R. and A. Woodside (eds), *Personal Values and Consumer Psychology*. Lexington Books, Lexington, 13-33.

Munson, J. and S. McIntyre (1978). Personal Values: A Cross-cultural Assessment of Self Values and Values Attributed to a Distant Cultural Stereotype, In Hunt, H. (ed),

*Advances in Consumer Research*, Ann Arbor: Association for Consumer Research, Michigan, 160-166.

Murphy, P. (ed) (1997). *Quality Management in Urban Tourism*, John Wiley and Sons Ltd, West Sussex.

Murphy, P. and B. Carmichael (1991). Assessing the Tourism Benefits of an Open Access Sports Tournament: The 1989 B.C. Winter Games, *Journal of Travel Research*, 29 (3), 32-36.

Myers, J. and M. Alpert (1977). Semantic Confusion in attitude Research: Salience vs. Importance vs. Determinance, In Perreault, W. (ed), *Advances in Consumer Research*, 4, Association for Consumer Research, Atlanta, 106-110.

National Task Force on Tourism Data (1986). *Identifying and Measuring Festivals and Special Events*, Report of the Project Team on Festivals and Special Events, Ottawa.

NIEIR (1990). *The Economic Impact of the 1990 Ford Open at the National Tennis Centre Melbourne*, NIEIR, Melbourne.

Ness, T. and M. Stith (1984). Middle-Class Values in Blacks and Whites, In Pitts, R. and A. Woodside (eds), *Personal Values and Consumer Psychology*. Lexington Books, Lexington, 231-237.

Nicholls, J., H. Laskey and S. Roslow (1992). A Comparison of Audiences at Selected Hallmark Events in the United States, *International Journal of Advertising*, 11, 215-225.

Norusis, M. (1994). *SPSS Professional Statistics 6.1*, SPSS Inc., Chicago.

Novak, T. and B. MacEvoy (1990). On Comparing Alternative Segmentation Schemes: The List of Values (LOV) and Values and Life Styles (VALS), *Journal of Consumer Research*, 17, June, 105-109.

Page, S. (1995). *Urban Tourism*, Routledge, London.

PATA (1992). *Endemic Tourism; A Profitable Industry in a Sustainable Environment*, PATA Think Tank, Sydney.

Pearce, P. (1991). Analysing Tourist Attractions. *Journal of Tourism Studies*, 2 (1), 46-55.

Pearce, P. (1993). Fundamentals of Tourist Motivation, In Pearce, D. and R. Butler (eds), *Tourism Research: Critiques and Challenges*, Routledge, London, 113-134.

Pitts, R. and A. Woodside (1984). Personal Values and Market Segmentation: Applying the Value Construct, In Pitts, R. and A. Woodside (eds), *Personal Values and Consumer Psychology*. Lexington Books, Lexington, 55-67.

Pitts, R. and A. Woodside (1986). Personal Values and Travel Decisions, *Journal of Travel Research*, 25 (1), 20-25.

Plog, S. (1994). Developing and Using Psychographics in Tourism Research, In Ritchie, J. and C. Goeldner (eds), *Travel, Tourism, and Hospitality Research* (second edition). John Wiley & Sons, New York, 209-218.

Prakash, V. (1984). Personal Values and Product Expectations, In Pitts, R. and A. Woodside (eds), *Personal Values and Consumer Psychology*. Lexington Books, Lexington, 3-12.

Price Waterhouse (1993). *1992 Formula One Grand Prix: Economic Evaluation*, Price Waterhouse, Canberra.

Prosser, G. (1993). Mansell Meets Mozart: Event Tourism in Adelaide, South Australia, *Festival Management & Event Tourism*, 1 (3), 125-130.

Pyo, S., R. Cook, and R. Howell (1988). Summer Olympic Tourism Market; Learning From the Past, *Tourism Management*, 9 (2), 137-144.

Reynolds, T. and J. Jolly (1980). Measuring Personal Values: An Evaluation of Alternative Methods, *Journal of Marketing Research*, 17, November, 531-536.

Richins, M. and S. Dawson (1992). A Consumer Values Orientation for Materialism and Its Measurement: Scale Development and Validation, *Journal of Consumer Research*, 19, December, 303-316.

Ritchie, B. (1996). How Special are Special Events? An Impact Study of the National Mutual New Zealand Masters Games on Dunedin's Economy, in Kearsley, G. (ed) *Tourism Down Under II; Towards a More Sustainable Tourism*, Centre for Tourism, University of Otago, Dunedin, 73-79.

Ritchie, J. (1984). Assessing the Impact of Hallmark Events: Conceptual and Research Issues, *Journal of Travel Research*, 23 (1), 2-11.

Ritchie, J. (1990). Promoting Calgary Through the Olympics; The Mega-Event as a Strategy for Community Development, In Fine, S. (ed), *Social Marketing*, Allyn & Bacon, Boston, 258-274.

Ritchie, J. and D. Beliveau (1974). Hallmark Events: An Evaluation of a Strategic Response to Seasonality in the Travel Market, *Journal of Travel Research*, 13 (2), 14-20.

Ritchie, J. and B. Smith (1991). The Impact of a Mega-Event on Host Region Awareness: A Longitudinal Study, *Journal of Travel Research*, 30 (1), 3-10.

Ritchie, J. and J. Yangzhou (1987). The Role and Impact of Mega-Events and Attractions on National and Regional Tourism: A Conceptual and Methodological Overview, *Proceedings of the 37th Congress of AIEST*, Calgary, 28, 17-58.

Robinson, A. and J. Noel, (1991). Research Needs for Festivals: A Management Perspective, *Journal of Applied Recreation Research*, 16 (1), 78-88.

Roche, M. (1994). Mega-events and Urban Policy, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 21 (1), 1-19.

Rokeach, M. (1968). *The Nature of Human Values*. The Free Press, New York.

Rokeach, M. (1979). From Individual to Institutional Values: With Special Reference to the Values of Science, In Rokeach, M. (ed), *Understanding Human Values; Individual and Societal*, The Free Press, New York, 47-70.

Rooney, J. (1988). Mega-sports Events as Tourist Attractions: A Geographical Analysis, In *Tourism Research: Expanding Boundaries*, The Travel and Tourism Research Association Nineteenth Annual Conference, Montreal, 93-99.

Roslow, S., J. Nicholls and H. Laskey (1992). Hallmark Events and Measures of Reach and Audience Characteristics, *Journal of Advertising Research*, July/August, 53-59.

Ross, G. (1994). *The Psychology of Tourism*, Hospitality Press, Melbourne.

Ryan, C. (1994). Leisure and Tourism; The Application of Leisure Concepts to Tourist Behaviour - A Proposed Model, *Tourism, The State of the Art*, Strathclyde University, Glasgow, 294-307.

Ryan, C. (1995). *Researching Tourist Satisfaction; Issues, Concepts, Problems*, Routledge, London.

Ryan, C. (ed) (1997). *The Tourist Experience: A New Introduction*, Cassell, London.

Ryan, C., A. Smee and S. Murphy (1996). Creating a Data Base of Events in New Zealand: Early Results, *Festival Management & Event Tourism*, 4 (3/4), 151-155.

Schiffman, L., D. Bednall, J. Watson and L. Kanuk (1997). *Consumer Behaviour*, Prentice Hall Australia Pty Ltd, Sydney.

Schneider, I. and S. Backman (1996). Cross-Cultural Equivalence of Festival Motivations: A Study in Jordan, *Festival Management & Event Tourism*, 4 (3/4), 139-144.

Schofield, L. (1995). Making and Marketing a Festival, *SMARTS*, Department of Communications and the Arts, Canberra, 4, 7-8.

Schwartz, S. and W. Bilsky (1987). Toward a Universal Psychological Structure of Human Values, *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 53 (3), 550-562.

Scott, D. (1996). A Comparison of Visitors' Motivation to Attend Three Urban Festivals, *Festival Management & Event Tourism*, 3 (3), 121-128.

Shih, D. (1986). VALS as a Tool of Tourism Market Research: The Pennsylvania Experience, *Journal of Travel Research*, Spring, 2-11.

Shultis, J., M. Johnston and D. Twynam (1994). Social Impacts of a Hallmark Event; Development and Description of a Case Study in Thunder Bay Ontario, In Murphy, P. (ed), *Quality Management in Urban Tourism: Balancing Business and Environment*, Proceedings, University of Victoria, Victoria, 166-177.

Smith, S. and G. Godbey (1991). Leisure, Recreation and Tourism, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 18 (1), 85-100.

Socher, K. and P. Tschurtschenthaler (1987). The Role and Impact of Mega-Events: Economic Perspectives - The Case of the Winter Olympic Games 1964 and 1976 at Innsbruck, *Proceedings of the 37th Congress of AIEST*, Calgary, 28, 103-117.

Solomon, M. (1992). *Consumer Behaviour*, Allyn and Bacon, Boston.

Sonmez, S., S. Backman and L. Allen (1993). Crisis Management for Event Tourism, *Festival Management & Event Tourism*, 1 (3), 110-120.

Soutar, G. and P. McLeod (1993). Residents' Perceptions on Impact of the America's Cup, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 20 (3), 571-582.

Sparrow, M. (1989). A Tourism Planning Model for Hallmark Events, In Syme, G., B. Shaw, D. Fenton and W. Mueller (eds), *The Planning and Evaluation of Hallmark Events*, Gower Publishing Company Limited, Hants, England, 250-262.

Spilling, O. (1996). Mega-Event as a Strategy for Regional Development: The Case of the 1994 Lillehammer Olympic Games, *Proceedings of Institute of Tourism and Service Economics, International Centre for Research and Education in Tourism, International Conference*, Innsbruck, 128-154.

Stokes, R. (1996). Identifying Dimensions of a Portfolio Analysis Model for Events Tourism, Working Paper presented at *Australian Tourism and Hospitality Research Conference*, Coffs Harbour.

Swarbrooke, J. (1995). *The Development & Management of Visitor Attractions*, Butterworth Heinemann Ltd, Oxford.

The Centre for Hospitality and Tourism Research (1994). *Shell Presents Van Gogh: His Sources, Genius and Influences*, Victoria University, Melbourne.

*The Oxford English Dictionary* (1933). Oxford University Press, Oxford.

Theobold, W. (ed) (1994). *Global Tourism; The Next Decade*, Butterworth-Heinemann Ltd, Oxford.

Thrane, C. (1997). Vacation Motives and Personal Value Systems, *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 3 (3), 234-244.

Tinsley, E. and B. Eldredge (1995). Psychological Benefits of Leisure Participation: A Taxonomy of Leisure Activities Based on Their Need-Gratifying Properties, *Journal of Counselling Psychology*, 42 (2), 123-132.

Tinsley, E. and T. Johnson (1984). A Preliminary Taxonomy of Leisure Activities, *Journal of Leisure Research*, 16 (3), 234-244.

Torkildsen, G. (1992). *Leisure and Recreation Management*, E & FN Spon, London.

Tourism Canada (undated). *Planning Festivals and Events*, Ottawa.

Tourism Canada (1989). *Festivals and Events; A Position Paper*, Tourism Canada, Ottawa.

Tourism Canada (1990). *Proposed Action Plan for the Development of the Festivals and Events Sector*, Tourism Canada, Ottawa.

Tourism South Australia (1990). *Planning of Festivals and Special Events*, Tourism South Australia, Adelaide.

Tourism Victoria (1993). *Strategic Business Plan 1997-2001; Building Partnerships*, Tourism Victoria, Melbourne.

Tourism Victoria (1996). *Victorian Regional Travel and Tourism Survey, 1995*, Tourism Victoria, Melbourne.

Tourism Victoria (1997). *Strategic Business Plan 1997-2001; Building Partnerships*, Tourism Victoria, Melbourne.

Travis, A. and J. Croize (1987). The Role and Impact of Mega-Events and Attractions on Tourism Development in Europe: A Micro Perspective, *Proceedings of the 37th Congress of AIEST*, Calgary, 28, 59-78.

Um, S. and J. Crompton (1990). Attitude Determinants in Tourism Destination Choice, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 17 (3), 432-448.

Uysal, M., L. Gahan, and B. Martin (1993). An Examination of Event Motivations: A Case Study, *Festival Management & Event Tourism*, 1 (1), 5-10.

Uysal, M. and R. Gitelson (1994). Assessment of Economic Impacts: Festivals and Special Events, *Festival Management & Event Tourism*, 2 (1), 3-9.

Vinson, D., J. Scott, and L. Lamont (1977). The Role of Personal Values in Marketing and Consumer Behavior, *Journal of Marketing*, April, 44-50.

Walle, A. (1996). Festivals and Megaevents: Varying Roles and Responsibilities, *Festival Management & Event Tourism*, 3 (3), 115-119.

Wells, J. (1994). Floriade: A Study in Re-imaging Australia's Capital Through Event Tourism, Working paper at *Tourism Down-Under Conference*, Massey University, Palmerston North.

Wells, W. (1975). Psychographics: A Critical Review, *Journal of Marketing Research*, 12, May, 196-213.

Wicks, B. and D. Fesenmaier (1995). Market Potential for Special Events: A Midwestern Case Study, *Festival Management & Event Tourism*, 3 (1), 25-31.

Williams, P., D. Hainsworth and K. Dossa (1995). Community Development and Special Event Tourism: The Men's World Cup of Skiing at Whistler, British Columbia, *The Journal of Tourism Studies*, 6 (2), 11-20.

Williams, R. (1979). Change and Stability in Values and Value Systems: A Sociological Perspective, In Rokeach, M. (ed), *Understanding Human Values; Individual and Societal*, The Free Press, New York, 15-46.

Wilson, J. and L. Udall (1982). *Folk Festivals: A Handbook for Organisation and Management*, University of Tennessee Press, Knoxville.

Witt, S. (1988). Mega-events and Mega-attractions, *Tourism Management*, 9 (1), 76-77.

Witt, S. and L. Moutinho (1995). *Tourism Marketing and Management Handbook* (Student Edition). Prentice Hall, London.

Woodside, A. and S. Lysonski (1989). A General Model of Traveler Destination Choice, *Journal of Travel Research*, 27 (4), 8-14.

Youell, R. (1995). *Leisure and Tourism*, Longman, Essex.

Zikmund, W. (1991). *Business Research Methods* (third edition). The Dryden Press, Orlando.

Zwolak, R. (1987). Hallmark Events and their Economic Impact, *Marketing Sport and Recreation Events in Country Regions*, Conference Proceedings, Department of Sport and Recreation, Melbourne, 7-25.

# APPENDICES

# APPENDIX A

*SPECIAL EVENT ATTRIBUTE QUESTIONNAIRE*

# APPENDIX B

*SPECIAL EVENT MAIL BACK QUESTIONNAIRE*

# APPENDIX C

## *ACTIVITY, INTEREST AND OPINION (AIO) MASTER LIST*

# APPENDIX D

## *INTERVIEWER ADMINISTERED QUESTIONNAIRE*

This appendix contains a reformatted copy of the questionnaire and the showcards that were used in the face-to-face interviews of 500 randomly selected Melbourne residents.

# APPENDIX E

## *RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN THE LOV AND THE THREE DIMENSIONS OF VISITATION*

**Listed below are the abbreviations used in Appendices E, F and G.**

**LOV**
| | |
|---|---|
| FULFIL | Self-fulfilment |
| SECURE | Security |
| ACCOMP | A sense of accomplishment |
| BELONG | Sense of belonging |
| WARM | Warm relationships |
| WELLRES | Being well respected |
| EXCITE | Excitement |
| SELFRES | Self respect |
| FUN | Fun and enjoyment in life |

**AIOs**
| | |
|---|---|
| VFR | I frequently visit friends and relatives. |
| EXCITING | I like to participate in exciting activities. |
| SHOP | I frequently go shopping. |
| RAWDEAL | I feel that I get a raw deal out of life in general. |
| DINING | I frequently dine in restaurants. |
| TLKABOUT | I like to talk about an experience afterwards. |
| MASTER | I enjoy mastering things. |
| DRIVE | I frequently go driving to sightsee or just for pleasure. |
| CREATIVE | I like to be creative. |
| GALLERY | I frequently visit an art gallery or craft centre. |
| PHYSABIL | I like to use my physical abilities. |
| FESTIVAL | I frequently attend a festival, special or sports event. |
| INTERACT | I like to interact with others. |
| THEATRE | I frequently attend the theatre or a concert. |
| IMAGINAT | I like to be involved in activities that require imagination. |
| MUSEUM | I frequently visit a museum or historic site. |
| WATERSKI | I frequently water-ski. |
| TRADVIEW | I am traditional in my views on social issues and social trends in Australia. |
| CINEMA | I frequently go to the cinema / movies. |
| CASINO | I frequently gamble, go to a casino, or play gaming machines. |
| FAMENJOY | I like doing things the whole family can enjoy. |
| DISCO | I frequently go to a nightclub / disco / or other form of nightlife. |
| CALM | I like to be in a calm atmosphere. |
| TRENDY | I enjoy participating in activities that are seen to be trendy. |
| UNIONPOW | I believe that unions have too much power. |
| SKILLS | I like to improve my skill and ability. |
| WINERY | I frequently visit a winery. |
| LEARN | I like to learn about myself. |
| THEMEPAR | I frequently visit a theme, amusement or historic park. |
| CURIOUS | I seek to satisfy my curiosity. |
| BUSHWALK | I frequently go bushwalking. |
| MEANING | I like to make things more meaningful to me. |

**AIOs (continued)**

| FOREST | I frequently visit a national park / forest. |
|---|---|
| REST | I like to rest and relax. |
| BOATING | I frequently go sailing or boating. |
| FOODWINE | I enjoy food and wine. |
| ZOO | I frequently visit animal / wildlife parks / zoos. |
| MARIJUAN | I believe that the smoking of marijuana should be made legal. |
| COMPETE | I like to compete against others. |
| SWIM | I frequently go swimming / surfing / diving. |
| ENTERTAI | I like to be entertained. |
| PARK | I frequently visit a park or garden. |
| RELIGION | I believe that religion should be taught in Government schools. |
| FISHING | I frequently go fishing. |
| KNOWLEDG | I seek to expand my knowledge. |
| SAVE | I think that it is important to save money rather than spend it all now. |
| FRIENDS | I enjoy being with my friends. |
| ENJOY | I like to be with people who are enjoying themselves. |
| PACECHG | I like a change of pace from everyday life. |
| EDUCATE | I believe that all education should be paid for by the government. |
| SPORT | I frequently play sport (eg. golf, tennis) |
| SELFRELY | I believe that people should rely on themselves and not just the government. |
| SOCIAL | I like to be socially competent and skillful. |
| HOMEWOM | I believe that a woman's role is taking care of the home. |
| SNOWSKI | I frequently go snow skiing. |
| MENTCHAL | I like to participate in an activity that is mentally challenging. |
| ADVENTUR | I frequently participate in adventure activities (eg. rafting, horseriding) |
| GROUP | I frequently participate in organised tours or group activities. |

**VISITOR ATTRACTIONS**

| SOVHILL | Sovereign Hill, Ballarat |
|---|---|
| DEBORT | De Bortoli Winery, Dixons Creek |
| NATGAL | National Gallery of Victoria, Melbourne |
| BENDPOT | Bendigo Pottery, Bendigo |
| PENGUIN | Penguin Parade, Phillip Island |
| POWERWKS | Powerworks (Formerly tour of SEC power plant), Morwell |
| BERRY | 'Pick-your-own' Fruit and Berry Farm, Drouin West |
| METEOR | Bureau of Meteorology, Melbourne |
| SCIENCE | Scienceworks Museum, Melbourne |
| PUFFING | Puffing Billy, Belgrave |
| MONWLD | Our World of Money, Craigieburn (Australian Mint) |
| TAPEST | Victorian Tapestry Workshop, South Melbourne |
| RIALTO | Rialto Towers Observation Deck, Melbourne |
| PARLIAMT | Tour of Parliament House, Melbourne |
| STOCKEX | Tour of the Australian Stock Exchange, Melbourne |
| ARTCENT | Backstage tour of the Victorian Arts Centre, Melbourne |

**VISITOR ATTRACTIONS (continued)**

| MCG | Behind the scenes tour of the Melbourne Cricket Ground (MCG) |
|---|---|

SEWAGE      Tour of Western Wastewater Treatment Plant, Werribee
FORDOPN     Ford Australian Open Tennis
SPRING      Spring Racing Carnival
ARTFEST     Melbourne International Festival of the Arts
FORMONE     Australian Formula One Grand Prix
SHOW        Royal Agricultural Society of Victoria Show (Melbourne Show)
FOODWINE    Melbourne Food and Wine Festival
BIKEGP      Australian Motorcycle Grand Prix
COMFEST     Melbourne International Comedy Festival
MOOMBA      Melbourne Moomba Festival
AFL         Australian Football League Grand Final
BELLS       Bells Beach Surf Classic
OLYMPIC     A Commonwealth or Olympic Games
AIRSHOW     Australian International Air Show
MAJSPORT    A Major Sporting Event held in Victoria
REGFEST     A Regional Community Festival or Fair in Victoria
MAJCUL      A Major Cultural Event held in Victoria

# APPENDIX F

## *RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN AIOs AND THE THREE DIMENSIONS OF VISITATION*

# APPENDIX G

## *RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN THE LOV AND AIOs*