MANAGING THE PULSATING EFFECT IN MAJOR SPORT EVENT ORGANISATIONS

Clare Maree Hanlon

A thesis submitted in total fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

School of Human Movement, Recreation and Performance

Faculty of Human Development
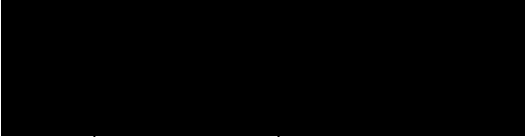
Victoria University

November, 2002

Candidate's Statement

I certify that the research thesis entitled "Managing the Pulsating Effect at Major Sport Event Organisations" is the result of my own work, except where otherwise acknowledged. This work has not been submitted for a higher degree to any other tertiary or educational institution.

Signed ██████████████████████ ..

Date ...... *November, 2002* ....

Publications and Presentations arising from Dissertation

Journal Publications

Hanlon, C., & Cuskelly, G. (2002). Pulsating major sport event organisations: A framework for inducting managerial personnel. *Event Management 7(4), 231 – 243.*

Hanlon, C., & Jago, L. (2000). Pulsating sport events: An organizational structure to optimise performance. Allen, Harris, Jago & Veal (Eds). *Proceedings of conference on event evaluation, research and education, p. 93 - 104.* Sydney: Australian center for event management.

Conference Presentations

Hanlon, C.
The personnel retention challenges emerging from pulsating major sport event organisations.
SMAANZ Conference: November, 2002
Rockhampton: Queensland, Australia

Hanlon, C., & Cuskelly, G.
Pulsating major sport event organisations: A framework for inducting managerial personnel
Events and place making: July, 2002
Sydney: NSW, Australia

Hanlon, C.
Pulsating major sport events: A human resource framework for fluctuating personnel
Victoria University Faculty teaching and research conference, 2001
Melbourne: Victoria, Australia

Hanlon, C., & Jago, L.
Pulsating Sporting Events: An Organisational Structure to Optimise Performance
Events beyond 2000: Setting the agenda: July, 2000
Sydney: NSW, Australia

Hanlon, C.
The personnel selection process for pulsating major sport events
SMAANZ Conference: November, 2001
Hamilton: Auckland, New Zealand

Hanlon, C.
The affair with teams – in major sport event organisations
SMAANZ Conference: November, 1998
Surfers Paradise: Queensland, Australia

Abstract

Managing sporting events has become big business in the Australian sporting and events scene. The economic and social benefits to the community arising from these events can be significant, with the Sydney Olympics being an obvious example. However, the special characteristics of these events can produce problems for the management of the human resources within the organisations coordinating the event (Chelladurai, 1999; Crawford, 1991).

The primary aim of this research was to determine how the nature of a pulsating major sport event impacts on management practices in each of the essential human resource (HR) stages. The secondary aim was to reveal the extent to which these management practices were tailored to the pulsating nature of events. The findings were then used to design a benchmark of personnel management practices that could be used to more effectively manage pulsating major sport event organisations.

In undertaking this research, semi-structured in-depth interviews were conducted with event managers from the Australian Open Tennis Championship (AOTC) and the Australian Formula One Grand Prix (AFOGP). Interviews ceased once information became repetitive. Each interviewee's transcript was entered into NUD.IST qualitative data analysis software and data were coded and indexed for both theme and content. In addition, the interview data were complemented by an examination of policy documents and operation manuals used by managers responsible for managing personnel at each event organisation (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994).

The findings from this research identified that due to the pulsating nature of major sport events, a customised HR process for pulsating major sport event organisations was necessary. Of significance was the finding that ten characteristics acted as intervening variables, which affected the management practices of event managers. As a result, modifications to generic HR management practices were made to cater for the special demands. A framework was created from these research findings, comprising five HR stages and tailored strategies for pulsating major sport event organisations.

The findings were also used to make a conceptual contribution. In doing so, it highlighted how pulsation affects major sport event organisations and how personnel in future sport events can be managed. A benchmark set of practices for event managers was designed, providing operational guidelines specific to pulsating major sport event organisations. Given that no previous studies of this type have been found in the literature, the benchmark practices and associated guidelines provide a theoretical foundation for pulsating major sport event organisations. The findings of this research offer a starting point for understanding and formalising HR management practices for sport event managers and expand the boundaries of the present body of knowledge in this field. Similar organisations could put this conceptualisation into practice, making the HR management practices of event managers more formalised, consistent, and customised.

Acknowledgments

Table of Contents

Tables

Figures

CHAPTER ONE: Introduction

Background

Major sport events involve a complex arrangement of infrastructure, people and outputs. They often provide significant benefits to a community or region that go beyond the event itself. It has been demonstrated that major sport events have positive economic and community benefits (Spilling, 1996). They increase public awareness (Torkildsen, 1992), create pride, and instil a positive image within the community (Hall, 1992; Getz, 1997). The benefits of instilling a positive image underpinned the Victorian State Government's bids to host major sport events such as the Australian Formula One Grand Prix and the Australian Motorcycle Grand Prix (Hall, 1995). These major sport events play a significant role in generating tourism and economic activity on a national and international level (Jago & Shaw, 1998).

It is important, therefore, to effectively manage such events to ensure their success and community benefit. This requires the effective and efficient management of personnel. There is rich literature on the management of personnel in generic organisations (see, for example, Galbraith & Lawler 1993; Donnellon & Heckscher 1994; Ancona, Kochan, Scully, Van Maanen & Westney, 1996 and specialised journals such as the International Journal of Human Resource Management and the Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources). Management of so called 'generic' organisations is premised on having a relatively stable workforce in terms of employee numbers and clearly defined and recognised power and communication channels.

However, with literature primarily focused on generic management practices, only occasionally is reference given to the processes managers use when managing

personnel during major sport events. These processes frequently involve systems tailored to the special nature of major sport events. Such events often transform their structure overnight, expand personnel by over 1,000 per cent for an event and then contract to their original size in a matter of weeks. The Australian Open Tennis Championships are a prime example, it expands from 20 to 4,000 personnel for the event (Tennis Australia, 1997). This pulsating feature is likely to place unique and specific demands on event managers.

Toffler (1990) and Crawford (1991), addressed some of these unique and specific demands, and provide a brief overview of what these organisations comprise. However, little has been researched regarding how they should be managed. Toffler (1990) referred to organisations that expand and contract over their commercial life cycle as 'pulsating' organisations. Crawford (1991) expanded Toffler's discussion by referring to them as 'holding' organisations. According to Crawford, holding organisations have temporary work units that evolve and dissolve according to environmental change, and consist of personnel in small, cross-disciplinary teams. This pulsating effect is typical of major sport organisations where the number of personnel employed in the lead-up to an event increases substantially, peaking during the event and then falling after the event.

Research Problem / Question

With major sport events playing a significant role in stimulating tourism and economic development on a national or international scale (Jago & Shaw, 1998), pressure is placed on the organisation conducting the event to ensure its effective management. A vital aspect in the management of major sport events is the

organisation's management of personnel. The organisation itself dramatically expands with a variety of personnel employed within a limited time. In turn, these personnel contribute to the success of an event.

There is a lack of research, which reveals how such an expansion of personnel is managed. As a result, major sport event organisations have retreated to research regarding generic organisations and adopted more mainstream management concepts for managing personnel. This occurs despite the special characteristics of pulsating organisations, many of which are unlike generic organisations.

This research sought to address this deficiency and focused on how personnel are managed in pulsating major sport event organisations. It primarily aimed to examine how the pulsating nature of major sport events impacts on the management practices of event managers. The results were then be used to construct a benchmark set of personnel management practices, in order to determine how they could be more effectively operationalised. In other words, this research was an exploratory study, where the aim was to build theories, rather than test them (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994).

Therefore, the following three research questions were addressed:

- How does the pulsating nature of major sport events impact on the management practices of event managers?

- To what extent were these management practices tailored to the pulsating nature of these events?

- How can the results be used to design a benchmark of management practices for event managers?

Justification for the Research

The frequency of major sport events has escalated over recent years and there is considerable competition between organisations to win contracts to conduct major sport events. There is competition from interstate, international, private and government organisations to conduct such events. The Olympic Games is one example.

In Australia, the State of Victoria has been successful in developing and obtaining many major sport events. Examples of such events annually conducted in Victoria are the Australian Open Tennis Championship, the Australian Formula One Grand Prix, the Melbourne Cup and the Australian Football League Grand Final. Apart from these annual events, Victoria has also been successful in conducting a number of 'one off' events, such as the Bledisloe Cup and the 2000 World Yachting Championship. Victoria was also successful in its bids to host the 2002 World Master Games and the 2006 Commonwealth Games. With such interest and competition to conduct major sport events, it is imperative that they are successfully managed.

If an event organisation does not successfully manage a major sport event, then its name and reputation could be damaged and it may have a reduced chance of conducting future events. Event organisations are generally made up of personnel driven by the same goal, namely, to run a successful event. However, these personnel need to be effectively managed to maximise their contribution to the event.

The results of this research allow future major sport event organisations to capitalise on documented knowledge and create more systematic and customised management practices. This research was the first to address this issue in a systematic and scholarly manner.

Methodology

It has been argued that while there is an exhaustive amount of quantitative data within the field of sport management, there is a need for more qualitative data (Slack, 1997). However, the method of data collection appropriate for research can depend on what type of answer is required. Quantitative data often seeks to answer questions using numbers, whilst qualitative data, more often seeks to answer questions by asking why? how? and building theories.

Therefore, with the purpose of this research being to explain how the pulsating nature of major sport events impacts on the management of personnel, a qualitative approach was selected. Qualitative data were gathered via semi-structured in-depth interviews, with documentary analysis used to triangulate findings and ensure interview validity and reliability.

The sequence of the methodology was first to select relevant major sport event organisations. Two major sport event organisations were selected for analysis. These organisations were the Australian Tennis Open Championship (AOTC) and the Australian Formula One Grand Prix (AFOGP). These annual events were chosen because they are both internationally sanctioned by their relevant international sport federation yet they have key differences. For example, the histories of the events differ, with the AOTC commencing in 1968 and the AFOGP beginning in 1996; the duration of the event, whereby the AOTC is for two weeks and AFOGP is for four days; and the management of the event, whereby the AOTC relies largely on internal management, whilst the AFOGP relies largely on outsource management.

The second stage was to identify the informants. The population selected within each of these organisations was event managers. For the purpose of this research, the term event manager, referred to a person leading a group of people, within a sport event organisation. This person may be titled chief executive officer (CEO), department manager, or coordinator. Apart from the site sample for the CEO, the selection of these managers was purposely conducted. That is, stratified sampling (Minichiello, Aroni, Timewell & Alexander, 1995) was used to gather department managers and purposeful random sampling (Babbie, 1998) was used to obtain full-time, outsource and seasonal coordinators. This is more extensively described in Chapter Three.

The third stage of the research was to interview the informants and analyse the data. The literature review was used as a foundation to identify stages that were required for managing personnel. For the purpose of this research, 'stages' referred to the specific human resource management practices required by event managers. The literature review identified five management stages: establishing an organisational structure; selecting personnel; inducting personnel; managing teams; and retaining personnel. These stages were used as the basis for developing semi-structured questions for the in-depth interviews. In order to ensure a broad range of responses (Minichiello et al., 1995), information was gathered until it became saturated. In total, twenty-one semi-structured in-depth interviews were conducted. Data collection was conducted using a systematic interactive process. Interviews were transcribed and then transferred into the Non-numerical Unstructured Data Indexing, Searching and Theorising (NUD.IST) computer package for analysis. Trends, themes and patterns emerged and explanations were built about how major sport event managers manage personnel.

The fourth and final stage of the research was to collect secondary data sources, in this case documentation, to further validate and ensure reliability of the primary interview data. Triangulation was used to formulate the findings to determine a benchmark of management practices for pulsating major sport event organisations.

Structure of the Thesis

This thesis consisted of five chapters. Chapter one provided an introduction and overview of the research topic. Chapter two comprised the literature review and compared managing personnel in generic organisations with managing personnel in major sport event organisations. Chapter three discussed the methodology utilised to undertake this research. Chapter four outlined the results, and identified the tailored management practices performed by event managers at the AOTC and AFOGP. Chapter five weaved the findings of the study together and built theories, to determine how the pulsating nature of major sport events impact on the management practices of event managers. At the conclusion of this chapter, a benchmark of personnel management practices was designed to assist managers in pulsating major sport event organisations.

Definition of Key Terms

For the purpose of this study, key terms were designed and incorporated throughout the thesis.

Pulsating organisations
Organisations that expand and contract over their commercial life cycle

Major sport event

A one-time or recurring sport event of limited duration, which is characterised by a prestige profile, strong media exposure, large attendances, economic benefits for the host community and with a national or international focus

Pulsating major sport event organisations

Organisations that conduct annual major sport events

Generic organisations

Organisations that have a relatively stable workforce in terms of employee numbers and have clearly defined and recognised power and communication channels

Flexible organisations

Comprising a core and peripheral workforce driven by immediate market response

Full-time personnel

A core group of employees conducting key organisational activities

Outsource personnel

Personnel employed by organisations that are contracted for the purpose of a major sport event

Seasonal personnel

Employees contracted by a major sport event organisation for a limited period of time for the purpose of an event

Volunteer personnel

Non-paid personnel providing services to either the organisation conducting the event or by outsource organisations

Limitations of the Study

The major limitation of this study was its confinement to two pulsating major sport event organisations. Therefore, researching the AOTC and AFOGP did not technically permit broad generalisations to other pulsating major sport event organisations. However, logical generalisations could be made from the weight of evidence produced in researching the two sites (Peters & Waterman, 1984). For example, the framework established for event managers within the two studied organisations, was a useful starting point in the analysis of management practices and could be the first step for future research in other pulsating major sport event organisations.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

Overview

Major sport events have become an important part of the Australian sporting and events landscape. The economic and social benefits to the community arising from these event can be significant, with the Sydney Olympics being an obvious example. An integral part of this success is associated with the management of personnel. Despite the fact that personnel are a key ingredient in the success of an organisation (Nankervis, Compton & McCarthy, 1996; Morrall, 1998), the management of personnel within major sport event organisations has not been extensively researched and documented.

The management of personnel at major sport events is made even more demanding by the special nature of the events themselves. Specifically, personnel numbers expand rapidly during the event, and then fall immediately after the event finishes. Toffler (1990) coined the term 'pulsating organisation' to reflect organisations that "expand and contract in a regular rhythm" (p.187). This term has relevance for major sporting event organisations. Such organisations generally operate with a small core of personnel for most of the year, expand substantially in the lead-up to an event, then afterwards, the number of personnel shrinks. This effect poses substantial challenges for managing personnel.

Despite the special challenges of managing major sporting event organisations, event managers have generally relied upon human resource strategies from generic organisations. Generic organisations generally have a relatively stable workforce in terms of employee numbers and have clearly defined and recognised power and communication channels. However, anecdotal evidence suggests that major sport

events are intense occurrences, which requires more flexible working arrangements to bring together a large workforce for a short period of time. Incorporating personnel management systems from generic organisations without modification or customisation may pose a number of strategic and operational dilemmas for major sport event organisations.

This chapter sought identify and analyse appropriate literature in order to gain an understanding of the flexible management demands of personnel within pulsating major sport event organisations. In order to thoroughly explore the management of personnel in these organisations, it was necessary to firstly, trace the stages of managing personnel within generic organisations, and then follow with a more focused analysis of 'flexible' organisations.

The chapter was divided into four sections. First, it introduced and defined major events, identified the associated benefits and costs, and revealed how major sport event organisations created a pulsating effect. Second, it discussed the management of human resources in both generic and flexible organisations. Third, it identified the special characteristics of pulsating major sport event organisations, and determined their associated personnel management requirements. Finally, it adapted generic personnel processes to major sport event organisations and discussed how the nature of a pulsating major sport event impacts on management practices in each of the stages.

The Special Nature of Major Sport Events

Introduction

The purpose of this section was to introduce and define major events, identify their significance and impact, and reveal how major sport event organisations created a pulsating effect.

Major Events

What are Major Events?

A 'major event' can be defined in a number of ways. The terms 'hallmark event', 'mega-event', 'special event' and 'major event' have been used interchangeably in the literature. These terms generally relate to festivals, fairs or sport. Hall (1992) questioned the feasibility of a concise definition, because the meanings of events can transform depending on the type of event being conducted. Getz (1997) reinforced Hall's view, noting that a universal definition will not be possible. This may explain why interchangeable terms relating to events are used by organisations (e.g., Tourism Victoria) and writers (Burns, Hatch & Mules, 1986; Torkildsen, 1992).

In an attempt to overcome some of the confusion surrounding the definition of events, Jago (1997) developed a taxonomy of events, which is illustrated in Figure 1. Events are divided into either ordinary or special. The term 'special' is used in a broad tourism sense, and can incorporate minor events, festivals or major events. Major events are then classified as either hallmark or mega events.
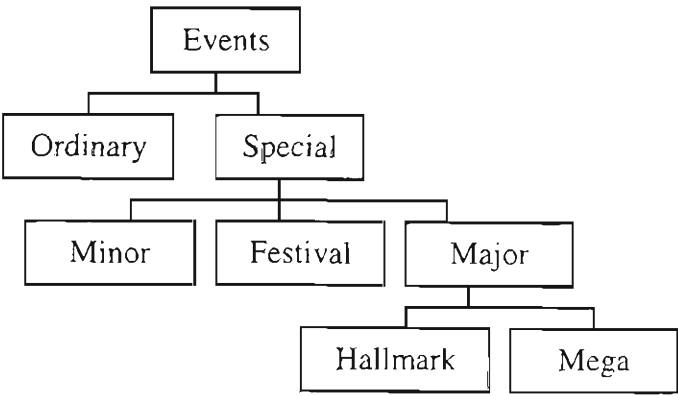
Figure 1: Event framework taxonomy

Note. From *Special events and tourism behaviour: A conceptualisation and an empirical analysis from a values perspective,* by L. Jago, 1997, Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Victoria University, Melbourne. Reprinted with permission.

Major events have a number of common features. For example, Jago (1997) defined a major event as attracting media attention, large crowds and funds to a region. Furthermore, large costs, prestige and status, demand for related services, and tradition or symbolism are also associated with major events. They tend to leave behind legacies or urban renewal, and are of a national or international scale.

Jago's (1997) model, Figure 1, illustrates that major events fall into two categories, mega or hallmark. Mega refers to a one-time major event that is generally of an international scale, for example, the Bledisloe Cup or a Papal visit. A hallmark event refers to an event that is tied to a specific place whereby the destination and the event become synonymous, such as the Melbourne Cup. However, many events are annual and neither fall into the mega or hallmark categories. Such examples include the Avalon Airshow, the Motorcycle Grand Prix, and the Indy Grand Prix. For the purpose of this research and in order to represent a broad range of events, the term 'major' was used to represent regular, annual, infrequent or one-off events.

Major events have a very wide appeal and embrace various sectors, such as tourism, parks and recreation, arts and culture, sport, and trade. Despite the range of sectors involved with major events, they share many similar characteristics. Getz (2000) found that major events are of limited duration and have one or more special purposes, each event is unique in its blend of setting, program, management, and participants or customers, and they have human experiences and universal appeal. Furthermore, major events have cultural and economic significance resulting in the involvement of many businesses, agencies, and organisations. Getz also emphasised three forces that impact upon a major event and create outcomes after the event: economic, social and environmental. These forces apply to all types of events including festivals, exhibitions, ceremonies and major sport events.

Major Sport Events

There has been no agreement of exactly what constitutes a major sport event. In order to resolve this problem, Jago's (1997) special major events definition was integrated with other major event literature (Faulkner, 1993; Getz, 2000; Jago & Shaw, 1998; Spilling, 1996). Seven distinct characteristics have emerged that defined a major sport event: One-time or recurring; of limited duration; prestige profile; strong media exposure; large attendances; economic benefits for the host community; and, a national or international focus.

In light of this definition, examples of Australian major sport events include the Indy Grand Prix, Australian Motorcycle Grand Prix, the Australian Football League Grand Final, the Melbourne Cup, the Bledisloe Cup, the Australian Formula One Grand Prix and the Australian Open Tennis Championship.

The Benefits and Costs Associated with Major Sport Events

The benefits and costs associated with major sport events were discussed in light of four forces that impacted upon a major event. The first three were economic. social and environmental forces (Getz, 2000). The fourth was a political force (Downey. 1993; Gruneau, Finn, Corrigan, Palmer, Donnelly, & Hackett, 1998; Semotiuk, 1987).

Economically, it has been demonstrated that major sport events are an integral part of tourism expenditure (Commonwealth Department of Industry. Science and Resources, 2000). The CISR estimated that Australian major sport events generate tourism expenditure of approximately three billion dollars per annum. The Bledisloe Cup and the Spring Racing Carnival are examples of major sport events that generate a large economic impact on the host region. The 1997 Bledisloe Cup generated 61 million dollars and the 1996 Spring Racing Carnival generated 174 million dollars to the Victorian economy (Sport and Recreation Victoria, 1999).

Socially, the tourism industry has benefited from the growth of sport events in two ways. Firstly, from the growth of mass participation events, such as the Masters Games, secondly from the growth in events 'manufactured' exclusively for television. which has assisted in promoting regional tourism. Such 'manufactured' events include the Jacobs Creek Tour Down Under in South Australia, whereby television viewers see cyclists touring the South Australian wine region. The cycling route was selected in order to best promote the region to potential tourists (CISR, 2000). Major sport events have positive community benefits, increase public awareness of a destination, and create pride within the host communities (Hall. 1995). On the other hand, powerful classes and groups, involved in major events. who control the political and economic institutions, can obtain media coverage during the event and push their own ideological views (Sage, 1990).

Environmentally, research has found that major sport events seek to mitigate the negative environmental impacts and maximise the positive ecological outcomes (Goldblatt, 2000). However, events can have negative impacts, primarily due to the expenditure on constructing facilities (Downey, 1993; Goldblatt, 2000). Furthermore, sport events that fail to manage their waste can inadvertently impact negatively on the quality of the local environment that helps attract customers, and in doing so possibly jeopardise their own future (Campbell, 2002).

Politically, major sport events are viewed as forums, which gather international media attention and a mass audience (Gruneau et al., 1988; Hall, 1995). It is believed that major sport events would not exist if not for the support of government funding (Stewart, 1986; Downey, 1993). However, many researchers do not positively view politics and major sport events. Gruneau et al. (1988) reported it is a venue for political protests. For example, the 'Black Power' demonstration at the 1968 Olympics and the 'Munich Massacre'' at the 1972 Olympics targeted opposition to respective Government beliefs. Furthermore, boycotting events has been aimed at political powers for example, the South Africa's apartheid policies (Gruneau et al., 1988).

Based on the literature, however, the benefits associated with an effectively planned and managed major sport event outweigh the disadvantages. In recent years, these benefits have been recognised by national and State governments as a legitimate focus for general economic and tourism development strategies (CISR, 2000).

The organisations coordinating major sport events are known as major sport event organisations, and are good examples of pulsating organisations. Toffler (1990) developed the concept of pulsating organisations that expand and contract over their life cycle. Such organisations are divided into two types. The first type is an organisation that "expands and contracts in a *regular rhythm*" (p.178). which occurs around a periodic cycle, see Figure 2.

Figure 2: Regular rhythm organisation

The second type is one that grows, declines and then is dismantled after the event. This one is known as the '*single pulse*' organisation, see Figure 3.

Figure 3: Single pulse organisation

Toffler explained that the expansion and contraction of these pulsating organisations result in unique information and communication requirements. For example, clear communication paths and user-friendly resources are needed to cater for the influx of personnel.

This pulsating effect is typical in major sport event organisations. They generally operate with a small core of personnel for much of the year but have to expand quite quickly and substantially in the lead-up to an event. The organisations coordinating the annual Melbourne Cup and the Indy Grand Prix for example, would

be classified as 'regular rhythm' organisations, expanding and contracting around a periodic cycle. Whereas, the organisations coordinating the Olympic Games and the Bledisloe Cup would be classified as single pulse organisations, since they are established for a one-off event and then dismantled afterwards. The abovementioned organisations need to have specialised communication and information resources, to cater for the expansion of personnel leading up to and during an event. For example, the Victoria Racing Club has a staff handbook for all personnel working at the Melbourne Cup. The handbook provides information such as the times of each race, commonly asked questions and who to contact if an issue arises (Victoria Racing Club, 2002).

Managing Major Sport Events

Hall (1992) identified seven factors contributing to the successful management of major sport events. These were designing the event, determining organisational systems, managing personnel, delivering the event, obtaining visitor and participant satisfaction, determining the impact on athletes and community, and performing an event evaluation. A vast array of research has been conducted on organisational systems, the design and delivery of events, visitor and participant satisfaction, the impact on athletes and community, and evaluating the event (e.g., Dwyer, Mellor, Mistilis & Mules, 2000; Light, 1996; Pipan & Porsander, 2000).

However, despite personnel being a key ingredient for organisational success (Nankervis et al., 1996; Morrall, 1998), there has been little research regarding the management of personnel in major sport event organisations (Doherty, 1998; Slack,

1997). As a result, event managers are left attempting to manage personnel without sufficient theoretical support.

In Summary

Major events have become an important part of the sporting landscape. They can be best defined as a one-time or recurring sport event of limited duration, which is characterised by a prestige profile, strong media exposure, large attendances, economic benefits for the host community and with a national or international focus. Furthermore, this section has identified some of the benefits and costs associated with major sport events. These include generating tourism expenditure and a positive economic impact, yet creating excessive expenditure on the construction of facilities and providing an opportunity for powerful groups to push their ideological views.

In order for these events to be successful, personnel must be effectively managed. However, with special event literature only occasionally addressing this aspect, the following section examines the management practices of event managers by first, identifying the principles that 'underlie' effective personnel management in generic and flexible organisations, and second, examining the nature of managing personnel in pulsating major sport event organisations.

Managing Human Resources

Introduction

This section began by examining the practice of managing human resources (HR) in generic and more specifically, flexible organisations. It then discussed the

management of personnel in pulsating major sport event organisations. A comparison was then made between managing HR in flexible organisations and those in pulsating major sport event organisations, thereby, creating a foundation framework, which explained the management practices used by event managers when managing HR.

The Role of the Human Resource Manager in Generic Organisations

The role of HR managers has been transformed as department managers assume greater HR responsibility. Human Resource managers are frequently left to act as internal consultants, assisting managers in devising and implementing ways of managing people (Kramar, 1999). As a result, department and HR managers are becoming more responsible for policy decisions, and HR managers specifically, are taking responsibility for managing industrial relations and pay and benefits (Kramar, 1999). Kramar identified a 1997 study by the Centre of European Human Resource Management, in which 331 international organisations concluded that department manager responsibility had increased to involve recruitment and selection, as well as training and development. The seven year study also revealed that department managers are more often dealing with 'people – related' issues that require the development of competencies and relationships in order to be effective.

This transformation reflects a shift in corporate culture from one of paternalism to one of employee empowerment (Barner, 2000). In Australia, Kramar, Mcgraw and Schuler (1997) summarised this transformation as:

> Organisations are more than ever concerned about managing human resources effectively; a major trend in the human resource field is towards managing human resources in organisations which are flatter and more flexible than in the past; human resources is moving away from being merely a departmental presence in organisations to becoming a broad corporate competency which includes all managers in partnership with human resource specialists. (p. 6)

The HR function can be viewed as a vigorous exchange between ideas about managing people and ideas about strategic management as a whole (Boxall, 1992), with managers seeking "to facilitate the contribution people make to achieving an organization's strategies and plans...." (Kramar et al., 1997 p.6). In other words, due to the increasing corporate culture in which department managers function, they often have stronger communication systems in place with their personnel, and increased responsibility has been placed on department managers to incorporate HR roles. The success of the organisation depends on how personnel are managed and the ability of managers to incorporate HR roles within their departments.

The Shift to Flexibility

Characteristics Required for Managing Personnel in Flexible Organisations
The Australian workforce has moved from full-time permanent employment to part-time and other non-standard forms of work (e.g., Burgess & Campbell, 1998; Holland & Deery, 2002; Whitehouse, Lafferty & Boreham, 1997). In Kramar's (1999) research, over half of the 331 surveyed organisations had increased their temporary/casual employment, fixed-term contracts and outsourcing and subcontracting arrangements. Kramar found the majority of these organisations had increasingly flexible working hours and more job sharing arrangements. As a result, this has created more complex administration and communication difficulties between personnel, leading to increased direct and indirect costs for flexible organisations (Holland & Deery, 2002).

Three distinct categories of personnel have emerged - core personnel (full-time permanent conducting key organisational activities), peripheral personnel (permanent

part-time or short-term) and distanced groups (outsourced) (Atkinson, 1987; Guerrier & Lockwood, 1989; Reilly, 2001). Incorporating these categories of personnel into an organisation involves tailored management processes, primarily to cater for the different needs of the various groups, and to develop relationships between these personnel in order to optimise performance (Bridges, 1995).

In an earlier study, Atkinson (1985) defined four different types of flexibility evident within organisations. The first type was functional flexibility. This involved employee versatility and their ability to move between jobs and handle different tasks. The second was numerical flexibility, which involved the number of workers or the number of hours worked in response to changes in demand. Third was pay flexibility whereby financial reward systems were said to encourage functional flexibility and reward individual performance; and, finally, distancing strategies that involved contracting out operations to move uncertainty and burden elsewhere.

Table 1 represents the characteristics identified in the literature regarding flexible organisations. In summary, the six characteristics involve a transitional environment whereby various personnel, some employed for a limited time, work in teams with flexible hours and arrangements.

Table 1. Human resource characteristics for flexible organisations

Characteristics	Proponent/s
Full-time, casual/part-time and outsourcing/subcontracting personnel	Atkinson (1985), Burgess & Campbell (1998), Guerrier & Lockwood (1989), Kramar (1999), Reilly (2001)
Flexible work hours	Atkinson (1985), Kramar (1999), Holland & Deery (2002), Reilly (2001)
Task-oriented teams at the same employment level	Atkinson (1985), Kramar (1999), Lundin & Soderholm (1995)
Flexible work arrangements	Atkinson (1985), Holland & Deery (2002)
Limited employment time for peripheral (casual / part-time, outsource / subcontracting) personnel	Guerrier & Lockwood (1989), Lundin & Soderholm (1995)
Transitional environment	Lundin & Soderholm (1995), Reilly (2001)

The Stages for Managing Human Resources in Flexible Organisations

In the literature, regardless of the specialised HR characteristics identified for flexible organisations, the key stages for managing HR within flexible and generic organisations are the same. This has resulted in literature addressing standard HR stages regardless of the type of organisation and their special characteristics.

Miller (1991) referred to four standard HR stages: selection, appraisal, reward, and development. However, five collective HR stages have been identified and deemed pivotal for managers (e.g., Flynn, 1994; Go, Monachello & Baum, 1996; Narasimha, 2000). These are selection, training, reward, teams, and employee relations (refer to Table 2).

In order to ensure the successful implementation of the HR management process, Dale and Iles (1996) strongly recommended that evaluation be incorporated into each

aspect of the five HR stages. Three of these stages, selection, training, and reward, are interrelated stages and work in conjunction with each other. For example, recruitment is a necessary precurser to selection, and organisational and personnel development flows from training.

Table 2. Standard human resource stages

Stages – issues	Proponent/s
Selection – recruitment	Allen (1998), Flynn (1994), Go et al. (1996), Legge (1995), Nankervis et al. (1996), Narasimha (2000), Werther & Davis (1997)
Training – development	Allen (1998), Flynn (1994), Go et al. (1996), Nankervis et al. (1996), Narasimha (2000), Werther & Davis (1997)
Reward – compensation	Allen (1998), Go et al. (1996), Nankervis et al. (1997), Narasimha (2000), Werther & Davis (1997)
Teams	Go et al. (1996), Legge (1995)
Employee relations	Nankervis et al. (1996), Werther & Davis (1997)

The main point these researchers and writers emphasised for managers, was the need to ensure all HR stages were integrated within the personnel work environment. This is often the role HR specialists assume as they develop procedures and policies for managing personnel, which are then operationalised by department managers (Kramar, 1999; Miller, 1991). As these standard HR stages should be applied in all organisations, one should ask what relevance they have to pulsating major sport event organisations?

Managing Personnel in Pulsating Major Sport Event Organisations

Managing personnel refers to both the management of individuals, groups or the organisation as a whole, and how these individuals and groups relate to one another (Pipan & Porsander, 2000). In major sport events, these personnel assume a complex staffing arrangement comprising a mix of full-time, outsource, seasonal and volunteers (Graham, Goldblatt, & Delph, 1995) who all assist in achieving the organisation's goals (Chelladurai, 1999).

It was previously identified that major sport events could be referred to as pulsating organisations that expand and contract over their life cycle. Crawford (1991) reported when managing personnel in such organisations, there is a need to:

> Coordinate the work of numerous temporary work units, each phasing in and out of existence according to the rate of change in the environment surrounding the organisation. The adhocracies of tomorrow will be personneled by personnel who are capable of rapid learning (in order to invent new solutions). These men and women will participate in small teams, cross-disciplinary teams, partnerships and quality circles. (p.115)

This temporary effect poses substantial challenges for effectively managing personnel in these organisations. For example, when managing a team of personnel, numbers dramatically increase upon the appointment of outsource, seasonal and volunteer personnel. This results in temporary work groups (Crawford, 1991) hosting personnel with different needs, attitudes and expertise (Challadurai, 1999). Due to the variety of personnel required for a pulsating major sport event, managing personnel is a complex task.

Personnel Arrangements for Pulsating Major Sport Event Organisations

Due to the pulsating nature of major sport events, the majority of personnel are required for a limited period of time. Therefore, short-term personnel are preferred

for an event (Graham, et al., 1995). The personnel selection issue is compounded by the many different approaches used to employ personnel. For example, personnel can be outsourced, which often involves tender submissions (Domberger, 1998), or personnel can be seasonal employees or volunteers, which involves interview processes (Flynn, 1996). Table 3 illustrates examples of three Australian major sport events and the number of personnel required to ensure the success of each event. The table displays the core (permanent) full-time personnel as well as fluctuating personnel in the outsource, seasonal, and volunteer categories.

Table 3. Personnel arrangements for major sport event organisations

Event	*Core Full-time*	*Fluctuating*		
		Outsource	*Seasonal*	*Volunteer*
1997 Australian Open Tennis Championship (Australian Open Tennis Championship, 1997, b)	19		3,000	
8th World Swimming Championship (1998) (Melchert, 1998)	50	2,060		1,300
1998 Australian Formula One Grand Prix (Australian Grand Prix Corporation, 1998)	40	15,000	80	

Table 3 highlights the diversity of personnel required to staff major sport events and illustrates the numbers of full-time, outsource, seasonal and volunteer personnel required for each of the three events. Personnel numbers at most events fluctuate at various stages leading up to, during and after the event. In the lead-up to an event the majority of outsource, seasonal and volunteer personnel are appointed, during the event personnel numbers reach their peak, and after the event the majority of personnel contracts have expired. The need for each fluctuating personnel category varies, outsource organisations / personnel are required when the event organisation needs a specialised task performed; seasonal personnel are required for their limited

period of employment time; and volunteer personnel are required for their unpaid services. These personnel have special needs, and as a result management may be required to consider the needs of different personnel groups. The following discussion highlights these differences.

Outsource personnel.

Outsourcing occurs when an organisation moves its internal work to an external supplier (Elliott & Torkko, 1996). This supplier then becomes the overseer of individual personnel, and is responsible for hiring, paying and supervising these personnel. In order to reduce time commitments and expenses when employing personnel, Brown, Sutton and Duff (1993) recommend outsourcing entire services to relevant companies. The Atlanta Committee for the 1996 Olympic Games (ACOG) is a good example of the extent of outsourcing. Due to ACOGs lack of time and expertise to recruit personnel, almost 75,000 personnel were selected from an outsource agency (Flynn, 1996). Twenty thousand of these were volunteers who were directly managed by the agency to perform labor-intensive functions, such as tram driving and ticket taking.

Seasonal personnel.

The term seasonal is used for personnel who are employed by the event organisation for a limited period of time, whether it be for a day during the event or a period up to six months (Graham et al., 1995). Examples of such personnel include marquee managers, transport managers, and catering personnel. Managing these personnel, who are employed for various periods of time, is a difficult task (Compton & Nankervis, 1998). Consequently, management guidelines are often used by event managers to successfully manage seasonal personnel (Compton & Nankervis, 1998). These guidelines can include discussion of the need to provide a suitable job design,

ensure flexible job roles and maintain effective communication in relation to job shares. The guidelines also noted the need to provide recognition or be involved in training programs, facilitate meetings with full-time personnel, and ensure all administrative details were distributed and understood by seasonal personnel. Finally, the guidelines recommended providing prior explanation to full-time personnel about the need for seasonal personnel and to select suitable jobs and, provide effective management for seasonal personnel.

Volunteer personnel.

These personnel provide unpaid services and are either managed by the organisation conducting the event or by outsource organisations. There are many examples of these personnel, including managers who may volunteer their time throughout the year to assist with an event, or safety officers who may volunteer their time during the event. There is a general belief that few major events are successful without the assistance of volunteers (Roberts, 1997; Melchert, 1998). The world's largest cycling event, Tour de l'Ile, held in Montreal, is a good example. Lareau's (1992) research illustrated that without its 4,000 volunteers, hosting the Tour de l'Ile would not be possible. Another example is the Eighth World Swimming Championship that involved 1,300 volunteers. The volunteers role had a commercial value of 2.5 million dollars (Melchert, 1998). However, attracting key volunteer personnel can be difficult primarily due to the time and commitment required for these positions (Larsen, Montelpare & Donovan-Neale, 1992). Volunteers become involved in events for a variety of reasons including to be part of the event; to contribute to the host community; to feel as if they are productive members of the community; to increase their event competencies; and to contribute to the event's success (Hall, 1995).

Time Variance for Major Sport Events

Not only do major sport events vary in personnel numbers, they also vary in event length. For example, the Melbourne Cup is a one day event, the Australian Formula One Grand Prix (AFOGP) is a four day event, the Australian Tennis Open Championship (AOTC) is a two week event and the Olympic Games is a sixteen day event.

When managing personnel at an event that is conducted over a large number of days, maintaining motivation for personnel is an important consideration. The AOTC provides a good example. The first week involves a large number of tennis players at a single venue utilising all available tennis courts, there are many thousands of spectators per day, and personnel numbers are at their peak. During the second week of the Championship, the finals are played. At this stage, only the finalists are playing on a selected number of tennis courts, limited spectator seats are available and the number of personnel required falls. Consequently, spectators are restricted to one area of the venue, and merchandise sales decrease. Managers may find they need to conduct motivational meetings with personnel before the final week's events, in order to maintain service quality.

The Characteristics of Managing Personnel in Pulsating Major Sport Event

Organisations

Table 4 presents the main characteristics of pulsating major sport event organisations that appear in the literature. In summary, there exist a range of employment groups containing personnel who all have different needs, attitudes and expertise. These employment groups subsequently form small cross-disciplinary teams. The cross-disciplinary teams comprise a group of personnel from different hierarchical levels,

who have either full-time, outsource, seasonal or voluntary commitments with the organisation. The majority of these personnel have a limited contract time within the organisation, and as a result personnel numbers expand and contract. This fluctuating effect creates temporary work groups, for example, outsource and seasonal catering personnel located in the same marque during the days of an event. These people are employed for a limited period of time and form a temporary team for the duration of the event.

Table 4. Characteristics of pulsating major sport event organisations

Characteristics	Proponent/s
Range of employment groups (Full-time, outsource, seasonal and volunteer personnel)	Graham et al. (1995)
Limited contract time for outsource, seasonal and volunteer personnel	Compton & Nankervis (1998)
Small core of full-time personnel	Graham et al. (1995)
Different needs, attitudes and expertise of personnel	Chelladurai (1999)
Small, cross-disciplinary teams	Crawford (1991)
Expansion and contraction of personnel numbers	Toffler (1990), Crawford (1991)
Temporary work groups	Crawford (1991)

Stages for Managing Human Resources in Pulsating Major Sport Event

Organisations

The literature identified that when managing personnel in major sport event organisations, specialised HR stages emerge (Doherty, 1998; Halberg & Waters, 1991; Slack, 1997; Torkildsen, 1992). Five stages have been identified for event managers within the HR process: establishing an organisational structure. selecting

personnel, inducting personnel, managing teams and retaining personnel (refer to Table 5). Similar to the generic organisations HR stages, pulsating major sport event organisations have stages that work in conjunction with each other. For example. recruitment is a necessary precursor when selecting personnel and compensation is incorporated for retaining personnel.

Table 5. Human resource stages for managers within pulsating major sport event organisations

Stages	Proponent/s
Establishing an organisational structure	Doherty (1998), Torkildsen (1992)
Selecting personnel – recruitment	Halberg & Waters (1991), Slack (1997)
Inducting personnel	Halberg & Waters (1991), Slack (1997)
Managing teams	Doherty (1998), Halberg & Waters (1991)
Retaining personnel – compensation	Doherty (1998), Halberg & Waters (1991), Slack (1997)

The previous section identified seven characteristics associated with pulsating major sport event organisations. It is anticipated that these characteristics will impact on the management practices in each of the five HR stages. For example, when selecting personnel the range of employment groups; the variance of contract time for fluctuating personnel; the different needs, attitudes and expertise of personnel; and the ability to work in small, cross-disciplinary and temporary teams need to be considered. This would then determine the type of personnel being selected, the job descriptions, and the questions asked during interviews. This example highlights how the characteristics of a pulsating major sport event organisation creates specialised management practices when selecting personnel.

**Similarities and Differences between Managing Human Resources within
'Flexible' Organisations and Pulsating Major Sport Event Organisations**

It is important to identify the similarities and differences between managing human resources within flexible and within pulsating major sport event organisations. This can assist in developing a HR framework tailored for the latter organisation (Sparrow & Marchington, 1998).

Three distinct similarities are evident between the two types of organisations. First, in regards to the category of personnel, pulsating major sport event organisations are similar to flexible organisations. Both organisations have core and peripheral personnel. The term 'core' represents full-time personnel who are continually employed within an organisation, the term 'peripheral' represents personnel employed for a limited period of time, such as part-time or outsource personnel. Together, these categories of personnel work in teams within a transitional environment (Atkinson, 1985; Crawford, 1991; Kramar, 1999; Lundin & Soderholm, 1995).

The flexible personnel requirements of both organisation types create human resource characteristic similarities: the types of personnel and the limited employment time for peripheral personnel. The different types of personnel required for these organisations leads to the final similarity, the HR stages of selection, teams and retention, which are pivotal within both *types* of organisations. In light of these similarities, pulsating major sport event organisations could be described as an exaggerated form of flexible organisation.

The differences between the two organisation types are more pronounced. According to the major sport event definition, events have prestige profiles, strong

media exposure, large attendances, economic benefits for the host community and with a national or international focus. As such, external groups, such as stakeholders and the media, often have high expectations of major sport events and there is a greater need to effectively manage personnel. This type of pressure and expectation is evident for the majority of pulsating major sport event organisations. However, this type of pressure is less emphasised within the flexible organisation definition, which has a core and fluctuating workforce driven by immediate market response (Atkinson, 1987; Sparrow & Marchington, 1998; Thompson & McHugh, 1995). This evidence suggests that when organising a major sport event, there is greater pressure for effectively managing personnel, compared to flexible organisations.

Another difference between the two types of organisations is the training of personnel. The literature has emphasised induction as an important stage for pulsating major sport event organisations (Halberg & Waters, 1991; Slack, 1997), whereas training was given more emphasis for flexible organisations (Kramar, 1999; Narasimha, 2000). Unlike the hotel industry for example, and excluding full-time personnel, major sport event organisations do not have the luxury to train personnel over an extended period of time, managers can only induct fluctuating personnel within a limited period of time, sometimes hours before the event is conducted. This can result in the need for more thorough and intensive induction (Halberg & Waters, 1991; Slack, 1997) rather than comprehensive training. Induction also applies to full-time personnel in these organisations. It is considered that induction is more important than training as it provides personnel a sense of belonging (Flynn, 1994) and there is a need to provide these personnel with comprehensive information about the organisation and their designated role (Flynn, 1994; Nankervis et al., 1996). As a result, similar to fluctuating personnel in major sport event organisations, full-time

personnel are inducted not trained. However, induction can take place over a period of time due to the minimal time restraints compared to those with fluctuating personnel.

Pulsating major sport event organisations change dramatically over the operating cycle. The complexity of a pulsating structure dramatically increases in the lead-up to the event and becomes simplified after an event (Toffler, 1990). This is due to the increase in personnel and roles required for an event (Graham et al., 1995). Flexible organisations have a structure that changes (Timo, 1999), however, not as dramatically nor is it as complex as the former organisations.

Furthermore, major sport events range in event length for example from one day, such as the Melbourne Cup to two weeks, such as the Australian Tennis Open. This creates an intensive operational cycle operating for a limited period of time. If an event organisation is coordinating a number of events, its operating cycle becomes more cyclic and demanding. These points further highlight the organisational structure difference between pulsating major sport event and flexible organisations. Table 6 summarises the comparisons between the two types of organisations.

Table 6. Comparative analysis between flexible and major sport event organisations

Flexible organisations	Major sport event organisations
Core and peripheral personnel	Core and peripheral personnel
Limited peripheral employment time	Limited peripheral employment time
Selection variance depending on personnel category	Selection variance depending on personnel category
Team variance depending on personnel category	Team variance depending on personnel category
Retention variance depending on personnel category	Retention variance depending on personnel category
Possible market exposure to a completed project	International exposure to an event
Limited media exposure	International media exposure
Training of personnel	Induction of personnel
Structural change for a period of time	Complexity of structure dramatically increases and changes for a limited period of time

The pressure, induction intensity, and demands placed on the operational cycles create serious implications for management practices in pulsating major sport event organisations.

A Foundation Framework for Managing Human Resources within Pulsating Major Sport Event Organisations

Five key HR stages, identified from the literature, can provide a foundation framework for event managers within pulsating major sport event organisations. However, as identified in the previous section, external forces also contribute toward the framework's design (Doherty, 1998). These external forces are the economic, social, environmental (Getz, 2000), and political forces (Downey, 1993; Hall, 1995).

The management practices described are not new to research; however, tailoring practices for major sport event organisations is. The HR stages for major sport event organisations are distinct from those identified as standard stages. The special characteristics of pulsating major sport event organisations need to be considered. For example, when establishing an organisational structure, consideration needs to made towards the full-time, outsource, seasonal and volunteer personnel, who work in temporary teams.

Figure 4 synthesises a system's view of managing personnel in major sport event organisations, where inputs influence a series of interdependent management processes in order to create the event output (Slack, 1997). Friend (1991) reinforced the system's view, believing it to be appropriate for use with personnel issues. The system's view allows for a holistic analysis of the management process (Peters &

Waterman, 1984) and ensures that attention is given to the interactive nature of the process.

Such interaction begins from an understanding as to how tasks and needs are allocated. This is identified by establishing an organisational structure (Timo, 1999) that helps to shape the HR stages (Boxall, 1993, Timo, 1999) of selecting personnel, inducting personnel, managing teams and retaining personnel (refer to Figure 4). For example, once an organisational structure is established that identifies roles or departments, the selection of personnel can be performed. Necessary precursors were also evident in the literature for two HR stages (refer to Table 5: Human resource stages for managers within pulsating major sport event organisations). Recruitment was a necessary precursor when selecting personnel and compensation was incorporated for retaining personnel (refer to Figure 4).

This system's view, which has a simple basic structural arrangement, facilitates organisational flexibility (Peters & Waterman, 1984). Managers have a clear understanding of the process necessary for managing personnel. The input determinants demonstrate the strong interaction required between each stage and the event manager. Each stage complements the others. For example, effective personnel selection and thorough induction leads to personnel retention. The two-way arrows indicate the strong interaction the event manager has with each stage. HR specialists often act as internal consultants assisting event managers in devising, implementing and evaluating each stage.

Evaluation is performed on a continual basis (Dale & Iles, 1996), where for example, evaluation meetings are conducted discuss the achievement of objectives (Donohoe & Southey, 1996). As a result, each stage is adjusted accordingly (Dale & Iles, 1996). In Figure 4, evaluation is indicated with a dotted line circling the process.

In summary, the framework (Figure 4) illustrates how inputs contribute towards the HR stages to form an interconnecting process, which achieves the key output.
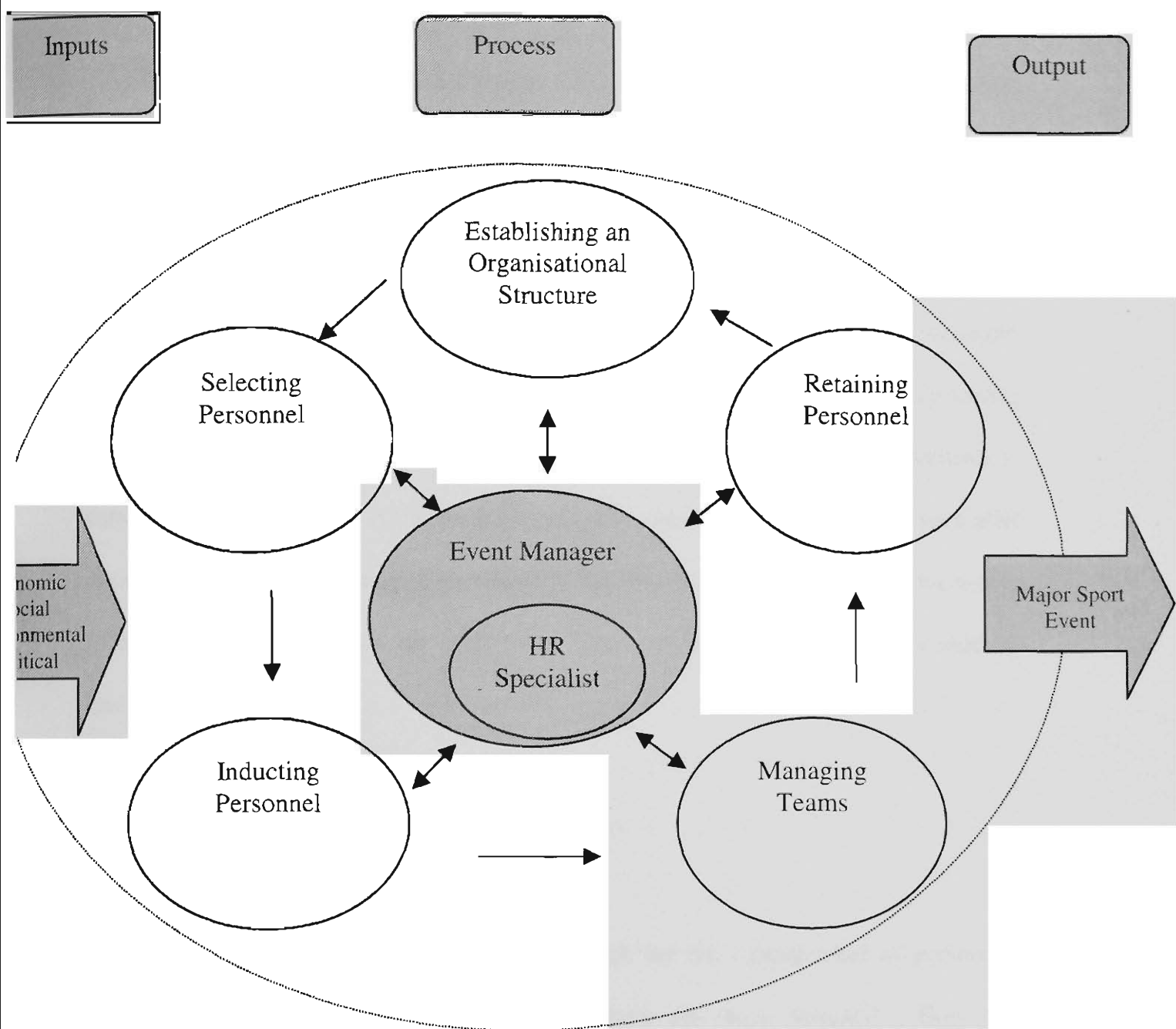
Note. Dotted circle represents evaluation performed on a continual basis

Figure 4: A foundation framework for managing personnel within pulsating major sport event organisations

This literature review adapts standard HR stages into a systems model that can be used to analyse the processes for managing personnel in pulsating major sport event organisations. The model illustrates the sequential relationship between the five stages, and creates a process for the event manager to follow. The model illustrates how an organisational structure first needs to be established before personnel selection is undertaken. Then induction commences, which leads to managing teams, and finally the need for retaining personnel. In this process, a strong relationship is established between the event manager and HR specialist, whereby, the specialist assists the manager in managing personnel. This assistance may include the provision of policies and procedures for each stage. The model described above is used to underpin this research.

In Summary

Based on the literature, a foundation framework for the management of personnel within pulsating major sport event organisations has been designed. How the pulsating nature of sport events impact on the management practices in each of the five stages within this model will be further examined in the final section of this chapter.

The Human Resource Management Process in Major Sport Event Organisations: An Extended Discussion

Introduction

As the previous discussion indicates, the literature on the management of personnel is extensive and covers a wide variety of cases and situations. Primarily these cases focus on generic organisations. However, there is a valuable, if limited, coverage of major sport event organisations. In general, the literature identifies a number of essential stages and related processes, which event managers perform when managing personnel.

In this section of the literature review, each stage of the HRM process is reviewed in detail. The following sequence is adopted: establishing an organisational structure, selecting personnel, inducting personnel, managing teams, and retaining personnel. Within each stage, literature is first discussed in relation to generic organisations, second, it is adapted to pulsating major sport event organisations, and finally, a process is formulated to illustrate the specific issues involved with each stage. Criticism about the unitarist and simplistic nature of generic HR literature has been evident (Blyton & Turnbull, 1992; Legge, 1995; McGraw, 1997; Pettinger, 1998). This criticism is evident in each stage of the generic organisation HRM process. As a result, at times, it is difficult to critically analyse this descriptive literature.

The conclusion of this section, summarises the management stages and related issues of event managers, and illustrates how the pulsating nature of major sport event organisations has implications on the management practices.

Establishing an Organisational Structure

The Importance of a Structure

The management of personnel in any organisation is primarily shaped by the organisational structure (Timo, 1999). Hence, there is the necessity to address organisational structures first.

Saul (1996) reported that when establishing organisations, there is a need to plan "psychological maps of the boundaries, connecting pathways and salient stages of their organisational communities and communicate these to each of their important stakeholders and contributors" (p. 33). An organisational structure dictates power and communication channels (Cascio, 1992; Doherty, 1998), establishes formal relations and influences the position descriptions for personnel, which in turn affects efficiency (Cascio, 1992; Spangler, 1997). Furthermore, an organisational structure illustrates how personnel are managed by identifying the grouping of tasks, which facilitates the coordination and design of jobs (Cascio, 1992). It is important for managers to have an understanding of personnel, personnel relations and organisational structures (Torkildsen, 1992) in order to manage personnel successfully.

Transformation of the Organisational Structure

There is a range of views regarding what form such organisational structures should take. For example, recent research has challenged traditional organisational structures and identified an alternative structure for today's more turbulent operating environment (Ancona et al., 1996; Slack, 1997). Key characteristics of this contemporary framework are that it is lean, flexible and flat, with information flowing

both vertically and horizontally. These elements provide contrast to the traditional organisational structure and management systems whose elements tended to involve tiers of hierarchy, rules, set boundaries, divisions of labour and separate offices (Matheson, 1996).

Underpinning the contemporary organisational structure and management systems is innovation. Handy (1996) went so far as to suggest that the virtual organisation has arrived, with organisations now being characterised by systems or arrangements rather than physical locations. However, such contemporary structures have identified problems, with employee instability increasing as traditional hierarchical promotion opportunities diminish (Robbins & Barnwell, 1998). Consequently, new types of employee incentives have been introduced to maintain employee satisfaction, for example, varying job roles and career planning. There is a vast body of literature discussing the strengths and weaknesses of both traditional and contemporary organisational structures and management systems (Getz, 1992; Matheson, 1996; Robbins & Barnwell, 1998; Spangler, 1997). Table 7 summarises some of the key differences between the two.

Table 7. Comparison between traditional and contemporary organisational structure and management system

Traditional		Contemporary	
Strengths	*Weaknesses*	*Strengths*	*Weaknesses*
Reliable	Rigid	Flexible	Increased external pressures
Employee stability	Management directed	Self directed	Employee instability
Hierarchical promotion opportunities	Hierarchical communication and supervision	Lateral communication and collaboration	Lack of hierarchical promotion
Clear lines of control	Management powered	Customer powered	Increased internal competition

Timo's (1999) research added to the body of literature about contemporary organisations, even though it referred only to the hotel industry. Timo succinctly described these organisational structures as departmentalised in that "the organisational structure allows departmental managers to allocate labour and tasks within each department" (p. 52). According to Timo, this allowed for flexibility and stronger communication links between the manager and individual employees.

Regardless of whether an organisational structure plans to be traditional or contemporary in design, it must first consider the organisational size, the degree of dependence on other organisations and to a lesser degree, technology (Frisby, 1998; Hsu, Marsh, & Mannari, 1983; Pugh, Hickson, Hinnings & Turner, 1968). Once these factors are addressed, these researchers believed, the desired organisational structure can then be formed.

Key Dimensions of a Structure

There are three key dimensions to an organisational structure, the degree of differentiation, formalisation and centralisation (Robbins & Barnwell, 1998; Slack, 1997). Each of these dimensions is discussed briefly below.

The degree of differentiation refers to the complexity within an organisation. The degree of differentiation involves the *horizontal* separation between units, the *vertical* depth existing in the organisational hierarchy and the *spatial* differentiation of facilities and personnel (Robbins & Barnwell, 1998). For example, the greater the organisation's complexity, the greater the time required by managers to deal with problems of communication, coordination and control.

Formalisation influences the ways in which individuals behave within an organisation (Slack, 1997). For example, more formal organisations tend to rely on

comprehensive manuals to assist personnel in resolving most queries (Robbins & Barnwell, 1998).

The final dimension, centralisation, refers to the frequency with which decisions are made by managers, as opposed to the frequency with which they are delegated to lower-level personnel (Robbins & Barnwell, 1998).

In summary, there is a trend towards generic organisations being described as flexible, formalised and flat in terms of degree of differentiation. This description corresponds with many of the characteristics of flexible organisations (i.e., work hours and arrangements, involving task-oriented teams at the same employment level). Today's generic organisational structures are similar to those of flexible organisations.

Adapting the Generic Organisational Structure to Pulsating Major Sport Event Organisations

The literature has demonstrated that pulsating major sport event organisations change dramatically over the operating cycle. It is, therefore, difficult to identify a single structure that will suit such an organisation's lifespan. The rapid change, organisational growth and diversity of these organisations indicates the need for a highly flexible and innovative structure. Such a structure should aim to facilitate communication, coordination, control and at the same time to reduce conflict (Hall, 1992). When applying the three key dimensions of differentiation, formalisation and centralisation to a major sport event organisation, the fluctuating personnel factor also requires consideration.

The degree of differentiation in a pulsating major sport event organisation is similar to generic organisations, with a structure that includes vertical, spatial and

horizontal differentiations. However, the complexity of a pulsating structure dramatically increases in the lead-up to the event. Literature suggests that such complexity, necessitates the use of committees, information technology and formal policy manuals (Robbins & Barnwell, 1998). In pulsating major sport event organisations, the degree of differentiation tends to be flexible and expands both vertically (i.e., due to appointment of managers), and horizontally (i.e., through increased personnel appointment). The 1997 Australian University Games' organisational structure (Figure 5) was based upon the 1994 World Masters Games (Australian University Games, 1997) and previous University games. This structure has the ability to expand. Apart from the two committees, two managers (the Executive Officer and Games General Manager) were initially employed to plan the Games. In the lead-up to the Games, this structure expanded and is illustrated below the dotted line in Figure 5.

Five managers were appointed in the areas of Administration, Sport, Operations, Marketing and Public Relations, and Social. These managers were directly responsible to the Games General Manager. Following the employment of these managers, nine other full-time staff were appointed to assist the managers. Closer to the event, the structure figuratively exploded, as 400 volunteers were appointed within the five management areas. Despite the explosion in volunteer numbers, the organisational structure failed to reflect this occurrence. Figure 5 only partly addresses the spatial differentiation of personnel. It recognises the outsourcers, yet neglects to identify the majority of volunteer personnel. The 1997 Australian University Games organisational structure (Figure 5) fails to acknowledge the pulsating effect that the arrival of volunteers has on the organisation. It does not locate their position nor what team they belong to.

```
                        ┌──────────────┬─────────────┐
                        │              │             │
                 ┌──────────────┐    ┌──────────────┐
                 │  Management  │    │  University  │
                 │  Committee   │    │  Marketing   │
                 └──────────────┘    │  Committee   │
                        │            └──────────────┘
                 ┌──────────────┐
                 │ Games General│
   ┌──────────┐  │   Manager    │
   │Executive │  └──────────────┘
   │ Officer  │
   └──────────┘
```

| Administration | Sport | Operations | Marketing & Public Relations | Social (outsource) |
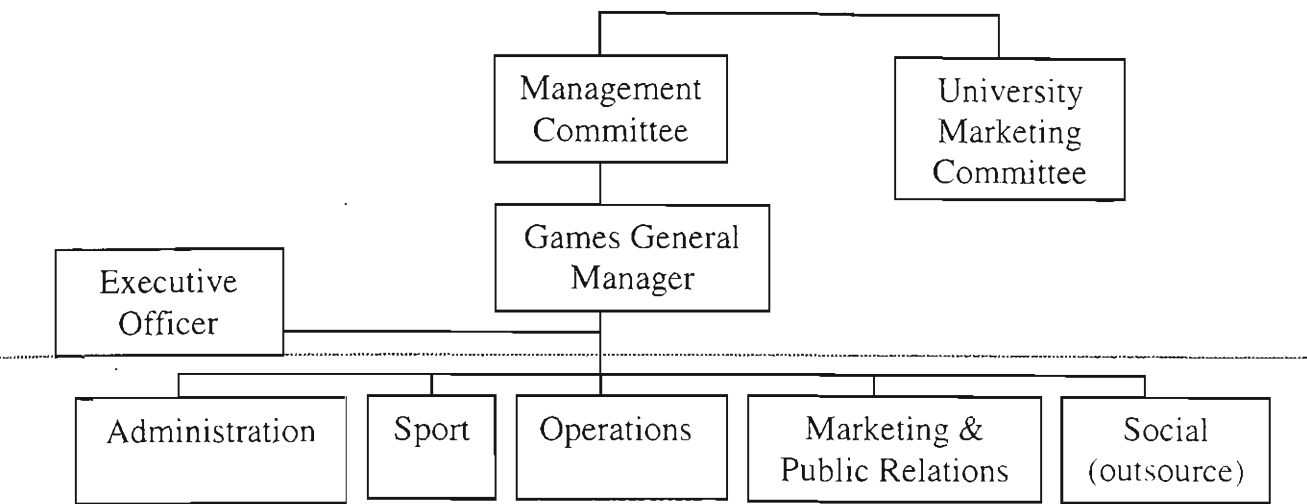
Figure 5: 1997 Australian University Games organisational structure

However, this event structure has been successful, at least in part, because it recognises horizontally and vertically the need to expand. This is indicated by the 'extended structure' below the dotted line in Figure 5. Furthermore, vertically there are few levels within the structure and thus improves the organisational flexibility, simplicity and speed of decision making. The structure presented in Figure 5 is consistent with Getz (1992), who suggests that events can be developed with minimal organisational infrastructure.

As with generic organisations, the second dimension of formalisation, is evident within pulsating major sport event organisations. This is due to the number and variety of personnel arriving and departing at different times for the event, all of whom require immediate information on various issues. Such formalisation requires the increased use of mechanisms such as rules, job descriptions, committees and detailed policies and procedures. For example, the Australian Tennis Open Championship and the Melbourne Cup have staff manuals, designed for the purpose of the event, to provide the immediate information that is required (Tennis Australia, 1999; Victoria Racing Club, 2002).

During the non-event period, pulsating major sport event organisations are centralised in a similar manner to generic organisations. When significant decisions need to be made, they are generally undertaken centrally. During the peak stage of a major sport event, there tends to be an organisational transformation from centralisation to decentralisation in order to achieve the organisation's event objectives (Australian University Games, 1997). This is due to the changed conditions, whereby personnel need to react quickly and not always wait for management approval of every decision. This feature of pulsating major sport event organisations can be referred to as 'decentralisation'. Decentralisation involves quick decision making, a reduction in the lines of communication, and a decrease in problems associated with status (Torkildsen, 1992). This view of decentralisation corresponds with Timo's (1999) description of departmentalisation, which also allows for flexibility and strong lines of communication. A practical example of decentralisation is the Australian Motorcycle Formula One Grand Prix. The staff handbook clearly presents teams and the contact details of team managers who will immediately answer any queries (Australian Grand Prix Corporation, 2002).

Mintzberg's (1979) research acknowledged the importance of three key dimensions. He found that these organisational structures need to be innovative, have flexible work arrangements and personnel having appropriate power. Slack (1997) contextualised Mintzberg's structural description in sporting organisations, by suggesting that some sport organisations have no structured hierarchy of authority, contain high levels of horizontal differentiation, and have specialists grouped into functional units for organisational purposes, yet who often assemble into project teams. As a result, a high level of decentralisation is evident, with the organisation responsive to change and dependant on external personnel support.

Therefore, as highlighted in the literature above, when incorporating the three dimensions of structure into a pulsating major sport event organisation, consideration of its special characteristics is required. In the lead-up to an event, sudden changes can occur as outsource, seasonal and volunteer personnel arrive and depart. As such, an organisational structure needs to incorporate the three key identified dimensions, whilst ensuring simplicity, flexibility, and enable personnel to recognise and appreciate the importance of their positions within the structure.

From the literature reviewed, six structural characteristics have been identified, to cater for the fluctuating demands at a major sport event organisation. These are illustrated in Table 8.

Table 8. Characteristics of a pulsating major sport event organisational structure

Characteristics	Proponent/s
Flexible	Australian University Games (1997), Mintzberg (1979)
Flat with an emphasis on horizontal and vertical differentiation	Australian University Games (1997), Getz (1992), Slack (1997), Torkildsen (1992)
Formalised	Slack (1997), Tennis Australia (1999), Victoria Racing Club (2002)
Decentralised, particularly during the peak stage of the event	Australian Grand Prix Corporation (2002); Australian University Games (1997), Mintzberg (1979), Timo (1999), Torkildsen (1992), Victoria Racing Club (2002)
Teams of people in functional units of managers, operators and external support personnel	Australian Grand Prix Corporation (2002); Slack (1997), Torkildsen (1992), Victoria Racing Club (2002)
Innovative structure to cater for a complex environment	Mintzberg (1979), Robbins & Barnwell (1998), Torkildsen (1992)

Timo (1999) reported that the management of personnel in any organisation is primarily shaped by the organisational structure. Table 8 illustrates how the special features of a pulsating major sport event organisation has shaped its structure. Furthermore, it highlights how the pulsating nature of these organisations create specific issues that event managers need to consider when formulating a structure. Once these features are identified, the selection of personnel can proceed.

The following review discusses how managers can select personnel most effectively in light of the characteristics of pulsating major sport event organisations (refer to Table 4, p. 37).

Selecting Personnel

The Importance of Selection

In today's businesses, there is a high level of importance attached to personnel selection (Blyton & Turnbull, 1992). So much so that Rosenberg (1997) stated "no function is more important than hiring competent, productive people..." (p. 14).

There is a strong body of evidence that indicates poor personnel selection decisions can result in painful organisational consequences such as project deadlines not being achieved, and wasted managerial effort (Hauschildt, Keim & Medcof, 2000). When poor personnel selection occurs in major sport event organisations, the consequences appear to be even more pronounced. For example, if an unsuitable manager is selected it can be disastrous, given that there may not be sufficient time available to replace them and the event may be ruined (Flynn, 1996).

Denton (1992) noted that, if managers are careful about whom they recruit and there is a better match between the recruits and the company, personnel retention will

be higher and personnel expenses reduced. Therefore, an efficient and effective selection process is critical in major sport event organisations.

Selecting Competent Personnel within Generic Organisations

Selecting personnel traditionally involved choosing the person with the best track record for obtaining results (Barner, 2000). Nowadays, a dramatic transformation has taken place. According to Barner, organisations are changing into "employee-engaging, high-performing work environments" (p.38), whereby recruiters and managers are seeking individuals who not only bring the right mix of competencies and experience, but are also a good 'fit' within the organisation's desired culture. Barner explained that this is due to managers taking more active roles as catalysts for organisational change. For example, an organisation wishing to build stronger relationships with a supplier may seek a manager willing to develop these relationships.

In generic organisations, selection is a long, drawn out process that can often take months (Armstrong, 1997, Milia & Smith, 1997; Muncey, 1998). The process can be both complicated and time consuming (Muncey, 1998). There appears consensus in the literature about five steps, which may minimise these complications in generic organisations. These processes are discussed below.

The selection brief.

Developing a selection brief should involve interviewing those to whom the candidate will report, executive colleagues who will work alongside the candidate, and personnel who will work under and report to the successful candidate (Dale and Iles, 1996). This brief should become the basis for a job description. An accurate job description and a personal specification detailing qualities and competencies can

enable an easier and more objective assessment of candidates (Nankervis et al., 1996). In contrast, Rosenberg (1997) opposed job descriptions believing them to contain "little information regarding leadership competencies, business sagacity, expected results and future needs" (p. 15).

One favoured strategy for designing a selection brief, was to design job specifications using the standard competencies required to perform the role (Dales & Iles, 1996; Nankervis et al., 1996; Rosenberg, 1997). More specifically, Compton and Nankervis (1998) found that, when designing selection briefs, it was necessary to list approximately nine to 12 characteristics or competencies associated with effective performance. According to Hauschildt, Keim, and Medcof (2000), such competencies include organising under conflict, experience, decision-making, creativity, organising cooperatively, cooperate leadership and integrative thinking. Rosenberg (1997) added that new personnel often have little time to learn their role and are expected instead to produce results immediately. He therefore recommended that another important competency is fast and perpetual learning.

With regards to outsource personnel, an additional selection criterion was the need for these personnel to offer specific industry skills based upon experience (Elliott & Torkko, 1996). Furthermore, managers should seek to identify whether outsource personnel are motivated to share knowledge and experience, or whether they are primarily seeking the contract for their own personal benefit (Kreuchen, 1997).

Recruitment.

Having prepared the brief, the second step of the selection process involves recruitment, that is obtaining an adequate pool of applicants. One recommendation, is to target candidates for a position, as this saves time and is cost effective (Critten,

1994). Often, word-of-mouth recommendations may be all that is required to obtain suitable candidates (Jameson, 2000). However, with the value of companies becoming increasingly tied to the quality of their leadership, companies have resorted to searching the Internet in order to identify applicants and 'pirating' entire leadership teams from competitors (Barner, 2000). Barner went so far as to suggest that some companies have 'prequalified' candidates by prescreening and preapproving exceptional executive candidates for positions before they are needed, thus making the selection process as easy as possible.

Despite the popularity of targeting candidates, managers need to ensure processes are ethical by eliminating bias or prejudice (Nelson, 1997). In order to avoid bias or prejudice, specialist agencies have been recommended who target or advertise for possible candidates (Armstrong, 1997; Mileham, 2000). For outsource positions, publishing an invitation to tender that is accessible to potential providers, such as in newspapers is required (Domberger, 1998).

The selection tools.

Once a pool of possible candidates has been assembled based on their competencies, the literature suggests specific tools for distinguishing between candidates. One of the most popular tools is the interview. Milia and Smith's (1997) research found that 99% of surveyed companies used interviews. Furthermore, 98% of surveyed companies used reference checks/audits, 85% used application forms and 61% incorporated psychological tests, with many companies using the majority or all of these techniques. Interview techniques have been continuously refined to help determine which person is suitable for a position in an organisation. Methods such as reference checking, peer rating, personality tests, work samples, job knowledge,

educational aptitude, ability and assessment centres have also been used to select the best person for the job (Blyton & Turnbull, 1992).

Armstrong (1997), Harris (1991) and Harris, Toulson and Livingston (1996) favoured assessment centres when selecting personnel. Armstrong explained that the objectives of these centres were to identify performance standards and training requirements by using tests based on realistic situations experienced in the workplace. However, Harris and Harris et al. acknowledging the cost involved in establishing these centres, reasoned that interviews were less time consuming. This was one reason interviews were a popular selection tool with personnel consultants.

Research has found that some interview systems may be more effective than others (Denton, 1992; Lyles & Mosley, 1997; Screnci, 1997). Results indicated that the most valid types of interviews were based on realistic work situations. Researchers found that one of the most effective interview types was behavioural interviews, whereby, behavioural questions were asked. For example, questions relating to problem solving and overcoming challenges (for additional behavioural questions refer to Denton, 1992, p.19; Lyles & Mosley, 1997, p. 19-21).

For selecting outsource positions, where the tender process did not involve behavioural question interviews, the written documents that were required when submitting a tender included behavioural answers. As found by Domberger (1998), tender applications include a bid price, and a written response regarding every aspect of the client's requirements (e.g., how requirements will be met and reasons for awarding the contract to the particular outsourcer). Aspects such as experience, reputation and range of current clients are described. Domberger also highlighted the importance of face-to-face negotiations with the preferred tenderer in order for any discrepancies to be resolved.

Having responded to behavioural questions, Dale and Iles (1996) believed that it was then appropriate for candidates to discuss their personnel goals in order to ensure they were comparable with the organisation's goals. Furthermore, Goldrick (1997) and Rosenberg (1997) found that candidates needed to demonstrate an awareness of the organisation, its vision and activities. This can help verify candidates' ability to perform activities specific to the organisation, reveal their values and demonstrate their ability to learn.

Avoiding poor personnel selection decisions.

Ineffective job descriptions, poor personal specifications, and inadequate selection criteria often result in selection failures (Nankervis et al., 1996). Amongst other reasons, this could occur due to interviewers making an early decision about candidates in the interview, or interviewers weighing negative information more heavily than positive information (Compton & Nankervis, 1998). Additionally, Compton and Nankervis found that early impressions have a significant impact and interviewers may stereotype applicants in the early stages of the interview. Furthermore, they found that interviewers often interpret responses to questions differently.

For organisations to avoid making poor selection decisions, Milia and Smith (1997) proposed that applicants for managerial positions should participate in more than one interview. They also recommended that two or three interviewers, including a department manager, should conduct these interviews.

Evaluation.

In order to ensure an effective selection process, the final step that was emphasised in the literature, was evaluation. Compton and Nankervis (1998) identified four types of selection evaluation: cost/benefit analysis involving work output and personnel

turnover; performance measures incorporating performance appraisals; cost tracking of the new employee; and cost containment or profit-centre approaches that directly charge expenses to the new employee's department. Compton and Nankervis emphasised that evaluation of selection must reflect how the new employee was effectively integrated within the position and organisation.

A Selection Process for Generic Organisations

By synthesising the literature discussed above, a five step selection process for generic organisations with stable structures and personnel arrangements can be designed. The five steps include establishing a selection brief incorporating goals, objectives and activities; identifying possible candidates; interviewing candidates using behavioural questions; selecting an employee based on behavioural answers; and evaluating the selection process.

Pulsating Major Sport Event Organisations: A Special Case

When studying generic organisations, Anderson (1997) noted that "a constant influx of new workers makes it difficult to keep productivity high and provide consistent customer service" (p. 92). This type of constant influx of personnel occurs in pulsating major sport event organisations during the lead-up to an event. Personnel are appointed for a limited period (Compton & Nankervis, 1998). and at the same time, productivity and customer service are expected to be high. This is one reason why effective personnel selection in pulsating major sport event organisations is subject to different constraints than less flexible organisations.

According to Brown et al. (1993) and Dale and Iles (1996), personnel numbers need to be determined before selection can occur. They emphasised that the number

of personnel can change following discussions with event managers and between the management and or promotion team. This suggests that managers in pulsating major sport event organisations are generally aware of the gaps in their teams and appoint personnel with appropriate competencies.

Notwithstanding the special characteristics of pulsating major sport event organisations, the five step selection process described above, provides a sound general framework from which to operate. The first step in the selection process for a pulsating major sport event organisation is to establish a selection brief. Considering the fluctuation of personnel, all with different needs, attitudes and expertise and all employed within their organisation for a limited period of time, identifying personnel can be challenging. In order to overcome this challenge, Slack (1997) stressed the necessity of developing detailed job descriptions in the lead-up to an event. Smith and Stewart (1999) extend on Slack's ideas by suggesting linking content and requirements to the job context based on the environmental demands of the activities.

The second step in the selection process involves recruiting an adequate pool of applicants. Since recruiting can be a time consuming, Slack (1997) found that private employment agencies are useful, because of their wide network of senior management contacts. However, these agencies, tend to be expensive (Harris, 1991; Harris et al., 1996). Another alternative for recruiting an adequate pool of applicants is via the 'board committee'. That is, the formation of a board recruitment committee comprising members of the executive board in the major sport event organisation (Finnegan, 1997). The committee can adapt the role of agency head hunters and, according to Finnegan, can volunteer their time to search for possible applicants.

One method that can be effectively adapted from generic organisation recruitment to pulsating major sport event organisations is targeting personnel to save

time (Critten, 1994). Also, if applicable, internal recruitment can be used, and this has the advantage of providing personnel with a career path (Hanlon & Jago, 2000). Advertising tender submissions within generic organisations (Domberger, 1998) could also be applied when recruiting outsource personnel in pulsating major sport event organisations.

The third step involves interviewing candidates using behavioural questions. Virtually all sport organisations use interviews to select managers (Slack, 1997). Incorporating behavioural questions within these interviews is feasible providing they are tailored towards pulasting major sport event organisations' roles. However, selecting an influx of personnel within a limited timeframe, Lousig-Nont (1997) warned that managers need to be careful not to select candidates too quickly or on 'gut feeling'. Elliott and Torkko (1996) and Kreuchen (1997) suggested that the agency organising the event, could establish a predetermined criteria based on the outsourcer's competencies. For example, their commitment to the process, their experience, and reason for involvement.

The fourth step involves selecting employees based on their behavioural answers or tender application. Slack (1997) envisaged that sport managers may not select employees at all, but rather leave it to the HR department.

An example of a pulsating major sport event organisation using this four-tiered selection process, is the Atlanta Committee for the Olympic Games (ACOG), which directly employed 15,000 personnel. The description below of the ACOG's selection procedure illustrates how time-consuming the process can be and what modifications were needed to cater for the distinct characteristics of a major sport event organisation. The Atlanta Committee for the Olympic Games received 3,000 resumes a month (Flynn, 1996). This occurrence is common with major sport events, in which

many people wish to contribute towards the success of the event, whether it be in a paid or a volunteer capacity. According to Flynn (1996), personnel at ACOG skill-coded these resumes, categorised the applicants' experience, placed them into a database, and then when personnel were required, the computer would be used to identify potential candidates based on their skills. Personnel selecting new employees would attempt to identify people who were already trained. The successful recruits were then screened for their work availability, competency levels and enthusiasm. During a five-minute interview, the person's presentation, energy level and people skills were considered. Lower-level positions were filled on the spot, and other positions necessitated a second and more detailed interview. Furthermore, ACOG outsourced labour-intensive functions such as ticket taking. These outsourced organisations employed more than 20,000 personnel.

The final step, evaluation, is also very important for pulsating major sport event organisations. Successful selection contributes to an increased retention rate (Barner, 2000; Denton, 1992; Milia & Smith, 1997) and, therefore, evaluating the effectiveness of the selection process for all personnel is vital in ensuring success.

A Selection Process for Pulsating Major Sport Event Organisations

The literature demonstrates that generic organisations and pulsating major sport event organisations have a similar selection process. However, due to the highly flexible characteristics of pulsating major sport event organisations, a more intensive and time-restrictive selection process is often required. Poor selection can be costly, since ineffective personnel selection can have major ramifications for the organisation and its hosting of future events (Flynn, 1996). In short, the event may be poorly organised and the credibility of the event management is undermined. For example, there is

often no time to re-select a senior manager if the candidate is found to be unsuitable during the lead-up to the event. Effective selection is crucial (Rosenberg, 1997).

The ideal selection process for pulsating major sport event organisations can be best described as systematic and customised. Figure 6 illustrates this process: the left column demonstrates the five general selection steps, while the right column incorporates the special considerations required for managing personnel in a pulsating major sport event organisation.

Selection Process   *Considerations*

| Establish a selection brief / tender application incorporating goals, objectives and activities | → | Detailed; Number of personnel; Variations of contracts |

| Recruitment | → | Types of personnel; Targeting; Word of mouth; Employment agencies; Internal; Board committee |

| Interview candidates using behavioural questions / predetermined criteria | → | Performed by Manager / Human Resource personnel |

| Select employee based on behavioural answers / tender application | → | Relevant competencies: Organising under conflict, event experience, decision-making, creativity, organising with cooperation, cooperation leadership, integrative thinking, fast & perpetual learner. In addition for outsourcers: reputation, range of current clients, motivated to share competencies |

| Evaluate selection process | → | Cost/benefit analysis; Performance measures; Cost tracking; Cost containment or profit-centre approach; Integration with position and organisation; Retention rate |

Figure 6: A selection process for pulsating major sport event organisations

When a systematic and customised process for selecting personnel in major sport event organisations is organised, full-time, outsource, seasonal and volunteer personnel can be selected. Once this process has been completed personnel can be inducted. The characteristics of personnel associated with these organisations impact on the type of induction provided: the range of personnel categories; the majority on limited contract times; the fluctuating arrival and departure periods; and the different needs, attitudes and expertise.

Inducting Personnel

The Importance of Induction

According to Henkoff (1993), if event managers want to have a flexible, high-performing organisation, personnel must be trained accordingly. On the other hand, Parker (1997) found that because personnel with a pre-existing skill base are assumed to be experts in their field, in many circumstances no further training was undertaken. As an alternative to training, researchers stressed the need to provide these personnel with comprehensive information about the organisation and their designated role (e.g., Flynn, 1994; Nankervis et al., 1996). Flynn (1994) has also argued that induction is more important than training as it gives personnel a sense of belonging.

Managers often believe that an induction process can be time consuming and expensive (Mull, Bayless, Ross & Jamieson, 1997; Slack, 1997). However, a well designed induction process, implemented in a timely manner, has been shown to reduce anxiety levels of personnel (Schermerhorn, Naumes & Naumes, 1993), increase retention rates (Cooke, 1997; Seaver, 1997) and improve levels of productivity (Seaver, 1997) and dependability (Cuskelly, 2000).

Despite the demonstrated benefits of induction processes (Doherty. 1998). research has failed to consider its role in pulsating major sport event organisations. Recognition of such neglect is not new, as almost a decade ago, Larsen, Montelpare and Donovan-Neale (1992) reported that sport organisations failed to provide satisfactory induction opportunities for their personnel.

Induction in Generic Organisations

Induction can be viewed as a cycle of developing personnel, creating vision. enhancing competencies and organisational learning from personnel (Sadler, 1991). It is the people who give the organisation a competitive advantage (Vallance, 1994) and their contribution and commitment are keys to organisational success (Vanderkruk, 1997). However, managers frequently neglect to induct new employees (Schermerhorn et al., 1993; Seaver, 1997). This is despite a competitive environment where improved productivity, quality of service and strategies for enhanced performance are of increasing importance.

According to Schermerhorn et al. (1993), personnel are often left to fend for themselves and learn job and organisational routines through casual interactions with co-workers. Furthermore, Sligo (1995) found that when an organisation is experiencing rapid change, personnel are more likely to have an increased need for timely, reliable and relevant information. When induction is not evident. personnel are often forced to gather information via the 'grapevine' and make assumptions. Sligo also found that personnel overloaded with work pressures are less likely to absorb information, thereby creating mistakes. This all supports Sligo's emphasis on a well-planned induction process. Seaver (1997) regarded it as crucial that the

induction process has been effectively performed in the first ninety days of employment and that personnel are satisfied with the experience.

The Induction Process

Four common steps have been identified from literature that comprise the generic organisation induction process. These are providing an organisational framework; establishing relationships; providing resources; and evaluating the induction process. These four steps complement those of Katz and Kahn's (1978) research regarding the types of information required for personnel. They consider specific task directives; the job rationale; the company and its policies; feedback about work performance; and information on the organisation's goals as essential information to provide to personnel.

The first step in an induction process is to introduce personnel to the organisation's operations. Legge's (1995) research suggested a common understanding of the organisation be formed and personnel introduced to the organisation's culture. An organisational framework can assist in this process, whereby the organisation's vision, goals, and general expectations are summarised (Blyton & Turnbull, 1992; Pessin, 1997). Furthermore, elements of the framework may include the organisation's history; its initiatives; functions; principle leadership; and internal relationships (Seaver, 1997).

The second step is the establishment of relationships between the department team and the new member. Team training involving setting priorities, conducting focus meetings and negotiating effectively, are valuable when establishing such relationships (Blyton & Turnbull, 1992; Henkoff, 1993). Training should be performed as close to the workplace as possible in order for success (Pessin, 1997;

Vallance, 1994). The relationships can help establish personnel commitment thus creating a stronger, more resilient organisation (Wheatley, 1997).

The third step, to assist with the induction of personnel is the provision of induction resources. Managers need to provide personnel with organisational resources (Critten, 1994), such as a personnel manual (Flynn, 1996; Pessin, 1997; Seaver, 1997). The manual can be an effective resource to refer to when no one else can be immediately called upon (Flynn, 1996). However, in order for it to remain effective, it needs to be constantly revised (Flynn, 1996). A personnel manual should include details of vacation, sick days, pay periods, expectations, uniform policies and corporate and employee policies (Pessin, 1997). However, there are disadvantages in having manuals. Schraub and Katz (1998) noted that regardless of how "right" the material is, a manual of policies and procedures cannot replace the role of a manager in dealing with actual problems and solutions. Nor can a manual convey complexities and strategies.

The final step is the evaluation of the induction process. Wheatley (1997) stressed that evaluation is vital, as it improves organisational functioning and enhances personal growth. Seaver (1997) found that evaluation resources or tools should consider both qualitative and quantitative data. According to Wheatley, evaluations can highlight common expectations and priorities between parties particularly when tools, such as surveys and debriefing sessions, are used. Smith (1998) suggested that questionnaires, tests, interviews, observation, group discussion, appraisal, impact analysis and cost/benefit analysis also be incorporated into the induction evaluation process. In relation to evaluating outsourcers, researchers Elliott and Torkko (1996) suggested evaluating their performance by introducing a joint overview committee. The committee, comprising a panel of organisation and

outsourcing representatives, would establish procedures for monitoring service levels, customer satisfaction, costs, attainment of agreed goals and performance evaluation. Elliott and Torkko found that ongoing monitoring strengthens strategic partnerships.

In summary, the induction process in generic organisations consists of four steps: providing an organisational framework, establishing relationships, providing resources and evaluating the process.

Implications of the Generic Organisation Induction Process for Pulsating Major Sport Event Organisations

Due to the frequently short 'time frame' for the majority of personnel appointments, induction needs to be quick, timely and effective in order for personnel to be at their optimum level of performance in time for the event. The four step induction process used in generic organisations could be adapted, provided that the characteristics of pulsating major sport event organisations are considered.

Introducing personnel to the organisation's framework is an important step in the induction process for sport organisations (Slack, 1997; Smith & Stewart, 1999). This introduction generally involves providing new full-time, outsource, seasonal and volunteer personnel with information about the sport organisation's vision, goals and general expectations.

Establishing relationships within the induction process in pulsating major sport event organisations, would be more complex than in generic organisations. This is due to the variety of personnel, with different needs, attitudes and expertise, all being involved for different limited periods of time in small, cross-disciplinary teams (refer to Table 4, Section: The characteristics of managing personnel in pulsating major sport event organisations). Peters' (1993) research suggested that personnel courses

that include "making relationships with outsiders" (p. 305) be incorporated for full-time personnel. This may ensure a smooth transition process where full-time personnel would identify ways in which outsource, seasonal and volunteer personnel could complement their roles without regarding them as threats. In preparation for major sport events such as the Melbourne Cup, the Victoria Racing Club (1997) conducted induction sessions for management. Sessions included topics such as racing industry induction; job performance; handling the media; negotiation; time management; personal productivity; and customer service.

Furthermore, from literature about generic organisations, James (1996) emphasised the importance of establishing non-threatening relationships. He noted that trust leads to cooperation and results, and plays a large role with such a mix of personnel. This is particularly relevant when establishing relationships between new full-time, outsource, seasonal and volunteer personnel in pulsating major sport event organisations. Trusting fellow team members helps ensure a non-threatening environment. For example, full-time personnel may feel that outsource personnel are taking over their roles, and volunteer personnel may perceive that they are less important than paid personnel. Furthermore, when building trust, Graham et al. (1995) and Peters (1993) reported that external personnel should be actively involved in committees to provide expert advice.

For the third step of the induction process, many pulsating major sport event organisations view the manual as an effective resource tool. For example, the Victoria Racing Club, which organises the Melbourne Cup, among other major events, provides a handbook to personnel. The 'Employee Induction Handbook' identifies personnel rights and obligations for working at any racing club within Victoria (Victoria Racing Club, 1997). As a result of the range of personnel arriving

and departing at various periods close to the Cup event, the handbook is considered an effective induction resource (Victoria Racing Club, 1997).

Evaluating the induction process (the final step), has been recommended for leisure organisations (Culkin & Kirsch, 1986). Culkins and Kirsch suggested using methods such as informal and formal interviews, questionnaires, and observation. Furthermore, Dale and Iles (1996) suggested report writing as useful for evaluating the success of induction.

However, assessing the success of induction can be a difficult task. This is because time is often limited, particularly with personnel who are only appointed for the event days. In light of this problem, Dale and Iles (1996) recommended using detailed documents (i.e., job descriptions), outlining employer expectations, which resulted in both parties clearly understanding the tasks required. Another example to evaluate induction was suggested by Pessin (1997). That was to conduct test events prior to the main event. For example, in preparation for the 1989 Australian 500CC Motorcycle Grand Prix, personnel were used in club, national and international events at the circuit. This was considered to be inducting personnel prior to the major event. After a test event, induction was evaluated on how successfully personnel performed their roles (Barnard, 1990). In addition, resources and establishing relationships could also be evaluated after such events. Research has found such test events are essential for major sport events (Brown et al., 1993).

On the other hand, research has found that no matter how much induction occurs, personnel will not be fully prepared for handling every circumstance, knowing all the answers or consistently performing new skills (Mull et al., 1997). In order to alleviate this situation, Pessin (1997) recommended providing a comprehensive formal induction process that is constantly reviewed.

An Induction Process for Pulsating Major Sport Event Organisations

With literature suggesting that pulsating major sport event organisations generally adopt the generic organisation four step induction process, Figure 7 has been developed. In the figure, each step is a systematic process: once the event manager has provided personnel with an overview of the organisation, working relationships are established. Resources, such as an induction manual and induction training are then provided, followed by an evaluation of the effectiveness of the induction process. As a result, a sequential process is required to effectively induct personnel.
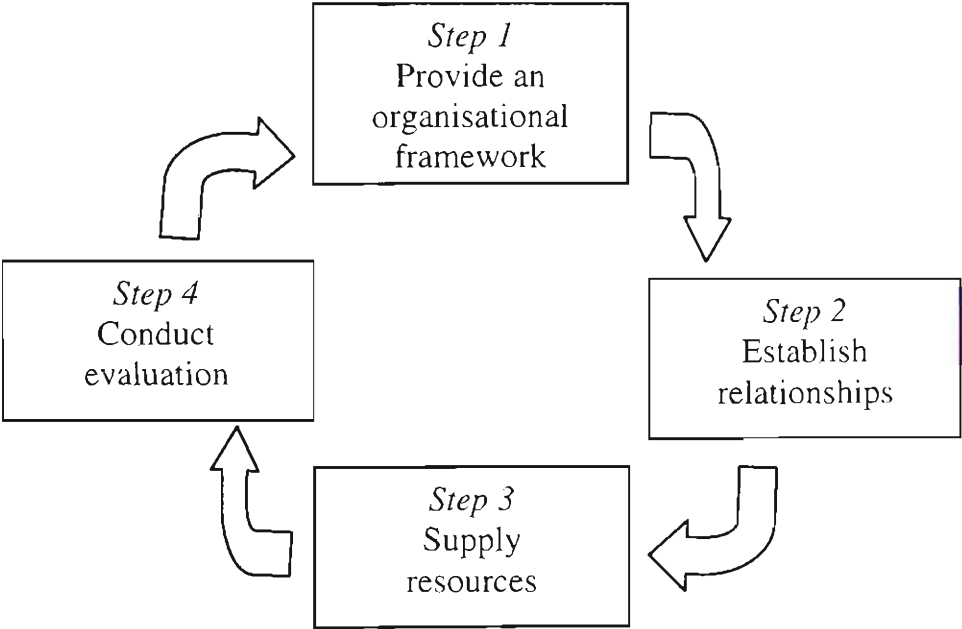
Figure 7: An induction process for pulsating major sport event organisations

After inducting personnel, the next HR stage for managing personnel in pulsating major sport event organisations is managing teams. Teams within these organisations are characteristically temporary, small and cross-disciplinary (refer to Table 4).

Managing Teams

The Importance of Teams

The shift in organisations away from hierarchies and chain of command. to a team-based management approach has significantly transformed management thinking (Weese, 1994). Many organisations, including those involved in major sport events, have shifted to the new flat, global organisation that is commonly team-based (Ancona et al., 1996). In fact, Dumaine (1994) argued that organisations have gone so far as to be having a "hot love affair with teams" (p. 86). The word 'team' was originally used to describe a family, which works and pulls its ideas together (Peters, 1993), and contemporary organisations have recognised this role. Teams that can pull together their expertise and move their ideas and products quickly through the organisation, are the successful ones (Ancona et al., 1996).

Teams are pivotal for organisations and are the foundation for organisational productivity (Schermerhorn et al., 1993). Teams have a shared purpose. a reputation to keep, a common fate (Pinchot, 1993) and are accountable for their actions (Russ, 1997). Therefore, teams develop organisational ownership. Russ (1997) noted that effective teams contribute to reduced operating costs, offer greater flexibility and innovation, improve structures through fewer job classifications. improve quality and productivity, and have the ability to attract and retain the best people.

Managing Teams within Generic Organisations

Traditionally, teams were conformist (Fonda, 1995), with top-down management instructions and employees who were 'paid to work and not to think' (Frohman.

1996). In contrast, according to Frohman (1996), today's teams require "'brain activity' not just 'muscle activity' and team members must learn to accept and embrace the new-found autonomy, freedom and obligations associated with increased power" (p. 88).

With teams being of vital importance, some organisations even have their own computer systems designed to encourage the management of teams. One example is the British Petroleum Company, which has designed the Virtual Team Network (Prokesch, 1997). The computer network allows personnel to work cooperatively and to share knowledge quickly regardless of time, distance and organisational boundaries. Teams can be enhanced through video conferencing, electronic blackboards, scanners, faxes and group-ware. According to Browne (Prokesch, 1997), personnel have to be cooperative and open about their knowledge, and not be possessive. Furthermore, with network link teams scattered interstate and internationally, an enormous reduction in personnel hours has resulted due to decreased travel times.

Peters (1992) found that team cooperation and clear goals need to be established and personnel should be encouraged to act on their own initiative and freely share information. This enables personnel to feel they are trusted (Peters, 1992). Trust encourages non-defensive behaviour and acceptance of criticism (Howarth, 1997). which is an ingredient for team cooperation between personnel and management. Furthermore, if trust is not evident, limitations on what can be achieved arise as commitment to large- scale projects and long term horizons is reduced (Howarth, 1997).

Problems with managing teams.

While teams contribute to effective organisational outcomes, they can sometimes be disfunctional. For example, teams result in hierarchical arrangements that tend to condition personnel against independent thought (Sage, 1990). Furthermore, teams can invade psychological space and peer-group criticism can arise when a member is absent from work. This can be construed as 'letting down' the team and pressure to increase performance emerges (Blyton & Turnbull, 1992). Further research is needed to identify how pressure from group norms stifles innovation, reduces performances and decreases initiative (Stoner, Yetton, Craig & Johnston, 1994).

Another cost associated with managing teams is team confusion (Dumaine, 1994). Dumaine explained that teams are often launched with little or no training or support for team members. These members may be called to attend endless meetings and may question the team's value due to the uncertainty about the team's role.

There have been a number of recommendations to alleviate many team problems (e.g., Blyton & Turnbull, 1992; Dumaine, 1994; Sage, 1990; Stoner et al., 1994). These include being aware of the disadvantages associated with teams, establishing formal meeting procedures, providing an appropriate team description, producing guidelines for group leaders and members, ensuring suitable training, and acknowledging the success of teams.

When are teams appropriate?

Despite the costs arising from teams, they are vital to organisational success (Peters, 1993; Pinchot, 1993). Delta Consulting Group (1986) noted several conditions which should be present for determining whether teams are appropriate for an organisation. Managers should recognise that work requires a range of different skills, views and

expertise, and that different stages of the work are highly interdependent. In addition, there should be sufficient time to organise and structure team effort, and to establish a suitable organisational structure, culture and reward system. Supporting a team approach should be nurtured, in order to ensure commitment to a course of action or a set of decisions. Finally, innovation and coordination are essential to teams: members must be trusted not to obstruct the team's efforts purposely; and individuals must desire a team experience.

Ensuring success when managing teams.

With the right information, processes and training, teams can become self-sufficient (Peters, 1993; Pinchot, 1993) and will deliver more effective results than a group of individuals (Russ, 1997). However, it was exposed in the literature that forming teams is time consuming (Dumaine, 1994) and many issues need to be considered before teams become successful.

In order for team success, a common purpose needs to be reinforced, deadlines measured, quick feedback encouraged, communication with other teams assured and an agreement on the process involved to reach a common goal needs to be established (Pinchot, 1993). Researchers have also found the essential elements of a successful team comprise communication, quality, customer satisfaction, management development and training (Frohman, 1996; Huszczo, 1996; Kern, 1997; Pope, Edwards & Groves, 1996). The common emphasis these researchers placed for team development was on goals; identifying members and responsibilities; team building; understanding the team process; and establishing a purpose for existence.

When forming teams, Ancona et al. (1996) suggested five questions that teams can ask themselves: Who are we? (that is understanding team composition); What do we want to accomplish? (establishing team goals); How can we organise ourselves to

meet our goals? (setting a team structure); How will we operate? (defining team operations) and How can we continuously learn and improve? According to Ancona et al., these questions can create an informal structure for successful teaming.

In order to further ensure successful teaming, four features that influence team success have been identified (Sundstrom & McIntyre, 1994). These are performance (that is outputs, quantity, timelines, efficiency, innovation); member satisfaction (creating a positive experience through commitment, trust and meeting individual needs); team learning (acquiring new competencies and behaviours when in challenging circumstances); and outsider satisfaction (meeting outside constituencies such as sponsors and customers).

Meyer (1994) explained how performance-measurement systems could be used to improve successful teaming. The team would design its own performance-measurement system that shows clear results. The results should measure not only where a team stands but why it stands there; identify critical tasks and capabilities; map cross-functional processes; and design measures for how to achieve the tasks. According to Meyer, in this situation, the manager and team need to confirm under what circumstances these performance measures should take place. Furthermore, the manager needs to assist teams to solve problems and not to identify faults. This can ensure the manager monitors team progress without being overbearing. Meyer found that by designing such a team system, stronger team links are created, processes are agreed upon and goals are formed. In this situation, Meyer emphasised that managers need to make sure they do not interfere with team performance measures, otherwise the traditional command system is recreated.

Types of teams.

Management research has investigated a number of team types including, quality circle teams, cross-functional teams and self-managed teams (e.g., Ancona et al., 1996; Frohman, 1996; Kern, 1997). One notable team type was the self-managed team (also known as autonomous work groups). According to Ancona et al., this team makes decisions that were once restricted to management. Responsibilities could include hiring members, allocating tasks and roles to members, determining work schedules and work flows, and handling disputes. Employees become empowered due to the downward move in organisational hierarchy.

Summarising teams in generic organisations.

Effective teams developed organisational ownership, contributed towards reduced operational costs, offered greater flexibility and innovation, simplified structure through fewer job classifications, improved quality and productivity, and had the ability to attract and retain the best people (Russ, 1997). On the other hand, teams can be seen as hierarchical arrangements that condition personnel against independent thought (Sage, 1990). Teams can create pressure, stifle innovation, reduce performance and decrease initiative (Stoner et al., 1994). Teams are also often launched with minimal training and involve endless team meetings (Dumaine, 1994).

In order to ensure effective team outcomes, the self-sufficiency of teams, was favourably identified in the literature (Peters, 1993; Pinchot, 1993). For example, these teams made decisions that were once restricted to management (Ancona et al., 1996). Self-efficiency was created when managers recognised that work required a range of different skills, views, and expertise and that different stages of the work were highly interdependent. Sufficient time to organise, structure and support team effort, with commitment, innovation, trust and coordination was essential.

Furthermore, a common purpose, deadlines, feedback, communication with other teams, an agreement on the process involved to reach a common goal (Pinchot, 1993), and performance-measurement systems, needed to be established (Sundstrom & McIntyre, 1994).

Adapting the Generic Organisation Approach to Managing Teams in Pulsating Major Sport Event Organisations

Managing teams in generic organisations can be adapted to pulsating major sport event organisations with little difficulty. However, Saul (1996) warned of the dangers associated with grafting a team specific to one type of organisation onto all types of organisations. The pulsating nature of major sport event organisations means that managing teams is far more complex and requires additional management considerations, particularly when selecting a team type. Since teams dramatically expand with outsource, seasonal and volunteer personnel during the lead-up to an event and there is limited time to establish self-sufficient teams, team-building activities are often non-existent. There is a need to carefully consider how to manage the complexity of teams in pulsating major sport event organisations.

Research undertaken by Saul (1996) was found to be applicable to the complexities of a pulsating major sport event organisation. Saul reported that generic organisation teams comprise either long-term relationships consisting of core members, or short-term relationships, where members were temporary and supported the core members. Saul found that members within short-term relationship teams require up-front, comprehensive negotiations, with performance measures being the outputs and actions. These team members are less likely either to understand the organisation's strategic plans, or to adhere to its values, with learning based on past

rather than present shared experience. That said, Saul's research merely identified teams without exploring how to manage them.

Getz (1992) recommended teams be appointed to each major management role. This would ensure a team approach is developed specifically for major sport event organisations. Examples could include an event team and a commercial team. Getz believed the other teams could then concentrate on the basic functions of personnel, finance, fund raising, infrastructure, programs and activities.

Team conflict.

During the initial introductory team phase, heterogeneous groups had a detrimental impact on team functioning. Even moderate heterogeneous groups showed many communication problems, relational conflict and low levels of team identity, thus reducing team effectiveness (Earley & Mosakowski, 2000). Furthermore, it was only after time that a common identity could be formed. This is particularly relevant to pulsating major sport event organisations whose teams consist of heterogeneous groups formed for a limited period of time.

When dealing with full-time, outsource, seasonal and volunteer personnel, it is a mistake to assume these personnel will fit together in a cohesive and coordinated team (Culkin & Kirsch, 1986). Event managers need to take a step back, so that personnel can increase their contribution, deliver in a proactive way, and feel responsible for the quality and impact of the service (Fonda, 1995). Furthermore, in a team relationship, particularly with a range of personnel, there is the need to transform contractual relationships into genuine collaboration (Prokesch, 1997).

When constructing teams, being a team member can be threatening for some personnel (Auld, 1994). For example, paid personnel may feel threatened by volunteers initiating ideas or commenting on paid personnel's roles, and volunteers

may feel threatened because they cannot provide initiatives or comment upon the roles of paid personnel. Cober (1997) suggested that if this occurred, managers must emphasise the importance of personnel and volunteers working together as a team that achieves results and satisfies all parties. Auld's research also reported that decision making and problematic relationships can lead to potential conflict between key volunteers and key paid personnel. For example, a volunteer member of the event board might disapprove of a decision made by the event manager. Auld concluded that fostering cooperation, establishing relationships and clearly defining the roles of volunteers could limit conflicts between volunteers and paid personnel, and ensure successful team relationships.

Team stability.

When initiating teams, the stability of members is important to ensure continuity of information (Marquis & Huston, 1992; Stoner et al., 1994). This can be difficult for a team involved in a pulsating major sport event organisation, due to, the variety and fluctuation of personnel. When managing teams, where outsource, seasonal and volunteer personnel increase leading up to the event, Narasimha (2000) recommended long tenures for employees. However, this too is difficult for pulsating major sport event organisations, where the majority of personnel are seasonal and volunteers, who have their main employment elsewhere.

As evidenced within the literature, the lack of team stability in pulsating major sport event organisations, suggests the need for event managers to be more adaptable and have a more flexible team approach than managers within generic organisations. However, the literature regarding managing such flexibility is scant (Kathuria, 1999). Kathuria found that flexible teams require managers to demonstrate strong relationship-oriented practices such as team building, recognition, and increasing

flexibility by delegating responsibility to their employees. In relation to teams within sport event organisations, Barnard (1990) recommended that:

> Truly successful sporting events can only result from a team of professionals that can work together under pressure to keep abreast of the event as it develops and to ensure every opportunity is taken and every challenge is met. Without such a team then success becomes a game of chance, rather than a contest of skill. (p. 8)

Self-managed teams.

One of the most popular team types appropriate to event organisations is the self-managed team (Dumaine, 1994). Self-managed teams operate in a complex environment and have the authority and level of responsibility necessary to make decisions about how daily tasks are performed (Ancona et al., 1996). These teams take responsibility and feel responsible for their own actions when involved in events (Fonda, 1995; Niepce & Molleman, 1998). Such responsibility from self–managed teams needs a flattened organisational structure (Blyton & Turnbull, 1992) and managers to be facilitators and coaches (Narasimha, 2000).

The 'worth' of teams.

The literature demonstrated that teams in pulsating major sport event organisations were short-termed, fluctuated and comprised varied personnel categories. These factors reflected the costs associated with teams for example, paid personnel feeling threatened by volunteers initiating ideas (Auld, 1994). This may explain Blyton and Turnbull's (1992) findings that one person involved in a project may be more suitable than a number of people. They believed that increased individual initiative, recognition, and worker autonomy was evident when one person was appointed to a project. On the other hand, motivation and productivity is left to a single person. Operating as an individual on a project without team members, in a pulsating major sport event organisation, places large levels of stress on one person (Cober, 1997).

Handy (1996) acknowledged that "no one individual, no matter how talented, will have all the answers to any problem or project. The individual has to be part of a team and teams of talent" (p. 10).

Managing Teams at Pulsating Major Sport Event Organisations

This review showed that despite the disadvantages associated with teams (Dumaine, 1994; Stoner et al., 1994), teams are pivotal within pulsating major sport event organisations. However, due to the special characteristics of these organisations, managers needed to allow for team adaptability and flexibility. Self-managed teams were identified as the most appropriate team type for pulsating major sport event organisations. This type of team encouraged ownership and a sense of responsibility towards the achievement of common goals (Fonda, 1995; Niepce & Molleman, 1998).

As a result, from analysing the literature reviewed, Figure 8 has been designed to assist with examining how the pulsating nature of major sport events impacts on the team management practices of event managers. The figure illustrates the inputs required to establish self-managed teams, and displays the outputs successfully resulting from this team.

Inputs → *Team type* → *Outputs*

Adaptability		Self-managed		Performance
Flexibility				Member satisfaction
Communication				Team learning
Team approach			
Team ownership			
Common purpose			
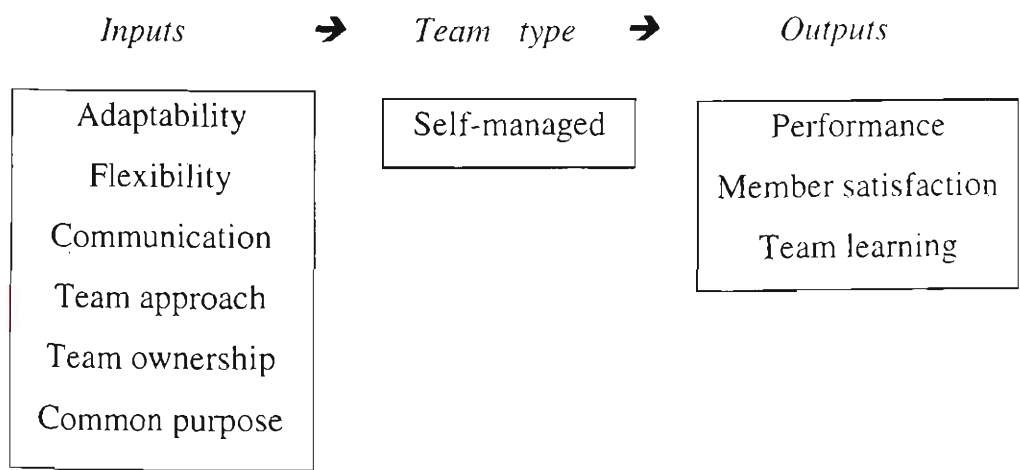
Figure 8: Managing self-managed teams within pulsating major sport event organisations

To assist in creating team stability during an event, or to encourage team members to return for the following event, determining tailored management practices for retaining personnel were considered by researchers. Possible strategies are discussed in the subsequent section.

Retaining Personnel

The Importance of Retention

The turnover of personnel results in organisational ineffectiveness: an unstable workforce (Cooke, 1997); an inconsistent work flow; and high costs associated with new employee recruitment and training (Inglis, Danylchuk, & Pastore, 1996). In order to avoid the occurrence and consequences of personnel turnover, managers need to align their management and HR practices with the different categories of personnel for which they are responsible (Saul, 1996). For example, special consideration to the specific needs of full-time, part-time and contract employees. Saul's research reported that this can result in realistic mutual expectations; greater contributor productivity; more flexible and appropriate career paths; reduced levels of workplace stress and alienations; and organisations that are more successful in attracting and keeping the best talent.

Retention within Generic Organisations

Traditionally, personnel had long-term employment sought security, better pay, benefits and promotional opportunities within an organization (Sparrow & Marchington, 1998). Contemporary personnel, many of them being part-time and casually employed, are more likely to seek positive feedback, fair pay, an

environment in which it is safe to say what they feel, advancement opportunities and fair promotional practices (Cooke, 1997).

Recognising this change in personnel requirements, results in what Mull et al. (1997) referred to, as the depletion of personnel turnover. This is due to strategies for attracting and retaining individuals being identified, and their abilities utilised, supported and integrated into the program. In contrast, Cooke (1997) viewed personnel turnover as positive, believing new personnel provided fresh ideas and improved ways of doing things, thus renewing stagnate organisations.

Strategies to improve retention.

In order to decrease turnover and increase retention, researchers have recommended a variety of strategies. These include increased remuneration; efficient supervision; organisational communication; performance appraisals; promotional opportunities; employee participation; and evaluation.

Cooke (1997) was one supporter of using remuneration packages to reduce personnel turnover. He emphasised the need for competitive compensation and remuneration, and fair internal pay relative to the position and organisational level. To complement this, Nankervis and Leece (1997) identified the benefits of shifting away from a centralised wage-fixing system to a decentralised enterprise bargaining system for increasing employee flexibility. Kramar (1999) identified that two-thirds of the 331 organisations, in his study, provided a merit-based scheme for their managers. O'Neill (1995) would likely have been relieved to read documentation of such flexible remuneration action, as his earlier research found that, despite the flattening of organisational structures, traditional pay systems that rewarded individuals and jobs were still active. O'Neill reported that profit sharing and productivity incentives were popular forms of remuneration incentives.

The second retention strategy concerns efficient supervision. Donohoe and Southey (1996) have found an alarming number of employees were dissatisfied with the level of feedback they received on their performance. This indicated the need for managers to provide positive and negative performance feedback. Donohoe and Southey placed the responsibility on department managers to ensure that performance feedback and personnel development were evident. They emphasised the need for continual feedback to achieve the required performance objectives and increase personnel development. Donohoe and Southey explained that managers need to define performance objectives that were specific, measurable, achievable and relevant.

The third retention strategy involves organisational communication. Kramar's (1999) research found that organisations are increasingly communicating directly with employees. Examples of communication techniques included team briefings, direct written or verbal means of communication and computer/electronic mail systems. Furthermore, Kramar found managers were continuously communicating the organisational objectives to personnel, what they signified to the employees and where the employees fit within these objectives. This ongoing communication can result in effective management influence and may contribute to the employees' overall success (Jordan & Mertesdorf, 1994). This supports Prickett's (1998) findings that personnel prefer managers to concentrate on increasing personnel morale rather than pay in order to improve retention.

The fourth retention strategy relates to performance appraisals (PA). Nankervis and Leece (1997) found that 85% of their surveyed organisations were using formalised PA. They found PA were beneficial for evaluating employee's performance and determining training and development needs for their job.

Performance appraisals were also used to plan future work and to motivate employees in their current job. Three common methods of appraisal were job competencies, rating scales and management by objectives. According to Donohoe and Southey (1996), the timing of these PA should be quarterly whereby performance discussions occur between the manager and personnel being appraised.

The fifth retention strategy involves creating promotional opportunities. Providing career opportunities was regarded as one of the best forms of personnel retention (Denton, 1992; Prickett, 1998). Despite its importance, minimal studies have been undertaken regarding promotional opportunities (Saul, 1996). Researchers emphasised that managers needed to decide what personnel career development for which they would accept responsibility (Donohoe & Southey, 1996; Saul, 1996). Examples include ensuring job descriptions are updated, providing strategic direction and offering specific development resources. Saul found that such career development could be offered to full-time, part-time and contract personnel. Donohoe and Southey (1997) emphasised that career planning tends to be part of a PA, yet each of these elements should be separated. They found that performance tends to be discussed over a business plan period that detracts from the longer term more open-ended nature of a career discussion.

The sixth retention strategy focused on employee participation. Employees who participated in varied tasks became multi-skilled, which in turn led to intrinsic interest in the devolution of responsibility and decision-making (Warn, 1994). In order to further increase employee participation, Cooke (1997) suggested utilising project teams; regularly conducting meetings involving all staff; creating flexibility; and incorporating flexi-time and job sharing for part-time employees.

The final common retention strategy was evaluation. Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman's (1959) research found that evaluation in the form of feedback is important for personnel retention. Forbes reiterated this finding in 1996. Organisational evaluation can be performed through exit interviews (Cooke, 1997), exit surveys (Ellerby, 1997) and/or exit meetings with personnel. The main purpose of these exercises is to determine reasons for turnover and what entices personnel to remain within the organisation. However, McShulskis (1998) found that in exit interviews, personnel may not be willing to provide the real reason for departure, due to the defensive interview styles adopted by many managers. Therefore, during interviews and meetings, managers should adopt an open and non-defensive style (Kelly, 1992). The emphasis on evaluation highlights the point that evaluation is a comprehensive part of professional development (Morrall, 1998).

In the literature, department managers generally assume responsibility for personnel retention (Kramar, 1999). Consequently, retaining personnel in generic organisations is a core management responsibility.

Adapting Retention Strategies from Generic Organisations to Pulsating Major Sport Event Organisations

Both generic and pulsating major sport event organisations contain a variety of personnel categories: full-time; outsource; part-time or seasonal; and volunteers. Hence, the seven retention strategies are suitable for adoption to pulsating major sport event organisations. This is providing the special characteristics of these organisations are taken into account.

Retention in Pulsating Major Sport Event Organisations

Due to the nature of personnel involved in major sport events (i.e., the majority of them being outsource, seasonal or volunteers), retention can become a problem. Graham et al. (1997) reports that many personnel involved in events are on contracts and these people generally begin to look elsewhere for employment in the concluding stages of their contract. Some personnel may even leave during the final days of the event (Catherwood & Van Kirk, 1992).

Specific retention strategies have been highlighted in the literature, as effective for retaining personnel within pulsating major sport event organisations. These include ensuring personnel have a shared vision; are remunerated accordingly; have responsibility and ownership; gain recognition; and are evaluated.

Vision.

An organisational vision incorporates the long-term organisational direction and can inspire personnel efforts (Eadie, 1996). However, some studies question the need for 'vision'. On one hand, managers can assist individual and team behaviour by providing a vision that gives personnel a shared goal and makes them feel valued (Catherwood & Van Kirk, 1992; Eadie, 1996; Weese, 1994). This occurs when managers clearly outline the event in a sequence of phases. This can satisfy personnel's concerns about the organisational direction and major stages to be taken (Shortridge & Peters, 1991). On the other hand, vision can create a fantasy (Bridges, 1995). However, in the literature, the favorable responses by personnel when managers provide a vision is more notable than the negative responses.

Remuneration.

With the potential difficulty of retaining outsource and seasonal personnel during an event, Graham et al. (1995) recommended paying personnel 25 per cent up-front, 50

per cent with satisfactory progress and the remaining 25 per cent at the completion of the contract. In contrast, Jordan and Morriss' (1997) research regarding full-time and seasonal personnel found that performance-based remuneration, using agreed targets based on the event, better facilitated personnel retention.

Responsibility and ownership.

Personnel, whether they are paid or volunteers, need to know where they stand in relation to their responsibilities (Torkildsen, 1992). Personnel need to develop ownership of their actions, which creates satisfaction and leads to personnel retention (Peiperl, 1997). Self-organisation is one way described to promote ownership and retention (Morgan, 1992; Pinchot, 1993). Peiperl acknowledged that all personnel are responsible for their actions, and therefore, should be given the authority to make decisions about their work. Peiperl continued that, with this ownership of responsibility, personnel are more likely to perform their duties successfully; satisfy those they associate with; participate fully in the life of the organisation; and feel responsible for their duties until the project is complete.

Recognition.

Forms of recognition suggested for use before and during the event, were managers conducting regular meetings, forming strong communication avenues, and designing individual activity PERT charts for personnel in order to recognise their contribution (Torkildsen, 1992). After the event, Torkildsen also recommended that a social event should be organised and paid personnel and volunteers thanked for their contribution. In contrast, Catherwood and Van Kirk (1992) emphasised the importance of recognising personnel throughout the year. In order to achieve this, they suggested regular contact with personnel. This has the dual function of reducing induction requirements for the following event and the possibility of personnel returning with

new initiatives. Eadie (1996) and Graham et al. (1995), also supported the concept of recognising personnel on a regular basis, wherby celebrating small and large successes raised team confidence.

Evaluation.

Hall's (1992) study found that most research fails to discuss the management of personnel evaluation for events. Generally, literature concentrates on two forms of evaluation: a Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats (SWOT) analysis, and exit interviews / surveys.

A personnel SWOT analysis has been suggested as an important tool for managing personnel, since it is primarily a quality management exercise (Eadie, 1996; Graham et al., 1995; Tubridy, 1997). An example of a personnel SWOT analysis could include strengths in relation to the leadership qualities of personnel; weaknesses relating to possible personnel disagreements or personality conflicts; opportunities with outsourcers; and threats between the spectators and participants. When all parties are involved in the SWOT analysis, personnel feel they are contributing towards the effectiveness of the organisation, thus leading to increased personnel responsibility and ownership (Tubridy, 1997).

The second form of evaluation is exit interviews and surveys. Freedman (1997) suggested that exit interviews, surveys or meetings should be conducted at least one week, but no more than one month before the event. Researchers examining the conduct of evaluation have suggested various strategies. Donohoe and Southey (1996) recommended evaluation meetings to discuss the achievement of objectives, Freedman proposed post-event evaluation surveys and Grote (1999) suggested individual interviews that discussed core competencies.

Retention: Beyond Managers' Control?

Warn's (1994) research found that employee turnover may often be out of the organisation's control due to internal and external environments that impose constraints on the effectiveness of organisational retention strategies. This has particular relevance for pulsating major sport event organisations where the majority of personnel are appointed on a seasonal or voluntary basis. For example, the jobs these personnel perform for the event are often secondary to their main job, and the demands of their main job may prevent them returning for the next event. Therefore, the return rate of personnel is often affected by the external environment (Warn, 1994) and out of the pulsating major sport event organisations' control. These uncontrollable forces highlight the difficulties of retaining personnel, and the commitment required by managers to implement retention strategies, in these type of organisations (Catherwood & Van Kirk, 1992).

Retention Strategies for Personnel in Pulsating Major Sport Event Organisations

The retention strategies of remuneration, recognition, and evaluation are common in both generic and pulsating major sport event organisations. However, when tailoring retention strategies for the latter type of organisation, additional strategies have been identified, which include vision and responsibility and ownership.

Conclusion

The literature regarding the HRM process is extensive. However, it is for the most part focused on generic organisations and only occasionally refers to pulsating major sport event organisations. At the same time, the literature reveals a number of

common stages that HR management performs irrespective of the organisation type or associated industry. Consequently, it has been difficult to determine precisely how the pulsating nature of major sport events impacts on the management practices of event managers.

The literature and its adaptation have been used to construct an analytical framework for this research. This framework was designed around seven characteristics of a pulsating major sport event organisation. When these were applied to the five stages of managing personnel, tailored management practices evolved. To determine the impact these characteristics had, each stage has been discussed in the context of generic organisations and how they could be adapted to managing personnel in pulsating major sport event organisations. Figure 9 provides a representation of the five stages and related issues for event managers.

These stages are interelated and form an interdependent HR process. For example, when establishing an organisational structure, there is a need to create teams, which encourage personnel retention. Furthermore, the effective selection of personnel makes induction and the management of teams an easier process, and can result in increased personnel retention. Finally, with the formation of an appropriate organisational structure, and the effective selection, induction, and management of personnel, personnel retention becomes an easier process.

The literature review findings have elaborated the foundations framework of Figure 4, to provide a more detailed process for managing personnel in pulsating major sport event organisations. Each stage has become more specific, than those in Figure 4, and in doing so, has identified related issues for event managers to consider. Evaluation has become more detailed than the representative dotted line in Figure 4, and related issues have been acknowledged in the stages in Figure 9. As a result, the

dotted line has transformed to a solid line in Figure 9, which clearly molds the stages that form an analytical framework.

Input	Process	Output

Establishing an Organisational Structure
Design a flexible, flat, highly formalised structure that is innovative and regularly transforms internally: include teams of people in functional units

Selecting Personnel
Establish recruitment brief; identify candidates; interview using behavioural questions; select candidate; evaluate process

Retaining Personnel
Establish compensation payment; provide a vision, responsibility and ownership, recognition; evaluate process

mic

nmental
al

Event Manager

HR Specialist

Major Sport Event

Inducting Personnel
Establish an organisational framework; create relationships; provide resources; evaluate process

Managing Teams
Establish adaptability, flexibility, communication, a team approach, team ownership, a common purpose; create self-managed teams: achieve performance, member satisfaction, team learning

Figure 9: An analytical framework for event managers when managing personnel in pulsating major sport event organisations

This framework will be used to analyse the stages of the HRM process. In doing so, it will assist in answering the primary research question, how does the pulsating nature of major sport events impact on the management practices of event managers? The data collection process, including the use of semi-structured questions, will be discussed in more detail in the following chapter.

Chapter Three: Methodology

Purpose and Aims of the Study

The purpose of this research was to examine how the pulsating nature of major sport events impacts on the management practices of event managers. The primary aim was to determine how the nature of pulsating major sport events impact on management practices in each of the essential HR stages. The secondary aim was to reveal the extent to which these management practices were tailored to the pulsating nature of events.

The following three major research questions were addressed:

- How does the pulsating nature of major sport events impact on the management practices of event managers?

- To what extent were these management practices tailored to the pulsating nature of these events?

- How can a benchmark of management practices by event managers be developed into a systematic framework?

Justification for the Methodology

Qualitative Research

This thesis is grounded in qualitative methods. This approach was taken for a number of reasons. First, it allowed for the collection of 'rich' data where people's meanings, definitions and descriptions are captured (Berg, 1989). In this case, qualitative data was captured, to identify the management of personnel in pulsating major sport event organisations.

Second, qualitative research is able to 'capture reality' as experienced by individuals (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994; Sarantakos, 1993). However, there have been many debates regarding the use of qualitative research in the management industry (Sekaran, 1992; Zikmund, 1994). The choice of qualitative versus quantitative data depends on the type of answer one requires from a question: an extended answer or a short answer. In this case, extended answers were sought.

Qualitative methodology can be distinguished from a quantitative methodology when answering a research question. For example, qualitative data deals with feelings and attitudes that drive behaviour (Kephart, 1995), while quantitative data deals with numerals seeking generalised answers (Babbie, 1998). Each method has its strengths and weaknesses. In order to provide a detailed insight into the research questions, a qualitative methodology was deemed effective, since it allows depth and richness in the collected data. In contrast, quantitative data fails to capture humans in their social life settings and tends to reduce people to numbers (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994; Hamilton, 1994).

Research Design

Site

Two Australian major sport events, conducted in Victoria, were selected for this research: the Australian Formula One Grand Prix (AFOGP) and the Australian Open Tennis Championship (AOTC). These two events were chosen for four reasons. First, they comply with the major sport event definition adopted in Chapter Two. That is, they are recurring events whereby, after each event, management improvements can be made and the event 'cycle' subsequently repeats itself. Second,

they have a prestige profile, are of international significance and have large attendances. The 1997 AFOGP attendances were 289,000, it is Australia's largest sporting event, and generated a gross economic benefit to Victoria of $95.6 million (Tennis Australia, 1997). The 1997 AOTC patronage was 391 504, is unmatched by any Australian major event for its television audience, and generated $82.6 million into the Victorian economy (Tennis Australia, 1997).

The third reason was that the events had several contrasting characteristics, which provided the opportunity for comparative analysis. The AFOGP began in 1996, there was a new CEO who was in his first year (1999) of managing the event and the event's duration is four days. The organisation seeks outsourced organisations to be involved in the event. Therefore, over a period of eight months, the direct management of personnel increases from 40 to 127 personnel. The event is held at a non-permanent facility and the event does not necessarily have an abiding commitment to remain in Victoria. In contrast, the AOTC began in 1968, the same CEO has managed the event since it first began and the event's duration is two weeks. The organisation encourages internal management and personnel, resulting in the direct management of personnel, which explodes from 20 during the year to 4,000 during the event. The event is held at a permanent facility and the event has a long term commitment to the State.

The final reason for selecting these two events was the CEOs willingness to permit interviews with department managers and coordinators and grant access to personnel data lists, operation manuals, and policy documents.

Focusing on the detailed management practices of these two major sport events, has ensured an appropriate level and depth of research data were gathered, to answer the first two research questions.

Triangulation

Triangulation was used to further ensure data were valid, reliable and systematically compared (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994). For the purpose of this research, the most appropriate primary source of data collection was in-depth interviews. Qualitative techniques, such as in-depth interviews, can provide deep insights into the sport management process (Slack, 1997). During interviews, semi-structured questions were asked to obtain a greater examination, of people and topics (Minichiello et al., 1995). The interviews ensured an understanding of how managers manage personnel associated with major sport events, and the assumptions, values and meanings behind their management. To ensure the validity and reliability of information, probing and cross checking were also performed. These additional techniques were required because, in-depth interviewing can have a number of shortcomings. For example, the interviewer's presence may effect the informant's provision of data, and it can be difficult to know if data in one situation can be generalised to another situation (Burgess, 1984).

Triangulation builds upon the strengths of data types while minimising the weaknesses of any single approach. Therefore, documentary material was collected as a secondary data source. This included policy documents and operation manuals used by the AOTC and AFOGP event managers. The documentary analyses further validated and ensured reliability of the interview data. The primary source data provided a broad range of information and the secondary source data provided a balance to the subjective responses of informants. Figure 10 illustrates the order in which the triangulated method was performed.
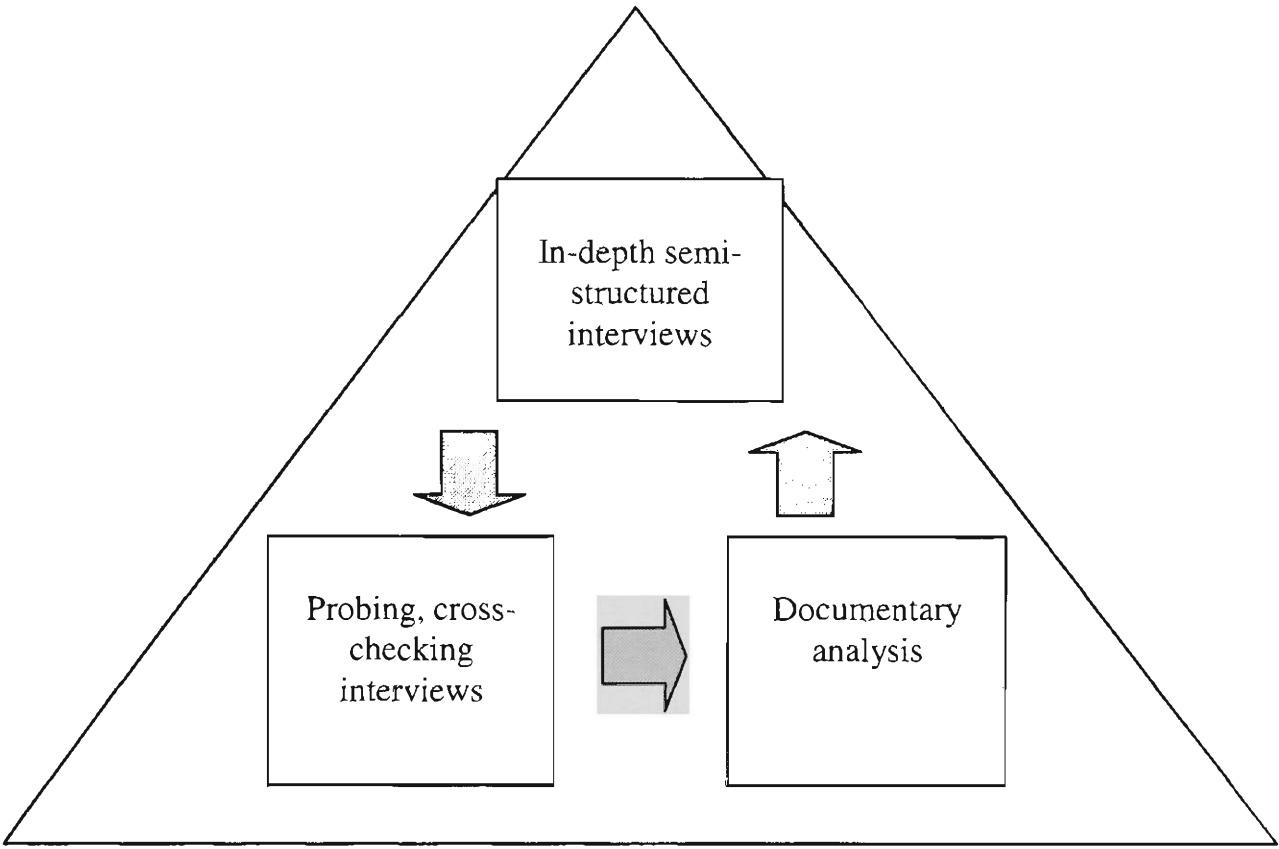
Figure 10: Triangulation of data

Additional methods, such as observational analysis and focus group interviews were also considered. However, the increase in personnel in the lead-up to the event, made observational analysis an unsuitable method, unless the researcher was to perform an observational analysis over an approximate twelve month period. This would be a difficult task, and only involve observing a limited number of event managers leading up to, during and after an event. In addition, focus group interviews recognise that many consumer decisions are made in a social context, often growing out of discussions with other people (Patton, 1990). During this time conflicts may arise, power struggles may be performed, and status differences may become a factor (Patton, 1990). This research sought to gather data in a non-threatening and

anonymous environment. This would not have been the case if focus group interviews were conducted.

Selecting Informants

The interviews focused on the site managers: the CEO; department managers; and coordinators. The term 'CEO' is used to refer to the General manager. The term 'department manager' is used to refer to the managers who are directly answerable to the CEO, such as, the marketing manager and the human resource manager. These managers are core personnel, that is, continuing full-time employees of an organisation. As with the CEO, they are all involved in the organising committee and are key decision-makers who manage coordinators that consist of full-time, outsource and seasonal personnel. The term 'coordinator' is used to refer to managers who are directly answerable to department managers and manage specific providers who directly liaise with the public (i.e., an outsourcer who manages the corporate catering marquee or the seasonal employee who manages the ball persons). These coordinators comprise core employees, and peripheral (outsource and seasonal) personnel who are contracted for a limited period of time. These three levels of managers were the only 'category' of managers involved in managing personnel for the purpose of a major sport event. Therefore, when this research refers to event managers, it includes the CEO, department managers and coordinators.

The CEOs from each site were interviewed. For the remaining two informant categories, two different sampling procedures were used to gather data. Stratified purposeful sampling was conducted for department managers, and due to the number of employees, purposeful random sampling was conducted for coordinators. Table 9

illustrates the various informant sample methods incorporated for the purpose of this research.

Table 9. *Informant sample selection*

Management levels	Sample selection
CEO (Level 1)	Not required
Department managers Full-time (Level 2)	Stratified purposeful sampling (Patton, 1990). Directly responsible to CEO. Key positions within organisational structure were selected; managed full-time, outsource & seasonal coordinators
Coordinators Full-time Outsource Seasonal (Level 3)	Purposeful random sampling (Patton, 1990). Directly responsible to department managers. Two samples randomly selected from each category; managed full-time, outsource and seasonal personnel

Selection of Department Managers

After obtaining a list of possible informants to be sampled and discussing them with the CEOs, stratified purposeful sampling was deemed the most suitable.

With qualitative inquiry being in-depth and representing relatively small samples, participants need to be purposefully selected (Patton, 1990). Patton explained that the term purposeful sampling refers to seeking information-rich cases where a great deal can be learnt about issues of central importance to the research.

One information-rich case Patton (1990) referred to for selecting purposeful samples was critical cases. Critical cases are important when one or two sites have been selected to gather the most information and have the greatest impact on the development of knowledge (Patton, 1990). Patton explained critical cases are "particularly important in the scheme of things" and "a clue to its existence is the statement "If it happens there, it will happen anywhere" (p. 174). Researching these

critical case samples does not technically permit broad generalisations, however, it provides logical generalisations based on the weight of evidence produced in studying the critical cases (Patton, 1990). For the purpose of this research, department managers from the AOTC and AFOGP, who managed the three identified coordinator categories of full-time, outsource and seasonal personnel were selected. For example, at the AFOGP department managers who liaised with the relevant categories were the Commercial Manager; the Business Manager; the Event Manager; and the Engineering Manager. These four managers were interviewed. At the AOTC, the Commercial Manager, the Tournament Administration Manager and the Sales Manager were the identified group. Therefore, a total of seven department managers were interviewed.

Selection of Coordinators

To repeat Patton's (1990) explanation, the term purposeful sampling consists of information-rich cases where a great deal can be learnt about issues of central importance to the purpose of the research. Consequently, to identify coordinators within the population of the three coordinator categories (full-time, outsource and seasonal), a purposeful random sample was used.

Patton (1990) explained that for purposeful random sampling to occur, first information is arranged systematically, then a random selection procedure is performed. Systematic sampling is where members within the identified group are placed into variables and then randomly selected (Babbie, 1998). This research has grouped coordinators into the variables of full-time, outsource and seasonal personnel. It was originally thought that volunteers would be an additional sample category, however, after obtaining a list of department managers and coordinators and raising

the matter with the respective CEOs, it was discovered that no volunteers are managers. In fact, not only is there an absence of volunteer managers, volunteers are not directly managed by either organisation. The AOTC do not have any volunteers involved with their tournament and AFOGP have outsourcers who manage volunteers.

Brown's (1996) three categories of coordinators can be found within the AOTC and AFOGP. Full-time personnel are those who remain in the organisation for an unlimited period of time (e.g., the Human Resource coordinator). Outsource personnel are assigned to a well-defined project for a limited period of time (e.g., the Catering manager). Seasonal personnel are employed on an approximate three month contract, leading up to, during and shortly after the event (e.g., the Court services supervisor).

Once coordinators were defined into categories of full-time, outsource or seasonal, they were then randomly selected for interviewing. Minichiello et al. (1995) noted that random sampling is the most representative form of sampling. It ensures a nonbiased cross section of informants (Krueger, 1994) with each member having the same probability of being sampled (Minichiello et al., 1995). Personnel were identified from updated coordinator lists obtained from each CEO. The lists identified personnel in full-time, outsource and seasonal categories. The exact number of interviews to be undertaken is not possible to identify in advance, because interviews continue until information is repeated and saturated. It was anticipated that approximately 12 - 18 interviews would be conducted, two or three from each category. Table 10 summarises the purposeful random sampling used for the two sites.

Table 10. Purposeful random sampling for coordinators

Site	Full-time coordinators	Outsource coordinators	Seasonal coordinators
Australian Formula One Grand Prix	2 -3 interviews	2 - 3 interviews	2 - 3 interviews
Australian Open Tennis Championship	2 - 3 interviews	2 - 3 interviews	2 – 3 interviews

When gathering data and using a method of analysing data after each interview, information gathering ceases once it has been repeated and saturated. According to Minichiello et al. (1995), repetition is what makes qualitative research systematic.

Data Collection

In-Depth Interviews

For the purpose of this research, in-depth interviews based on semi-structured questions were the foundation for data collection. In-depth interviews were viewed as the most effective form of obtaining data. According to Minichiello et al. (1995), this type of interview best assists with data collection when the researcher is unable to directly observe activities or events. Using in-depth interviews, the researcher is able to study a greater number of people over a shorter period of time than in participant observation. During interviews, conversation is free flowing with the interviewer steering discussion towards the purpose of the research.

Burns (1994) and Minichiello et al. (1995) identified four major advantages of in-depth interviews. Firstly, contact between the informant and the researcher ensures

each party has equal status unlike in other survey methods where there is often an imbalance of power. Secondly, the information gathered is from the informant's account rather than the researcher's perspective. Thirdly, information is gathered using the informant's natural language rather than imposing upon informants, a language with which they are not familiar. Finally, the informality encountered in the process leads to a greater rapport between informant and researcher.

However, there are a number of disadvantages associated with in-depth interviewing. The validity and reliability of these interviews can sometimes be a cause for concern (Babbie, 1998; Denzin & Lincoln, 1994; Minichiello et al., 1995). This is why the current research used triangulation, in order to check the validity and reliability of the interviews.

Semi-Structured Interviews

Semi-structured and unstructured interviews are the two ways of undertaking in-depth interviews (Minichiello et al., 1995). Minichiello et al. (1995) explained the difference between the two. Semi-structured interviews have no ordering or fixed wordings of questions but instead focus on the stages central to the research question. These stages act as a guide for questions during the in-depth interviews. Unstructured interviewing is in the form of normal conversation where there is no guide for questions and conversation is directed towards the researcher's interests. Burns (1994) further explained that with unstructured interviews, questions are not pre-determined or standardised, information is obtained from free-flowing conversation and relies on the interaction between the participants.

Consequently, in order to achieve the purpose of this research, semi-structured interviews were used because they could be better 'geared' towards the key stages of managing personnel identified in the literature.

Interview Questions

From the literature reviewed, five themes were developed for the semi-structured questions (Refer to Appendix A). The themes were based on the five earlier defined stages for managing personnel at a pulsating major sport event organisation: establishing an organisational structure; selecting personnel; inducting personnel; managing teams; and retaining personnel. However, interviews were flexible and allowed other topics to emerge during the discussions. Such a procedure is common in an exploratory study where the researcher is attempting to build theories rather than test them (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994). These stages or sub-systems, are illustrated on the conceptual map, shown in Figure 4 and later in Figure 9, were used as a schedule to assist the interviewer in maintaining the focus of the research question (Minichiello et al., 1995).

To ensure the validity of the identified stages within a major sport event organisation, the researcher discussed Figure 4 with each CEO, from the two organisations selected for this study. These managers confirmed the stages as relevant and that no other critical stages were missing from the model. This confirmed the validity of the semi-structured questions that evolved from the stages.

Contact with Informants

Once the informants were identified, an initial telephone call was made introducing the researcher and the purpose of the research. An information package was then sent to informants that further outlined the research (Refer to Appendix B). Follow up telephone calls one week later were then made to arrange interview times. Interviews were arranged to be conducted at the respective organisations.

Interview Procedure

The purpose of the semi-structured interviews was to explore the practices managers used when managing personnel associated with a major sport event organisation.

The interviews commenced with the following general question, "Explain how a variety of personnel associated with a major sport event are managed". Then the interviews proceeded using the five stage HRM framework as a guide for gathering additional information.

Systematic Interactive Process

Data were constantly reviewed and analysed during the data collection process. This involved data being interwoven together during data collection, data analysis and after interviewing. Miles and Huberman (1994), Minichiello et al. (1995) and Strauss and Corbin (1990) all utilised this process.

Strauss and Corbin (1990) explained that the analytical process is derived from "collecting and asking questions about the data, making comparisons, thinking about what you see, making hypotheses and developing small theoretical frameworks (mini frameworks) about concepts and their relationships" (p. 43). The researcher used this process then re- examined the data to note any new insights.

Miles and Huberman (1994) categorised this analytical process into three flows of activity that occurred before, during and after data collection. They termed these data reduction; data display; and conclusion drawing and verification. Data reduction involved selection, simplification, abstraction and transformation of data as they appear on the written transcription or field-notes. Data are then displayed via diagrams, synopses and structured summaries. This is so the researcher can form a conclusion or action from the displayed data. This analytical process can be referred to as the interactive model.

Minichiello et al. (1995) extended the analytical process calling it the analytical-induction method. This method involved ten steps:

1. An interview is performed

2. Data recorded

3. Data analysed according to coded themes, stages and concepts

4. The researcher returns to the original question and analyses it in light of the first interview

5. Informants are then selected who have an alternative viewpoint

6. Another interview is conducted

7. Interview analysed and re-analysed, the first in light of the second

8. Formulate, revise and extend the original questions. This process is more focused than the earlier interviews

9. The process continues becoming more deductive

10. Interviews performed until information is saturated. Saturation occurs when there is a repetition of obtained information and data previously collected are confirmed (Morse, 1994).

For the purpose of this research, a custom - built systematic process evolved from data collection that incorporated the above processes. First an interview was performed, recorded and then analysed. The next interview was performed, recorded and analysed in light of the first interview so stages, comparisons and a framework could evolve. With each successive interview, questions became more specific (Minichiello et al., 1995). Strauss and Corbin (1990) noted that during this process, concept, meaning and relationships are formed and theory evolves in light of the research question. This interactive process, as shown in Figure 11, is continued until data are repeated and saturated.
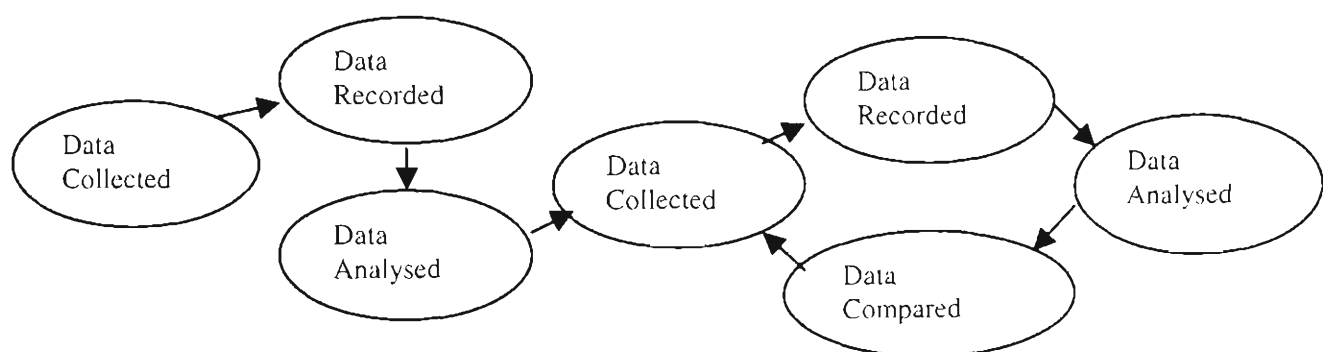
Figure 11: Systematic interactive process

Validation and Reliability of the Systematic Interactive Process.

To ensure validity and reliability of the interview process, it is important that the interviewer is constantly comparing perception and also aware of possible sources of error before drawing tentative conclusions. Furthermore, probing and cross checking are forms of validity checking (Minichiello et al., 1995). Probing was performed once a semi-structured question was asked. Subsequent questions were asked based on the

identified stages to further draw out information. Cross checking was then performed in two ways. First, data gathered from one respondent were analysed against data gathered from other respondents. Second, member checking was performed to ensure validity of data. Once the interview data were transcribed, the transcription was given to each respondent to confirm or amend the data.

Data Analysis

Interview Transcription

Interviews were transcribed into a word text computer program. Data were then transferred into the Non-numerical Unstructured Data Indexing, Searching and Theorising (NUD.IST) computer package for analysis.

Computer Based Coding

Computer–based coding for qualitative research is increasing in popularity. This is due to the program's speed, memory - storage, exploration and retrieval of data, in ways according to Minichiello et al. (1995), which would be manually impossible. Many researchers have discussed the importance of comparative value and use of computer-based coding (Babbie, 1998; Miles & Weitzman, 1994; Minichiello et al., 1995; Richards & Richards, 1994). Each researcher discussed the various qualitative computer packages available. For the purpose of this research, after analysing each package in the light of its abilities, NUD.IST4 was used for data analysis. Miles and Weitzman's (1994) research noted that NUD.IST was one of the most advanced qualitative software packages available and Minichiello et al. (1995) found that it was the only Australian package available.

NUD.IST

Due to the volume of text resulting from the in-depth interviews, NUD.IST4 was used because of its ability to quickly index and retrieve data. According to Minichiello et al. (1995), NUD.IST has a thorough categorisation and cross-filing system that stores, extracts, reorganises and abstracts textual material.

It must also be pointed out that such a computer package should not replace the analytical thinking process, instead it should be used as a source for data retrieval. NUD.IST quickly and accurately retrieves data, which allows researchers more time to analyse the content of the interviews. Richards and Richards (1994) referred to this as a code-and-retrieve method that supports theory emergence. When the researcher codes the data they can quickly be retrieved and an indexing system formed.

Richards and Richards (1994) designed the NUD.IST computer package explaining that it consists of two major features for managing documents and ideas: the document system; and the index system. The document system contains textual–level data that can be sequentially segmented for coding, thus the code-and-retrieve method. The index system builds on the document system and develops codes and references that can be used to develop, manipulate and explore emerging data.

Coding Procedure

The NUD.IST program was used for coding purposes. Miles and Huberman (1994) defined these codes as tags or labels for assigning units of meaning to the descriptive or inferential information compiled during the research. These codes are, according to Miles and Huberman, attached to 'chunks' of: varying size, words, phrases, sentences, or whole paragraphs, connected or unconnected to a specific setting.

Coding reduces and analyses data, directing the researcher toward trends, themes and patterns.

The first stage of using NUD.IST involved making a document system. Each interview transcript was filed in the program and broadly coded using the stages identified in the literature review (Refer to Appendix C). Free 'nodes' (NUD.IST expression for codes) were recorded that incorporated any new stages, not previously identified. Babbie (1998) described this broad coding as a well developed scheme suitable for research.

The second stage of NUD.IST involved creating an index system whereby coding becomes more specific. During this stage, nodes are developed that illustrate the general to specific nodes in an index tree (Refer to Appendix C). This stage is similar to what Miles and Huberman (1994) referred to as the reduction and analysis of data phase, which directs the researcher towards patterns, themes and trends. These nodes have the ability to draw groups of concepts or subconcepts together (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). The index tree system made it easy to view the interrelationship between the variety of nodes and subnodes. For example, Figure 12 illustrates how the researcher identified nodes and subnodes within the broad node of Selecting Personnel.

These nodes were developed when the researcher read the transcript in light of Strauss and Corbin's (1990) open, axial and selective coding process. Once the broad open node of Selecting Personnel was identified via the literature review, axial nodes were developed. Deeper patterns, strategies, categories and concepts were formed into nodes or branches from the open nodes such as 'Selection Process' and 'Competencies Required'. Finally, selective nodes or limbs from these branches formed (Refer to Appendix C). These were the most specific and aimed at generating

precise issues associated with the personnel management practices of major sport event managers. Examples of these limbs within the 'Selection Process' subnode were directly approaching candidates; appointing internally; working through a personnel agency; and seeking tender submissions.
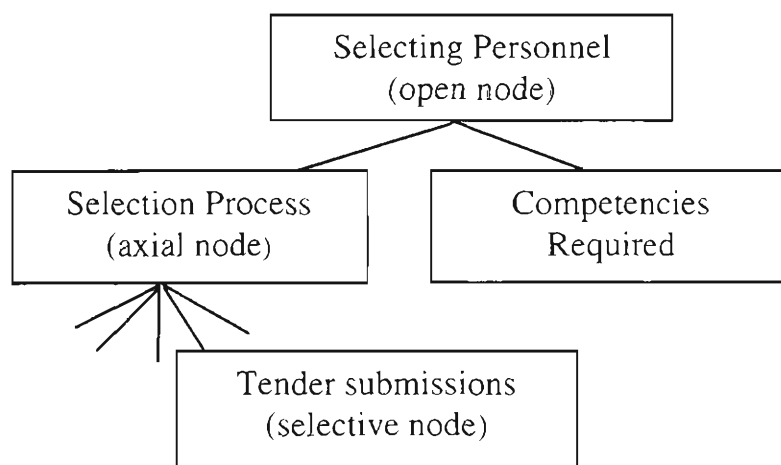
Figure 12: Index tree of personnel selection

The benefit of NUD.IST included the ability to transfer nodes to different branches. When nodes emerged and were placed in position on the index tree, they needed to be cut from one branch and grafted onto another due to new information emerging, which was easily performed. NUD.IST also referenced these changes in case they needed to be re-considered for future purposes. Such referencing complemented the qualitative analysis as it allowed for continual reflection.

Validity and Reliability of Coding

To ensure the verification of coding reliability, a second person was involved with the coding process. Silverman (1993) noted that to ensure validity, it is helpful to compare how two researchers analyse the same data.

This dual coding process was performed according to Babbie (1998), where the researcher explained the code category meanings of open, axial and selective coding

(refer to Figure 12). The first transcript was distributed and independently the second person and the researcher manually coded the transcript. Coding comparisons were then made, with discrepancies discussed, and coding modified in light of the discussion. To ensure coding schemes were similar, this check-coding procedure. as identified by Babbie, was performed four times, twice for each site. Even though manual coding was a tedious process, it was used to ensure coding was reliable.

Example of NUD.IST Coding

To gather an insight into how the index tree system formed, a section of a transcript is displayed in Table 11. With the node being managing teams, the table illustrates branches (axial node) and limbs (selective node) that formed.

Table 11: NUD.IST coding for managing teams

Managing Team: Open node	Axial node	Selective node
Communication's got a big role in that and we've really made an effort. For instance, with our tournament staff groups, we've set up working groups where we'll try to meet every couple of nights just to keep them up to date and they feel like they're a little bit more involved, even though they may only be here for three weeks during the year. If you let them feel like they're having a really big say and we're listening to what they're saying, they give a little bit more. And also we get a lot out of that as well. Creating that team environment and making that effort. We've also developed a newsletter that we send out to staff, so they're constantly reminded of their involvement. We also have a staff meeting for the full-timers here. We meet every Monday morning and everyone just lets everyone else know what they're doing. We've been doing that for about a year and it's helped create a bit more of a team environment.	Communication Communication Communication Communication	Meetings Feedback Feedback Meetings

From the above transcript, an index tree system is then formed, Figure 13. This illustration provides a clearer understanding of the relationships between the branches and limbs.

```
┌─────────────────────┐
│   Managing Teams    │
└──────────┬──────────┘
┌──────────┴──────────┐
│   Communication     │
└─────────┬─┬─────────┘
      ┌───┘  └───┐
┌──────────┐ ┌──────────┐
│ Meetings │ │ Feedback │
└──────────┘ └──────────┘
```
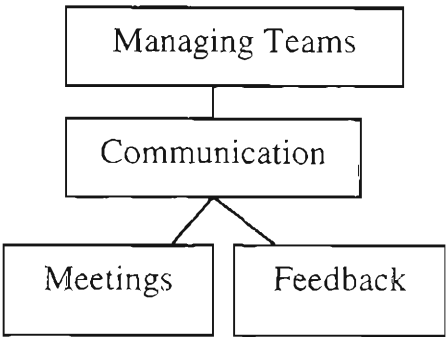
Figure 13: Managing teams index tree system

Documentary Analysis

As part of the triangulated approach to the research and to ensure validity and reliability of the in-depth interviews, documentary analysis was also used. Following interviews, documents were used in a comparative sense to verify issues raised in the interviews. These documents added structure to the research analysis, and according to Denzin and Lincoln (1994), provide the "underlying rules, principles, or conventions that produce surface meanings" (p. 467).

Babbie (1998) reported that it is important to summarise two or more variables that intersect thereby forming a set of categories or types. These categories or types are used to make sense of the complex or abstract ideas, which Minichiello et al. (1995) referred to as mental constructs. Mental constructs do not exist in reality, however, they assist in the interpretation and understanding of reality.

One notable disadvantage with documentary analysis is interpreting the text. What one person perceives a statement to mean may differ from other persons.

However, the documents obtained from each site were structural procedures that according to each organisation's HR manager, were clear guidelines with little room for misinterpretation.

Documents that directly related to the management of personnel were gathered from each site. These documents provided foundation information to complement and validate the interview data. The documents included policy manuals and operation documents that contained information regarding procedures for managing personnel. For example, an on-site manual may be important for personnel induction. Therefore, on-site manuals from each site were analysed to identify the policies, rules, principles and whether the guidelines stated were recognised by informants and performed by the respective managers.

Ethical Consideration

Subject Consent

Informants and HR managers, who provided documentation, completed a consent form before information was gathered to permit data gathered to be used as part of the research. This form was placed in the Information Package informants received prior to interviews (Refer to Appendix B). The informants were assured that their names would be confidential with only the researcher knowing their identities. This was again reinforced when the informants received a copy of their transcript for validation.

Summary of Methodology Procedure

In summary, the research methodology procedure involved seven stages. These are represented in Figure 14. One point to note is that after one set of interview data were analysed, another interview was conducted. This process continued until information became repeated and saturated. Once this was achieved, interviews ceased and document analysis was undertaken to complete the triangulation process.

```
        ┌─────────────────────────────────┐
        │        Literature reviewed        │
        └─────────────────────────────────┘
                        │
                        ▼
        ┌─────────────────────────────────┐
        │  Critical research stages identified │
        └─────────────────────────────────┘
                        │
                        ▼
        ┌─────────────────────────────────┐
        │ Interviewees identified and selected │
        └─────────────────────────────────┘
                        │
                        ▼
  ┌───►  ┌─────────────────────────────────┐
  │      │       Interviews conducted        │
  │      └─────────────────────────────────┘
  │                     │
  │                     ▼
  │      ┌─────────────────────────────────┐
  └──────│      Interview data analysed      │
         └─────────────────────────────────┘
                        │
                        ▼
        ┌─────────────────────────────────┐
        │        Documents analysed         │
        └─────────────────────────────────┘
                        │
                        ▼
        ┌─────────────────────────────────┐
        │       Framework constructed       │
        └─────────────────────────────────┘
```
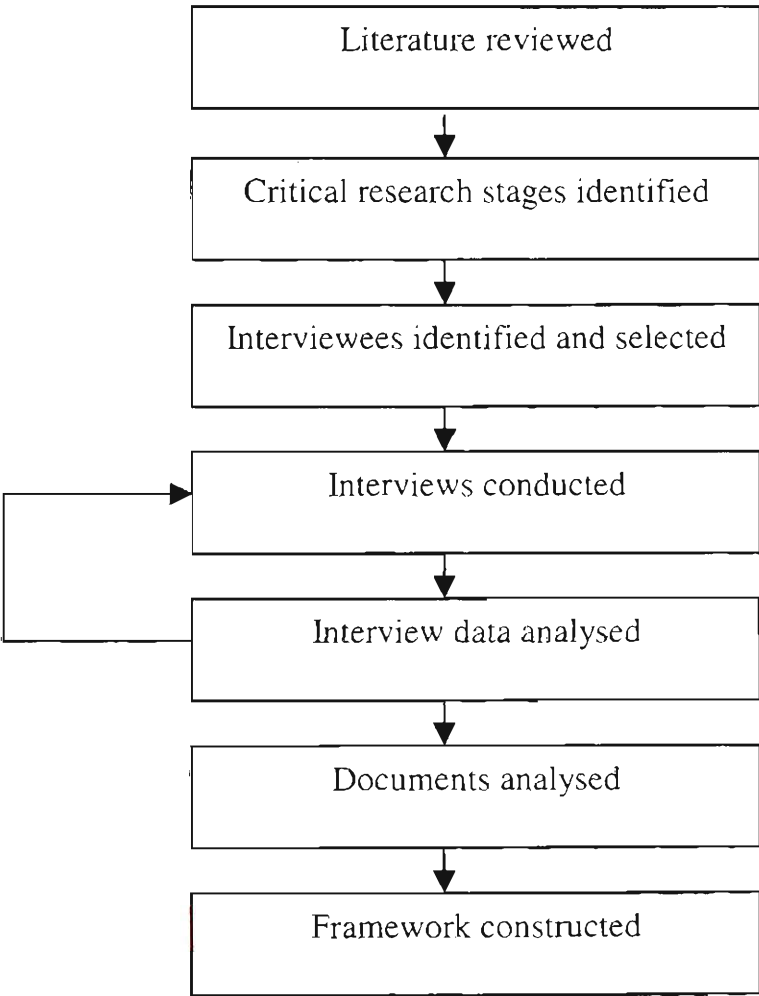
Figure 14: Sequence of methodological process

Limitations

It is important to identify the limitations of a research study in order to clarify shortcomings and explain how these limitations were minimised. Qualitative research in general is limited by its ability to consider the amount, quantity, frequency or relationships between variables. Instead, it concentrates on answering questions regarding the creation of social experience and its given meaning; it becomes a process (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994).

Furthermore, with the study focusing on only two pulsating major sport event organisations, results cannot be generalised, nor quantifiable statistics formed. However, these two sites provided the depth of information necessary to identify the management processes involved in managing personnel associated with a major sport event. The framework established for event managers within the two studied organisations, is a useful starting point in the analysis of management practices and could be the first step for future research in other pulsating major sport event organisations.

Summary

The methodology presented in this chapter became a powerful tool for capturing the impact pulsating major sport events had and the processes involved in managing personnel in a major sport event organisation. By tracing the interviews and documents provided by informants an index tree system was constructed. In turn, this

index tree was used to develop a benchmark of management practices in pulsating major sport event organisations.

Stages and related issues that built the index tree system are discussed in detail in the following chapter. During this section, data emerged that answered two research questions:

- How does the pulsating nature of major sport events impact on the management practices of event managers?

- To what extent were these management practices tailored to the pulsating nature of these events?

Chapter Four: Results & Discussion

Overview

The purpose of this research was to examine how the pulsating nature of major sport events impacts on the management practices of event managers. In order to achieve this aim, twenty-one event managers from two research sites were interviewed and their responses examined. Ten managers were from the Australian Open Tennis Championship (AOTC), and eleven were from the Australian Formula One Grand Prix (AFOGP). Once informant data were repeated and saturation was reached, no additional interviews were required.

More specifically, two CEO's, seven department managers and twelve coordinators were interviewed across the two organisations. After conducting eleven interviews, irrespective of whether it was with the department managers or coordinators, informant responses to the semi-structured questions were repeated. That is, during the systematic interactive process, data repetition and saturation was occurring not only *within* the department manager and coordinator categories, but also *across* the categories. Documentary data reinforced the saturation of information. Consequently, only two interviews from each of the personnel coordinator categories were deemed necessary.

The findings from the data analysis revealed a number of outcomes. It became apparent that the pulsating nature of major sport events impacted on the management practices in each of the five stages. As a result, special challenges arose, which differed from generic organisations, and highlighted the difference between these organisations and the ones associated with pulsating major sport events.

Another outcome was that event personnel were managed according to the HR framework identified in the literature review. Therefore, this chapter was divided into five sections, each representing a stage in the personnel management process. For each of the five stages, the special challenges were examined in the context of the pulsating nature of the AOTC and AFOGP.

The first stage, establishing an organisational structure, identified a specific operating cycle in order to accommodate the additional personnel required to deliver the event. The second stage, selecting personnel, revealed that due to the significant expansion and subsequent contraction of personnel within a limited period of time, core competencies and a structured selection process, were important to assist managers in selecting appropriate personnel. The third stage, inducting personnel, showed that each personnel category required a wide range of specialised induction strategies. The fourth stage, managing teams, highlighted that due to the fluctuation of personnel numbers in teams, tailored strategies were implemented to assist event managers with this complex task. The final stage, retaining personnel, identified that with varied personnel categories all with different needs, attitudes and expertise, retention strategies were generally applied, and specific strategies were implemented for each personnel category.

Stage One: Establishing an Organisational Structure
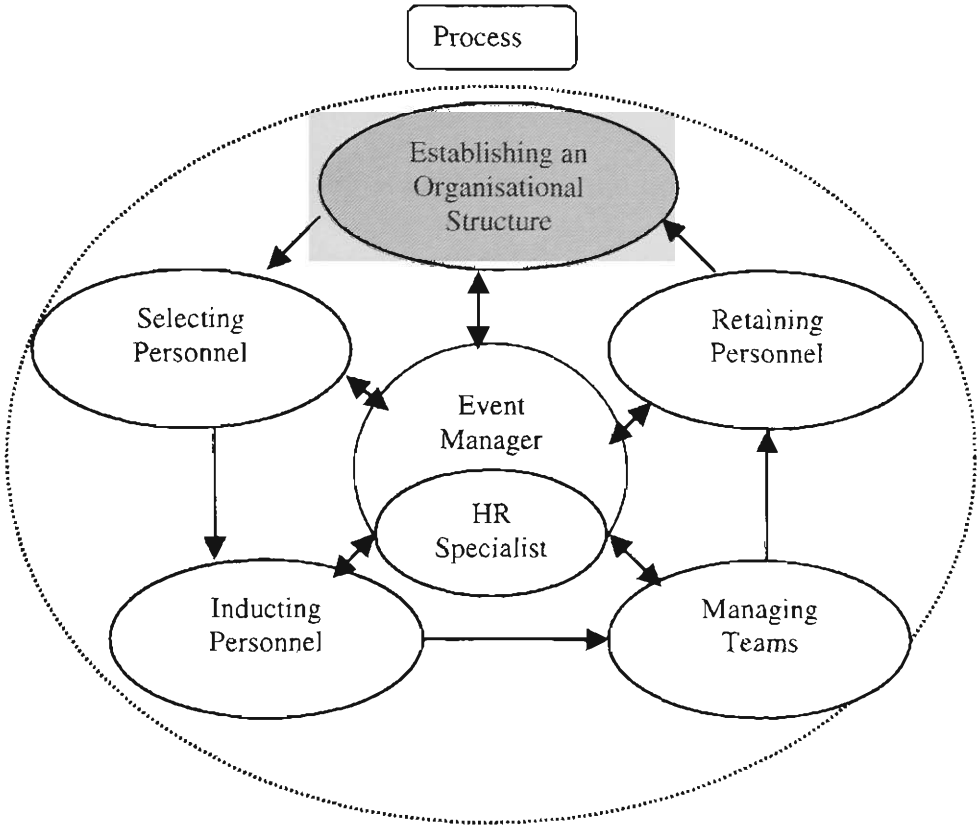
Figure 15. Towards a HR framework: establishing an organisational structure

The most obvious, but most fundamental finding, was that each organisation underwent a significant structural transformation for the duration of the event. In order to understand to what extent the organisational structures of the AOTC and AFOGP changed throughout the year in response to the pulsating effect, it was important to determine their structure during the year; identify the structural transformations leading up to and during an event; and analyse informants' responses to these changes. This process was vital to understanding the scope of structural changes of the two pulsating major sport event organisations.

Organisational Structures During the Year

During the year, the organisational structures of the AOTC and AFOGP, were similar to major sport event organisations identified in the literature review. That is. they are formalised, centralised, horizontal, and have vertical depth. These features are illustrated in each of organisation's organisational chart, which is displayed in their annual report and reproduced in Figures 16 and 17. The AOTC chart, Figure 16, shows that during the year, the organisation has vertical depth, clear lines of authority, and five main management functions, whereby specific roles and titles are assigned to 19 full-time personnel, who are associated with these functions. In the cases of the Tournament function, the CEO, the Tournament Administration Manager, the Tournament Coordinator and the Tournament Services Assistant are hierarchically associated with this function.

The AFOGP chart, Figure 17, shows that during the year, the organisation has vertical depth, yet at the same time illustrates nine functional departments laterally communicating with each other. Although each department team represents a role, the number of personnel within each team and their title is not displayed.
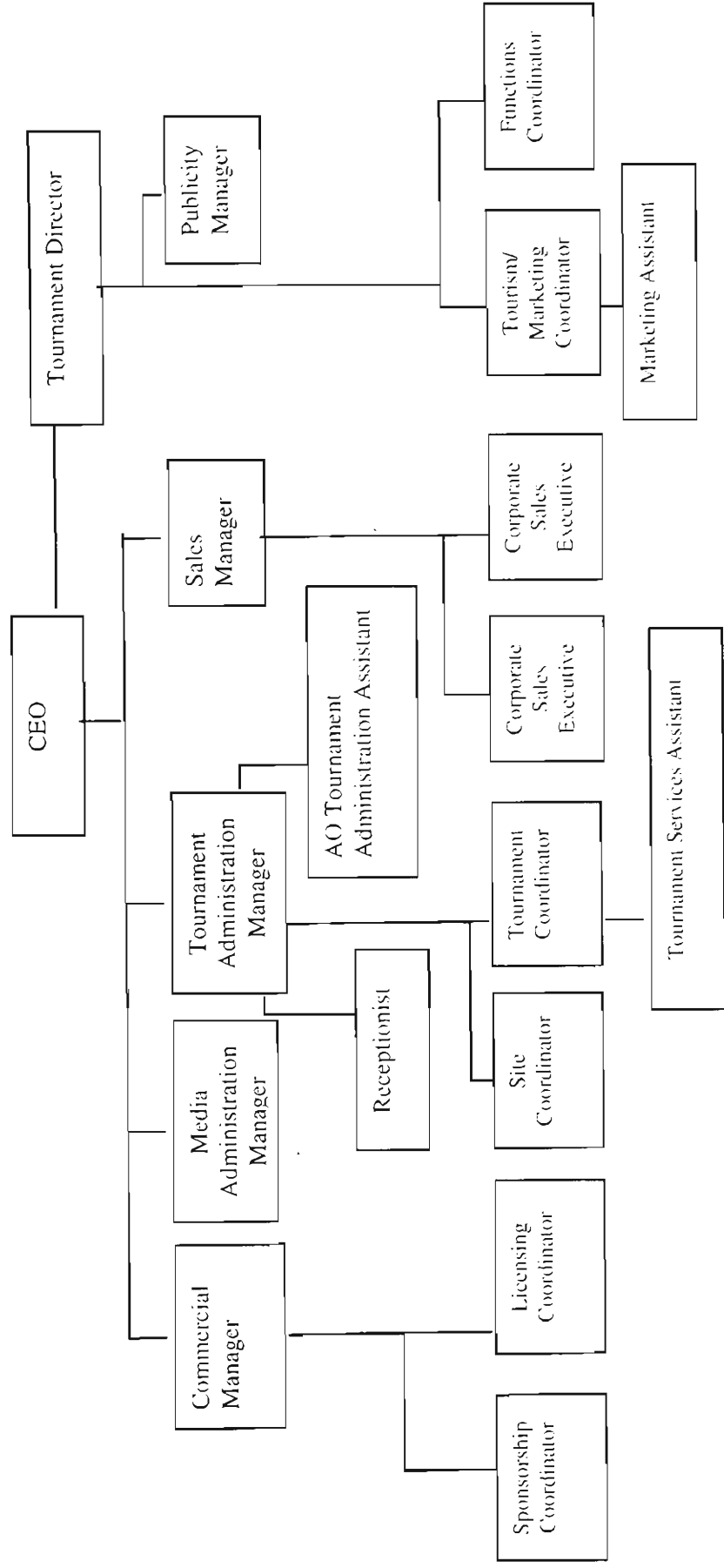
Source: Tennis Australia 1997 annual report.

Figure 16: Tennis Australia: Australian Open organisational chart during the year
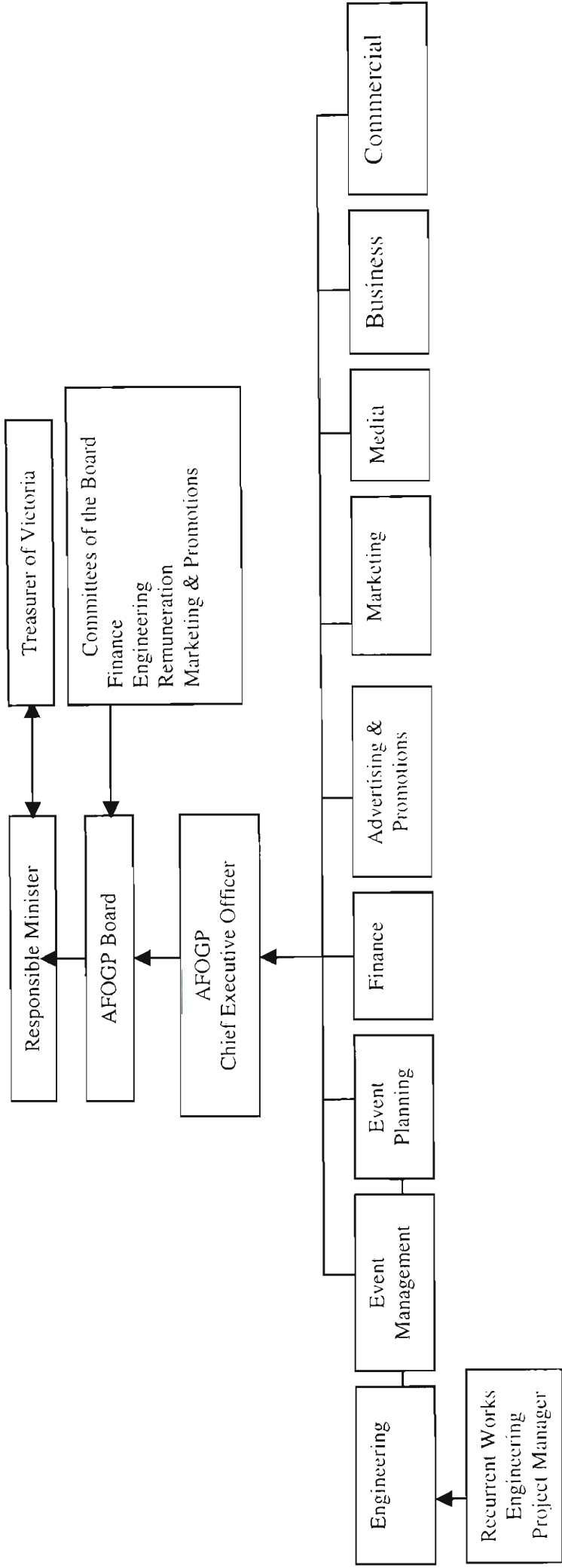
Source: Australian Grand Prix Corporation 1998 annual report.

Figure 17: Australian Formula One Grand Prix organisational chart during the year

Similarities and Differences between the AOTC and AFOGP Organisational

Structures.

The AOTC and AFOGP have a number of structural similarities and differences. For example, both organisations have a high degree of horizontal separation and vertical depth, and that all major decisions made involve at least two managers. The main difference illustrated in Table 12 is that the AOTC's organisational structure includes personnel roles, whereas the AFOGP displays only departments. The AFOGP structure is more horizontal than the AOTC, with nine functional department roles compared to five functional personnel roles.

The similarities and differences are important to note, because they demonstrate how these organisations are structured during the year, and consequently, assists with determining the structural transformations that occur for the purpose of an event.

Table 12. Key dimensions of the AOTC and AFOGP organisational structures during the year

Degree of differentiation	Formalisation	Centralisation
High degree of horizontal separation: AOTC between personnel, AFOGP between departments	AOTC has personnel roles, AFOGP has department roles	Management directed: AOTC by the CEO and Tournament Director, AFOGP by the CEO, Board, and Respective Government Minister
Vertical depth: AOTC has four levels, AFOGP has four levels		

When viewing Table 12 and the two organisational charts (Figures 16 and 17), the AOTC structure is similar to a traditional organisational structure, whereas, the AFOGP structure is similar to a contemporary organisational structure (Table 7, p. 49). For example, the AOTC has clear lines of authority whereby functional roles are assigned to personnel resulting in hierarchical communication and supervision.

Whereas, the AFOGP figure portrays flexibility and lateral communication with functional roles assigned to department teams, resulting in the requirement for team collaboration.

Organisational Structures Leading up to and During an Event

Leading up to and during the AOTC and AFOGP events, both organisational structures were transformed. This is attributed to the pulsating nature of these organisations. Outsource and seasonal personnel are appointed, creating an explosion of personnel numbers, which results in department managers managing a greater number and more varied personnel within a limited period of time. Consequently, the respective structures need to accommodate these personnel.

More specifically, the AOTC expanded from approximately 20 to 4,000 personnel for the event. These personnel are employed across 30 different areas of the Tournament, including 200 courtesy Car Drivers, 206 Ball persons, 314 Umpires, 60 court Services personnel, 60 scoreboard Operators and 1 100 Catering Staff (Tennis Australia, 1997). One full-time informant commented on this expansion of personnel:

> You've lost control. It explodes. We do literally go from 20 to about 30 from October to December and then over a three or four day period it goes to at least 3,000 staff on the site and that's of course not including any of the players or the media. It really is an explosion. It's great. It's quite an awesome experience.

The AFOGP also expanded in the lead-up to the event. The 40 full-time personnel increased to 127, with the inclusion of seven outsource managers and 80

seasonal personnel. The number of personnel managed by these outsourcers, leading up to, during and after the event, was estimated to be about 15,000.

This study found that while there was no official acknowledgment that the AOTC and AFOGP organisational structures transform leading up to and during an event, there was no documentation that illustrated where outsource and seasonal personnel were located or to whom they reported. However, informants' responses indicate clearly that such a transformation occurred. Figures 18 and 19 accommodate informant responses and the structural transformation of the AOTC and AFOGP. These figures distinguish between the permanent structure (throughout the year) and the flexible extended structure (leading up to and during the event). At the AOTC (Figure 18), the flexible extended structure is represented by dotted boxes, which show new functional areas representing peripheral (outsource and seasonal) personnel. Throughout the year, the AOTC chart (Figure 18) depicts individual roles that link together to create a team. However, due to the massive number of peripheral personnel employed leading up to and during the event, new functional areas are created. These areas represent teams of peripheral personnel that link to core personnel roles thereby formulating department teams, such as the Tournament team. The dotted boxes in the AFOGP figure (Figure 19) represent the department teams that include outsource and / or seasonal personnel.

The results found that the AOTC and AFOGP 'foundation' organisational charts (Figures 16 and 17), only represent their 'normal' operations and did not effectively portray the structural transformation, resulting from an event. The lack of a clear organisational chart led to a poor structural understanding by personnel and outsource and seasonal informants in particular felt a sense of not belonging. Therefore, the dotted boxes within Figures 18 and 19 more accurately reveal the magnitude of the

pulsating effect. They complement the special characteristics evident in such a structure. The figures cater for the inclusion and fluctuation of outsource and seasonal personnel. The figures illustrate an increased number of teams and personnel in teams, thus personnel can clearly see where they are positioned and develop an improved structural understanding and a sense of belonging and identity. These teams display varied categories of personnel who would have a range of needs, attitudes and expertise.

```
                         CEO
                          |
                 Tournament Director
```

Tournament Director
├─ Publicity Manager
├─ Sales Manager
│   ├─ Corporate Sales Executive
│   └─ Tourism/Marketing Coordinator
│   ├─ Marketing Assistant
│   └─ Functions Coordinator
│   └─ [Catering Seasonal Personnel]

CEO
├─ Commercial Manager
│   ├─ Licensing Coordinator
│   └─ Sponsorship Coordinator
│   └─ [Sponsorship Seasonal Personnel]
├─ Media Administration Manager
│   └─ Receptionist
├─ Tournament Administration Manager
│   ├─ AO Tournament Administration Assistant
│   ├─ Corporate Sales Executive
│   ├─ Site Coordinator
│   │   └─ [Official Outsource Suppliers]
│   └─ Tournament Coordinator
│   └─ Tournament Services Assistant
│   └─ [Tournament Seasonal Personnel]

▢ (dashed) = Expands leading up to and during an event

Note: Adapted from Tennis Australia (1997).

Figure 18: Australian Open organisational structure throughout the year and leading up to and during an event

Treasurer of Victoria

Responsible Minister

Committees of the Board
Finance
Engineering
Remuneration
Marketing & Promotions

AFOGP Board

AFOGP
Chief Executive Officer

Commercial (full-time, outsource, seasonal)

Business (full-time, outsource seasonal)

Media (full-time)

Marketing (full-time, outsource, seasonal)

Advertising & Promotions (full-time)

Finance (full-time)

Event Planning (full-time, outsource, seasonal)

Event Management (full-time, outsource, seasonal)

Engineering (full-time)

Recurrent Works Engineering Project Manager

▪▪▪▪ = Expands leading up to and during an event

Note: Adapted from the Australian Grand Prix Corporation (1998, p. 7).

Figure 19: Australian Formula One Grand Prix: organisational structure throughout the year and leading up to and during the AFOGP event

Informant Responses to the Transformation of Organisational Structures

Lack of Cohesion

It was evident at both the AOTC and AFOGP, that outsource and seasonal informants were not aware of their positioning within their respective organisational structures. This signifies a weakness in management communicating their structure to their peripheral personnel, and a failure to recognise these personnel within their respective structure. Informants affected expressed a feeling of not belonging. For example, one informant admitted "We (seasonal managers) just report things to administration. We are not part of their team, I don't know who we belong to". This is consistent with the findings from the study of the 1997 Australian University Games (Australian University Games, 1997). In this case, the organisational structure neglected to include the majority of personnel who were volunteers. The chart failed to show the pulsating effect, the arrival of volunteers, and their positioning had within the chart. This indicates the importance of including *all* personnel in an organisational structure, to ensure personnel feel recognised. Furthermore, it assists management to understand and coordinate their organisations more effectively during the peak period of an event.

Suggestions to alleviate these feelings of 'not belonging', came from three outsource informants, two from the AOTC and one from the AFOGP. They suggested that two management charts were needed for major sport event organisations; one being a maintenance management chart, which operated for most of the year, and the other an operational management chart for the event itself and the periods immediately before and after.

Structural Clarity for Full-Time Informants, Structural Ambiguity for Outsource and

Seasonal Informants

Despite the variation in structural depth between the oganisations, informants generally considered their respective structure to be flat and effective for major sport events. They believed a flat structure facilitated lines of communication. One AFOGP informant commented "the speed at which things flow is more important with events. That's what makes them different to a business. And that's why we've gone for a flat structure".

However, full-time personnel were the only informants able to *specifically* describe their organisation's internal management structure. The description was similar for both organisations, namely, the vertical depth was four-tiered involving the CEO, the department manager, the coordinators, and their assistants, see Figure 20. Given a vertical depth of four-tiers, one can query the suggested 'flatness' of these structures. Furthermore, outsource and seasonal informants were unable to describe this structure, which indicates the uncertainty these personnel had with understanding internal management structure.
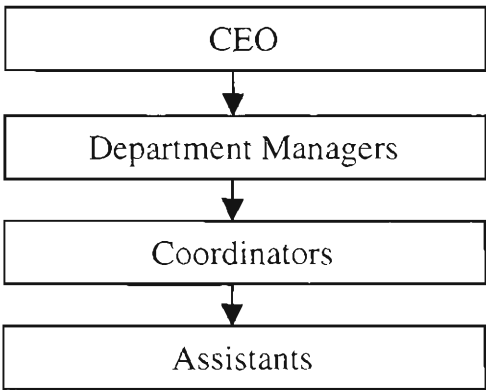
Figure 20: The internal management structure as perceived by full-time informants at the AOTC and AFOGP

Informants who were full-time employees, believed their internal management structure remained the same throughout the year, and expanded in personnel numbers

leading up to and during an event. These personnel were either coordinators or assistants, and represented the categories of outsource and seasonal. This description is similar to that of the 1997 Australian University Games, where its structure had the ability to expand once the 400 volunteers were appointed within the five management areas (Australian University Games, 1997).

Documentation reinforced the beliefs of full-time informants regarding the internal structure of their organisation. A draft copy of the department structures (Australian Grand Prix Corporation, 1998a) provided additional information of the internal department structures within the AFOGP leading up to and during an event. An additional tier is illustrated within the respective structure (for an example see Figures 21 and 22). That is, throughout the year the Sales and Marketing department have three tiers, then during the event this expands to four tiers: the department manager, area managers, coordinators, and assistants. With nine departments each containing these tiers during an event, it is not surprising that one full-time informant commented that there were "too many bosses". These findings reveal that due to the pulsating nature of these events, another issue arose, increased organisational complexity during an event led to a multiplicity of decision making and supervision.
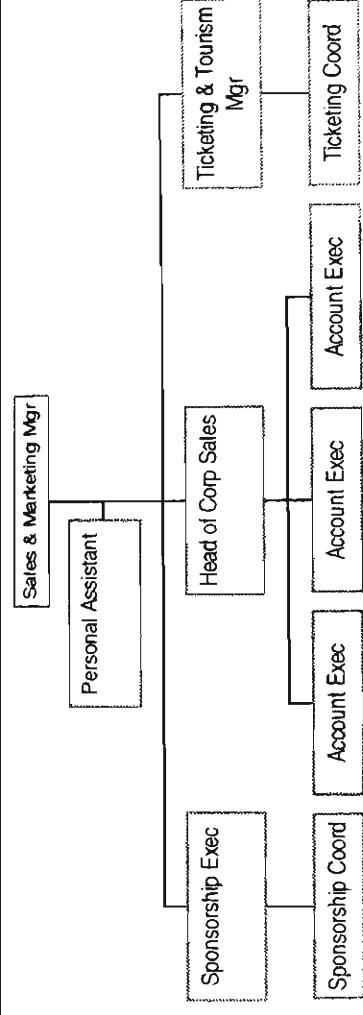
Figure 21: AFOGP: Sales and marketing department during the year
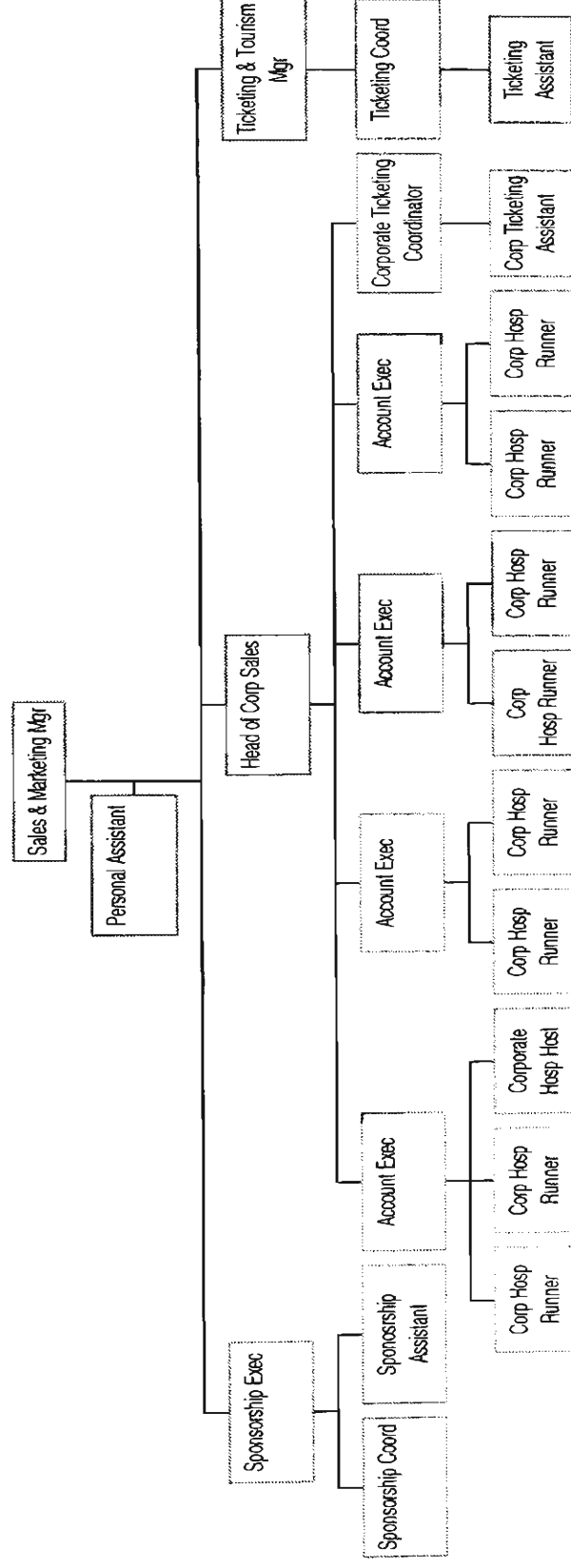
Figure 22: AFOGP: Sales and marketing department during the event

The AOTC organisational chart (see Figure 16) described the internal management of four-tiers: CEO, manager, coordinators, and assistants. However, evidence revealed that hidden behind the department teams in the AFOGP organisational chart (see Figure 17) was a structural depth of five-tiered management for the purpose of an event: CEO, department manager, area managers, coordinators, and assistants. These cyclic structures were created from the pulsating nature of the two organisations.

Problematic Outcomes

One of the key findings from the NUD.IST coding analysis revealed that when leading up to and during an event, two organisational structure issues required consideration by managers, clarity of roles and career paths.

Clarity of roles.

Informants emphasised the fundamental importance of clarifying roles for full-time, outsource and seasonal personnel. The AOTC informants were able to clearly identify their roles and responsibilities.

A number of AFOGP informants reported that roles had become more clearly defined as the organisation had progressed over the years. These clearly defined roles resulted in personnel becoming less stressed. One outsource informant stated:

> Over the four years, the Grand Prix Corporation seems to be less stressed as each year goes by. One of the reasons this is the case is because jobs on the day have been better defined, that is, separating routine activities and the reporting. Reporting systems have been refined every year so more of the appropriate people are dealing with incidents rather than being channelled through one or two managers and then being overloaded to the extent they can't deal with anything. The allocation of the responsibilities and the acceptance of those responsibilities have improved.

However, a number of AFOGP informants reported ambiguity when specifying their roles. This ambiguity occurred because team roles were flexible and often changed according to the situation. Informants did not view this ambiguity negatively, as they believed it encouraged multi-skilling. They stressed that personnel needed to be multi-skilled, as their roles changed over time. An 'all hands required on deck' attitude was required. This view was reflected by one full-time informant. who said that "as people come and go, they need to be prepared to chop and change a little bit, which requires some proactive management and that's how you keep people interested".

Evidence suggested that the longer the organisation had been in existence, the clearer the job roles became. In the case of the AOTC, which has been operating for over 22 years, roles are clearly defined whereas the AFOGP, which has been operating for less than five years, has some variability in role definition.

Career paths.

Career paths were evident for seasonal personnel who were continually involved with their respective organisation's event. The most notable example was at the AOTC, with ball persons moving to player services and then on to score board operators, over a period of years. These career paths created a stronger retention rate and reduced induction time for seasonal personnel.

On the other hand, full-time informants believed that a flat organisational structure prevented career paths. This left personnel with the feeling that they had "nowhere to go" and consequently led to personnel departure. Such a finding was consistent with general views that flat structural designs led to a lack of hierarchical promotion and employee instability (Ancona et al., 1996; Matheson, 1996; Slack, 1997).

In an attempt to dissolve the negativity about the lack of career paths, during annual full-time personnel appraisals, the AFOGP CEO went to great lengths to discuss career management programs and role variance. This action signified an acknowledgement of the disadvantages associated with a flat organisational structure and demonstrated strategies to overcome it.

Conclusion

The results gathered from the interviews and supportive documents, demonstrated that due to the pulsating effect at the AOTC and AFOGP, significant structural change occurred in order to accommodate the additional personnel required to deliver the event. That is, as complexities became greater, the structure expanded and recognised personnel working in teams, was simple to understand, flexible, and decentralised to allow for multi-skilled career advancement. Furthermore, although outsource and seasonal employees formed the majority of personnel within the AOTC and AFOGP leading up to and during an event, this was not incorporated into the permanent organisational charts. Figures 18 and 19 illustrated the flexible extended structures that occurred during the stages of an event cycle.

In general, the research findings supported the literature review findings. That is, for major sport events an organisational structure needs to be flexible; horizontal and have vertical depth; be formalised and centralised; consist of teams of people in functional units; and be innovative. However, the results also expanded upon the literature review by highlighting additional outcomes resulting from the pulsating effect that occurred at the AOTC and AFOGP. For example, a flat structure was supported by the literature review, whereas an extended structure leading up to and

during an event was found in the results. This comparison and others, between the literature review and research findings, are illustrated in Table 13.

Table 13. Comparison of literature review and research findings on pulsating organisational structures

Characteristics	
Literature review findings	*Research findings*
Flat	Flat throughout the year, hierarchical leading up to and during and event
Flexible	Flexible to cater for the stages of an event cycle: throughout the year, leading up to, during and after an event
Degree of differentiation: horizontal and vertical	Degree of differentiation: horizontal, and vertical – to accommodate full-time, outsource and seasonal personnel
Formalised	Formalised
Decentralised, particularly during the peak stage of an event	Centralised – for major decision making throughout the year Decentralised – leading up to and during the event
Three-tiered internal management structure: managers, operators, and external support personnel	Four-tiered internal management structure: CEO, managers, coordinators, and assistants
Innovative structure within a complex environment	Regularly transforming internal structure

The research findings were important, they provided a detailed explanation of the characteristics that evolved in an organisational structure, due to the pulsating nature of a major sport event. As a result, a cyclical structure during the operating cycle existed at the AOTC and AFOGP: throughout the year, leading up to, during and after an event. This structure would dissolve informants' confusion from not having organisational charts that adequately reflected the organisation's operations.

Having determined how the pulsating nature of the AOTC and AFOGP impacted on the organisational structures, thereby creating specialised characteristics and management practices for event managers, the next section reveals how the pulsating nature impacted on selecting personnel at these two organisations.

Stage Two: Selecting Personnel
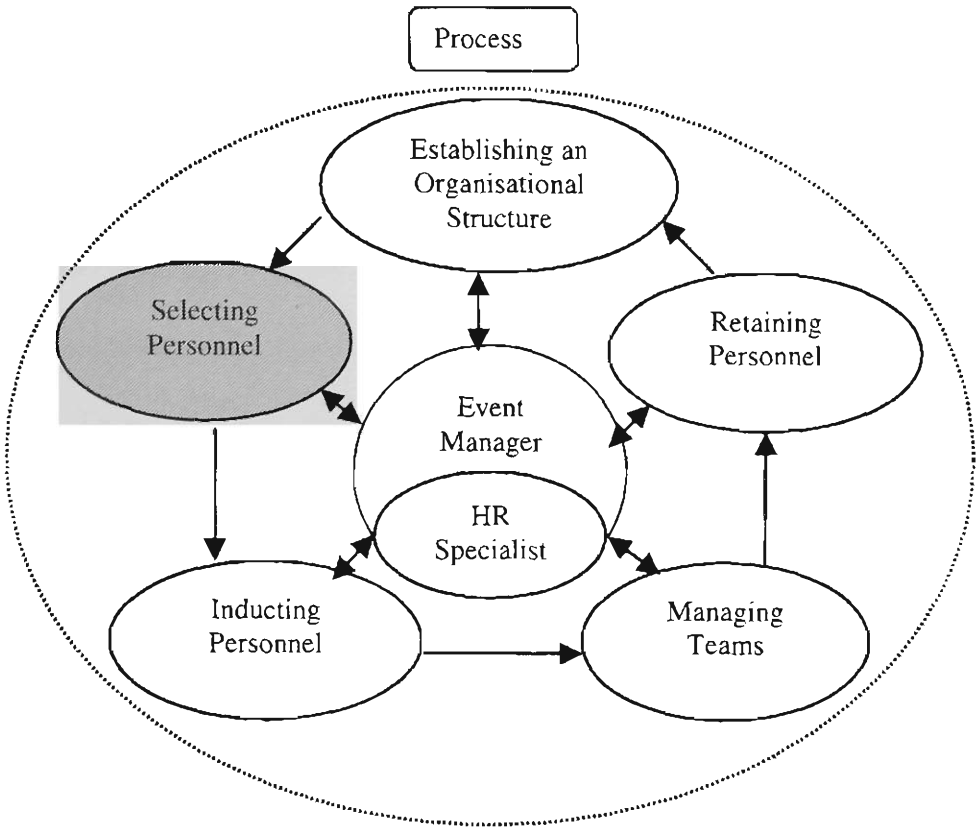
Figure 23. Towards a HR framework: selecting personnel

The Extent of Personnel Selection

As the previous discussion highlighted, the pulsating nature of the AOTC and AFOGP led to a significant expansion and subsequent contraction of personnel within a limited period of time. For example, for the purpose of an event, the AFOGP Sales and Marketing department expanded from ten to 24 personnel (Figures 21 and 22 respectively). Furthermore, the AOTC expanded in seasonal personnel whereas the AFOGP expanded in outsource personnel. With such an influx of peripheral personnel, employed to ensure the success of these prestigious events, effective personnel selection was vital. Informants noted that if personnel, particularly those

who liaise directly with customers, were not carefully selected, the event was less likely to be successful.

The pulsating nature of the AOTC and AFOGP also impacted on the selection of personnel. Tailored strategies were used for selecting the varied personnel categories. Findings revealed specific competencies were required for full-time, outsource and seasonal personnel; strategies were needed for selecting the right person within a limited timeframe; and tailored selection processes were required for each personnel category. These findings further highlighted the differences between generic and major sport event organisations.

Competencies Required

One of the key findings from the NUD.IST coding analysis revealed that when selecting a diversity of personnel, who have different needs, attitudes and expertise, and are on varied contracts, tailored core competencies were required to cater for the pulsating nature of the event.

Full-time personnel.

The most common informant response in this category was that it was important to select full-time personnel who were "dynamic (energetic) individuals". Informants believed these individuals would have competencies such as the ability to work long hours; be part of a team; problem solve in a flexible manner; be adaptable; be independent; show initiative and effective communication; and, negotiation skills. Tertiary qualifications and knowledge and experience in events were also required. A typical informant response, which classed the ideal candidate, was "one who comprises knowledge and experience".

Outsource personnel.

Informants believed the most important competencies for outsource personnel were event experience; commitment; practical adaptable skills; the ability to work to schedule; an understanding of the event and its respective organisation; and having the ability to extrapolate potential needs of the event organisation and address them through the tender process. One representative quote from an informant reported, that the ideal candidate was "a person who has experience with events, knowledge of the event organisation, works to schedule, and is a very hard worker".

Seasonal personnel.

Two types of seasonal employees were hired for the respective events: seasonal managers who managed seasonal personnel, and seasonal personnel who worked under management supervision. In each case, informants regarded the need for initiative, motivation, the desire to achieve and the ability to manage themselves, as the key competencies. These competencies were summarised by one informant "The people we've recruited are self-starters who have a passion for working at the event and making this the best event in the world". Depending on the position, professional qualifications were highly valued, for example physiotherapy, and massage. In other positions, priority was given to university students who were studying a relevant course such as sport business or event management. Seasonal managers also required personnel relation skills.

In summary, findings revealed that due to the pulsating nature of the AOTC and AFOGP, tailored core competencies were required for full-time, outsource and seasonal personnel. One point worth noting is that each category had its own package of core competencies; there was little overlap. This reinforces Chelladurai's (1999) research that personnel categories have different needs, attitudes and expertise.

In addition, each personnel category had competencies that related to the pulsating nature of the events. For example, with small, cross-disciplinary and temporary work teams, full-time personnel required the competencies of team orientation; flexibility; adaptability; initiative; advanced communication skills; negotiation skills; and event experience. The limited period of time for which outsource personnel were appointed, highlighted the required competencies of event experience; field of expertise experience; commitment; practical adaptable skills; an ability to work to schedule, to understand the event and respective organisation, and to extrapolate potential needs for an event and address them in the tender process. The limited period of time for which seasonal personnel were appointed, resulted in the required competencies of initiative; ability to self-manage; motivation skills; and a desire to achieve. These tailored core competencies are highlighted in Table 14.

Table 14. Core competencies for AOTC and AFOGP full-time, outsource and seasonal personnel

Category of personnel			
Full-time	*Outsource*	*Seasonal*	
Ability to work long hours	Event experience	*Managers*	*Personnel*
		Personnel relation skills	
Team orientation	Field of expertise experience	Initiative	
Flexibility	Commitment	Ability to self-manage	
Problem solving skills	Practical, adaptable skills	Motivation skills	
Adaptability	Ability to work to schedule	Desire to achieve	
Independence	Ability to understand event and respective organisation	Professional qualifications (job specific)	
Initiative	Ability to extrapolate potential needs for an event and address them in the tender process	Current University student (job specific)	
Advanced communication skills			
Negotiation skills			
Tertiary qualifications			
Event experience			

Table 14 highlights how the pulsating nature of an event created specialised personnel competencies, which were not common to all categories and were different to generic organisations. In contrast to this table, the literature review (summarised in Table 15), provided only generic competencies for personnel associated with a major sport event (refer to Figure 6, p. 67).

Table 15. Generic personnel competencies identified in the literature review for pulsating major sport event organisations

Competencies	
Ability to organise under conflict	Creativity
Event experience	Ability to organise with cooperation
Decision-maker	Cooperative leadership
Integrative thinker	Fast and perpetual learner

With only generic personnel competencies identified in the literature review, the identification of tailored competencies, for each personnel category, at the AOTC and AFOGP was important information. This research finding highlighted how the pulsating nature of major sport events impacts on the competencies required for full-time, outsource and seasonal personnel.

Informant Responses to Selecting the 'Right' Candidate

With an influx of personnel required for the event, candidates were often selected at the AOTC and AFOGP, with limited interview times and in a very short time scale. This was a difficult task, as one informant commented, "It's trying to find the right person with the right skills, right nature and personality for a team environment". Another informant acknowledged that even when the candidate had been chosen, there was no guarantee the person would stay. Another informant explained "There's

no X, Y, Z formula... it really is about investing the time to work out exactly what it is we want". The use of interviews further confirmed Slack's (1997) report that sport organisations used interviews to select a range of employees.

With an influx of personnel to interview, and in an attempt to select the right candidate, case study questions, such as responding to challenges or crises, were incorporated. Informants believed these assisted in providing information about the candidate's background and whether they were self-starters and disciplined. One informant summarised the interview as:

> It comes down to determining whether they (candidates) fit into the team and seeing that discipline within them. Talking to them regarding life in general brings a lot more out of the person rather than just questioning them. It brings out their life experiences.

This type of question has been referred to, as a behavioural question, whereby past behaviour is taken as a good indicator of future behaviour. This process was assisted by placing candidates in job-specific situations (Denton, 1992; Lyles & Mosley, 1997; Screnci, 1997).

Another common informant response was obtaining a positive "gut feeling" for the candidate during the interview. However, these informants also warned that the gut feeling comes from interview experience. This response contradicted Lousig-Nont's (1997) research noting that hiring by gut feeling was a deadly mistake for personnel selection.

In summary, with the need to appoint an influx of personnel within a limited time, behavioural questions and obtaining a gut feeling were strategies incorporated during the interview process at the AOTC and AFOGP.

Selection Processes

The range of employment groups, all with different needs, attitudes and expertise. meant personnel at the AOTC and AFOGP were selected using a variety of methods. The findings revealed that a formal procedure was used when selecting full-time and outsource personnel, while an informal approach was used to appoint seasonal personnel who were not managers.

Four key personnel selection methods were categorised in NUD.IST, and were used within both organisations, namely, working through a personnel agency; approaching candidates directly; appointing internally; and seeking tender submissions. These methods were similar to mainstream selection processes used in generic organisations. With the need to consider each personnel category, these methods became more specialised, and tailored for full-time, outsource and seasonal personnel.

Personnel agency.

A personnel agency was commonly used for full-time appointments. Agencies were required to understand the special nature of the respective organisation and the core competencies of full-time personnel. A frequent informant response was that the personnel agency "knows our organisation and work ethic, so they can ensure the selected candidates satisfy most of the criteria".

Approaching candidates directly.

This approach was also commonly used to appoint full-time positions. Department managers sought possible candidates to place on an interview short-list for full-time positions. This action has been referred to as targeting (Critten, 1994). Due to the special management practices required for pulsating major sport events, department

managers typically approached potential candidates from an event related industry; a sports management / sports event course; a sporting body; part of previous employed outsourced organisations; and seasonal employees at the organisation.

There was some discrepancy amongst informants about directly approaching seasonal managers for employment. A frequent seasonal informant response was, it's "who you know" within the organisation when sending a curriculum vitae. However, this was contradicted by a full-time informant who stated "there's not many instances where it's who you know and in fact, we try and remove that as much as we can". There was some uncertainty about the formality of interviews that followed seasonal managers being approached directly for employment. In some instances a formal interview was conducted with the department manager and coordinator whereby questions that relate to a simulated situation were asked. In other instances an informal interview was conducted with the department manager to discuss responsibilities.

Internal appointment.

This approach was sometimes used to appoint full-time and seasonal positions. Due to the small core of permanent personnel at the AOTC and AFOGP, informants from both organisations recognised that when a manager departed, there were opportunities for internal promotion. One full-time informant explained, "I was first employed as a receptionist and was promoted in stages to now become the CEO's assistant".

Due to the massive number of seasonal personnel employed by the AOTC, when publicising positions, an internal notification system was used. For seasonal managers, a letter advising that expressions of interest were due was sent to successful managers at previous events. For seasonal personnel, a note was posted on the noticeboard of the AOTC organisation stating when letters of interest, resumes and

references were due. Furthermore, seasonal personnel were informed at the conclusion of one event when to apply for the next event. Conflicting informant responses were gathered concerning the appointment of seasonal personnel. There was no formal method for selecting these personnel; they were appointed by the HR coordinator, department manager or department coordinator. This lack of formality was summarised by one full-time informant, "At the moment there's been a different process nearly every time. The organisation seems to make the rules up every time a situation arises". Seasonal informants expressed a desire to become involved in selecting seasonal personnel for whom they were directly responsible. They believed this involvement assisted in the creation of more effective teams.

No documentation for selecting seasonal personnel was available at the AOTC and AFOGP. The lack of guidelines to assist event managers with this process supported the informant's view that there was an absence in formality when selecting seasonal personnel.

Tender submissions.

A limited contract time for outsource personnel resulted in appointments being made through a tender process. The AFOGP had a more structured tender process than the AOTC. One reason for this is that the AFOGP is a government corporation. thus there is the need to obtain competitive pricing, unless the organisation could demonstrate that there was no ability to get a competitive result. Another reason for the AFOGP having a more structured tender process was that it has always relied more heavily on outsourcers. The AOTC were reluctant to employ outsourcers and consequently less time was spent constructing a stringent tender process. One AOTC full-time informant explained, "We had a bad experience with contractors and decided to employ our own staff. As a result, our corporate ticket sales went up about sixty

percent the first year and have continued increasing each year". Another AOTC full-time informant reported:

> We'd prefer in-house staff due to the 'personal' touch and recognition of being the friendliest, most organised tournament' in the world. Outsourcing would be handing over the responsibility and therefore losing control. Losing control of standards, minimum standards and a tournament philosophy.

For the AFOGP, the tender process was similar to the tender process used by many generic organisations (Domberger, 1998). That is, a detailed brief was written and expressions of interest were publicly sought. Applicants were then evaluated and a tender list created. After an interview and negotiations with the successful applicant and respective managers, a tender was formally awarded (Australian Grand Prix Corporation, 1998, July).

The research identified a haphazard tender approach for outsourcers was evident at the AOTC during the time of this research. The few outsourcers that were selected at the AOTC were involved in a tender process similar to that which occurred at the AFOGP, but with less formality. However, at times, due to an awareness of what outsourcers existed, selection at the AOTC occurred without performing a tender process.

Reviewing the Selection Process at the AOTC and AFOGP

The data analysis revealed that a generalist selection method was incorporated at the AOTC and AFOGP, however, due to the pulsating nature of these organisations, the methods were tailored according to the personnel categories. Four general methods were incorporated that assisted with the selection of full-time, outsource and seasonal personnel: working through a personnel agency; approaching candidates directly; appointing internally; and seeking tender submissions. These methods were then

specifically tailored for each personnel category. For example, full-time personnel were appointed using three strategies: internal appointment; agency appointment; or directly approached. Regardless of the appointment strategy, candidates were interviewed using behavioural questions. Seasonal managers were appointed using two strategies: internal appointment; or direct appointment. These managers were interviewed formally or informally. Seasonal personnel were appointed using three strategies: internal appointment; direct appointment; or from their resume, contacts, or demonstration. These strategies determined the success of the candidate. Outsource personnel were appointed using formal tender submissions. From these findings, an analysis of the selection process at the AOTC and AFOGP, have been formalised into a diagram (see Figure 24). One common selection procedure used across all personnel categories was that every manager received either an informal or formal interview.

Figure 24 reveals that when selecting full-time personnel, department managers played a crucial role. Their roles included assisting with the job design; suggesting possible candidates; and being involved in the interview process. Regarding outsourcers, there was a structured-tender process, whereby the CEO and respective managers were involved with the various stages of the contract appointments.

The influx and arrival of seasonal personnel at various times leading up to and during an event contributed to the informal selection process existing for seasonal managers and personnel within both organisations. Figure 24 illustrates that seasonal managers were appointed internally or directly by their respective manager, yet there was variance regarding the type of interview conducted. That is, either a formal or informal interview was conducted. Seasonal personnel were selected using whatever method seemed convenient at the time. In some instances there was a formal

selection process involving the Human Resource coordinator. However. in other instances department managers, coordinators or seasonal managers appointed those for whom they were directly responsible.

Establish detailed job design / tender brief
- identify required duties and competencies

Full-time   Seasonal   Outsource

Manager   Personnel

Internal appointment   Internal appointment   Internal appointment   Tender advertised

or   *or*   *or*

Direct appointment   Direct appointment   Direct appointment   Expressions of interest

or   *or*

Appoint agency   Formal interview   Selected from   Interviews conducted

                        - Behavioural questions - Resume

Interviews conducted   *or*   - Contact   Contract negotiations

- Behavioural questions Informal interview   - Demonstration

Appointment made   - Discuss responsibilities   Appointment made

                        Appointment made   Appointed by

                                                - HR coordinator,

                                                respective manager,

                                                or coordinator

                                                Appointment made

Figure 24: Selection process for AOTC and AFOGP personnel

In the literature on selection processes, five key selection methods were found: establish a selection brief/tender application incorporating goals: recruitment; interview candidates using behavioural questions; select employees based on behavioural answers/tender application; and evaluate the selection process. In light of this, apart from evaluating the selection process, findings revealed that generally, the selection of personnel at the AOTC and AFOGP was similar to generic organisations. However, this research found a more tailored selection process was used for these major sport event organisations, which catered for the influx of peripheral personnel within a limited timeframe, and considered individually full-time, outsource and seasonal personnel. As noted with the selection of full-time and outsource personnel, formalising the selection process ensured greater consistency. This is an important point, because it highlighted how the pulsating nature of major sport events impact on the need to identify an appropriate selection process for each personnel category.

Evaluating the selection process was notably absent from Figure 24. The reasons behind neglecting the evaluation of the selection process may be due to time constraints, with the majority of personnel leaving after the final event day, or the thought of conducting evaluation with large numbers of personnel after they have completed their event tasks may seem daunting. When these organisations selected seasonal personnel, a haphazard and inconsistent selection procedure occurred.

Evidence indicated that when external organisations, such as personnel agencies or outsource organisations, were involved with selecting personnel at the AOTC and AFOGP, a formal selection procedure occurred. Full-time and outsource informants also reported satisfaction with this selection process. This is an important point, because findings revealed that a formalised selection process occurred at the AOTC

and AFOGP when external organisations were involved, however, not when these two organisations selected seasonal personnel themselves.

Conclusion

Two key findings from the NUD.IST coding analysis revealed that due to the significant expansion and contraction of personnel within a limited period of time, core competencies and a structured selection process, tailored for full-time, outsource and seasonal employees were important to assist managers when selecting personnel. At the AOTC and AFOGP, specific core competencies were required for each personnel category, and a structured selection process was evident for full-time and outsource personnel.

The findings highlighted the impact a pulsating effect makes to such organisations and the implications they make on the management practices when selecting personnel. The findings have revealed that when appointing an influx of seasonal personnel, managers have a haphazard approach to making appointments. These findings favoured a more stringent approach, to ensure selection consistency and the satisfaction of seasonal personnel.

Once personnel were selected, they were then inducted within each organisation. The next section describes how the pulsating effect impacted on the induction management practices at the AOTC and AFOGP.

Stage Three: Inducting Personnel

Process

Establishing an
Organisational
Structure

Selecting
Personnel

Event
Manager

Retaining
Personnel

HR
Specialist

Inducting
Personnel

Managing
Teams
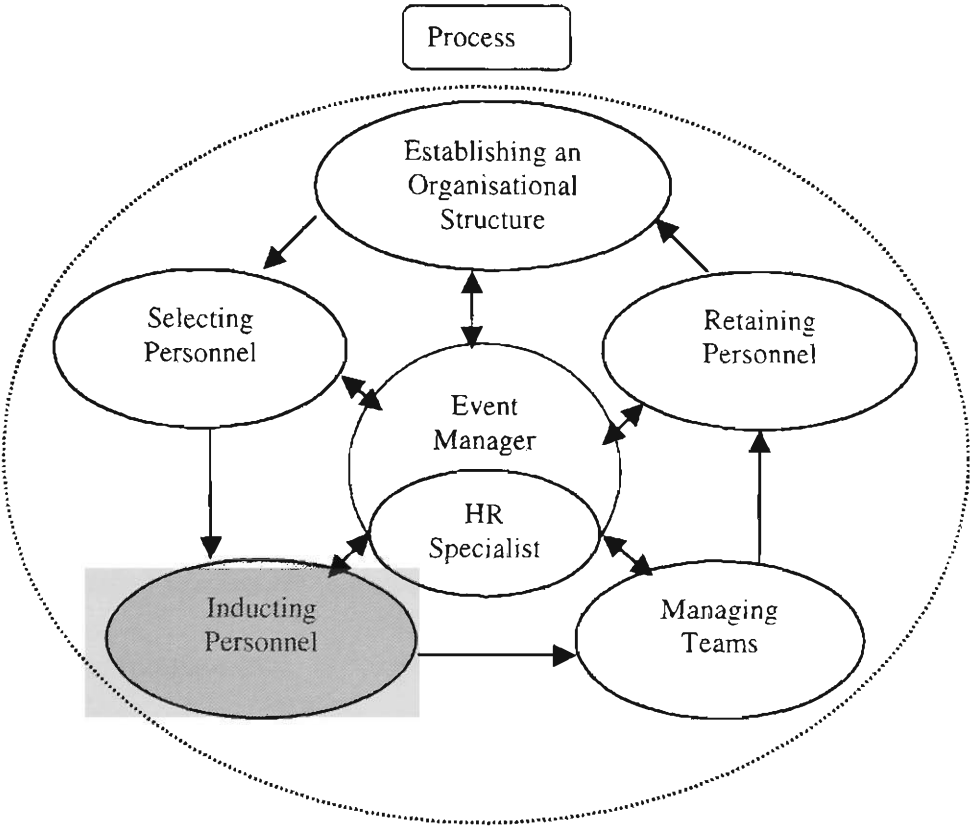
Figure 25. Towards a HR framework: inducting personnel

The Extent of Inducting Personnel

Interviews and supporting documentation revealed that a variety of different strategies were used to cater for the induction demands at the AOTC and AFOGP. This was to cater for the range of employment groups, the majority who were on limited contract times, all with different needs, attitudes and expertise, and arriving and departing at different times. These strategies not only varied between the categories of personnel, but also differed between the two organisations.

The four-step generic organisation induction process, identified in the literature review, comprised providing an organisational framework; establishing relationships; supplying resources; and conducting evaluation. This four-step process was used to examine the induction activities performed at the AOTC and AFOGP. In doing so, it

assisted in understanding how the pulsating effect impacted on the level of induction performed at the AOTC and AFOGP.

Providing an Organisational Framework

In order to ensure personnel developed a common understanding of the organisation, and were introduced to the organisation's culture (Legge, 1995), two strategies were initiated at both the AOTC and AFOGP, an office-based induction and on-site brief. In addition, the AFOGP used a risk-based session, an on-site session, a safety session, an on-site tour, and a culture session.

Office-based session for full-time personnel.

Within both organisations, the topics included for inducting office-based full-time personnel were similar. The content was consistent with the findings in the research literature. That is, the induction process exposed full-time managers to the organisation's framework where a common understanding of the organisation and its culture was formed (Legge, 1995). In addition, the organisation's vision, goals and general expectations (Pessin, 1997, Slack, 1997; Smith & Stewart, 1999), were emphasised with topics covered including the organisation's history, initiatives, structure and internal relationships (Seaver, 1997).

A specific practice at the AOTC was to spend a number of days informally inducting the appointee. As explained by one informant:

> I would spend a number of days with the person. Going through things and leaving them alone to read through everything. I'd take them around or have one of my staff do it, depending on the position of course.... You try and get them set up as quickly as possible.

In comparison, the AFOGP spent three hours formally inducting appointees. During this intense session, a typical informant response was:

The HR manager and coordinator provide information about the event, the organisation, the processes and policies. The relevant department manager and coordinator provide specific information relating to the department and the appointee's role. Other department managers provide information concerning their department responsibilities. Outsource managers who are specifically dealing with the appointee, also present information relating to their role.

Office-based session for seasonal personnel.

Full-time informants at the AOTC and AFOGP reported that an office-based induction process was conducted for their office seasonal managers. However, seasonal informants were unaware of such a process. The process at the AOTC illustrated this point.

According to several AOTC full-time informants, an office-based induction process for newly appointed seasonal managers consisted of "spending ten minutes before a working group meeting, being introduced by their supervisor, to relevant team members". However, this was not recognised by seasonal informants, one of whom commented "we are meant to be inducted each year, however, it has not been performed".

Furthermore, according to two AFOGP full-time informants, a monthly one hour office-based induction process was undertaken for seasonal managers. As noted by one full-time informant, "sometimes it means that someone may be here for three weeks before they have an induction, but at least they have something". The content consisted of the HR manager providing an overview of the organisation and explaining the legal side of who they were and what they did, which was mainly event–driven. The inductors also discussed the coming event rather than the processes surrounding it. Seasonal office-based informants responded that no formal induction process was conducted after their appointment.

These conflicting reports suggested a lack of effective communication between full-time managers, the HR manager, and seasonal personnel. Documentation was not

available on office-based sessions. This further supports the lack of communication between personnel on the content provided during these sessions and the lack of formality involved.

On-site brief for seasonal personnel.

The term 'on-site' was used in the context of personnel conducting duties that were based at the event venue. Within both organisations, the amount of induction provided for on-site seasonal personnel was dependent upon when they were appointed in relation to the event. For example, one informant stated, "a informal briefing is delivered to seasonal personnel. This is because of the time limitations and short-term appointments". This briefing comprised a quick overview of the event, with continual reference to the on-site manual.

Risk-based session.

Risk management consultants presented a risk-based induction session to the AFOGP committee and all full-time, outsource and seasonal managers. This involved a detailed session that reviewed risks and the risk management plan. The consultants provided information so, as one informant explained, "personnel are able to know how to react in certain situations, for example crowd control and controlling access. Role plays are also performed covering 'what if' situations, such as someone refusing to open their bag". Managers then provided this risk-based induction to their team members.

On-site session.

The on-site induction session was conducted for all on-site personnel directly employed by the AFOGP. This session was performed within a limited period of time and as close to the event as feasible, as justified by one informant, "any longer they would probably forget some of the finer points that we tried to reinforce". Another

informant explained, "During the one hour session, topics such as industrial issues, work cover safety, inter-personnel relation issues and knowing how to react in an emergency situation are discussed". Most informants viewed the on-site session as vital but highly regimented.

On-site safety session.

At the AFOGP circuit, the on-site safety session included a half-hour safety test. A first aid course was also conducted. As one informant reported, this was "to ensure managers were prepared for spectator and personnel accidents". Once managers had attended these two sessions, they signed a form confirming their attendance. All on-site managers and personnel had insurance provisions (Australian Grand Prix Corporation, 1998, d).

On-site tour.

For two months preceding the event, two hour on-site circuit tours were performed every Saturday for all on-site employees employed directly by the AFOGP. The tour involved talking to people around the circuit so personnel knew where everything was. However, this induction at a non-permanent venue was difficult. As summarised by one full-time informant:

> I run tours of the park every Saturday morning, probably about two months out from the event. So I take all the staff and show them 'this is where this is'. It's very difficult to say things that aren't yet set up, for example, 'this is where the checkered flag goes'. We try to explain because until you actually see it on face value you can't actually envisage what's there. You can look at a map and it looks alright there, but you can't work out sight lines, you can't work out undulations. It's probably the hardest part.

Culture session.

At the AFOGP, a formal induction session was specifically conducted for outsource managers. One informant explained, "The culture session introduces topics such as the philosophy, culture of customer service, venue layout, possible problems, patrons

and the various employees". Another informant admitted "It's a lot of information in a short period of time, but there are a variety of speakers".

Establishing Relationships

Due to the variety of personnel, with the majority of them being employed for a limited period of time, the analysed data revealed specialised strategies were used to establish relationships. In order to achieve this, a nurturing process was incorporated at the AOTC and AFOGP, and a general event induction and management brief was performed at the AFOGP.

Nurturing process.

On the first work day at the AOTC and AFOGP, the full-time appointee was introduced to the department team, and an e-mail was sent to all personnel within the organisation informing them of the new member and his or her role. Where time permitted, the appointee went through a transition that involved observing the current employee in the role and being informed of organisational expectations. This transition was regarded as a nurturing process.

General event session.

At the AFOGP, a general event session was conducted for full-time and seasonal managers. An informant explained, "This session is compulsory, all managers are paid to attend, and it is performed as close to the event as feasible". Information such as the event programs, updates and what outsource managers supplied to specific areas was provided (Australian Grand Prix Corporation, 1998, d).

Management brief.

A management brief was designed for all full-time, outsource and seasonal managers at the AFOGP. An informant reported, "Its purpose is to ensure everyone has the

same objectives". The content within the brief involved role-playing, scenarios and presentations specifically relating to the event.

Supplying Resources

With peripheral personnel appointed leading up to and often during the event days, documentary evidence revealed manuals were vital resources to provide work guidelines and ensure that questions were quickly answered.

On-site manual.

Both organisations produced a general on-site manual for all their personnel (Australian Open Tennis Championship, 1997b; Australian Grand Prix Corporation, 1998d). In each case, there was an overview of the event, maps, policies, contact details and a comprehensive outline of the event program. The AFOGP on-site manual contained more detail regarding safety issues, corporate details, and specific operations conducted by particular department teams.

On-site team manual.

The AFOGP also produced specific on-site manuals for departments and outsource companies (Australian Grand Prix Corporation, 1998e). For example, the Security manual informed security personnel about general event information and specific details relating to their role and security procedures. Each manual required personnel and their supervisor to sign the manual stipulating it had been read and that their role was clearly understood.

Office manual.

At the AOTC, the Personnel manager provided the appointee with an office manual and discussed the content. The manual contained general information such as

emergency procedures and occupational health and safety issues (Australian Open Tennis Championship, 1997).

The AFOGP was in the initial stages of producing an office manual for full-time and seasonal managers, which comprised information such as equal opportunity, procedures and office layout.

Tournament report / Operation manuals.

Informants from the AOTC reported that induction for outsource managers consisted of being provided with last year's post tournament report and operation manuals. A typical full-time informants view was that:

> With the outsource managers returning each year, there is no need for a formal induction process. If procedures change, relevant information is sent to these managers. Anyway, outsource contracts are detailed and contain specific clauses so that expectations are clear.
> *Information kit.*

At the AOTC and AFOGP, an information kit was mailed to the new full-time appointees, which included an organisation booklet and forms to be completed and returned before the appointees' first day. These forms gathered personal information and facilitated the appointees' access to the building, computer system and other resources (Tennis Australia, 1997a; Australian Grand Prix Corporation, 1998b).

In order to reinforce the information provided at the AFOGP general event session, kits were distributed to full-time and seasonal personnel. The information covered topics, which were addressed at the session, for example the event's program, and an updated event information list (Australian Grand Prix Corporation, 1998c).

At the AOTC, tournament information was sent to seasonal personnel. However, seasonal informants did not recognise this as part of a formal induction process.

Induction Evaluation

The data analysed revealed a notable absence of induction evaluation performed at the AOTC and AFOGP. The only strategy conducted at both organisations was reviewing the office-based session for full-time personnel.

Review office-based session for full-time personnel.

A couple of days after the induction of a new full-time appointee. a progress review was performed at the AOTC and AFOGP. The HR manager or respective manager conducted this, to ensure a clear understanding had been gained about the appointee's new role.

Reviewing the Induction Process at the AOTC and AFOGP

The pulsating nature had a significant effect on the induction practices at the AOTC and AFOGP. Interviews and documents revealed that the generic organisation's four-step induction process was not sufficient and a more complex approach was required. Each personnel category and respective induction strategies. needed to be addressed. this is illustrated in Table 16.

Notably, the AFOGP had a more extensive induction system than the AOTC. Inconclusive programs, which resulted from conflicting informant responses. have been question marked in Table 16. For example, full-time informants believed office-based sessions were performed for seasonal personnel, however. seasonal informants did not support this.

As Table 16 indicates, there are gaps within the two organisations and between and within personnel categories. One significant step not performed at the AOTC and AFOGP was evaluation. This corresponded with literature findings that emphasised

the importance of evaluating induction to ensure personnel's satisfaction and stronger partnership building (Elliott & Torkko, 1996; Wheatley, 1997).

Furthermore, it became apparent that the AFOGP placed more emphasis on outsource induction than the AOTC. Active formal induction sessions, involving role plays and scenarios were performed for outsource personnel at the AFOGP, compared to passive informal inductions comprising the reading of a tournament report and operation manuals at the AOTC. According to Seaver (1997), induction should be active rather than passive.

One reason for these active formal sessions is the heavy reliance the AFOGP placed upon outsource organisations compared with the few appointed within the AOTC. In addition, the AFOGP event also faced greater risks because it was a motor sport event at a non-permanent venue, whereas, the AOTC event was a tennis tournament conducted at a permanent purpose-built venue.

170

Table 16. Induction process for the AOTC and AFOGP personnel

Personnel		Four – step induction process			
		Providing an organisational framework	Establishing relationships	Supplying resources	Conducting evaluation
Full-time	AOTC	Office-based session	Nurturing process	Information kit Office manual	Review office-base session
	AFOGP	Office-based session Risk-based session On-site session On-site safety session On-site tour	Nurturing process General event session Management brief	On-site manual On-site team manual Office manual Information kit	Review office-based session
Outsource	AOTC			On-site manual Tournament report / Operations manual Detailed contract	
	AFOGP	Culture session Risk-based session On-site session On-site safety session On-site tour	Management brief	On-site manual On-site team manual	
Seasonal	AOTC	Office-based session (?) On-site brief		On-site manual Information kit (?)	
	AFOGP	Office-based session (?) On-site brief Risk-based session On-site session On-site safety session On-site tour	General event session Management brief	Office manual On-site manual On-site team manual Information kit	

Note. Empty cells indicate that strategies were not implemented during this induction step. Question marks indicate inconclusive programs, which resulted from inconsistent informant responses.

Informant Responses to the Induction Process

With the majority of personnel employed leading up to the event, a common concern for informants was the importance of ensuring appointees were immediately involved within the organisation. One informant commented that "induction is about getting them on board, getting the work in front of them, but also trying to blend them into the family". In doing so, the findings identified different induction processes for different personnel categories. Full-time personnel at the AOTC and AFOGP were individually inducted. For the purpose of an event, AFOGP full-time and outsource personnel were inducted as a group, whereas at the AOTC, no group induction occurred. Seasonal personnel at the AOTC and AFOGP were inducted in a general way, but it was often inconsistent and haphazard. These are important findings, because they help explain why informants admitted that time needed to be spent improving induction for personnel, particularly seasonal personnel. However, by their responses, due to the minimal preparation time, such an improvement seemed like a daunting task. For this reason the Victoria Racing Club (1997) had conducted induction sessions for managers to assist them with strategies for inducting peripheral personnel in a limited period of time.

Full-time personnel.

At the AOTC, two informants admitted that the provision of an intense induction process was in its initial stages with few managers being aware of its existence. This explained the informant contradiction regarding the intensity of induction and the need for a structured induction process for new appointees. For example, one AOTC informant summarised the induction process by saying that full-time appointees "are given a general introduction by being shown around the place, yet not everyone is

there. Little information is provided about the vision, mission statement, policies and personnel rights".

Outsource personnel.

In the case of outsource managers, induction was performed at the management level with both organisations involved in direct liaison. As one informant explained, "The tender contracts are established at least six months before the respective event. This allows sufficient time for induction". The majority of outsource managers were on long-term contracts, which reduced the amount of selection and induction time required. However, regardless of their employment time, all outsource informants emphasised the need for their event organisation to induct new and *returning* outsource managers. When referring to how their induction sessions were performed, the AFOGP outsource informants regarded active induction sessions as effective, whereas the AOTC outsource informants considered their passive induction as ineffective.

At the AOTC, the induction of new and returning outsource managers usually coincided with a busy time. According to informants, outsource managers were warned, "we (AOTC) won't have that much time, it'll be full on, there's a huge learning curve and you've got to be up to speed pretty quickly". Outsource informants were generally disappointed with this lack of induction. One informant commented that:

> There's some of us who've been there for 20 years and some people who've worked there the last ten and I have no idea who they are. We come in, we do our job ... and we go out.

With a strong emphasis on induction by the AFOGP, outsource informants stressed the need for the organisation to place more weight on the induction time

required within the tender brief. Outsourcers would then be more prepared for the induction time required at the AFOGP.

Seasonal personnel.

An influx of seasonal personnel arriving and departing at different times leading up to an event, created a distorted induction process for these personnel at the AOTC and AFOGP. As a result, the general informant perception was that seasonal personnel, "could sink or swim if they were office-based and become unguided missiles". One informant commented "a great deal of success within an organisation is not only knowing your job but knowing how the organisation works. That's where it's difficult with the casuals, they don't have that opportunity to gather that knowledge". Consequently, seasonal managers, 'fended' for themselves (Schermerhorn et al., 1993; Seaver, 1997), and felt left out. Such feelings corresponded with Flynn (1994) who reported that induction provides a sense of belonging.

No seasonal informant made reference to the existence of an induction policy. However, documentary evidence indicated that within both organisations, an induction process did exist and was considered important for seasonal personnel. This was evidenced in a paragraph within the AOTC Casual Employment Application Form:

> In pursuit of excellence it is crucial that all successful applicants attend all briefing and training sessions that are notified...These sessions assist in developing team dynamics, communication and continuous improvement of the Australian Open (Australian Open Tennis Championship, 1997, May, p. 3 - 4).

Seasonal informants from both organisations made reference to how the induction process could be improved for seasonal managers. At the AOTC, seasonal informants required information on the extent to which their organisation inducted seasonal personnel. These managers could then complement the induction process.

for example, by providing specific information about their role and introducing team members. At the AFOGP, seasonal informants recommended the need for a formal office-based induction process. This would involve discussion of the event's vision; learning about the organisation and the departments relating to the position; asking questions about the event manual; explaining the structures; providing an office tour; and introducing the new seasonal manager to respective managers and coordinators. Furthermore, once a general overview of the organisation and the event was provided, their respective manager would then take time to discuss the requirements, job duties, expectations, and organise a weekly progress meeting. With no seasonal manager induction booklet, one informant developed his own to ensure the next person in the position would not experience the complications he had experienced. The booklet contained information such as contacts, job description and additional duties outside the description.

In reflecting upon the induction of seasonal personnel at the AOTC and AFOGP, the work of Sligo (1995) and Slack (1997) is relevant. Sligo emphasised that when rapid organisational change occurs, personnel are less likely to have timely, reliable and relevant information. Induction was often not evident, resulting in personnel retreating to the 'grapevine' and making assumptions. This typified the reaction of seasonal informants, particularly from the AOTC, who felt they lacked a suitable induction process. This could have serious implications, if seasonal managers made poor decisions and failed to resolve problems, with the event possibly being jeopardised. Therefore, as suggested by Slack, if an effort is made during the induction phase, poor performance and personnel dissatisfaction are reduced.

Manuals.

To cater for the influx of personnel leading up to and during an event, every informant emphasised that manuals were of utmost importance to induction. As verified by one informant, "that handbook is probably the most valuable asset that they (personnel) have". Furthermore, every AFOGP outsource informant commented that the induction process for their personnel was assisted through the AFOGP's induction manual, as it ensured continuity existed between the outsource organisations involved with the event.

Manuals are a popular resource for organisations that conduct events. Another organisation providing this resource to its personnel was the Victoria Racing Club. When running the Melbourne Cup, it provides an 'Employee Induction Handbook' to personnel, which identifies personnel rights and obligations (Victoria Racing Club, 1997).

Group induction sessions.

The temporary, cross-disciplinary teams at the two pulsating organisations, resulted in the finding that informants favoured induction programs that involved all full-time, outsource and seasonal managers in group sessions. At the AFOGP, four group management induction sessions were performed: a general event induction, a management briefing, a risk-based induction, and on-site inductions. One informant justified the importance of these sessions commenting "if you don't support your staff at the event and people are working long hours, a lot of things tend to happen. You can't expect them to perform at the peak of what they're doing". Informants commented that the team building exercises were successful with the development of teams. This is an important finding, because it becomes clear that group induction sessions for full-time, outsource and seasonal managers result in structured induction,

thus instilling a greater sense of belonging and responsibility. However, at the AOTC there was an absence of these group sessions.

Conclusion

The pulsating nature of the AOTC and AFOGP has created a significant impact on the management practices relating to induction. The expansion and subsequent contraction of personnel, many employed for a limited timeframe and all with different needs, attitudes and expertise has resulted in the requirement for complex management practices. Interviews and documentary evidence revealed that each personnel category required specialised strategies when inducting personnel at major sport event organisations. The results revealed, that a more sophisticated approach was used at the AOTC and AFOGP, rather than the four-step generic induction process.

The research undertaken has provided a greater depth of information than the literature review. It has identified the importance of inducting new and returning personnel, separately inducting each personnel category, and incorporating manuals and active group sessions for all personnel.

It is clear that manuals were a vital induction resource at the AOTC and AFOGP. Due to the influx of personnel, these detailed manuals were pivotal to obtain immediate and consistent answers and to encourage confidence. The importance of induction manuals as an integration mechanism to an event distinguishes these two pulsating major sport event organisations from generic organisations. Due to the limited time and questions immediately requiring answers during an event, on-site manuals were a vital resource, particularly for seasonal personnel, many who are employed for the days during the event, and who have not had a substantial induction.

The reliance on induction manuals supported the views of Flynn (1996), Pessin (1997), and Seaver (1997).

Group sessions for all managers, were an important aspect of the AFOGP's induction process. When reviewing these active induction sessions, evidence suggested that not only did it inform a variety of personnel about the event and the requirements, it indirectly established team relationships. For example, induction sessions drew managers together and discussions and role plays were performed resulting in team management solutions. The active induction sessions created team relationships and these were effective when performed as close to the event as feasible. Researchers positively supported such sessions referring to them as team training (Blyton & Turnbull, 1992; Henkoff, 1993; Wheatley, 1997). They created what Wheatley (1997) suggested, as a strong commitment and a more resilient organisation.

The absence of a documented induction process for *all* full-time, outsource and seasonal managers, was evident at the AOTC and AFOGP. This may explain why, at times, induction was inconsistently practiced, and why managers lacked an awareness of the induction process required for each personnel category. Evidence suggested that the HR manager's within these organisations have neglected to connect the importance of a consistent induction process with increased personnel retention (Cooke, 1997, Seaver, 1997), dependability (Cuskelly, 2000), and productivity (Seaver, 1997). Such a finding supported other research that unsatisfactory induction opportunities exist within sport organisations (Larsen et al., 1992).

Evidence suggested that group induction sessions help establish team relationships. The following section identifies how these teams operated at the AOTC and AFOGP.

Stage Four: Managing Teams
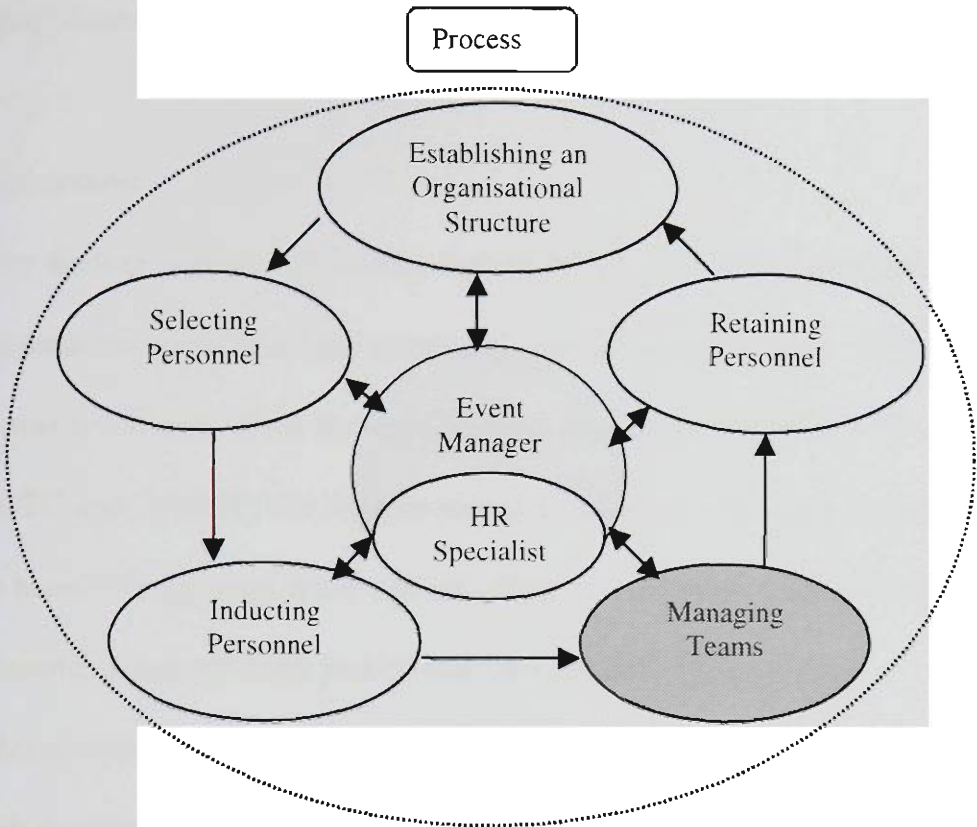
Figure 26. Towards a HR framework: managing teams

The Extent of Managing Teams

Teams at the AOTC and AFOGP were vital contributors to the respective event's success. One dominant characteristic of these teams was the constant fluctuation in personnel numbers. This can be attributed to the arrival and departure of outsource and seasonal personnel at various periods leading up to an event. As a result of the fluctuating personnel numbers in teams, the data analysis revealed five issues: team structures; fluctuating personnel; team building; facilitation; and evaluation. These findings support that due to the pulsating nature of major sport events, managing teams within the AOTC and AFOGP was a complex task due to the varied personnel, all with different needs, attitudes and expertise. Informants admitted that time and effort were required to develop teams, with a common remark being "teams are high

maintenance". This was consistent with other research, which recognised that managing teams, is time consuming (Sage, 1990).

Team Structures

One key finding continually arising during NUD.IST coding was that teams were a fundamental component of the personnel management process. The importance of teams was reinforced when findings showed that teams operated at two levels within the AOTC and AFOGP: the organisational level where full-time personnel were part of one broad management team; and the departmental level where full-time, outsource and seasonal personnel were part of specialist teams.

Organisational level.

At both organisations, informants reported the CEO established an overall goal that was clear to all full-time personnel. Respective informants commented favourably that a common organisational goal assisted in creating a team environment. As confirmed by one informant "We all belong to one team because we're all aiming for the same result: to have everything ready; have the tournament up and running on time; and have it successful".

Bolstered by this perception, informants believed in the need to understand each other's roles and work commitments, and to appreciate each member and 'pitch in' to help when required. Ensuring personnel were motivated and responsible for their actions, assisted towards achieving this common goal. One notable example was from one informant who described, "at a launch of the AFOGP event, the wind blew up and the flag lying on an oval began blowing out of control. Within minutes, everyone including the CEO, took off their shoes and assisted to stabilise the flag". Such conduct supported the view that teams have a shared purpose: a reputation to

keep; share a common fate (Pinchot, 1993); and are accountable for their actions (Russ, 1997).

Departmental level.

As seen in the organisational charts, Figures 16 and 17, functional areas worked together as teams. That is, the AOTC linked roles together to form teams, such as the Tournament Administration Manager who manages the Receptionist, the Administration Assistant, and the Site and Tournament Coordinator. Together, these roles formed the Tournament Administration team. In contrast, the AFOGP had department teams, such as the Marketing department and the Commercial department. Despite this structural difference, the approach to managing teams was similar. The existence of departmental teams complements Getz's (1992) research, where it was found that a team should be appointed to each management role.

To cater for the small, cross-disciplinary temporary teams, the findings revealed three strategies for managing departmental teams within both organisations: inducting new members; creating a team atmosphere; and re-establishing teams.

When discussing the first strategy, inducting new members, informants emphasised the immediate need to include these members into teams. However, this was not practiced within either organisation. The majority of AFOGP full-time informants did not feel part of the department team until after they had participated in a major sport event. This could be referred to as an initiation period, whereby once an event was conducted, these new members were then considered fully fledged team members. This view was encapsulated by one informant in the following statement:

> You don't tend to gain credibility until you've been here and done an event. That's a sort of benchmark. So until you've proven yourself time-wise and event-wise, you sort of tend to be shunted off to the side a bit. And it can be a very difficult place to work. Once you get over that there is a very strong team mentality.

Furthermore, every seasonal informant felt a sense of not belonging to department teams. This was reinforced by the lack of team induction they received. One typical seasonal informant response "there is a need for each department teams to conduct a meeting immediately after a new member is appointed. This would make the person feel more involved, part of the team and understand other member's role". The absence of team induction for seasonal managers, corresponds with the absence of a seasonal personnel induction process, identified within the preceding section of this chapter.

The second strategy for managing teams at a department level was to create a team atmosphere. However, due to the nature of major sport events, informants believed teams had a tendency to form naturally because of the atmosphere it created. For example, seasonal personnel arrived during a dynamic time, when a lot of activity is performed and working long hours with other members is required. During this time, seasonal informants recognised it was easy to 'cross pollinate' with full-time and outsource team members. According to informants, even though long hours were not stipulated, everyone performed them, and with complementary dinner, personnel were encouraged to socialise with other team members.

However, informants admitted the difficulty in making seasonal personnel, who were employed during the limited event days, feel part of a team. As one seasonal informant explained, seasonal personnel were "basically designated a job, performed it and went".

Findings revealed the arrival and departure of outsource and seasonal personnel from teams led to the final strategy, re-establishing teams for the following event. Informants noted the difficulty department managers had with this and recommended scheduled meetings throughout the year involving team members. Furthermore,

informants expressed the need for managers to better recognise long-term team members. Informants who had been employed in their respective organisation for over four events, said that when the same team existed after each event, changes needed to be made so new initiatives and challenges developed. This was an important point because changes can ensure the team better develops and members looked forward to participating in the following event.

Table 17 summarises the key findings from NUD.IST on team structures within the AOTC and AFOGP. Two levels of teams operated: the organisational level, and the department level. For example, the organisation as a whole operated as a team in order to achieve the final result, a successful event. On the other hand, the Commercial department operated as a team in order to achieve specific sponsorship deals. Each of these levels contained strategies for managing teams.

Table 17. Managing the team structure within the AOTC and AFOGP

Hierarchical level	Strategy
Organisational	Form a common goal
Department	Induct new members Create an atmosphere Re-establish teams

Fluctuating Personnel

The interviews highlighted how a range of personnel, who arrive and depart at various times, and form temporary teams for the purpose of an event, has impacted on the management practices of managers. Two findings from NUD.IST revealed that managers needed to be flexible, and to consider the variety of personnel. If these considerations were not taken, the research found that employee dissatisfaction could result.

Be flexible.

Informants emphasised that when managing teams, the ability to handle change. within teams was required. Informants indicated that during the lead-up to their respective event, the number of personnel increased within department teams. due to outsource and seasonal personnel becoming involved. For example, at the AOTC, one informant said that a department "team increases greatly from one person to ninety during the tournament". Therefore, findings revealed that managers needed to have a flexible approach with team members. An informant explained that achieving flexibility means having the ability "to handle changes, work with others, and be flexible in what they (managers) do".

These results further demonstrated the difference between generic organisations and pulsating major sport event organisations. Generic management researchers (Marquis & Huston, 1992; Stoner et al., 1994) acknowledged that it is important to ensure team members remain the same. However, this is not the case for the AOTC and AFOGP, whereby team stability is not affected by the variety of personnel entering and exiting the team at different stages of the event. This reinforces the necessity, of identifying tailored strategies for managing teams, for pulsating major sport event organisations.

Consider the variety of personnel.

The pulsating nature of the AOTC and AFOGP created the complexity of managing a range of employment groups. Informants from each personnel category held a different view regarding how to manage teams that contained a variety of personnel. A popular practice by full-time informants was to ensure personnel on varied salaries and contract conditions worked effectively together. They stressed the need for

managers to recognise and work hard at bridging the gaps between personnel within a team. As summarised and practiced by one informant:

> As a manager, there is a need to try and dissolve the issue of full-time versus seasonal. I get involved with my team, I get my hands dirty, have regular meetings, constantly follow up, type a newsletter, and hold a barbecue at the end. It's the little perks that help.

Outsource informants from the AFOGP, recognised that their presence at AFOGP meetings throughout the year, assisted in bridging the gap between outsource and full-time personnel. As one informant expressed "being included in team meetings shows that department managers value our opinions for the next event". This was not evident at the AOTC, as no outsource informant commented on such team meetings.

The findings continually suggested that seasonal personnel felt 'left out'. One such example was that seasonal informants believed that managers did not consider the different needs and expectations of the varied team members. Such evidence indicated a clear distinction between full-time, outsource and seasonal personnel within teams. This confirmed the importance of considering *all* personnel categories when managing teams. It also supported research that showed heterogeneous groups often have communication problems, relational conflict and low levels of team identity (Earley & Mosakowski, 2000).

In summary, results revealed that when managing teams of fluctuating personnel, managers at the AOTC and AFOGP were flexible, however, they often failed to consider the variety of personnel within their teams.

Team Building

The existence of temporary teams comprising a range of personnel, created the necessity for specialised team building strategies. The key team building findings

from NUD.IST identified three specialised strategies: forming team morale. developing a sense of family, and conducting meetings were necessary strategies performed by informants.

Form a team morale.

Many full-time informants indicated that morale building was used as a tool for developing teams. High levels of morale were created by managers: conducting dinners a couple of times throughout the year; providing informal drinks on a Friday night; organising functions after the major event; and establishing fortnightly meetings with their team members. Informants suggested additional strategies that should occur for building team morale: having 'team of the day' or 'team of the event' awards. Outsource and seasonal informants did not believe their full-time managers did much to enhance team morale. However, they believed in its importance.

The findings revealed that team morale building was evident with full-time members, however, absent with outsource and seasonal members. This indicates the need to include *all* members within team building activities, in order to enhance team morale and encourage communication.

Develop a sense of family.

When building teams, full-time informants constantly referred to the term "family". For example, after a day at the major event, department managers or coordinators would have a social drink with their full-time team members. Evidence suggested these actions further developed teams and assisted with retaining members for the following event, as stated by one informant, "returning team members would arrive saying 'it's great to see you again'". These actions transformed contractual relationships into genuine collaboration (Browne in Prokesch, 1997).

In contrast, outsource or seasonal informants did not mention this sense of family, which serves to raise doubts about strong interpersonal relations developing amongst *all* personnel. The original concept of teams described as a family working together (Peters, 1993), may be relevant to all personnel however, but only practiced with full-time personnel.

Establish meetings.

The general informant consensus, was that meetings were vital in building bridges between managers, coordinators and assistants who were full-time, outsource or seasonal personnel. For the purpose of an event, full-time informants spoke of flexible meeting times, whereby the Organising Committee met approximately every six weeks, which changed to monthly then weekly prior to the event. Furthermore, there were weekly departmental meetings. One informant summarised these meetings as "basically a communication flow, keeping everyone together and in the loop". According to full-time informants, these two types of meetings assisted with dissolving possible team problems and ensured everyone was informed on departmental activities.

However, prior to an event, weekly meetings were not reported by AOTC outsource or seasonal informants, or by an AFOGP seasonal informant. One representative informant response was "there is a lack of team meetings". This evidence suggested that weekly meetings at the AOTC were only conducted with full-time personnel and inconsistently conducted at the AFOGP with seasonal personnel.

Table 18 summarises the strategies managers incorporated when team building. The three most popular strategies were ensuring there was high team morale, a sense of family, and meetings.

Table 18. Strategies for team building within the AOTC and AFOGP

Issue	Strategy
Team building	Promote high team morale Develop a sense of family Establish meetings

Facilitation

To manage a variety of personnel in a team, all with different needs, attitudes and expertise, resulted in the NUD.IST code facilitation. Informants believed that as facilitators managers should be aware of personnel 'burn out'; reinforce the shared vision; keep the team continually informed of issues; trust team member responsibility; be approachable; and delegate to encourage ownership. These examples exemplify common traits of the facilitator role that informants believed were practiced: developing a 'care factor', and providing direction and resources. This facilitation role, is supported by research, which has emphasised the need for managers to act as facilitators (Narasimha, 2000) and encourage teams to take responsibility and feel responsible for their own actions when involved in events (Fonda, 1995; Niepce & Molleman, 1998).

Develop a 'care factor'.

The 'care factor' was demonstrated during the lead-up and throughout the two events. Informants reported it involved taking the time to talk to personnel: understanding and assisting with achieving individuals' motives; turning disasters into something positive; ensuring the team helped to resolve problems; and together put "out the grass fires". This type of management demonstrated strong relationship-oriented practices (Kathuria, 1999).

Provide direction and resources.

Another common facilitator strategy was the need to ensure team members were provided with direction and the required resources. For example, one informant

explained, "the department manager provides personnel with job descriptions and an on-site manual. Then it is up to team members to effectively perform their roles". This fortified the concept of self-managed teams (Ancona et al., 1996). These teams were problem solvers, made daily decisions on tasks performed and were responsible for their projects.

However, there seemed to be some confusion regarding the facilitation by seasonal informants. In general, they believed there was a lack of team facilitation from their department manager. Informants frequently reported on how they facilitated their own teams. For example, one informant reported how he "produced team photos and displayed them in a meeting area", another informant emphasised the importance of "having an attitude that 'everybody is only as good as the next person'". In light of these responses by seasonal employees, it became obvious that seasonal informants expected their department managers to facilitate their team in a similar and consistent manner. Evidence signified the importance of department managers discussing with team members how they would like to be facilitated, in order to ensure team satisfaction.

Evaluation

When managing teams at the AOTC and AFOGP, the most common evaluation code arising from the NUD.IST program was feedback. However, findings also revealed a notable absence of managers monitoring team progress, which was a strategy highly recommended by outsource and seasonal informants.

Provide feedback.

The intensity and dedication from personnel leading up to, during and after an event impacted on informants from both organisations. As a result they recognised the

importance of receiving 'pats on the back' and gaining feedback on their teams' success from respective management committees, fellow managers and team members. The most common types of feedback reported were debrief team meetings and management post-event debriefs.

Department debrief team meetings involved all full-time and outsource managers. During these meetings, topics such as personnel, clients and products, were discussed. Inconsistent debriefs were performed with seasonal managers. On one hand, some seasonal informants acknowledged they individually had a post-event debrief meeting with their respective department manager, on the other hand, others responded with a shrug of the shoulders, "no one has evaluated me yet". Seasonal informants believed they had valuable input and needed to be involved in these debrief team meetings. As stated by one informant "Being included in debrief team meetings would make me feel appreciated and my opinions important". This finding indicated the need to formulate a more stringent method of team evaluation.

Within both organisations, management post-event debriefs involved a 'get away' debrief for full-time personnel. As explained by one informant at the AFOGP, "several weeks after an event, a two day session is conducted away from the office environment. We identify improvement areas for outsourcers, job specifications of all personnel, and possible training requirements".

Monitor team progress.

Outsource and seasonal informants emphasised that, excepting the AFOGP on-site department teams, department managers failed to ask and inform team members about the progression of team goals, roles and responsibilities during the event. This failure led to communication breakdowns.

Organisational inertia could be one explanation for neglecting team evaluation. The AOTC had been operating for 33 years and with its event becoming more successful each year, an attitude had developed that the management of personnel teams was also a success. On the other hand, the AFOGP was in its fifth year of operation and with the event also becoming more successful each year. management may have believed that no guidance was required.

In summary, to cater for the influx of personnel leading up to and during an event, and the contraction of personnel within a limited timeframe after an event, evaluating teams at the AOTC and AFOGP comprised feedback and monitoring team progress.

Reviewing the Management of Teams at the AOTC and AFOGP

The fluctuation of personnel numbers in temporary teams comprising a range of personnel impacted on how teams at the AOTC and AFOGP were managed. Key findings from NUD.IST revealed five vital issues associated with managing teams: team structures, fluctuating personnel. team building. facilitation and evaluation. Each of these issues had tailored management strategies to cater for the pulsating nature of these teams, these are illustrated in Table 19. Apart from the AOTC not establishing meetings with outsourcers, there were many similarities between the two organisations. Table 19 highlights the differences between personnel categories for each of these issues, the most notable being the neglect of seasonal personnel. These personnel were involved in two of the thirteen strategies, outsource personnel were included in eight strategies and full-time personnel were involved in all thirteen.

Table 19. Strategies for managing teams at the AOTC and AFOGP

Strategies	Full-time	Outsource		Seasonal
Team structure Organisational level Form a common goal	✓	X		X
Department level Induct new members	✓	✓		X
Create an atmosphere	✓	✓		✓
Re-establish teams	✓	✓		X
Fluctuating personnel Be flexible	✓	✓		✓
Consider the variety of personnel	✓	X		X
Team building Provide team morale	✓	X		X
Develop a sense of family	✓	X		X
Establish meetings	✓	AOTC X	AFOGP ✓	X
Facilitation Develop a 'care factor'	✓	✓		X
Provide direction and resources	✓	✓		X
Evaluation Provide feedback Debrief team meetings	✓	✓		X
Management post-event debrief	✓	X		X
Monitor team progress	✓	X		X

Note. ✓ = occurring; X = not occurring

Due to the pulsating nature of the AOTC and AFOGP event, emphasis was placed on teams of varied personnel. A common informant response was to include all team members and get them involved. As identified earlier in this section, one informant stated "there is a need to try and dissolve the issue of full-time versus seasonal". However, these organisations failed to recognise their pulsating characteristics and this resulted in the absence of consistent management strategies for all team members. Table 19 illustrates how two strategies were incorporated for all team members, these were creating a team atmosphere, and being flexible. Notably, full-time personnel were considered in all team strategies, whereas seasonal personnel were neglected for the majority of team strategies. In addition, there was an obvious absence of team building strategies incorporated for outsource and seasonal personnel. This absence verifies why outsource and seasonal informants made numerous recommendations concerning the management of teams. One important recommendation, was the need to monitor team progress, in order to ensure the progression of team goals, roles and responsibilities. Findings revealed the need for a stringent evaluation process, thereby creating consistent team strategies for *all* members.

The identification of team strategies for the two studied pulsating major sport event organisations was important information. Past research, has not recognised such a range of strategies for managing teams, nor has it determined what strategies have been tailored for full-time, outsource and seasonal personnel. When comparing the strategies in Table 19, which highlight that due to the pulsating nature of major sport events, numerous tailored strategies are required, to those for major sport event organisations in the literature review, where the pulsating nature was not considered, a stark contrast is evident. The information gathered from the literature review

provided a generalist and minimalist approach. However, three similar strategies between the two tables are evident: forming a common goal, being flexible, and ensuring communication. A summary of the literature review strategies is illustrated in Table 20.

Table 20. Strategies for managing teams, in pulsating major sport event organisations, identified in the literature review

Strategies	
Be adaptable	Be flexible
Ensure communication	Have a team approach
Develop team ownership	Form a common purpose

The field research's finding highlighted that managing teams at the AOTC and AFOGP, was more complex than the literature reported (refer to Table 19 and 20). The need to ensure a consistent team approach, reinforced the importance of managers having a guide that outlined strategies required for managing teams at the AOTC and AFOGP.

Conclusion

Managing teams at the AOTC and AFOGP was a complex task. The results indicated how a range of personnel, who arrive and depart at various times in their temporary teams for the purpose of an event, has impacted on the management of teams. The special characteristics of these teams highlighted the point that managing teams within the two pulsating major sport event organisations was more demanding than generic organisations, primarily due to the instability and complexity of personnel.

The findings revealed that teams were an important mechanism for delivering high quality sport events. The advantages of teams were overwhelming, for example, teams helped create a positive atmosphere; a sense of family; and fostered a team morale. This was despite the disadvantages of teams raised by informants, such as

their high maintenance; and for full-time personnel not feeling part of the team until after having participated in an event.

Despite the complexities and advantages associated with these teams, there was a notable absence of documents to guide managers in managing teams at either organisation. This may explain why there were inconsistent team strategies being practiced. More specifically, evidence revealed that due to time constraints and the influx of seasonal personnel, incorporating team strategies for all personnel was a daunting task. As a result, seasonal personnel were neglected in many of the team strategies. This research has revealed that management strategies are necessary for *all* team members at the two pulsating major sport event organisations. By identifying how these teams are managed, a guide could be established for managers to assist with the complexity of managing these specialised teams at the AOTC and AFOGP.

Having determined how the pulsating nature of the AOTC and AFOGP impacted on managing teams, and highlighted the issues and specialised strategies that event managers practiced, the next section reveals how the pulsating nature of these two organisations impacted the retention strategies of personnel.

Stage Five: Retaining Personnel
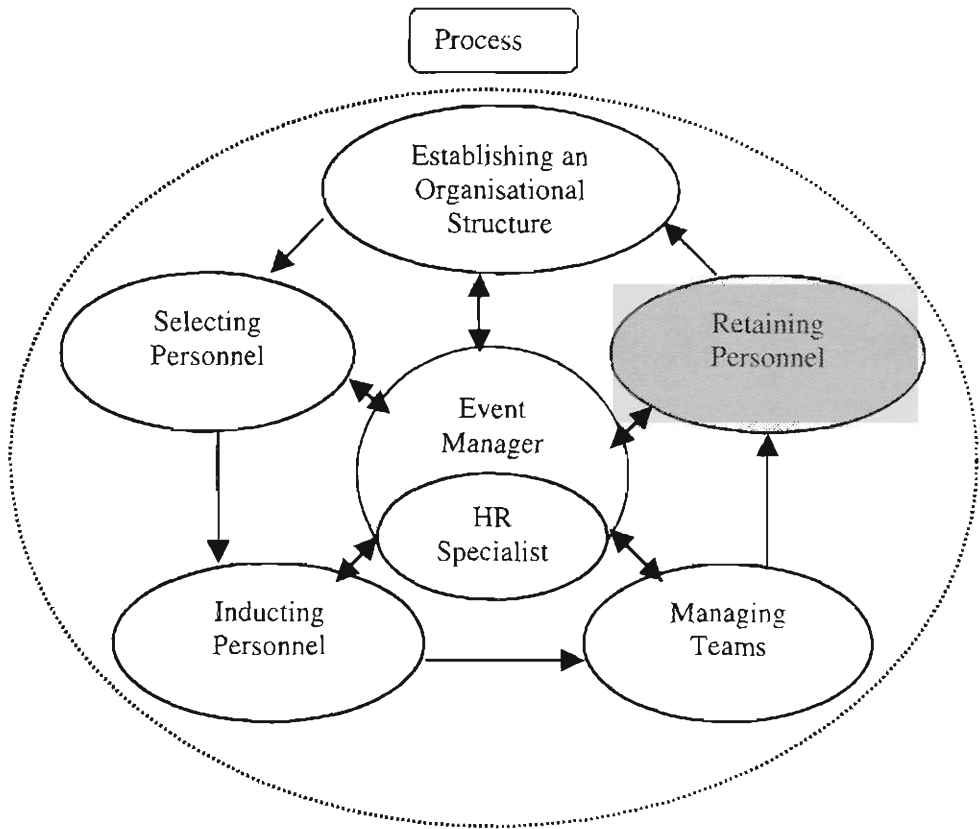
Figure 27. Towards a HR framework: retaining personnel

The Extent of Retaining Personnel

Unlike generic organisations, the pulsating nature of major sport event organisations require a small core of full-time personnel, and an influx of varied personnel arrive leading up to and during an event. This signified that different retention strategies are required for each type of organisation due to their special characteristics.

Informants from the AOTC and AFOGP, continually emphasised that personnel contribute to the success of the event, and if personnel were to depart before the event is concluded, the event itself could be jeopardised. Furthermore, as depicted in NUD.IST, another informant emphasis was that retaining personnel for the following event was also important, as it omitted selection, reduced the intensity of induction, and saved time when re-establishing teams.

In order to understand how the AOTC and AFOGP retained their core and peripheral personnel during the stages of the event cycle, the findings were divided into two parts within the NUD.IST program. The first, examined the factors that helped retain personnel overall, the second, identified specific strategies for each personnel category.

Factors for Retaining All Personnel

The findings revealed two strategies that were used to retain personnel at the AOTC and AFOGP. They included the status of each event, and the encouragement of ownership amongst personnel. In the case of the AOTC event, half-way strategies were incorporated to retain personnel until the events conclusion, and at the AFOGP, additional events throughout the year were used to retain personnel on a continual basis.

Events' status.

Every informant was passionate about their respective event and commented that they would do whatever it took to make it a success. Furthermore, all informants, including outsource and seasonal personnel, emphasised that despite full-time salaries not being as high as in other industries, they remained with the event because of their love of the sport and the glamour it accorded.

The common response was that being involved in world class high profile events that were staged for a limited period of time, "made the adrenal pump and created a memorable experience". Additional comments were "It has a great attraction – to be part of one of the biggest events in Australia", and "The tournament creates a fun environment, the hype of players, the media and the size of the event. When

personnel are not working, they are encouraged to watch the game, which assists in easing the pressure". One informant commented:

> It's a selfish thing. First they want to be known to be involved with the tournament, second they like the tournament because it treats them well and it's a fun place. They fight to come back, they love the interaction with players.

Due to the status of both events, informants reported that when full-time personnel departed, they obtained well regarded positions in the marketplace. Furthermore, if outsource or seasonal personnel terminated their contract, it was difficult to return due to the competitiveness of others wishing to gain employment at a prestigious event.

Due to the status of each event, outsource informants emphasised that their involvement contributed to their company's portfolio and helped create a reputable business name. For example, one outsource informant's company produced a promotional company video featuring managers from the major sport event organisation to demonstrate the company's successful involvement with a prestigious event. Another outsource informant commented that his company marketed itself as working for all the major sport events in Australia. Another outsource organisation derived its benefit from being associated with the event by rewarding its high achieving personnel with the opportunity to view the event in between shifts. Consequently, these event contracts were highly contested.

Ownership.

Ownership of designated roles for the event contributed towards personnel retention. The previously mentioned on-site manuals, which informants believed fostered personnel confidence in answering client questions, assisted this. Common strategies to encourage ownership included keeping personnel challenged, trying to empower personnel and ensuring that they were accountable for their actions. As one full-time

informant commented "you would go and ask somebody (personnel) about the event and they would respond as though they own it".

Informants provided other suggestions to further encourage ownership amongst personnel: increasing responsibility so that roles further developed, ensuring feedback was heard and recorded, making personnel feel part of the organisation and department, involving them in planning, and making them ambassadors for the event. These suggestions can be linked to the team morale building strategies informants recommended when managing teams. Another link from these suggestions is to the literature findings where personnel ownership of actions created a feeling of responsibility, and led to personnel retention (Morgan, 1992; Pinchot, 1993; Peiperl, 1997).

Half-way strategies.

With the AOTC being a two week event, compared to the AFOGP being a four day event, the AOTC incorporated retention strategies half-way through the event, in order to further motivate personnel. As summarised by one AOTC informant:

> It's very different from one week to the next. It's difficult to pump people up in the second week, therefore, additional strategies need to be performed. After the first week, the crowds have dispersed and so have the bulk of players and there seems to be a flatness amongst personnel.

Full-time informants provided examples of how they tried to avert this occurrence. One strategy was to perform half of the debriefing after the first week of the event. This involved examining personnel roles for the subsequent week and discussing motivational tactics. Another strategy was rostering team members so they had a day off for a break and could return refreshed. Another proposed half-way strategy was to take a team photograph.

It was interesting to note that full-time informants implemented half-way strategies unbeknown that other managers were doing likewise. This highlighted the

need to document strategies, in order to ensure a consistent approach throughout the organisation. A more holistic organisational approach may also reassure managers and provide them with new ideas.

Additional events.

The AOTC had one major event during the year, namely, the tennis tournament, whereas the AFOGP had two events, the Formula One Grand Prix and the Motorcycle Grand Prix. Informants from the AFOGP acknowledged that conducting two events during the year assisted with retention. However, no informants from the AOTC commented that organising one event for the year caused retention problems. One reason may be due to the organisation's permanent venue. When the event is not held, concert performances allocate complimentary tickets to tennis personnel. This raises the possibility that an organisation conducting one annual event at a non-permanent venue may have more retention issues, compared to an organisation with more than one event or an organisation at a permanent venue.

Evaluation of Responses to Personnel Retention Strategies

The AOTC and AFOGP had a range of employment groups, all with different needs, attitudes and expertise. This has implications for the strategies event managers used to retain personnel. One of the key findings for this stage of the management process was the need to apply tailored retention strategies for each category of personnel.

Full-Time Personnel

One retention challenge arising from the NUD.IST coding analysis, that distinguished full-time personnel at these two pulsating major sport event organisations from

generic organisations, was retaining full-time personnel after the event, when the hype and pressure on which personnel thrived tended to deflate. As stated by informants "after the event we have a couple of days to catch up on sleep and then walk aimlessly around the office" and "a lot of staff depart a couple of months after the event. This is because you walk down the same path, to the same event, at the same place, and although the people may change, you're still doing the same job". Full-time informants described this down stage after an event as when the peak had dropped off and no pressure or deadlines existed. They explained that before the event, everyone was well supported, then after the event a gap developed and no management guidance was evident. In order to rectify this problem, performance appraisals (PA) and career management programs were implemented a couple of months after the event. Furthermore, selecting personnel, providing remuneration, and exit interviews were notable retention contributors incorporated by either the AOTC or the AFOGP. However, informants reported that managers generally neglected team retention.

Performance appraisals (PA).

These appraisals were conducted with full-time personnel at the AOTC and AFOGP a couple of months into the 'down' stage of an event. The appraisals comprised feedback from managers and their respective employees and were performed annually or sometimes twice annually with personnel. As a result of appraisals and following discussions between the manager and CEO, a decision was made as to the level of employee promotion, salary and operational performance.

However, informants were concerned that there was no collective analysis of data from the appraisals, which could result in re-occurring personnel issues. Such concern signified the need for managers to consider and act upon collective PA results and ensure personnel were aware of the actions taken. For example, a lack of

computer skills amongst personnel could result in a computer training program being conducted for personnel within the organisation.

Career management programs.

Despite informants from both organisations acknowledging the importance of career management programs, it was only incorporated at the AFOGP. This program was derived from the PA. However, informants believed the program did not effectively allow personnel the opportunity to grow within the organisation according to their interests whilst creating new challenges. This was due to the lack of management follow-up because the programs were "simply filed away". Informants had a range of suggestions for improving career management programs.

Informants indicated that when designing these programs, there was the need to be aware of individual motives. This would allow personnel to reflect and identify what they wanted from their job and determine their reasons for staying. Informants advised that career management programs should be created for the length of the person's employment contract. For example, if a person had a two year contract, then a two year career management program should be designed in order to adequately develop their role over the period. These career opportunities have been reported to be one of the best forms of retaining personnel (Denton. 1992; Prickett. 1998).

Updated job descriptions.

Results indicated that updated job descriptions served two purposes. First, by continually updating the description, personnel received increased responsibilities and developed new competencies. Thus it became part of a career management program. Second, with an updated job description and a new person required for the job, a more objective assessment of candidates could be made, thus making personnel selection an easier process. These findings were consistent with literature findings that also

reported on the relationship between updated job descriptions and personnel retention (Slack, 1997; Smith & Stewart, 1999; Torkildsen, 1992).

To ensure the success of job descriptions, the common suggestion made by full-time informants, from both organisations, was to ensure that the description was constantly amended and refined, when personnel depart, or when jobs were transformed throughout the year.

Selecting personnel.

Informants believed that retaining full-time personnel was dependent on how they were selected. On one hand, there was the need to appoint experienced people. on the other, the need to appoint young, smart, dynamic people who were on their way up within the sport or event industry. The most common recommendation was to appoint experienced people.

Remuneration.

Both organisations provided full-time personnel with tickets to the event, a week off during the year as free time, and invitations to social functions. Full-time personnel at the AOTC were also encouraged to attend related international or interstate events to gain a broader perspective. Another benefit was that the AFOGP recognised full-time employment years at the organisation. For example with car parking. personnel who had been employed for a certain period of time, regardless of their status, had access to the limited number of car spaces available. At the AFOGP. payment was another retention strategy. During the 'down' stage, thank you loyalty payments were distributed to full-time personnel.

From the responses gathered, remuneration was reported to be provided on an ad hoc basis. Informants emphasised the need for a more standardised procedure.

Exit interviews.

Exit interviews were performed for AFOGP full-time personnel. However, full-time informants from both organisations emphasised the importance of receiving feedback from *all* departing personnel. This was to ensure they left on satisfactory terms and that they provided recommendations for the employee taking their position. This was consistent with Cooke (1997) who referred to exit interviews as an effective form of evaluation.

Team Retention.

Informants recognised that the management of teams finished abruptly after the event. Consequently, a gap existed and informants emphasised the need to close this gap to further enhance team relationships and retain full-time personnel.

Informants believed that the Management board needed to provide positive reinforcement such as sending a telegram congratulating managers on their performance and effort, and developing a thank you process after the event to create a springboard for planning the next event. Furthermore, managers needed to provide more direction, and be aware of what attracted full-time personnel to remain in their positions.

Outsource Personnel

When considering the needs, attitudes and expertise of outsource personnel, two findings were revealed that assisted event managers with retaining these personnel: long-term contracts and recognising outsource personnel contributions.

Long-term contracts.

Findings revealed not only did long-term contracts assist in reducing induction time, they were also a useful retention strategy for outsource personnel. In particular, the

AFOGP contracts were clear, detailed and there was an understanding that everyone was working together to obtain the final result (Australian Grand Prix Corporation, 1998, July). However, informants from both organisations believed contracts needed to be monitored, to be fair, have a reasonable return for outsourcers, and have standard arrangements in order to result in a win-win situation. This was consistent with Narasimha's (2000) research on the link between long-term tenure for personnel and team retention.

Recognition.

One successful recognition strategy viewed by outsource informants was the appreciation letter they received from their CEO after the event. In addition, having the respective department manager visit outsource managers during the dismantling stage after the event and thanking them for their efforts contributed towards satisfaction and retention. Outsource informants believed this signified that they had not been forgotten after the hype of the event.

To further improve recognition, outsource informants suggested that they remain for approximately two weeks after the event for debriefing sessions and reports. As a result, these personnel would be eager to return to the following event knowing their ideas may further contribute to the future event success. Another recommendation was that outsource representatives be part of a working group throughout the year, ensuring the passage of information between both parties was clear, open, participative and consultative. Catherwood and VanKirk (1992) had also recognised the necessity for maintaining contact with personnel throughout the year. They believed remuneration would result in reducing induction for the subsequent event, with personnel possibly returning with new initiatives.

Seasonal Personnel

Simply expressed by one seasonal informant, "retention rates are just about whether you feel appreciated or not". In order to achieve this in a pulsating environment, findings revealed three popular retention strategies practiced by event managers: providing remuneration, subsequent event strategies, and exit surveys.

Remuneration.

Remuneration was provided for seasonal personnel during and after the event. During the event, examples included receiving event tickets, meal tickets, manageable shifts, sunscreen and a hat. After the event, benefit strategies included appreciation certificates and a thank you function.

Seasonal informants recognised the need to improve remuneration during the event by ensuring that seasonal personnel were part of a team, were effectively communicated with and listened to, that managers immediately acted upon complaints and conducted daily debriefs, and that there was an appropriate management structure.

Subsequent event strategies.

There was difficulty in retaining seasonal personnel for the following event due to other employment commitments. To reduce some of this difficulty, the AOTC and AFOGP employed university students who were interested in the related area and conveniently, both major sport events were held during the university semester breaks. These students remained as employees at their respective organisation, until completing their degrees, or gaining a full-time position. One of the seasonal informants was a student who explained this retention strategy "for me retention is pay and developing contacts for future employment".

The findings revealed the AOTC and AFOGP did not effectively or consistently maintain contact with seasonal personnel throughout the year. Consequently,

informants provided suggestions to improve this contact: sending Christmas cards, birthday cards, and the organisation's newsletter, conducting team meetings during the year, and maintaining a personal relationship so that seasonal personnel could call during the year and easily speak to the requested person.

Another suggestion to retain seasonal personnel for the following event, which was highly recommended by seasonal informants, was allowing flexibility within positions. For example, knowing there was the possibility of working for a different department at the next event. Enabling flexibility within seasonal positions was comparable with full-time career management programs, as personnel could become multi-skilled and expand their skill-base for future employment opportunities. These results confirmed that flexibility within positions can encourage retention (Cooke, 1997). Furthermore, multi-skilling employees, led to increasing responsibility and decision-making power (Warn, 1994).

These findings further reinforced the need to incorporate evaluation in order to ensure the satisfaction of personnel. In this case, the number of recommendations made by seasonal informants, highlighted significant gaps in evaluating retention at the AOTC and AFOGP.

Exit surveys.

The AOTC distributed exit surveys to seasonal personnel (Australian Open Tennis Championship, 1997a). These surveys were distributed during the final days of the event. One full-time informant justified the distribution as "this was to ensure everyone has received one and to save sending 3,000 surveys out via the mail". The timing for distributing surveys failed to follow Freedman's (1997) recommendation that surveys should be conducted at least a week and no more than a month after an event.

Reviewing the Retention of Personnel at the AOTC and AFOGP

The key retention findings showed that event managers, to cater for the varied personnel who had different needs, attitudes and expertise, practiced tailored strategies. The event's status and ensuring personnel felt they owned their respective roles were popular contributors towards retaining personnel, which is illustrated in Table 21. Different strategies across the organisations have also been identified: half-way strategies and exit surveys at the AOTC, and additional events, career management programs, and exit interviews at the AFOGP. One neglected factor that full-time informants recognised as important, was for managers to create retention strategies for teams during the 'down' stage after an event. This was suggested as useful for enhancing team relationships and helping retain full-time personnel.

Table 21 identifies the range of retention strategies used for full-time personnel, compared to the few conducted for outsource and seasonal personnel.

Table 21: Retention strategies at the AOTC and AFOGP

Full-time Personnel	*Outsource Personnel*	*Seasonal Personnel*
Event's status Ownership Half way strategies (AOTC) Additional events (AFOGP)		
Performance appraisals Updated job descriptions Selecting personnel Remuneration Team retention Career management programs (AFOGP) Exit interviews (AFOGP)	Long-term contracts Recognition	Subsequent event strategies Remuneration Exit surveys (AOTC)

When comparing these results with those from the literature review (summarised in Table 22), similar findings emerged. That is, remuneration, recognition, ownership and evaluation are all key requirements for retaining personnel. Vision was the only retention strategy not incorporated at the AOTC and AFOGP, however, forming a common goal was a strategy in the previous section: Managing Teams.

Table 22. Literature review findings of retention strategies for pulsating major sport event organisations

Retention strategies	
Remuneration	Responsibility and ownership
Recognition	Evaluation
Vision	

Results from this research extended the findings from the literature review and catered for the pulsating effect attributed at the AOTC and AFOGP. For example, incorporating PA and career management programs during the down stage after the event for full-time personnel; ensuring long-term contracts are available for effective outsource organisations; and providing subsequent event strategies and remuneration for seasonal personnel. These issues further distinguished pulsating major sport event organisations from generic organisations. Evidence has revealed that if tailored retention strategies for each personnel category were not performed at a particular time at the AOTC and AFOGP, informant dissatisfaction occurred. In many cases, these personnel departed from their respective organisation.

Conclusion

The results from the data analysis identified that due to the pulsating nature of the AOTC and AFOGP, special retention challenges arose, which impacted the strategies

practiced by event managers. These challenges included to ensure all personnel gained ownership of the event; and to incorporate tailored retention strategies for full-time, outsource and seasonal personnel. Two steps were necessary for determining these strategies. First, was identifying *when* retention strategies needed to be incorporated. For example, the necessity to implement retention strategies after an event for full-time personnel, and throughout the year for outsource and seasonal personnel. Second, was determining *what* strategies were required and considered effective for each personnel category. This further highlighted the difference between generic organisations and pulsating major sport event organisations, where retention strategies were tailored according to the organisation's specialised requirements.

The results from this research were important, particularly because the AOTC and AFOGP did not have operational documentation for event managers on how to retain their team of full-time, outsource and seasonal personnel.

Summary

The aim of this research was to examine how the pulsating nature of major sport events impact on the management practices of event managers. The interviews and documentary analysis found that due to the pulsating nature of the AOTC and AFOGP, special challenges for managers emerged. These challenges arose from the unique characteristics of the two pulsating organisations, which are listed in Table 23. In particular, each organisation utilised full-time, outsource, and seasonal personnel, who had different needs, attitudes and expertise, and were placed in temporary work teams. There was a small core of full-time personnel, and the majority of personnel were peripheral (outsource and seasonal) who had a limited contract. Thus an

expansion and contraction of personnel numbers occurred within these teams of varied personnel. The research findings revealed additional characteristics. That is, personnel were motivated using tailored strategies, there was a heavy dependence on peripheral personnel, teams fluctuated in personnel numbers, and the event operated in four stages.

Table 23. Personnel characteristics to consider within the AOTC and AFOGP

Characteristics
Full-time, outsource, and seasonal personnel
Personnel with different needs, attitudes, expertise and motivations
Temporary work teams
Expansion and contraction of personnel
Small core of full-time personnel
Heavy dependence on peripheral personnel
Limited peripheral personnel contract time
Teams of varied personnel
Teams fluctuate in personnel numbers
Event cycle – leading up to, during, and after an event, and throughout the year

The special characteristics of the AOTC and AFOGP have impacted on the management practices of event managers. As a result, these practices have become tailored to cater for the pulsating nature of the major sport events. However, evidence has revealed that one re-occurring finding was the different treatment outsource and seasonal personnel received compared to full-time personnel. For example, a haphazard approach of selection was performed for seasonal personnel, and fewer retention strategies were incorporated for all peripheral personnel. One reason could be that the enormity of seasonal personnel required for an event could be

overwhelming and with limited time leading up to the event for selecting personnel, this resulted in a rushed process for event managers. Another reason could be that the status of the event is so great and with outsource and seasonal personnel on limited contract time, there was no need to implement a number of retention strategies, for the event itself retained these personnel. However, data revealed that this neglected treated was noted by peripheral personnel, which resulted in negative attitudes developing towards the respective organisation. The heavy reliance the AOTC and AFOGP had on outsource and seasonal personnel, strongly indicated the need for these organisations to improve the management of stages of the HR process, in order to cater for the range of needs, attitudes, expertise and motivations for *all* personnel categories.

The interviews and documentary analysis confirmed that there were five main stages in managing personnel at the AOTC and AFOGP namely, establishing organisational structures; selecting personnel; inducting personnel; managing teams; and retaining personnel. The results also showed that each of these stages was customised to the pulsating nature of these two organisations. The results of the study consequently reinforced the differences between the way generic organisations and pulsating major sport event organisations are managed.

The first stage, establishing an organisational structure, identified that a significant structural change was required to pulsating organisations in order to accommodate the additional personnel required to deliver the event. That is, the complexities became greater for this type of organisation and a structure was required that: facilitated a wide range of personnel categories working together; was simple to understand; flexible; and decentralised to allow for multi-skilled career advancement.

The second stage, selecting personnel, examined the importance of incorporating core competencies and a formalised selection process, to assist managers in selecting personnel in various categories. Different procedures were required to select full-time, outsource and seasonal personnel. However, due to an influx of personnel within a limited period of time, a haphazard approach of selecting seasonal personnel was evident within both organisations.

The third stage, inducting personnel, explored the necessity for inducting new and returning personnel; individually inducting each personnel category; and incorporating manuals and active group sessions, in order to cater for the influx of personnel. However, in general, there was a lack of managerial awareness regarding the induction process required within each personnel category.

The fourth stage, managing teams, highlighted the instability and complexity of teams within these two pulsating organisations. When managing teams, there was the need to individually consider full-time, outsource and seasonal personnel, and the fluctuation of peripheral personnel, all with different needs, attitudes and expertise. However, within both organisations, there was little assistance to guide managers with this complex task.

The final stage, retaining personnel, revealed that due to the pulsating nature of the AOTC and AFOGP, special retention challenges emerged to ensure all personnel gained ownership of the event; and to incorporate specialised retention strategies for full-time, outsource and seasonal personnel. There was the need to identify what retention strategies were most appropriate for each personnel category and when they should be applied. However, fewer retention strategies were implemented for outsource and seasonal personnel.

Another key finding was that each stage of the HR process interacted with each other to create a holistic approach of the management process (Peters & Waterman, 1994). That is, in a progressive order, an interactive nature was evident between the stages. Having determined the specialised characteristics of personnel in major sport events, an organisational structure could be established. This provided an outline as to what personnel were required for what positions or teams, and as a result personnel could be selected. Once personnel were selected they were then inducted into the organisation and department teams. This led to the management practice of managing teams, with personnel being selected and inducted, teams were a vital component of these organisations, and they needed to be effectively managed. This stage composed the final stage of the HR process, retaining personnel. Retaining personnel highlighted the effectiveness of the organisational structure, omitted selection, reduced the intensity of induction, and saved time when re-establishing teams. The interactive nature of the stages reinforced their importance and order in the HR process model (Figure 4, Chapter 2).

In light of the characteristics and stages of the AOTC and AFOGP, the challenge then, was to design a benchmark of personnel management practices for event managers. This can result in a more consistent and equitable management process for *all* personnel, and make it an easier task for managers to manage personnel. This would identify the pulsating nature of major sport events, likely enhance the confidence of management practices by event managers, and improve the satisfaction of personnel. This framework is developed in the subsequent chapter.

Chapter Five: Conclusion

Introduction

The purpose of this research was to examine how the pulsating nature of major sport events impacts on the management practices of event managers. The primary aim was to determine how the nature of a pulsating major sport event impacts on management practices in each of the essential human resource stages. The secondary aim was to reveal the extent to which these management practices were tailored to the pulsating nature of events. The findings were then used to design a benchmark of personnel management practices, in order to determine how events can be more effectively managed in pulsating major sport event organisations.

The literature review and results identified characteristics specific to pulsating major sport event organisations. These characteristics created special challenges for event managers when managing personnel. For example, event managers were faced with managing varied personnel categories for limited periods, with many personnel arriving and departing at different times throughout the stages of an event cycle.

The literature review also identified five key HR stages suitable for generic and major sport event organisations: establishing an organisational structure, selecting personnel, inducting personnel, managing teams, and retaining personnel. These stages were assembled into a foundation framework (refer to Figure 4, Chapter 2). The framework became more detailed when the literature findings revealed a number of related issues for event managers to consider when managing each stage (see Figure 28). This figure was subsequently used to guide the analysis of the HR process associated with the AOTC and AFOGP. It was also used in the following discussion

to assist in determining a benchmark of personnel management practices for event

managers at the AOTC and AFOGP.

Input	Process	Output

Establishing an Organisational Structure
Design a flexible, flat, highly formalised structure that is innovative and regularly transforms internally; include teams of people in functional units

Selecting Personnel
Establish recruitment brief; identify candidates; interview using behavioural questions; select candidate; evaluate process

Retaining Personnel
Establish compensation payment; provide a vision, responsibility and ownership, recognition; evaluate process

Event Manager

HR Specialist

Major Sport Event

Inducting Personnel
Establish an organisational framework; create relationships; provide resources; evaluate process

Managing Teams
Establish adaptability, flexibility, communication, a team approach, team ownership, a common purpose; create self-managed teams; achieve performance, member satisfaction, team learning

Figure 28: An analytical framework for event managers when managing personnel in pulsating major sport event organisations

The result findings revealed that at the AOTC and AFOGP, personnel were managed in a similar manner, despite organisational differences. That is, practices for managing personnel were comparable.

The findings also revealed that due to the pulsating nature of the two studied organisations, a number of tailored management practices were implemented. At the same time, some of these tailored practices were haphazard and inconsistent. In addition, the pulsating nature of major sport events impacted on the management practices in each of the HR stages. As a result, the five stages identified in the literature review needed to be customised to cater for the pulsating effect. Documentary evidence supported informant reports that guidelines were rarely provided by their respective organisation, when considering suitable management practices. For example, there appeared to be little guidance as to the special nature of a pulsating major sport event organisation and how this would affect its management practices. This was despite the fact that event managers understood the uniqueness of their organisations. However, in many instances, this awareness was not translated into an event specific strategy. Consequently, the HR practices conducted by event managers were often haphazard and inconsistent for all personnel, and there were corresponding levels of dissatisfaction.

This chapter further synthesised and interpreted the research findings. In doing so, it will: reveal how the pulsating effect impacts on the HR process in pulsating major sport event organisations; recommend strategies for the effective management of personnel for each stage of the HR process; and, formulate a benchmark of management practices for event managers.

Similarities and Differences Between Pulsating Major Sport Event Organisations and Generic Organisations

The findings of this research identified that there are shared management practices between pulsating major sport event organisations and generic organisations, and some practices that are unique to pulsating major sport event organisations.

There were a number of similarities between the two studied pulsating major sport event organisations and generic organisations. First, both types of organisational structures cater for horizontal and vertical differentiation, formalisation, decentralisation, flexibility, and simplicity. Second, both types of organisations have similar HR processes and move through similar stages. These processes involve establishing an organisational structure; selecting personnel; inducting personnel; managing teams; and retaining personnel. Third, they both use mainstream selection methods. For example, working through a personnel agency; directly appointing candidates; appointing internally; and seeking tender submissions. Finally, they both use mainstream induction processes. For example, providing an organisational framework; establishing relationships; supplying resources; and conducting evaluation.

However, the differences between these two types of organisations outweigh the similarities. The dominant finding of this research was that the pulsating nature operating in these major sport event organisations directly impacted on the management practices for each of the five stages in the HR process. For example, due to the pulsating nature at the AOTC and AFOGP, specialised induction strategies are

required to cater for the influx of varied personnel who are new, permanent or returning. These included active group sessions and the individual induction of full-time, outsource and seasonal personnel. In addition, manuals, especially on-site manuals, were required for quick referral during an event in order to immediately answer personnel questions.

Management practices for managing teams were quite different between the two types of organisations. In generic organisations, it was important that members enter a team at the same time (Marquis & Huston, 1992; Stoner et al., 1994). However, managing teams in pulsating major sport event organisations can be more intense due to personnel entering and exiting teams at different stages of the event. Findings revealed the need to implement flexible and adaptable team strategies.

The management practices for retaining personnel were notably different between the two types of organisations. Instead of implementing generic retention strategies at the two studied sites, it was found that it was vital to determine what specialised strategies were required for each personnel category, and at what stage of the event cycle. For example, it was important to re-establish teams for full-time personnel during the trough stage of the event.

Evidence revealed that each *type* of organisation, has its own special characteristics, which affect the operationalisation of management practices. Consequently, a specialised HR process is required for major sport event organisations. If such a process is not formed, as this research has found, management practices can be inconsistent, haphazard, and personnel tend to become dissatisfied and may seek employment elsewhere.

Establishing an Organisational Structure

According to the literature, the key characteristics of an organisational structure for pulsating major sport event organisations, were a flat organisational management structure, a three-tiered internal management structure, and an emphasis on horizontal and vertical differentiation. These characteristics are presented in the left hand column of Table 24.

However, due to the characteristics, which arose from the pulsating nature of these organisations, the results of this study showed a more complex structural arrangement for the AOTC and AFOGP. It was found that the structure revolved around an operational cycle, a flat organisational management structure was evident throughout the year and this expanded leading up to and during an event. Furthermore, a four-tiered internal management structure existed, with an emphasis on horizontal and vertical differentiation. The structure was centralised for major decision-making, such as throughout the year and after an event, and decentralised for times leading up to and during the event. These characteristics are listed in the right hand column of Table 24.

Table 24. Comparison of literature review and research findings on pulsating major sport event organisational structures

Characteristics	
Literature review findings	*Research findings*
Flat organisational management structure	Flat throughout the year, expanded leading up to and during an event
Three-tiered internal management structure: managers, operators, and external support personnel	Four-tiered internal management structure: CEO, managers, coordinators, and assistants
Flexible	Flexible to cater for the stages of an event cycle: leading up to, during, and after an event, and throughout the year
Degree of differentiation: horizontal and vertical	Degree of differentiation: horizontal and vertical – to accommodate full-time, outsource and seasonal personnel
Formalised	Formalised
Decentralised, particularly during the event	Centralised – for major decision making Decentralised – leading up to and during the event
Innovative structure within a complex environment	Regularly transforming internal structure

The main finding was that the structure of pulsating major sport event organisations changes substantially during the year, primarily to accommodate the additional personnel required to deliver the event. Despite this finding, neither the AOTC nor AFOGP had documentation that recognised the changing annual organisational structure. Both organisations used traditional organisational charts that reflected the 'non-event' period of the year. This failure to reflect the reality of the pulsating situation often caused confusion and alienation for personnel during the peak event periods. For example, outsource and seasonal personnel did not feel that they were identified as contributors towards the event, because they were not recognised as part of a team in their organisation's structure.

It is consequently recommended, that in order to overcome this confusion, an organisational structure could be designed that incorporates the changes that occur during the year. Alternatively, a dual faceted organisational structure could be developed to represent the event operations for the purpose of an event and during the year.

A Recommended Flexible Expanded Organisational Structure

The research findings revealed that as a result of the pulsating effect of a major sport event, an organisational structure needs to accommodate the influx of varied personnel categories, arriving and departing at different times throughout an event cycle, who are located in department teams. The characteristics of this structure differentiated it from generic structures, which did not have these demands.

These findings were used as the basis for recommending a structure that embraces the changes that occur during the year. This structure, which is represented in Figure 29, transforms the respective AOTC and AFOGP structures, which were illustrated in Figures 18 and 19, and caters for the four stages of an event: throughout the year, leading up to, during, and after an event.

Figure 29 illustrates a flexible expanded organisational management structure. This has been highlighted by the dotted sections in the figure, which reflect the changes occurring around the event. It allows for a flat organisational management structure during the year, and a four-tiered internal management structure leading up to and during an event: the manager; coordinators; full-time assistants; and the 'interactors', (personnel arriving and departing in the lead up to and after the event). These interactors are outsourced and seasonal personnel who contributed towards the pulsating nature of a major sport event organisation. Identifying 'interactors' in the

internal structure creates a two-fold effect; first, it indicates the flexibility and adaptability required of the department team with personnel arriving and departing at various times, and second, it assists outsource and seasonal personnel to understand where they fit into the organisation.

It is recommended that Figure 29 illustrate communication links connecting departments and the CEO tier together. This allows for centralised decision making in the CEO tier during the year and after an event, and more immediate decision-making in the department team tier in the lead up to and during an event. The reason for the decentralisation of decision making at peak work times is due to each department team having a greater number of personnel and increased responsibility. As a result, each department team tier has to link together to facilitate strong and rapid communication channels. This increases the amount information each department receives about each other and the organisation as a whole.
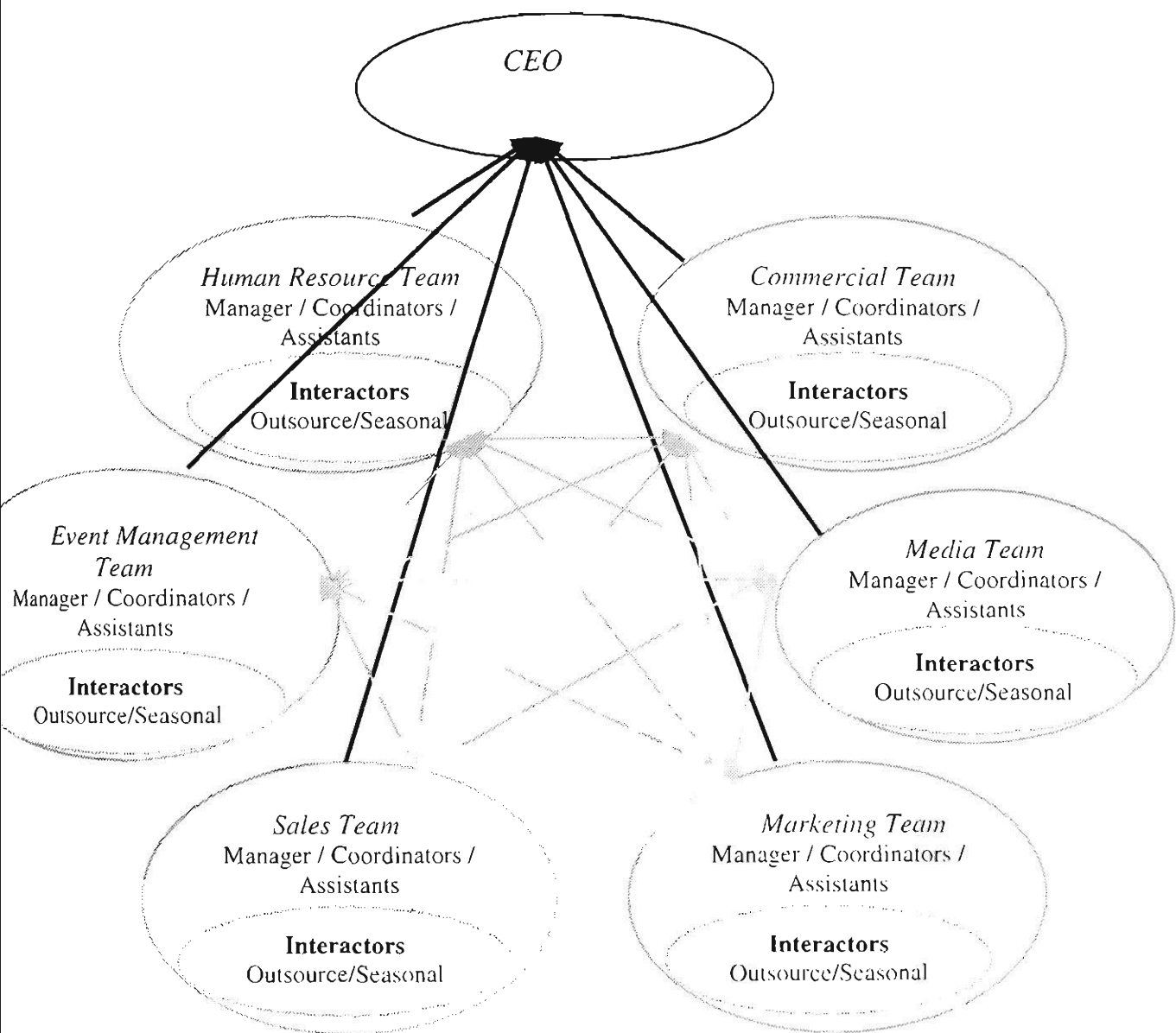
Figure 29: A recommended framework of a flexible expanded organisational structure for the AOTC and AFOGP

Research findings revealed that outsource and seasonal personnel were unaware of each organisation's structure and their positioning within the structure. In order to overcome this problem, and create personnel satisfaction and a sense of belonging, it is recommended that the proposed structure be made available to all personnel in either handbook or electronic format.

It is recommended that the AOTC and AFOGP produce a theoretical model comprising a flexible expanded organisational structure that recognises the cyclic change that occurs. This may improve performance within the respective organisations and increase satisfaction by personnel better understanding where they 'fit' within the organisation.

Summary

In studying two pulsating major sport event organisations, it was found that when establishing an organisational structure, and considering the characteristics associated with these types of organisations, a flexible expanded structure was required. The structure needed be flat during the year and expanded leading up to and during an event to cater for the number of personnel arriving. Furthermore, a four-tiered internal management structure, which was flexible, adaptable and decentralised was required.

The need to have a flexible expanded structure had important implications for the other stages of the HR process. For example, when selecting personnel, a core competency for event managers to consider, is the ability to work in teams and to have a flexible approach with team members revolving around the event cycle. Induction strategies will be required for core and interactor team members, when

managing teams consideration will need to be given to the four-tiers of personnel involved, and retention strategies shall be required for core and interactor personnel.

Selecting Personnel

Identifying Competencies for Full-time, Outsource and Seasonal Personnel

The findings in the literature review revealed a number of core competencies necessary for personnel employed within pulsating major sport event organisations. Three additional competencies displayed in the left hand column of Table 25, are relevant for outsource personnel.

However, the results of this study revealed a far greater variety of core competencies. In particular, a different 'package' of competencies was required for each personnel category. The majority of competencies in each 'package' were a direct result of the pulsating effect at the AOTC and AFOGP. For example, the variety of full-time, outsource and seasonal personnel involved in small, cross-disciplinary temporary teams, which are fluctuating in personnel numbers, resulted in the core competencies for full-time personnel of team orientation; flexibility; adaptability; initiative; advanced communication skills; and negotiation skills. Outsource personnel required event experience; practical, adaptable skills; and the ability to work to schedule, and the core competencies for seasonal personnel were personal relation skills; initiative; ability to self-manage; motivation skills; and a desire to achieve. These research findings are listed in the right hand column of Table 25. In contrast to the literature review, no single competency is represented across the three personnel categories.

Table 25. Core competencies for personnel at pulsating major sport event organisations

Literature review findings	Research findings
All personnel	*Full-time personnel*
Organise under conflict	Ability to work long hours
Event experience	Team orientation
Ability to make decisions	Flexibility
Creativity	Problem solving skills
Organise with cooperation	Adaptability
Cooperative leadership	Independence
Integrative thinker	Initiative
Fast and perpetual learner	Advanced communication skills
	Negotiation skills
	Tertiary qualification
	Event experience
Outsource personnel	*Outsource personnel*
Reputation	Event experience
Range of current clients	Field of expertise experience
Motivated to share competencies	Commitment
	Practical, adaptable skills
	Ability to work to schedule
	Ability to understand event and respective organisation
	Ability to extrapolate potential needs for an event and address them in the tender process
	Seasonal personnel
	Personal relation skills
	Initiative
	Ability to self-mange
	Motivation skills
	Desire to achieve
	Professional qualifications (if applicable)
	University student

The research found that identifying the core competencies of personnel was an important step in the selection process. However, despite this finding. neither organisation documented the common competencies required for each personnel category. Interviews with managers indicated that although core competencies were evident within each personnel category, they were not listed by the respective

organisations. Managers emphasised that if the competencies for each personnel category were listed, it would assist them in the selection process, in particular for seasonal personnel.

Recommended Core Competencies for Full-Time, Outsource and Seasonal Personnel

Determining how the pulsating nature of a major sport event impacted on the core competencies when selecting personnel, resulted in a number of findings. The pulsating effect created a change in the AOTC and AFOGP organisational structures, as discussed in the previous section. This impacted on the core personnel competencies. As a result, two additional competency requirements were recommended for outsource and seasonal personnel: team orientation and flexibility.

Furthermore, due to personnel working in temporary work teams, which fluctuated in numbers and comprised full-time, outsource and seasonal employees, it is recommended that core competencies are necessary across the personnel categories. Eight common competencies have been recommended in Table 26 for all personnel, and these include team orientation, problem solving skills, negotiation skills, flexibility, adaptability, initiative, event experience and having an awareness of the organisation's culture.

At the same time, there were a variety of personnel employed at the ATOC and AFOGP, all with different needs, attitudes, expertise and motivations. It is recommended that core competencies tailored to each personnel category are necessary. For example, advanced communication skills for full-time personnel, commitment for outsource personnel, and enthusiasm for seasonal personnel. These competencies in Table 26 have been referred to as specialist competencies.

Table 26. A recommended core competency table for full-time, outsource and seasonal personnel

Category of personnel		
Full-time	*Outsource*	*Seasonal*
Team orientation	Team orientation	Team orientation
Problem solving skills	Problem solving skills	Problem solving skills
Negotiation skills	Negotiation skills	Negotiation skills
Flexibility	Flexibility	Flexibility
Adaptability	Practical, adaptable skills	Adaptability
Initiative	Initiative	Initiative
Event experience / knowledge	Event experience	Event experience / knowledge
Awareness of organisation's culture	Awareness of organisation's culture	Awareness of organisation's culture
Independence	Ability to extrapolate potential needs for an event and address them in the tender process	Independence
Tertiary qualifications	Commitment	University student (depending on position)
Advanced communication skills	Ability to understanding event and respective organisation	Enthusiasm
Ability to work long hours	Ability to work to schedule	Motivation skills
	Field of expertise experience	Ability to self-manage
		Fast and perpetual learners
		Desire to achieve
		Professional qualifications (if applicable)
		Personal relation skills

Common competencies

Specialist competencies

It is anticipated that documenting personnel competencies could guide event managers when formulating job descriptions and when designing behavioural questions for interviews.

The list of core competencies in Table 26 specifically addresses each personnel category, it is event specific, it highlights the core and specialised competencies required, and the competencies directly connect to the pulsating characteristics evident at the AOTC and AFOGP.

Identifying a Selection Process for Seasonal Personnel

The findings from the literature review provided a general overview of the selection procedure for all personnel categories. However, with the characteristics of a pulsating major sport event organisation impacting on the selection of personnel, the research findings discovered the need for designing a selection procedure for each category of personnel. The findings also revealed that a stringent selection process was evident for full-time and outsource personnel, however, not for seasonal personnel.

The pulsating effect, which created an influx of personnel arriving days before or during the event days, resulted in an inconsistent and haphazard selection process for seasonal personnel. It also resulted in a need to formulate a process tailored for these personnel. The comparative findings from the literature review and the results selection procedure for seasonal personnel are presented in Table 27.

Two additional key differences were evident between the literature review and the research findings. First, evaluation of the selection process was identified in the literature review yet not in the research. The reason could be due to the intensity and

hype of the event, and prioritising other evaluation procedures at the conclusion of the event, rather than evaluating the selection process. Second, because the research gathered more detailed information, it found that the selection procedure for seasonal employees was different for seasonal managers and seasonal personnel. Managerial selection processes from the research are identified on the left hand side of the right column of Table 27. Seasonal personnel selection processes are identified on the right hand side of the right column. The findings revealed that the selection procedure for seasonal managers was more formal than the selection procedure for seasonal personnel. For example, seasonal managers were often directly approached by department managers and interviewed for positions, whereas personnel often applied for positions and no interview process was conducted. The research found that neither organisation had a stringent procedure for selecting seasonal personnel. Both organisations used a haphazard approach when making these appointments. The reason for this approach, as suggested by managers, was due to their large numbers and appointment close to the days of the event. Understanding the pulsating nature and associated characteristics of these events, could result in managers formally selecting personnel, during the beginning stages of the lead-up to the event. This amended management practice would create management satisfaction, when appointing an influx of seasonal personnel, and seasonal personnel contentment with the consistent practices.

Table 27. Comparison of literature review and research findings on selection procedures for seasonal employees

Literature review findings for all personnel categories	Research findings for seasonal: Managers	Personnel
Establish a selection brief incorporating goals, objectives and activities	Establish job design / identify required duties and competencies	Establish job design
Recruitment	Internal appointment OR Direct appointment	Internal appointment OR Direct appointment OR Selected from: resume, contact, demonstration
Interview candidates using behavioural questions / predetermined criteria	Formal interview using behavioural questions OR Informal interview to discuss responsibilities	Appointed by: HR coordinator, respective manager or coordinator
Select employee based on behavioural answers	Appointment made	Appointment made
Evaluate selection process		

The research findings revealed that the effective appointment of full-time personnel was best achieved via a personnel agency and outsource personnel appointed via tenders. It is recommended that if a stringent process for selecting seasonal personnel is not possible, a personnel agency or a tendered organisation be appointed, due to their success in appointing full-time and outsource personnel.

A Recommended Selection Process for Seasonal Personnel

To create a consistent management practice for selecting seasonal personnel, when numbers are increasing dramatically a few days before and during the event, a stringent selection process was found to be the most effective strategy. It is recommended that a flow chart outlining the steps required within the selection

procedure be designed. This would make processes for selecting personnel clearer. Such a procedure has been recommended in Figure 30.

Evidence revealed that very large numbers of personnel were required at the AOTC and AFOGP, for example 4,000 at the AOTC. To cater for this demand, a centralised record system has been recommended as a step in the stringent selection procedure referred to in Figure 30. Employee details and times of appointment could be stored in the system and called upon when required for another event.

```
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│  Establish detailed job design/tender identify required  │
│               duties and competencies                    │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                          │
                          ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                       Seasonal                           │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
        │                                    │
        ▼                                    ▼
┌──────────────────┐                ┌──────────────────┐
│     Manager      │                │    Personnel     │
└──────────────────┘                └──────────────────┘
        │                                    │
        ▼                                    ▼
┌──────────────────┐                ┌──────────────────┐
│  Selected from   │                │  Selected from   │
│   -Resumes       │                │   -Resumes       │
│  - Demonstration │                │  - Demonstration │
│ -Centralised     │                │ -Centralised     │
│  record system   │                │  record system   │
└──────────────────┘                └──────────────────┘
        │                                    │
        ▼                                    ▼
┌──────────────────┐                ┌──────────────────┐
│    Interview     │                │ Appointment made │
│  -Behavioural    │                │                  │
│   Questions      │                └──────────────────┘
└──────────────────┘
        │
        ▼
┌──────────────────┐
│ Appointment made │
└──────────────────┘

┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│              Evaluate selection process                  │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
```
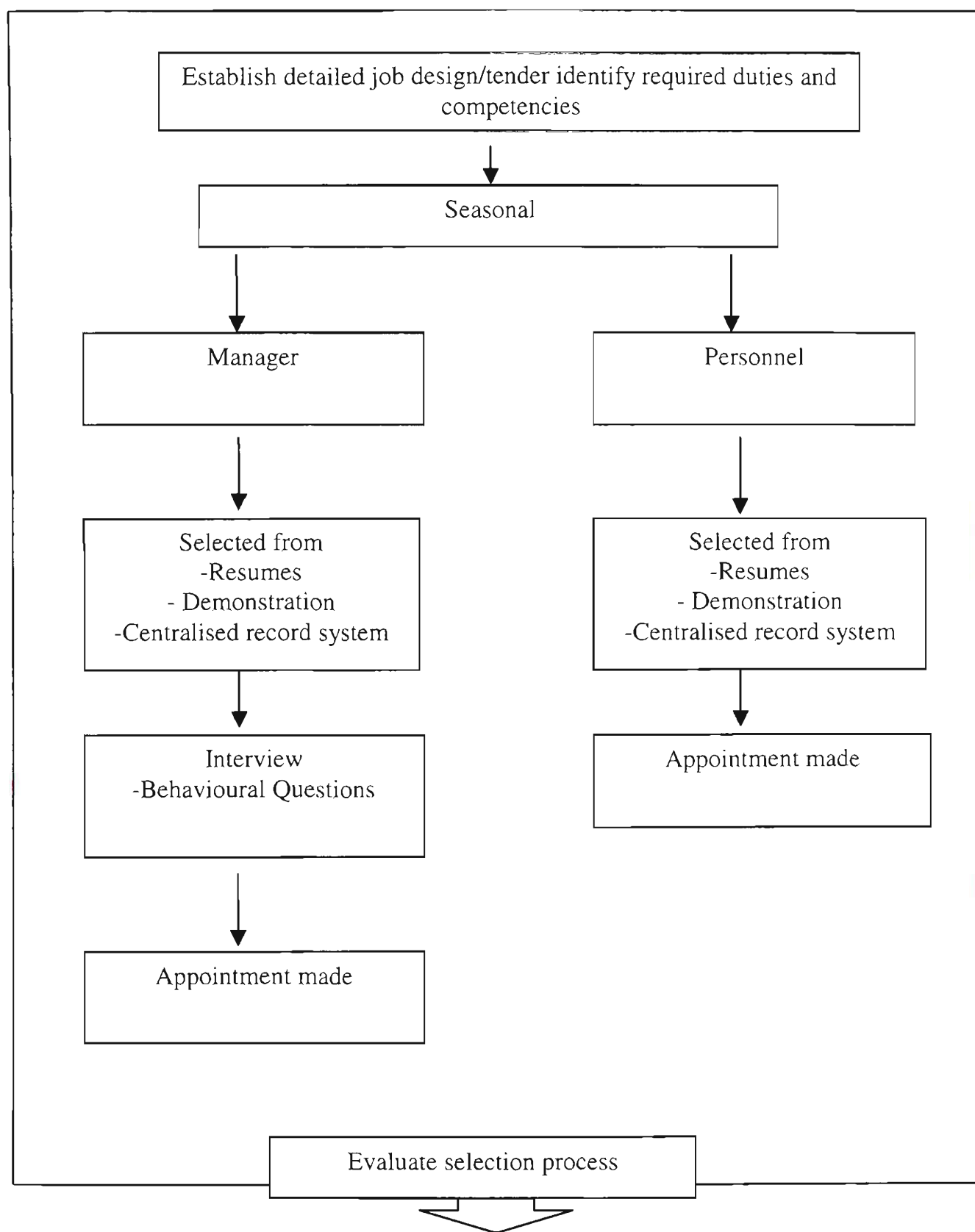
Figure 30: A recommended flow chart for selecting seasonal personnel

The pulsating nature of major sport events has created special challenges for event managers when selecting seasonal personnel. The flow chart illustrated in Figure 30 will assist the AOTC and AFOGP managers in appointing personnel at peak times. This chart would also make the selection procedure clearer for the seasonal employees, illustrating how a consistent process is performed. For all seasonal personnel to view this chart, it is recommended that it be made available to all personnel in a handbook or electronically.

It is recommended that Figure 30 be extended to illustrate the selection procedure for all personnel. At the AOTC and AFOGP, no chart documenting the procedure required for selecting full-time, outsource and seasonal personnel was available for either managers or personnel. This chart would assist managers in appointing personnel throughout the events cycle.

Summary

The research has found that the pulsating nature affects the selection management practices at the AOTC and AFOGP. Special challenges arose that required managers to select personnel using strategies tailored for the variety of personnel. Documenting core and specialised competencies and applying a stringent selection process to full-time, outsource and seasonal personnel were two key strategies.

A flow chart has been recommended to improve the stringent selection process, for seasonal personnel who arrive within a short period of time before or during an event. This strategy would avoid the haphazard approach managers have to making appointments, and ensure the event manager's role and the procedures required for appointing all personnel are clearly documented.

Alternatively, on the basis of these findings one recommendation is that engaging an external organisation to appoint seasonal personnel could be useful. This may ensure a more formalised and consistent selection procedure for seasonal personnel. It may also allow event managers to concentrate on other stages of managing personnel, such as personnel induction, managing teams, and personnel retention.

Inducting Personnel

The findings in the literature review indicated that the four-step generic induction process would be appropriate for pulsating major sport event organisations. This involved providing an organisational framework; establishing relationships; supplying resources; and conducting evaluation. These findings are presented in the left hand column of Table 28.

In contrast, the primary research conducted for this study revealed that a more sophisticated approach was used at the AOTC and AFOGP, rather than the four-step generic induction process. The expansion of personnel leading up to the event, many employed for a limited timeframe and all with different needs, attitudes, expertise and motivations has resulted in the requirement for complex induction management practices. Combining the strategies the managers incorporated from each organisation resulted in seven strategies used for all personnel. These included, a risk-based session; an on-site session; an on-site safety session; an on-site tour; a management brief; an on-site manual; and an on-site team manual. Strategies were also individually tailored for each personnel category. These are listed in the right hand column of Table 28.

Table 28. Comparison of literature review and research findings on inducting personnel at pulsating major sport event organisations

Literature review findings	Research findings		
Four-step induction process	Full-time	Outsource	Seasonal
Providing an organisational framework	Risk-based session On-site session On-site safety session On-site tour	Risk-based session On-site session On-site safety session On-site tour	Risk-based session On-site session On-site safety session On-site tour
Establishing relationships	Management brief On-site manual	Management brief On-site manual	Management brief On-site manual
Supplying resources	On-site team manual	On-site team manual	On-site team manual
Conducting evaluation	Office-based session Nurturing process General event session Information kit Office manual Review office-based session	Culture session Tournament report / Operations manual Detailed contract	Office-based session On-site brief General event session Office manual Information kit

Common practices

Tailored practices

The pulsating nature of these organisations presented challenges for managers. Two key findings arising from the NUD.IST coding analysis revealed major weaknesses when inducting personnel within the AOTC and AFOGP. First, a number of informants were concerned that the induction process was not systematically organised. Second, there was a lack of induction documentation available to event managers. As a result, inconsistent practices occurred.

A Recommended Induction Process for Full-Time, Outsource and Seasonal Personnel

The challenges faced by managers, due to the pulsating nature of major sport events, has resulted in tailored induction management practices. The research findings suggested strategies to incorporate within the induction process, however, these had not been documented within either the AOTC or AFOGP. In order to minimise these inconsistent practices for future event managers, it is recommended that a stringent induction process be implemented. For example, a set of guidelines would document the induction process and create consistent practices and processes for all personnel.

To cater for outsource personnel needs, attitudes, expertise and motivations during the event cycle, it is recommended that detailed tender induction information is provided. This includes the event organisation providing detailed requirements to outsource managers on how to induct their personnel. For example, an information session on the major sport event; a detailed induction handbook for personnel referral during an event; and on-site induction. This tender induction information would be provided when initial documents were sent to outsource applicants. This would aim to ensure applicants had a clear understanding of the agreement, such as their required hours and duties.

To assist with the variety of personnel needs and motivations, it is recommended that prior to an upcoming event, a social session for *all* managers be conducted, for example, a welcoming drink night. During the session, managers would be provided with a general overview of the event, have the opportunity to view the organisational structure illustrating where *all* managers 'fit' within the organisation, and be involved in motivational activities. It is recommended that this session would ideally be conducted one to two weeks prior to the event.

With seasonal managers arriving and departing at various times, opportunities to establish relationships with team members are limited. Therefore, induction guidelines are recommended for new seasonal managers, whereby the respective department manager provides an organisational framework, and ensures introductory meetings are conducted between the department team and the new seasonal manager. It is recommended that seasonal managers be provided with induction guidelines, prior to their first day at the organisation, in order to enhance the value of the induction session.

The influx of peripheral personnel arriving during the busy lead-up time to the event highlighted the importance of an induction booklet. It is recommended that the booklet contain information such as detailed job descriptions, reporting systems, and department structures. In addition, this booklet is designed with assistance from managers who are currently in these roles. The booklet could be placed on the organisation's Intranet, for managers who are office-based or who have external computer access. This would allow for quick referral to information before the event. Furthermore, it could complement the successful on-site manuals, which were features of both organisations.

To assist with personnel needs and motivation for the next event, it is recommended that a review process for *all* managers be conducted. The review process would include reviewing job descriptions or tenders; distributing questionnaires; undertaking interviews and facilitating debriefing sessions. In addition, an evaluative team report could be produced to document outcomes.

To ensure consistent management practices were performed with temporary work teams of varied personnel that fluctuate in personnel numbers, it is recommended that a dress rehearsal event be conducted prior to the major event, and form part of the evaluation process. Since the majority of managers would be employed at this lead-up event, it could result in team relationships being established, ensure resources are used effectively and that any issues occurring before the major event can be addressed.

To cater for seasonal personnel needs, attitudes, expertise and motivations, another recommended evaluation strategy is to conduct progressive meetings with seasonal managers over the duration of their contracts. This would provide an

opportunity for questions to be answered and further promote the establishment of team relationships.

The pulsating nature of major sport events has impacted on management practices, resulting in tailored induction for the AOTC and AFOGP. Based on the research findings, a model is recommended that clearly and formally inducts personnel. It is recommended that the four-step induction process is an effective foundation for the development of more comprehensive induction processes in pulsating major sport event organisations.

Table 29 contains the recommended guidelines for event managers. It is important to note that this table illustrates full-time, outsource and seasonal personnel who are new, permanent, or returning to the respective organisation. In addition, in recognising the characteristics of a pulsating major sport event organisation, strategies emerged that were tailored towards each of these personnel and the four progressive steps. Another point to note within this table is, with the exception of an office-based session, active group sessions, manuals, a dress rehearsal and a review process were the representative strategies for all personnel categories. These tailored strategies further signify the difference between generic and pulsating major sport event organisations. Generic organisations do not have the same challenges or the tailored strategies required to cater for the pulsating nature of major sport events.

Table 29. A recommended induction process for full-time, outsource and seasonal managers

Personnel type		Four – step induction process			
		Providing an organisational framework	*Establishing relationships*	*Supplying resources*	*Conducting evaluating*
Full-time	*New*	Office-based session	Nurturing process	Information kit	Review process Dress rehearsal
	Permanent	Risk management session On-site session On-site tour On-site safety session	Management brief General event session Social session	Office manual On-site manual On-site team manual	
Outsource	*New*	Tender induction information Cultural event session		Operations manual Detailed contract Induction handbook	Review contract Review process Dress rehearsal
	Returning	Risk management session On-site session On-site tour On-site safety session	Management brief General event session Social session	Induction kit On-site manual On-site team manual	
Seasonal	*New*	Office-based session	Induction guidelines	Induction booklet	Review process Dress rehearsal Progressive meetings
	Returning	On-site brief Risk management session On-site session On-site tour On-site safety session	Management brief General event session Social session	On-site manual On-site team manual Information kit	

Note. New personnel are also involved with the induction of permanent / returning personnel.

This research has found that pulsating challenges create tailored induction management practices. If the AOTC and AFOGP had frameworks that identified personnel induction processes for events, the benefits would be twofold. First, it would ensure event managers were aware of the induction process that they are required to implement for their personnel. Second, it would optimise managerial performance, whereby a consistent induction approach is applied to *all* personnel.

Summary

The findings from the literature review revealed a four-step induction process designed for generic organisations could be applied to pulsating major sport event organisations. The findings from this research found that due to the pulsating nature of major sport events, this process did not cater for the challenges managers faced at the AOTC and AFOGP. As a result, strategies emerged that were tailored towards each step and to each personnel category. The research findings also discovered that despite the complexity of these types of organisations, neither the AOTC nor the AFOGP had a model for managers responsible for inducting personnel. As a result, event managers were unaware of the customised induction strategies that may be useful for pulsating major sport event organisations. This has led to inconsistent induction processes. In order for induction to cater for the pulsating nature of major sport events, and be consistently performed by event managers, to the variety of personnel, it was found that a model was required, which was clear, flexible, and formally addressed the special needs of an induction process.

This research recommends a model that caters for the pulsating challenges faced by event managers. It is recommended that within this framework, a four-step induction process, containing tailored strategies for full-time, outsource and seasonal

managers, who were new, permanent, or returning be incorporated. Strategies of particular importance to include for all personnel are manuals, active group induction sessions, a dress rehearsal, and a review process.

Managing Teams

The findings in the literature review identified that due to temporary work teams existing in pulsating major sport event organisations, six strategies that contribute towards effective team management were practiced. These included forming a common purpose; having a team approach; being flexible; ensuring communication; being adaptable; and developing team ownership. These are presented in the left hand column of Table 30.

The primary research for this study found, that the pulsating nature of major sport events created another characteristic for associated organisations, namely, that teams fluctuate in personnel numbers. This further signified the importance of teams in this type of organisation. As a result, tailored strategies, in addition to the ones identified in the literature review, were found as vital management practices for event managers. These strategies had related issues, and were applied to full-time, outsource and seasonal team members. They are listed in the right hand column of Table 30.

When comparing the literature review and research findings, the only strategy that is represented in both columns of the table is ensuring communication. One related point is that the literature review findings identified having a common purpose, team ownership, and flexibility as strategies. Whereas, the research findings identified these as issues that were associated with strategies.

Table 30. Comparison of literature review and research findings on managing teams in pulsating major sport event organisations

Strategies	
Literature review findings	*Research findings*
Form a common purpose	*Establish a team structure*
Have a team approach	Organisational level
	Form a common goal
	Department level
	Induct new members
	Create an atmosphere
	Re-establish teams
Be flexible	*Allow for fluctuating personnel*
	Be flexible
	Consider the variety of personnel
Ensure communication	*Ensure communication*
	Form a team morale
	Develop a sense of family
	Establish meetings
Be adaptable	*Be a facilitator*
	Develop a 'care factor'
	Provide direction and resources
Develop team ownership	*Evaluate*
	Provide feedback
	Debrief team meetings
	Management post-event debrief

Three of the eight characteristics to consider at the pulsating AOTC and AFOGP are team related. This signifies the importance teams are to the management practices of event managers and to the success of an event. It was found that these teams were generally self-managed. That is, team members had initiative, accepted responsibility and according to Ancona et al. (1996), made decisions that were once restricted to management. However, neither organisation had a model in place to guide event managers and assist them in managing their temporary teams that comprised varied personnel and fluctuations in personnel numbers. It was found that both organisations left the management of teams up to event managers. Evidence revealed that managers found the lack of guidance frustrating, believing it was particularly difficult in these types of organisations to manage teams during the event cycle.

It is recommended that in order to assist managers with the challenges arising from the pulsating effect and to overcome management frustration, a systematic and formalised framework be designed. This would assist event managers to consistently manage their teams, and enhance satisfaction for all team members.

A Recommended Framework for Managing Teams

The key findings from the NUD.IST coding analysis revealed that the pulsating effect of major sport events created implications for management practices when establishing self-managed teams. As a result, five customised strategies were seen to be of critical importance, namely, establishing a team structure; allowing for fluctuating personnel; ensuring communication; being a facilitator; and evaluation. Within each of these strategies, a number of associated practices emerged that addressed the pulsating challenges faced by these managers.

Managing teams involved catering for a variety of personnel. The research findings revealed that although the majority of practices were implemented with full-time team members, they were not used with outsource and seasonal members. Inconsistent practices were used when managing team members, in particular, seasonal personnel felt they did not belong to teams.

The pulsating nature of a major sport event has transformed the management practices of teams. As a result, these managers required guidance on how to manage such teams. Key findings have been incorporated into a recommended framework for event managers. Figure 31 outlines the three steps that illustrate the strategies a manager implements when managing a team; the factors that contribute towards personnel feeling they belong as a team member; and the outcomes achieved by the

team. This figure provides a systematic outline that can be applied during the four stages of an event cycle.

In order to encourage event managers to include *all* team members, it is recommended they adopt the approach identified in Figure 31. Full-time, outsource and seasonal personnel are identified as Self-managed, in the Factors step, thus highlighting that event managers should be aware that each team member needs to gain a sense of ownership and responsibility, ensure their initiative is encouraged, and be treated in a flexible and adaptable manner.

Strategies	*Factors*	*Outcomes*
Establish a team structure: Organisational level: - common goal Departmental level: - goal ownership - atmosphere - induct new members - monitor progress - re-establish team *Allow for fluctuating personnel:* Flexibility Variance *Ensure communication:* Team morale Sense of family Meetings *Be a facilitator:* 'Care' factor Direction and resources *Evaluate:* Team meetings Management post-event debrief	Self−managed (full-time, outsource, seasonal) - ownership - responsibility - initiative - flexibility - adaptability	Team development Team satisfaction Team retention Team performance

Figure 31: A recommended framework for managing teams at the AOTC and AFOGP

With temporary teams fluctuating in personnel numbers, it is recommended that the proposed framework be made available to all personnel, whether it be via a personnel handbook or electronically, so they are aware of the strategies for managing teams. Furthermore, if the AOTC and AFOGP had a model for managing teams in

pulsating major sport event organisations, it would assist event managers to optimise their team management performance and ensure consistent strategies were used for all team members.

The tailored team strategies, illustrated in Figure 31, are different to those practiced in generic organisations. Unlike mainstream organisations, the pulsating characteristics create specific challenges for event managers to address, namely, temporary work teams, comprising a variety of personnel that fluctuate in personnel numbers during the event cycle, do not occur in generic organisations.

Summary

To highlight the importance of teams in pulsating major sport event organisations, three of the eight characteristics associated with managing personnel at the AOTC and AFOGP, were team related. The literature review identified six key strategies for managing teams within a pulsating major sport event organisation. These findings were expanded in the results and discussion chapter, whereby the pulsating nature of major sport events impacted on the team management practices. As a result, tailored key and associated strategies were identified as significant practices to incorporate. One key finding relating to teams, was the need for a model, which was clear and addressed strategies and related issues for managing teams.

The research found that the AOTC and AFOGP did not have a model that recognised key strategies and related issues associated with managing teams. Consequently, due to the pulsating nature of major sport events, managing teams within these organisations was a complex task.

It is, therefore, recommended that a systematic framework be developed, and tailored towards the special demands of the AOTC and AFOGP. Furthermore, that this framework should incorporate three steps: the customised strategies for managing a team that pulsates; the factors that contribute towards personnel feeling they belong as team members; and the outcomes achieved by the team.

Retaining Personnel

The literature review found that there were five key strategies for retaining personnel within a pulsating major sport event organisation. These strategies applied to all personnel regardless of the category into which they fall and are similar to generic organisation retention practices. These are presented in the left hand column of Table 31.

In comparison, the primary research found that the pulsating nature of major sport events had a significant impact on the management practices at the AOTC and AFOGP. Not only were there retention strategies for all personnel, there were strategies tailored individually for full-time, outsource and seasonal personnel's needs, attitudes, expertise and motivations. More specifically, the field research identified four key strategies for all personnel. In addition, numerous strategies were identified for full-time personnel, two for outsource personnel, and three for seasonal personnel. These are listed in the right hand column of the same table. Considering the impact that pulsation had on these organisations, which resulted in tailoring management practices accordingly, further highlights the difference between the management practices of these and generic organisations.

Considering the findings in Table 31, it is worth noting that only one retention strategy was identified in both the literature review and research findings, and represented across all personnel categories namely. ownership. Remuneration was the next most popular strategy, represented in the literature review. and in the results for full-time and seasonal personnel.

Table 31. Comparison of literature review and research findings on personnel retention strategies at pulsating major sport event organisations

Retention strategies			
Literature review findings	*Research findings*		
	Full-time	*Outsource*	*Seasonal*
Remuneration	Event's status Ownership Half way strategies Additional events		
Recognition	Performance appraisals	Long-term contracts	Subsequent event strategies
Vision	Updated job descriptions	Recognition	Remuneration
Responsibility and ownership	Personnel selection		Exit surveys
Evaluation	Remuneration		
	Career management programs		
	Exit interviews		

In studying two pulsating major sport event organisations, it was found that strategies for retaining personnel were deployed according to the stages of the event cycle. Despite this finding, however, neither organisation had formed guidelines that recognised the strategies required for the different stages of the event. Both organisations left personnel retention up to the event manager. This approach is not suitable, and interviews with managers indicated that the approach caused inadequate strategies, or alternatively, strategies being performed at the wrong stage of an event cycle.

In order to overcome this confusion, better retain personnel and cater for pulsating nature of these events, it is recommended that a guide be designed that specifically considers the characteristics of a pulsating major sport event organisation.

A Recommended Guide for Retaining Personnel

Analysis of research data found three key questions, which emerged from attempting to retain personnel in light of the characteristics associated within pulsating major sport event organisations. These questions were: what strategies need to be incorporated? What personnel category do these strategies apply to? At what stage of the event cycle are these strategies performed?

Based on the research findings, it is recommended that in the lead-up stage to an event, the roles of seasonal personnel should be flexible, whereby personnel employed for the last event could change roles at the next event. This flexibility encouraged retention (Cooke, 1997), and multi-skilled employees, thus increasing their responsibility and decision-making ability (Warn, 1994) whilst further developing their career paths.

During the peak stage of an event, it is recommended that thoughtful rostering of full-time and seasonal personnel was important. For example, depending on the number of event days, personnel could have time off, such as afternoons or a day's break, and return refreshed. It is also recommended to include team debriefing as another strategy to retain personnel during the peak stage. This involves debriefing team members on a daily basis, whereby, feedback and ownership are encouraged, and a sense of recognition as a team member is fostered. Furthermore, performing debriefing half way through the event was recommended, as this was important in creating team motivation for the final half of the event.

It was found that the interviewed managers' greatest concern was retaining full-time personnel a couple of months after an event. One recommendation to retain these personnel could be with positive direction from the CEO. For example, management sending a telegram to department teams congratulating them on their performance and hosting a thank you function that includes all personnel. These would be valuable strategies as they reinforced the vital contribution personnel make towards an event's success. Evidence revealed that these strategies could also have a springboard effect, whereby teams are re-established, a review of individual and team goals is performed, and planning for the next event occurs.

Team debriefs were found to be important for all personnel during the trough stage. These debriefings helped to determine the strengths and weaknesses of the team, roles, and the event. Exit interviews complemented this strategy, whereby problems were identified and improvements made for the following event. As a result, higher personnel satisfaction was more likely to be achieved (Pinchot, 1993).

In addition, during the trough stage of an event, it was found that updated job descriptions for all personnel were a vital retention strategy. It is recommended that during the trough stage, personnel could amend their job descriptions ensuring clarity and re-newed ownership of roles for the next event. A thank you function is also recommended for all personnel, as evidence revealed that this symbolises the event organisation recognising the valuable contribution made by its employees.

Finally, during the year stage, it is recommended to ensure continuous contact between event managers and their respective personnel, particularly between events. For example, strategies to include are sending out the organisation's newsletter, conducting team meetings, and sending birthday cards. This would assist team members to feel recognised and part of a team.

Table 32 provides event managers with guidelines for retaining personnel. This guide has been designed around the event cycle, in order to assist event managers in retaining full-time, outsource and seasonal personnel, who all have different needs, attitudes, expertise and motivations. Table 32 illustrates the need to switch between different retention strategies depending on the event's cycle and the personnel category that requires retention.

Common retention strategies represented across all personnel categories are evident in Table 32. In the lead-up stage of an event these strategies include event's status; effective selection; recognition; thorough induction; ownership; and self-managed teams. During the peak stage, a team debrief and activities are conducted for all personnel. In the trough stage of an event, four strategies are implemented for personnel in general: team debrief; thank you function; updated job descriptions; and exit interviews.

Table 32. A recommended guide for retaining personnel at the AOTC and AFOGP

Event cycle	Retention strategies for personnel categories		
	Full-time	*Outsource*	*Seasonal*
Lead-up	Event's status Effective selection Recognition Thorough induction Ownership Self-managed teams		
		Long-term contract Contract detailed & monitored Parties participative & consultative	Remuneration Current university students Flexible positions
Peak	Roster Team debrief / activities	Team debrief / activities	Roster Team debrief / activities
Trough	Team debrief Thank you function Updated job descriptions Exit interviews Positive direction from management Re-establishing teams Career management programs Loyalty payments	Team debrief Thank you function Updated job descriptions Exit interviews Contact from department manager Written appreciation letter from CEO	Team debrief Thank you function Updated job descriptions Exit interviews / surveys Remuneration Written appreciation letter
During the year	Additional events Remuneration	Part of a working group	Continuous contact

The findings revealed that retention practices were performed without considering the characteristics of each pulsating organisation, thus personnel were dissatisfied with the absence of retention strategies, or alternatively, strategies being performed at the wrong stage of an event. In order to overcome this problem, it is recommended that the proposed guide be made available to all personnel, whether it be via a handbook or in an electronic format.

It is also recommended that if the AOTC and AFOGP had a guide illustrating the management practices tailored to the pulsation of an organisation, which recognised what strategies were required for various personnel categories at different stages of the event cycle, it would assist event managers with optimising performance. Furthermore, it would increase personnel satisfaction, due to an awareness that conscious efforts were being made by event managers to retain personnel.

Summary

The findings from the literature review revealed that there were five key strategies for retaining personnel at pulsating major sport event organisations. The research findings, extended upon the literature review, were more detailed, recognised the pulsating nature of major sport events, and highlighted key strategies for all personnel, and tailored strategies for each personnel category. From this data, the main issue identified was the need to switch between different retention strategies depending on the event's cycle and the personnel category that required retention. The findings from this research discovered that the AOTC and AFOGP did not have a guide that identified these requirements. Consequently, when not considering the pulsating characteristics of the organisation, the interviewed event managers found

retaining personnel a difficult task, particularly for full-time personnel, and management frustration and personnel dissatisfaction was evident.

This was significant and indicated the need for a guide for retaining personnel, to cater for the special nature of the AOTC and AFOGP. This research has designed a guide, which addresses the pulsating characteristics and as a result, assists event managers in retaining their team of personnel. This guide has been designed around the event cycle, where strategies are tailored for retaining full-time, outsource and seasonal personnel.

A Benchmark of Human Resource Practices to Guide Event Managers at the AOTC and AFOGP

As Figure 28 showed, the literature findings revealed five key HR stages as underpinning the management practices of managers at pulsating major sport event organisations. The literature also revealed special characteristics associated with pulsating major sport event organisations. These were:

- Full-time, outsource and seasonal personnel

- Personnel with different needs, attitudes and expertise

- Temporary work teams

- Expansion and contraction of personnel numbers

- Small core of full-time personnel

- Limited peripheral personnel contract time

- Teams of varied personnel

The research findings confirmed that event managers practiced the five key HR stages identified in the literature review. The results not only confirmed the special

characteristics, but also identified four additional characteristics associated with a pulsating major sport event organisation. These were:

- Personnel are motivated by different strategies

- Heavy dependence on peripheral personnel

- Teams fluctuate in personnel numbers

- The event cycle - leading up to, during, and after the event, and throughout the year.

The research findings also indicated that these characteristics acted as intervening variables, which affected the management practices of event managers. That is, when the characteristics of a pulsating major sport event organisation were linked to the five stages in the HR framework, specific issues arose. These issues directly influenced the management of each stage of the HR framework. For example, when establishing an organisational structure, and considering the characteristics of a pulsating major sport event organisation, a flexible, simple, adaptable and decentralised structure was created. Such intervention can be viewed in Figure 32. These results play an important role in designing HR management practices specific to the AOTC and AFOGP.

Figure 32 also provides a series of steps that integrate the literature and research findings. The first phase details the five HR stages in a linear approach. This is primarily due to the progressive ordering of stages an event manager is required to perform within the HR framework. The figure highlights the need for a clear organisational structure before the selection of personnel occurs. Once this is performed, personnel are inducted, managed and then strategies are implemented to retain these personnel.

The second phase details the special characteristics of a pulsating major sport event organisation that need to be considered when addressing each HR stage. As previously mentioned, these characteristics act as intervening variables, which affect how each of these five HR stages are managed.

The third phase summarises the findings arising from the management of each of the five stages. These are the key results from this study and demonstrate the contribution this research has made towards the literature.

The transformed stages are presented in the fourth phase. This transformation can be viewed in Figure 32 beginning with the key stages based on the literature through to the recommended key stages for major sport event organisations. In light of this transformation, phase four represents the benchmark of management practices. It provides a micro view of each of the recommended key stages for major sport event organisations. A macro view of establishing an organisational structure is illustrated in Figure 24, selecting personnel is displayed in Table 26 and Figure 25, inducting personnel is illustrated in Table 29, managing teams in displayed in Figure 26, and retaining personnel is illustrated in Table 32.

Evaluation is the final step of the HR framework. The recommendation is to conduct evaluation after the performance of each HR stage. For example, after an event, when evaluating the induction of personnel, it is recommended that the event manager determine whether the strategies incorporated within the four-step process were suitable. This evaluation could be performed through personnel output and turnover, or through performance measures (Compton & Nankervis, 1998). These results can be used to modify the induction of personnel and improve this stage before the next event.

HR Framework

Key stages based on the literature	*Special characteristics of major sport event organisations*	*Key results from this study*	*Recommended key stages for major sport event organisations*
Establishing an organisational structure	• Full-time, outsource and seasonal personnel • Personnel with different needs, attitudes, expertise and motivations	A flexibly expanded organisation structure and a four-tiered internal management structure, which is flexible, simple, adaptable and decentralised	Establishing a flexible expanded organisational structure
Selecting personnel	• Teams of varied personnel • Limited peripheral contract time	Core competencies and a stringent selection process for each personnel category	Selecting personnel using a table identifying core competencies and a flow chart for the selection process
Inducting personnel	• Temporary work teams • Small core of full-time personnel • Heavy dependence on peripheral personnel	A process for new, permanent and returning personnel, individually caters for each personnel category, and uses the resources of manuals and active group sessions	Inducting personnel incorporating strategies within a four-step process
Managing teams	• Expansion and contraction of personnel numbers • Team fluctuating in personnel numbers	A process for establishing a team, which gains a sense of identity, and determines the team outcomes	Managing teams using a framework illustrating a three-step process
Retaining personnel	• The event cycle – leading up to, during, and after the event and throughout the year	Strategies for each personnel category at different stages of the event cycle	Retaining personnel incorporating a guide tailored for each personnel during the event cycle

Evaluate each stage after an event

Note. A micro view of the recommended key stages for major sport event organisations.

Figure 32: The formation of a HR Framework tailored for event managers at the AOTC and AFOGP

Given that no previous studies of this type have been conducted before, the findings of this research offer a starting point for understanding and formalising HR management practices for event managers, at the AOTC and AFOGP.

Concluding Comments

The research findings were gathered from a systematic interactive process where interviews and documents were analysed and compared. In doing so, it has found that the HR management practices performed by event managers comprised five key stages. Of significance was the finding that when the characteristics of a pulsating major sport event organisation intervened at each of the stages, it affected the management practices of event managers. Such an intervention created specific issues with each stage and affected how the stage was managed. For example, when establishing an organisational structure, and considering the characteristics of a pulsating major sport event organisation, the structure expanded and a four-tiered internal management structure, which is flexible, adaptable and decentralised was created.

Despite this finding, however, neither of the two studied sites provided guidelines to event managers about the management practices specific to pulsating major sport event organisations. Interviews with managers indicated that tailored management practices were required, for their specific *type* of organisation.

Based on the findings, a benchmark set of management practices for event managers had been recommended. The HR framework extended from the current body of literature, by documenting the special HR needs required by event managers at the AOTC and AFOGP. It is anticipated that this framework would assist event

managers in more clearly understanding the requirements for managing each stage and help ensure their consistent practice.

Contribution to Knowledge

The findings from the literature review identified that the HR process was primarily focused on generic organisations and only occasionally referred to pulsating major sport event organisations. Consequently, it was difficult to determine precisely how managers managed personnel in pulsating major sport event organisations and the problems they encountered. In developing a theoretical foundation for this research, related generic organisation literature was adapted to managing personnel in pulsating major sport event organisations. Figure 9 was created from these literature findings, comprising five generic HR stages and adapted strategies.

The findings from this research identified that due to the pulsating nature of major sport events, a customised HR process for pulsating major sport event organisations was necessary. Of significance was the finding that the ten characteristics that acted as intervening variables, all affected the management practices of event managers. As a result, modifications to the generic HR management practices were made to cater for the special demands. A framework, which is illustrated in Figure 32, was created from these research findings, comprising the five HR stages and tailored strategies for pulsating major sport event organisations. This framework extended from the present body of literature in this field and created a benchmark specific to the needs of this type of organisation.

Table 33 advances the present body of knowledge by highlighting how pulsation affects major sport event organisations and how personnel in future sport events can be managed. Each stage in the framework highlights how the

characteristics of pulsating major sport events transform generalised management practices to specialised management practices for event managers.

A comparison between the stages in the literature review findings and the research findings are presented in Table 33. The literature review column represents the generalised findings from studies, the research findings column represents the tailored findings of pulsating major sport event organisations.

Table 33. Contribution to knowledge for pulsating major sport event organisations

Generic HR stages and adopted strategies identified in the literature review findings	HR stages and tailored strategies for pulsating major sport event organisations, identified in the research findings
Establishing an organisational framework - Design a flexible, flat, highly formalised structure that is innovative and regularly transforms internally; include teams of people in functional units	Establishing a flexibly expanded organisational structure - A flexibly expanded organisation structure and a four-tiered internal management structure, which is flexible, simple, adaptable and decentralised
Selecting personnel - Establish recruitment brief; identify candidates; interview using behavioural questions; select candidate; evaluate process	Selecting personnel using a table identifying core competencies and a flow chart for the selection process - Core competencies and a stringent selection process for each personnel category
Inducting personnel - Establish an organisational framework: create relationships; provide resources; evaluate process	Inducting personnel incorporating strategies within a four-step process - A tailored process for new, permanent and returning personnel, individually caters for each personnel category, and uses the resources of manuals and active group sessions
Managing teams - Establish adaptability, flexibility, communication, a team approach, team ownership, a common purpose; create self-managed teams; achieve performance, member satisfaction, team learning	Managing teams using a framework illustrating a three-step process - A process using customised strategies for managing a team that pulsates; the factors that contribute towards personnel feeling they belong as team members; and the outcomes achieved by the team
Retaining personnel - Establish compensation payment: provide a vision, responsibility and ownership, recognition; evaluate process	Retaining personnel incorporating a guide tailored for each personnel during the event cycle - A customised process for each personnel category, with strategies implemented at different stages of the event cycle

Prior to this research, little was known about the special HR process involved for pulsating major sport event organisations. This is despite the importance and growing influence these events have for the Australian and international sporting community, and that personnel within these event organisations are key contributors to the events success (Nankervis, et al., 1996; Morrall, 1998). The HR process, identified in the research findings, make a significant contribution to literature. This research has created Figure 32, which is the first theoretical model describing the HR process for pulsating major sport event organisations. This model has become a theoretical foundation for future literature to build upon. The recommended figures and tables associated with each stage of the HR process provide a start to establishing a theoretical foundation for each stage. In doing so, it increases understanding and provides value both academically and practically to the sporting community.

Implications for Practice

The managers interviewed in this research project, recognised the potential value of the research, and this was reflected in the responses. For example, one informant noted:

> It's been really interesting for me because I deal with one group of people in the tournament staff. To actually think about some of the processes that I have in place for that group, to think about how they might be able to relate to other groups, for instance to outsourcers, it's something that we've never really thought about before. However, a lot of the procedures can be used across the board for example, the induction of outsourcers. It's been really interesting for me to think about that.

This comment indicates the necessity to incorporate the systematic and customised HR framework identified in this research into pulsating major sport event

organisations. Potentially, this research will lead to a new direction for the AOTC and AFOGP.

The findings revealed that documents were a vital resource for event managers to assist them with personnel management practices. At the AOTC and AFOGP, documentation was not available on the customised HR management practices required by event managers. As a result of this research, Table 34 has been designed and recommends HR management practices for event managers. This becomes a starting point for understanding the pulsating characteristics and formalising HR management practices for sport event managers.

In addition, the research found that documentation, which addressed each HR stage and the special challenges managers faced when managing personnel in this type of organisation, was required. The conclusive chapter of this research has addressed this need and designed models tailored for each HR stage. A summary of the recommended documentation is illustrated in Table 34.

If the recommended management practices and documentation were incorporated at the AOTC and AFOGP, there would be significant implications for event management practice. That is, the current management practices would transform to a more formalised, customised process, which address the special challenges faced by event managers. This process is presented in the implications for practice column in Table 34.

The table provides recommended HR management practices, related documentation and highlights the implications for practice by event managers in pulsating major sport event organisations. It first addresses the HR process and then specifically identifies each stage of the process.

Table 34. Implications for practice

Recommended HR management practices	Recommended documentation	Implications for practice
Customised HR process	HR framework: key stages for major sport event organisations	* Provides an overview of the requirements involved in managing personnel * Illustrates how the special characteristics of a pulsating major sport event organisation greatly affect the management of personnel * Assists personnel in understanding the formalised HR process performed by event managers
Establishing a flexibly expanded organisational structure	Organisational chart: highlighting the importance of recognising all personnel, the respective management levels within department teams, and caters for the event cycle	* Possibly improves performance within respective organisation * Increases satisfaction by personnel better understanding where they fit
Selecting personnel using a table identifying core competencies and a flow chart for the selection process	Core competency chart for each personnel category Flow chart on the selecting process for each personnel category	* Assists: event managers when formulating job descriptions, and designing behavioural questions for interviews; personnel when applying for positions * Ensures selection is an easier process for event managers, and a clearer process for personnel
Inducting personnel incorporating tailored strategies within a four-step process	Induction guide: illustrating strategies for each personnel category, during the event cycle	* Creates consistent practices and processes for all personnel, new, permanent and returning * Provides an systematic outline applied during the stages of an event * Optimises managerial performance, whereby a consistent management approach is applied to all personnel
Managing teams using a model	Managing team framework: highlighting customised strategies for managing a team that pulsates, factors that contribute towards personnel feeling they belong as team members, and the outcomes achieved by the team	* Documents how to manage teams in complex environment * Ensures consistent strategies are implemented within the organisation and between department teams * Enhances satisfaction for all team members * Optimises team management performance
Retaining personnel incorporating a guide	Retention guide for each personnel category during each stage of the event cycle	* Ensures a consistent management approach with tailored retention strategies implemented during the event cycle * Increases personnel retention * Increases personnel satisfaction

The AOTC and AFOGP are considered prestigious international events, however, this research has found that recognition of the pulsating characteristics and improvement to the level of HR information and documentation provided to event managers was required. If these findings are applicable in such prestigious events, it is envisaged that this could be the case at other pulsating major and smaller sport event organisations, whether they be involved with one-off or annual events. If this is the case, it is recommended that the HR process and associated models presented in this research be trialed for use in other such organisations.

The results from this research will assist in changing the current practice of managing personnel in the major sport event industry. The HR process would guide managers with each stage and they would be aware of the special needs evident within their pulsating organisations. Consequently, a more formalised and comprehensive practice in managing personnel at pulsating major sport event organisations would occur.

Implications for Future Study

Given the demand for major sport events within Australia, it is surprising that so little research has been conducted on the management of personnel within the organisations coordinating these events. With the nature of this research being exploratory and at the 'infant' stage, implications for future study are strong.

It is argued here that the HR framework and associated models presented within this research, which acknowledge the characteristics of pulsating major sport event organisations, could be built upon to examine similar organisations. Clearly, determining the management practices of personnel within all pulsating major sport

event organisations cannot be identified by the study of just two organisations. However, future studies will be able to build upon this research to examine other pulsating major sport event organisations.

This study could also be extended to incorporate quantitative analysis to reinforce the data. This may validate the HR framework and the respective models as well as add to the limited supply of relevant literature. In addition, it may further validate the importance of management practices tailored for pulsating major sport event organisations, altering the assumption that generic organisation personnel management practices are applicable for all organisations.

Finally, the results of this research have provided evidence to warrant investigation of managing personnel in other pulsating event organisations and related industries that are effected by the event, to determine how closely they share HR stages, characteristics and issues with pulsating major sport event organisations. For example, managing volunteers at the Victorian Port Fairy Folk Festival, and managing tourists at accommodation enterprises who attend the festival. The AOTC and AFOGP were selected for this research because they had several contrasting characteristics, namely, the longevity of each organisation; one organisation conducting two events during the year thereby pulsation would be at a greater rate than the other which conducted one event per year; a permanent facility compared to a non-permanent facility; and one organisation favouring outsourcing more so than the other. Prior to this research, it was thought that these differences may result in varying practices for managing personnel between the two organisations. However, the findings revealed that personnel were managed in a similar manner, despite organisational differences.

Chapter Six: References

Allen, C. (1998). Stabilising the non-standard workforce: Managing labour utilisation in private hospitals. *Labour and Industry, 8* (3), 61 – 76.

Ancona, D., Kochan, T., Scully, M., Van Maanen, J., & Westney, D. E. (1996). *Managing for the future: Organizational behavior and processes.* Cincinnati, OH: South-Western College.

Anderson, L. (1997). Employee selection systems reduce turnover. *Telemarketing and call center solutions, 15* (7), 92 - 94.

Armstrong, A. (1997). Using assessment centres to select team leaders. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources, 35*(2), 67 – 78.

Atkinson, J. (1985). *Flexibility, uncertainty and manpower management.* (Institute of Manpower Studies Rep. No. 89). Brighton, UK: Institute of Manpower Studies.

Atkinson, J. (1987). Flexibility or fragmentation? The United Kingdom labour market in the eighties'. *Labour and society, 5* (2), 887 – 105.

Auld, C. (1994). Changes in professional and volunteer administrator relationships: Implications for managers in the leisure industry. *Australian Journal of Leisure and Recreation, 4* (2), 14 – 22.

Australian Grand Prix Corporation. (1998). *Annual report 1998.* Victoria, Australia: Author.

Australian Grand Prix Corporation. (1998, a). *Draft of department structure.* Unpublished manuscript.

Australian Grand Prix Corporation. (1998, b). *Information kit for full-time employees.* Unpublished manuscript.

Australian Grand Prix Corporation. (1998, c). *Formula One Grand Prix event information kit.* Unpublished manuscript.

Australian Grand Prix Corporation. (1998, d). *Staff manual: 1998 Formula One Grand Prix.* Victoria, Australia: Author.

Australian Grand Prix Corporation. (1998, e). *Security staff. 1998 Formula One Grand Prix.* Victoria, Australia: Author.

Australian Grand Prix Corporation. (1998, July). *Tender for supply of event staff operations* (Issue Brief No. G/BB/3001SCOP.DOC/EVENTSTAFF/TENDER/23/07/98). Victoria, Australia: Author.

Australian Grand Prix Corporation. (2002). *Staff manual: 2002 Motorcycle Formula One Grand Prix.* Victoria, Australia: Author.

Australian Open Tennis Championship. (1997). *Australian Open office manual.* Unpublished manuscript.

Australian Open Tennis Championship. (1997, a). *Australian Open exit survey.* Unpublished manuscript.

Australian Open Tennis Championship. (1997, b). *Event information: 1997 Australian Open.* Victoria, Australia: Author.

Australian Open Tennis Championship. (1997, May). *1997 Australian Open casual employment application* (Issue Brief No. Casual applications). Victoria, Australia: Author.

Australian University Games (1997). *Information Document.* Victoria, Australia: Author.

Babbie, E. (1998). *The practice of social research* (8th ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Barnard, B. (1990, May). The dynamics of events management case study - the Australian Motorcycle Grand Prix. Presented at Sports Management and Marketing Conference, Sydney, Australia.

Barner, R. (2000). Talent wars in the executive suite: Six trends shaping recruitment. *The Futurist, 34* (3), 35 – 41.

Berg, B. (1989). *Qualitative research methods for the social sciences.* Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Blyton, P., & Turnbull, P. (Eds.). (1992). *Reassessing human resource management.* London: Sage.

Boxall, P. F. (1992). Strategic human resource management: Beginnings of a new theoretical sophistication? *International Journal of Human Resource Management, 1,* 45 – 59.

Boxall, P. F. (1993). The significance of human resource management: A reconsideration of the evidence. *International Journal of Human Resource Management, 4* (3), 1 – 35.

Bridges, W. (1991). *Managing transitions: Making the most of change.* Reading, Mass: Addison – Wesley.

Bridges, W. (1995). *Jobshift: How to prosper in a world without jobs.* London: Allen & Unwin.

Brown, T. (1996). Giving it away. *Successful Methods, 45* (3), 107-109.

Brown, S., Sutton, W., & Duff, G. (1993). The event pyramid: An effective management strategy. *Sport Marketing Quarterly, 2* (4), 29-35.

Bruno, C. (1997, November 3). Party on! *Network World,* 70.

Burgess, R. G. (1984). *In the field: An introduction to field research.* London: Allen & Unwin.

Burgess, J., & Campbell, I. (1998). The nature and dimensions of precarious employment in Australia. *Labour and Industry, 8* (3), 5 – 22.

Burns, R. B. (1994). *Introduction to research methods.* London: Sage.

Burns, J. P. A., Hatch, J. H., & Mules, T. J. (1986). *The Adelaide Grand Prix: The impact of a special event.* Adelaide: The Centre for South Australia Economic Studies.

Campbell, P. (2002, July). *Placemaking means not wastemaking.* Paper presented at the Events and Place Making Conference, Sydney, Australia.

Cascio, W. F. (1992). *Managing human resources: Productivity, quality of work life, profits (3rd ed.).* Singapore: McGraw-Hill.

Catherwood, D. W., & Van Kirk, R. L. (1992). *The complete guide to special event management: Business insights, financial advice, and successful strategies from Ernst and Young.* New York: Wiley.

Chelladurai, N. (1999). *Human resource management in sport and recreation.* Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

Cober, T. (1997, January). Getting volunteers' very best. *Association Management,* 102 – 104.

Commonwealth Department of Industry, Science and Resources. (2000). Towards a national sports tourism strategy. Working paper. Canberra, Australia: Commonwealth of Australia.

Compton, R. L., & Nankervis, A. R. (1998). *Effective recruitment & selection practices (2nd ed.).* Sydney, Australia: CCH Australia.

Cooke, R. (1997). Managing turnover. *Credit Union Management, 20* (7), 48-50.

Corbin, J., & Strauss, A. (1990). *Basics of qualitative research: Grounded theory procedures and techniques.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Crawford, R. (1991). *In the era of human capital: The emergence of talent, intelligence, and knowledge and the worldwide economic force and what it means to managers and investors.* New York: HarperBusiness.

Critten, P. (1994). *Human resource management in the leisure industry.* Harlow, England: Longman.

Culkin, S. F., & Kirsch, S. L. (1986). *Managing human resources in recreation and leisure services.* New York: Macmillan.

Cuskelly, G. (2000, June). *An application of the theory of planned behaviour to predicting the dependability of volunteer staff at major sport events.* Paper presented at the North American Society for Sport Management 15th Annual Conference, Colorado Springs, USA.

Dale, M., & Iles, P. (1996). *Assessing management skills: A guide to competencies and evaluation techniques.* London: Kogan Page.

Delta Consulting Group, Inc. (1986). *Developing effective work teams.* New York: Author.

Denton, D. K. (1992). *Recruitment, retention, and employee relations: Field-tested strategies for the '90's.* Westport, CT: Greenwood.

Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (Eds.). (1994). *Handbook of qualitative research.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Doherty, A. J. (1998). Managing our human resources: A review of organisational behaviour in sport. *Sport Management Review, 1,* 1 – 24.

Domberger, S. (1998). *The contracting organisation: A strategic guide to outsourcing.* Oxford, NY: Oxford University Press.

Donnellon, A., & Heckscher, C. (1994). *The post-bureaucratic organization: new perspectives on organizational change.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Donohoe, F., & Southey, G. (1996). Design strategy for a manager's performance management process in QIDC. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources, 34* (2), 99 – 109.

Downey, B. (1993). Major Sports events in Victoria: The economic impacts and related tourism opportunities. *Australian Journal of Leisure and Recreation, 3* (3), 28 - 32.

Dumaine, B. (1994, September 5). The trouble with teams. *Fortune,* 86-92.

Dwyer, L., Mellor, R., Mistilis, N., & Mules, T. (2000). A framework for evaluating and forecasting the economic impacts of special events. *Proceedings of conference on event evaluation, research and education,* Sydney, 31 – 45.

Eadie, D. C. (1996). Meeting the change challenge. *Association Management, 48* (1) L26 - L31.

Earley, P. C. & Mosakowski, E. (2000). Creating hybrid team cultures: An empirical test of transnational team functioning. *Academy of Management Journal, 43* (1), 26 – 49.

Ellerby, A. (1997, December). A workforce in transition makes recruitment and retention tougher. *HRMonthly*, 42 – 43.

Elliott, T. L., & Torkko, D. E. (1996). World-class outsourcing strategies. *Telecommunications, 30* (8), 47 – 52.

Faulkner, B. (1993). *Evaluation of the tourism impacts of hallmark events* (Paper No. 16). Canberra, Australia: Bureau of Tourism Research.

Finnegan, R. P. (1997). Help wanted: Hiring a CEO for an economic development organization. *Economic Development Review, 15* (2), 20 – 26.

Flynn, G. (1994). Attracting the right employees – and keeping them. *Personnel Journal, 12,* 44 – 49.

Flynn, G. (1996). HR's Game Plan for the Olympics. *Personnel Journal, 7,* 72-76.

Fonda, N. (1995). Take me to your (personnel) leader. *People Management, 1* (25), 18-20.

Forbes, R. (1996, November). Upward feedback: A new power for the learning organisation. *HRMonthly*, 6-8.

Freedman, H. A. (1997, July). Event critiques… making your event better the next time!! *Fund Raising Management*, 30-31.

Friend, J. (1991). Personnel issues. In B. L. Parkhouse (Ed.), *The management of sport: Its foundation and application* (pp. 292-310). St. Louis: Mosby.

Frisby, W. (1998). A conceptual framework for measuring the organizational structure and context of voluntary leisure service organizations. *Society and Leisure, 8* (2), 605–613.

Frohman, M. A. (1996). Satisfy these six conditions. *Small Business Forum, 14* (1), 88-93.

Galbraith, J. R. & Lawler, E. E. (1993). *Organizing for the future: The new logic for managing complex organizations.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Getz, D. T. (1992). *Festivals, Special Events, and Tourism.* New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.

Getz, D. T. (1997). *Event management and event tourism.* New York: Cognizant Communication Corporation.

Getz, D. (2000). Developing a research agenda for the event management field. *Proceedings of conference on event evaluation, research and education*, Sydney, 9–20.

Go, F. M., Monachello, M. L., & Baum, T. (1996). *Human resource management in the hospitality industry*. NY: John Wiley & Sons.

Goldrick, P. (1997, June). What makes a selection system best practice? *HRMonthly*, 26-27.

Goldblatt, J. J. (2000). A future for event management: The analysis of major trends impacting the emerging profession. *Proceedings of conference on event evaluation, research and education*, Sydney. 1–8.

Graham, S., Goldblatt, J. J., & Delph, L. (1995). *The Ultimate Guide to Sport Event Management and Marketing*. USA: Richard Irwin.

Green, B. C. (2001). Event management: Lessons for design and implementation. In D. Kluka & G. Schilling (Eds.), *The business of sport*, pp. 91-103. Oxford, UK: Meyer & Meyer.

Grote, K. (1999, July). Staff performance advice for CPA's. *Journal of Accountancy*, 12–18.

Gruneau, R., Finn, G., Corrigan,l P., Palmer, B., Donnelly, P., & Hackett, R. (1988). . *Popular cultures and political practices*. Canada: Garamond Press.

Guerrier, Y., & Lockwood, A. (1989). Core and peripheral employees in hotel operations. *Personnel Review*, *18* (1), 9–15.

Halberg, K., & Waters, E. (1991). Functioning as a department head and supervisor: A new role for the activity coordinator. *Activities, adaptation and aging*, *15* (4), 61–85.

Hall, C. M. (1992). *Hallmark Tourism Events: Impacts, Management and Planning*. London: Belhaven Press.

Hall, C. M. (1995). *Introduction to tourism in Australia: Impacts, planning and development*, (2nd ed.). Australia: Longman.

Hamilton, D. (1994). Traditions, preferences, and postures in applied qualitative research. In N. Denzin & Y. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 60–70). London: Sage.

Handy, C. (1990). *The age of unreason*. London: Arrow Books.

Handy, C. (1996, December). Intelligence: Capitalism's most potent asset. *HRMonthly*, 8–11.

Hanlon, C., & Jago, L. (2000). Pulsating sporting events: An organisation structure to optimise performance. *Proceedings of conference on event evaluation, research and education*, Sydney, 93–104.

Harris, N. J., Toulson, P. K., & Livingston, E. M. (1996). New Zealand personnel consultants and the selection process. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources, 34* (2), 71–87.

Hauschildt, J., Keim, G., & Medcof, J. W. (2000). Realistic criteria for project manager selection and development. *Project Management Journal, 31* (3), 23–32.

Henkoff, R. (1993). Companies that train best. *Fortune, 127* (6), 42 - 49.

Herzberg, F., Mausner, B., & Snyderman, B. B. (1959). *The motivation to work* (2nd ed.). New York: J. Wiley & Sons.

Holland, P., & Deery, M. (2002). Flexible labour markets, organisations and workers. In Teicher, J., Holland, P., & Gough, R. (Eds.), *Employee relations management: Australia in a global context* (pp. 269-292). Frenchs Forest, NSW: Pearson Education.

Howarth, C. (1997, June). Strategic alliances built on trust. *HRMonthly*, 22–23.

Hsu, C. K., Marsh, R. M., & Mannari, H. (1983). An examination of the determinants of organizational structure. *American Journal of Sociology, 88* (5), 975–996.

Huszczo, G. E. (1996). *Tools for team excellence: Getting your team into high gear and keeping it there*. Palo Alto, CA: Davis-Blake.

Inglis, S, Danylchuk, K. E., & Pastore, D. (1996). Understanding retention factors in coaching and athletic management positions. *Journal of Sport Management, 10*, 237–249.

Jago, L. (1997). *Special events and tourism behaviour: A conceptualisation and an empirical analysis from a values perspective*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Victoria University, Melbourne.

Jago, L., & Shaw, R. (1998). Special events: A conceptual and definitional framework. *Festival Management and Event Tourism, 5* (1/2), 21-32.

James, D. (1996). Genuine leadership is a growing problem. *Business Review Weekly, 18* (34), 64-66.

Jameson, S. M. (2000). Recruitment and training in small firms. *Journal of European Industrial Training, 24* (1), 43-49.

Jordan, D. J., & Mertesdorf, J. (1994). The effects of goal interdependence between leisure service supervisors and their employees. *Journal of Applied Recreation Research, 19* (2), 101-116.

Jordan, L., & Morriss, C. (1997, August). Developing your managers. *HRMonthly*, 12-16.

Kathuria, R. (1999). Work force management practices for manufacturing flexibility. *Journal of Operations Management, 18* (1), 21–39.

Katz, D., & Kahn, R. (1978). *The social psychology of organizations* (2nd ed.). New York: Wiley.

Kelly, B. (1992). Positive interaction. *Managing Service Quality, 3* (1), 421-423.

Kephart, P. (1995). Marketing research 101. *American Demographics*, 57–60.

Kern, A. (1997). No team is an island. *Quality Progress, 1* (1), 110-113.

Kramar, R. (1999). Policies for managing people in Australia: What has changed in the 1990s? *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources, 37* (2), 24-32.

Kramar, R., Mcgraw, P., & Schuler, R. S. (1997). *Human resource management in Australia (3rd ed.)*. South Melbourne, Australia: Addison Wesley Longman.

Kreuchen, H. (1997, September). HR contractors offer source of learning and expertise. *HRMonthly*, 34.

Krueger, R. A. (1994). *Focus groups: A practical guide for applied research* (2nd ed.). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Kupperschmidt, B. R. (2000). Multi-generation employees: Strategies for effective management. *The Health Care Manager, 19* (1), 65–76.

Lareau, S. (1992). Le Tour de l'Ile de Montreal change la ville. *Proceedings from Conference Velo Mondiale – Pro Bike – Vello City, Montreal,* 546-548.

Larsen, J. K., Montelpare, W., & Donovan-Neale, W. (1992). *The development of a Municipal policy for volunteers in recreation and cultural services.* Ontario, Canada: Ontario Research Council on Leisure.

Legge, K. (1995). *Human resource management: Rhetorics and realities.* Hampshire, London: Macmillan.

Light, D. (1996). Characteristics of the audience for 'events' at a heritage site. *Tourism Management, 17* (3), 183–190.

Lousig-Nont, G. (1997, September). Six deadly hiring mistakes. *Incentive,* 65 – 67.

Lundin, R. A. & Soderholm, A. (1995). A theory of the temporary organization. *Scandinavian Journal of Management, 11* (4), 437– 455.

Lyles, C. D., & Mosley, A. G. (1997, October – December). Hiring the best. *Business & Economic Review,* 19 – 21.

Marquis, B. L., & Huston, C. J. (1992). *Leadership roles and management functions in nursing: Theory and application.* Philadelphia: Lippincott.

Matheson, C. (1996). Organisational Structures in the Australian Public Service. *Australian Journal of Public Administration, 55* (2), 36-46.

McGraw, P. (997). JRM – History, models, process and directions. In R. Kramar. P. McGraw & R. Schuler (3rd ed.), Human Resource Management in Australia, 44 – 86. Melbourne: Longman.

McShulskis, E. (1998, March). Why do employees leave? *HRMagazine.* 24.

Melchert, A. (1998, February/March). Water World. *Australian Leisure Management,* 48–50.

Meyer, C. (1994, May-June). How the Right Measures Help Teams Excel. *Harvard Business Review,* 95-103.

Mileham, P. (2000). The 'science' of headhunting. *Drug Discovery Today, 5* (4), 161-163.

Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative Data Analysis: An expanded sourcebook* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage

Miles, M. B., & Weitzman, E. A. (1994). Appendix: Choosing computer programs for qualitative data analysis. In Miles, M. B., & Huberman. A. M.. (Eds.), *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook* (2nd ed.) Thousand Oaks. CA: Sage.

Milia, D., & Smith, P. (1997). Australian management selection practices: Why does the interview remain popular? *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources. 35 (3),* 90–103.

Miller, P. (1991). Strategic human resource management: An assessment of progress. *Journal of Human Resource Management 1* (4), 23–39.

Minichiello, V. (1995, May 19). *Qualitative research.* Seminar conducted at Victoria University of Technology, CRC Seminar Series, Qualitative Research Forum.

Minichiello, V., Aroni, R., Timewell. E., & Alexander, L. (1995). *In-depth interviewing: Principles, techniques, analysis* (2nd ed.). Melbourne. Australia: Longman.

Mintzberg, H. (1979). *The structuring of organizations.* Englewood Cliffs. NJ: Prentice Hall.

Morgan, G. (1986). *Images of organization.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Morgan, M. (1992). *Creating workforce innovation: Turning individual creativity into organisational innovation.* Sydney, Australia: Business & Professional.

Morrall, A. (1998). A human resource rightsizing model for the twenty-first century. *Human Resource Development Quarterly, 9* (1), 81–88.

Morse, J. M. (1994). Designing funded qualitative research. In Denzin, N. K.. & Lincoln, Y. S. (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 220–235). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Mull, R. F., Bayless, K. G., Ross, C. M., & Jamieson, L. M. (1997). *Recreational sport management,* (3rd ed.). Champaign, USA: Human Kinetics.

Muncey, T. (1998). Selection and retention of nurses. *Journal of Advanced Nursing, 27* (2), 406 – 414.

Nankervis, A. R., Compton, R. L., & McCarthy, T. E. (1996). *Strategic human resource management* (2nd ed.). South Melbourne, Australia: Thomas Nelson.

Nankervis, A. R., & Leece, P. (1997). Performance appraisal: Two steps forward, one step back. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources, 35* (2), 80–92.

Narasimha, S. (2000). Organizational knowledge, human resource management, and sustained competitive advantage: Toward a framework. *Competitiveness Review 10* (1), 123-135.

Nelson, W. (1997, September / October). CEO's influencing hiring decisions. *Healthcare Executive, 48.*

Niepce, W. & Molleman, E. (1998). Work design issues in lean production from a sociotechnical systems perspective: Neo-Taylorism or the next step in sociotechnical design? *Human Relations, 51* (3), 259–287.

O'Neill, G. L. (1995). Framework for developing a total reward strategy. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources, 33* (2), 103–112.

Parker, J. (1997, June). Generation X and the struggle for a career. *HRMonthly, 20.*

Patton, M. Q. (1990). *Qualitative evaluation and research methods* (2nd ed.). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Peiperl, M. (1997, March). Testing the strength of empowerment. *Business Review Weekly, 10.*

Pessin, F. (1997). In-House Staff Training Programs. *Fitness Management, 13* (4), 35-38.

Peters, T. (1992). *Liberation Management. USA:* Pan Books.

Peters, T. (1993). *Liberation management: Necessary disorganization for the nanosecond nineties.* New York: A. A. Knopf.

Peters, T. J., & Waterman, R. H. (1984). *In search of excellence: Lessons from America's best-run companies (2nd ed.).* New York: Harper & Row.

Pettinger, R. (1998). *Managing the flexible workforce.* London: Cassell.

Pinchot, G., & E. (1993). *The end of bureaucracy and the rise of the intelligent organization.* San Francisco, USA: Berrett-Koeler.

Pipan, T. & Porsander, L. (2000). Imitating uniqueness: How big cities organize big events. *Organization Studies, 21,* 1–27.

Pope, S., Edwards, M., & Groves, J. (1996, December). The power of guidelines, structure, and clear goals. *Journal for Quality and Participation,* 56–60.

Prickett, R. (1998). Staff value a career path above salary. *People Management, 16,* 17.

Prokesch, S. (1997, September-October). Unleasing the power of learning: An interview with British Petroleum's John Browne. *Harvard Business Review,* 147–168.

Pugh, D. S., Hickson, D. J., Hinings, C. R. & Turner, C. (1968). Dimensions of organization structure. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 14,* 91–114.

Reilly, P. (2001). *Flexibility at work: Balancing the interests of employer and employee.* Hampshire: Gower.

Richards, T. J., & Richards, L. (1994). Using computers in qualitative research. In Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (Eds.), (1994). *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 445–462). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Roberts, K. M. (1997). The care and feeding of volunteers. *Security management. 41* (7), 23-26.

Robbins, S. P., & Barnwell, N. S. (1998). *Organisation theory: Concepts and cases* (3rd ed.). Sydney, Australia: Prentice –Hall.

Rosenberg, D. (1997, September). Hiring crisis at the top. *Executive Excellence.* 14–15.

Russ, K. (1997, August). Major report confirms need for bold innovation in organising people and work. *HRMonthly,* 54.

Sadler, P. (1991). *Designing organisations.* London: Mercury Books.

Sage, G. H. (1990). *Power and ideology in American sport.* Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

Sarantakos, S. (1993). *Social research.* Melbourne, Australia: Macmillan.

Saul, P. (1996). Managing the organization as a community of contributors. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources 34* (3), 19-36.

Schermerhorn, J. R. Jr., Naumes, W., & Naumes, M. J. (Eds.). (1993). *Management for productivity* (4th ed.). Canada: Wiley & Sons.

Schraub, J. J., & Katz, D. C. (1998, May). Putting teeth into management training. *JRFocus,* 13–14.

Screnci, J. (1997, September). Past behavior predicts future job performance. *HRMonthly,* 37-38.

Seaver, J. B. (1997). An orientation process for new nurse managers. *Nursing management, 28* (10), 53–55.

Sekaran, U. (1992). *Research methods for business: A skill building approach* (2nd ed.). NY: John Wiley & Sons.

Semotiuk, D. M. (1987). Commonwealth government initiatives in amateur sport in Australia 1972 – 1985. *Sporting traditions, 3* (2), 152 – 163.

Shortridge, R. & Peters, L. (1991, September). *Producing a world class quality volunteer sporting event: Strategic planning of mega-event operations.* Paper presented at the Project Management Institute Seminar/Symposium, Dallas, Texas.

Silverman, D. (1993). *Interpreting qualitative data: Methods for analysing talk, text and interaction.* London: Sage.

Slack, T. (1997). *Understanding sport organisations: The application of organisation theory.* Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

Sligo, F. (1995). Information loss revisited: How different levels of staff perceive their access to work-related knowledge. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources. 33* (1), 60–74.

Smith, A. (1998). *Training and development in Australia* (2nd ed.). Sydney, Australia: Butterworths.

Smith, A., & Stewart, B. (1999). *Sports Management: A guide to professional practice.* St Leonards, NSW: Allen & Unwin.

Spangler, I. (1997, September). *Financing sports facilities and maximising returns.* Paper presented at the Sport$ Dollar$ Play for Profits Conference, Sydney, Australia.

Sparrow, P. and Marchington, M. (1998). Introduction: Is HRM in crisis? In P. Sparrow and M. Marchington (Eds.), Human Resource Management: The new agenda London, 3 – 20. Financial Times/Pitmans.

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.

Sport and Recreation Victoria. (1999). *The business of sport*. Melbourne, Australia: Sport and Recreation Victoria.

Stoner, J. A. F., Yetton, P. W., Craig, J. F., & Johnston, K. D. (1994). *Management*, (2nd ed.). Australia: Prentice Hall.

Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1990). *Basics of qualitative research: Grounded theory procedures and techniques*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Sundstrom, E., & McIntyre, M. (1994). Measuring work-group effectiveness: Practices, issues, and prospects. Working paper. Knoxville, TN: University of Tennessee, Department of Psychology.

Tennis Australia. (1997). *Tennis Australia annual report 1997*. Melbourne, Australia: Pure Creative DMB&B.

Tennis Australia. (1997a). *Tennis Australia information kit for full-time employees*. Unpublished manuscript.

Tennis Australia. (1999). *Tournament staff handbook*. Unpublished manuscript.

Thompson, P. & McHugh, D. (1995). Work organisation: A critical introduction (2nd ed.). London: MacMillian Business.

Timo, N. (1999). Contingent and retentive employment in the Australian hotel industry: Reformulating the core-periphery model. *Australian Journal of Labour Economics, 3* (1), 47–65.

Toffler, A. (1990). *Power Shift*. New York: Bantom Books.

Torkildsen, G. (1992). *Leisure and Recreation Management*, (3rd ed.). London, UK: Spon.

Tubridy, D. (1997, August). Surveys bring precision to organisational effectiveness. *HRMonthly*, 18.

Vallance, I. (1994). From minor sport to major force. *Personnel Management, 26* (9), 24.

Vanderkruk, L. (1997, August). Creating motivated employees. *HRMonthly*, 23-24.

Victoria Racing Club (1997). *Annual Report 1997.* Melbourne, Australia: Amanda Roach Design.

Victoria Racing Club (2002). Melbourne Cup staff handbook. Unpublished manuscript.

Warn, J. R. (1994). Factors influencing the turnover of skilled personnel: A case-study. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources, 32* (1), 29–40.

Weese, W. (1994). A leadership discussion with Dr Bernard Bass. *Journal of Sport Management, 8,* 179-189.

Werther, W. B. Jnr., & Davis, K. (1996). *Human resources and personnel management (5ᵗʰ ed.).* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Wheatley, M. (1997, July/August). Evaluating the top administrator: A new approach. *Nonprofit World,* 14–17.

Whitehouse, G., Lafferty, G., & Boreham, P. (1997). From casual to permanent part-time? Non-standard employment in retail and hospitality. *International Journal of Employment Studies, 5* (1), 33–48.

Zikmund, W. G. (1994). *Business research methods: International edition* (4ᵗʰ ed.). Orlando: Harcourt Brace College.

Appendix A

Interview Sheet

Organisational structures:

The AOTC / AFOGP organisational structure is shown
- Describe your organisational structure and how it is affected for the purpose of an event

Personnel selection:

- Explain the process for selecting key personnel
- Comment upon what to look for when selecting a cross section of personnel

Personnel induction:

- Tell me the process for inducting personnel
- Explain any induction differences between full time, outsource or seasonal personnel

Teams:

- Describe how you create teams with a cross section of personnel
- How would you describe the type of teams within your organisation

Personnel retention:

- Describe the strategies required for retaining personnel

From the figure displayed, generally comment upon the process of managing personnel during a major sport event

Any further comments?

Organisational
Sub-systems

Organisational
Structure

Personnel
Selection

Event
Manager

Personnel
Retention

Personnel
Induction

Teamwork
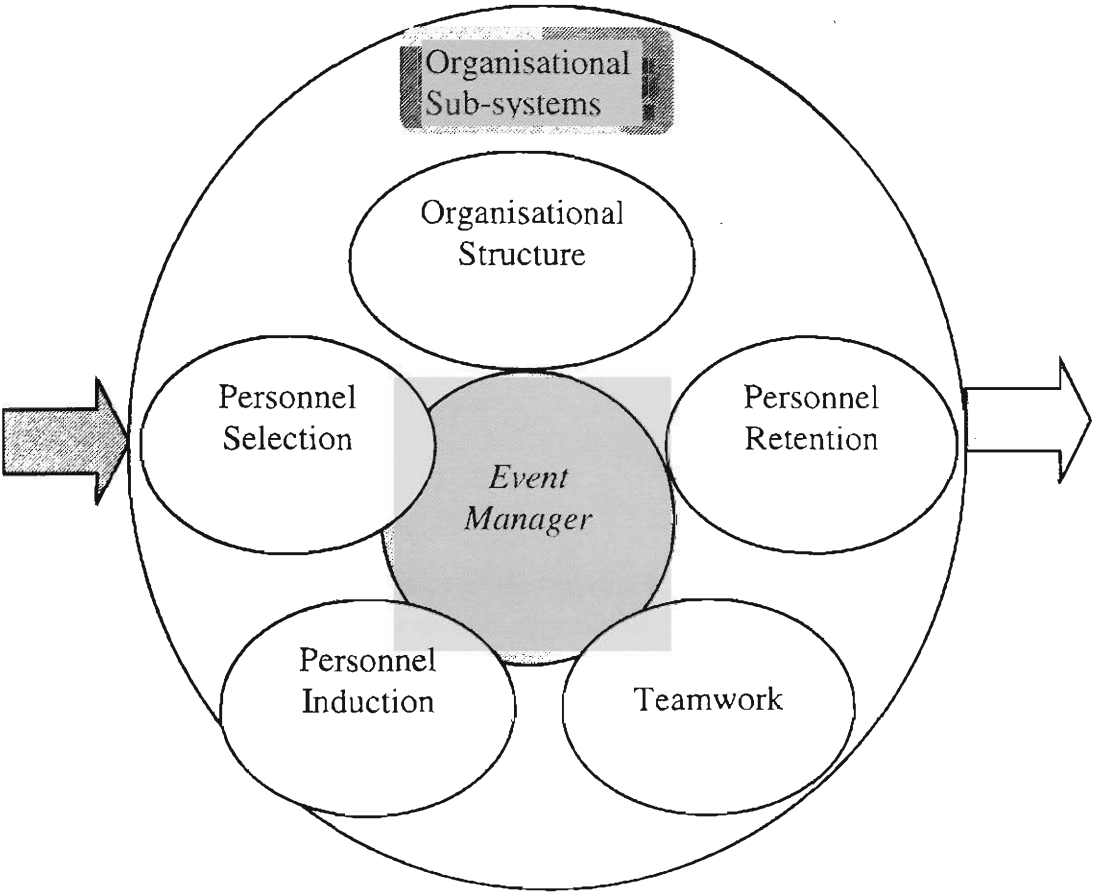
Inputs

Process

Output

Appendix B

Information Package to Informants

Dear ....,

Thank you for agreeing to partake in the research on 'Managing the pulsating effect of personnel during a major sport event'. Enclosed is information regarding the research and a consent form. Once you have read the information and understood your requirements, please sign and return the consent form at your earliest convenience. A reply paid envelope is enclosed.

If you have queries regarding any of the information, please do not hesitate to contact me on 9688 4361. I appreciate your cooperation and look forward to an informative research.

Yours sincerely

Clare Hanlon
PhD research student
Sport management lecturer

Managing the pulsating effect of personnel during a major sport event

How do you effectively manage an organisation that transforms it's structure overnight, increases personnel by over 1000 percent for an event and then returns to its original size with respect to personnel in a matter of weeks? This rapid expansion and subsequent contraction of personnel is fundamental to many sporting events, yet research is limited regarding this pulsation.

The purpose of this research is to undertake a 'micro analysis' of how event managers, in Australian major sport events located in Victoria, manage their staffing requirements. Three major research questions arise:
1. What are the main features associated with a pulsating major sport event?
2. To what extent do these features create specific issues for event managers to address?
3. How are personnel managed during a pulsating major sport event?

As the event manager of one of the major sport events identified within Victoria, I am formally inviting you to be part of this research. Your involvement, as discussed on the telephone, will be twofold.
1. To partake in an hour and a half interview which will be audio-taped. The questions are semi-structured and shall relate to the above major research questions. In order to keep risks minimal, two processes will take place. First, if you feel at risk answering any question, you have the right not answer and the next one shall be asked. Second, your name and information will be coded and treated with confidentiality. All information shall be stored in a locked filling cabinet away from the research site and remain locked and secured for five years after the research has been completed.
2. To provide an updated data list of personnel under the categories of full-time employees, part-time employees, outsourcers and volunteers. Two personnel from each category shall be interviewed and answer questions similar to yours. Names of personnel selected for the research will be confidential and only the researcher aware of their identity.

To ensure informed consent, please sign the attached form and return in the reply paid envelope at your earliest convenience.

Victoria University of Technology

CONSENT FORM FOR *MANAGING THE PULSATING EFFECT OF PERSONNEL DURING MAJOR SPORT EVENT* RESEARCH

I, _____

of _____ certify that I have the legal ability to give valid consent and that I am voluntarily providing my consent to participate in this research that will study the ways in which event managers manage personnel in major sport event organisations.

I acknowledge that:

1. I fully understand the nature of this research

2. I understand that the interview will be audio - taped

3. I am not required to answer any questions that I do not wish to answer

4. I may cease the interview at any time should I wish to do so

Signed _____

Date _____

Any queries about your participation in this project may be directed to the Principal Investigator (Name: Bob Stewart ph. 92183263). If you have any queries or complaints about the way you have been treated, you may contact the Secretary. University Human Research Ethics Committee, Victoria University of Technology, PO Box 14428 MCMC, Melbourne, 8001 (telephone no: 03-9688 4710).

Appendix C

NUD.IST4 Data Analysis

- Structure
    - Hierarchy
        - Clarity of roles
        - Career path
    - Pulsating
        - During the year
        - Leading up to an event
        - During an event
- Selection
    - Process
        - Approached directly
        - Interview
        - Agency
        - Internal
        - Tender submissions
    - Competencies
        - Full-time
        - Outsource
        - Seasonal
    - Managers' role
- Induction
    - Procedures
        - Sessions
        - Tours
    - Establishing relationships
        - Nurturing
        - General event session
        - Management brief
    - Supplying resources
        - Manuals
        - Kits
    - Induction evaluation
        - Full-time
    - Process
        - Full-time
        - Outsource
        - Seasonal

- Teams
  - Structures
    - Organisational level
    - Department level
  - Fluctuating personnel
    - Flexibility
    - Variety of personnel
  - Team building
    - Team morale
    - Sense of family
    - Meetings
  - Facilitation
    - Care factor
    - Direction and resources
  - Evaluation
    - Feedback
    - Monitor team progress
- Retention
  - Events' status
  - Ownership
  - Half-way strategies
  - Additional events
  - Full time
    - PA's
    - Career management programs
    - Updated job descriptions
    - Selecting personnel
    - Remuneration
    - Exit interviews
    - Team retention
  - Outsource
    - Long-term contracts
    - Recognition
  - Seasonal
    - Remuneration
    - Subsequent event strategies
    - Exit surveys