

A conceptual and empirical investigation of the determinants of  
consumer satisfaction within the context of special events:  
attribute- and value-based perspectives

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

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Anne-Marie Hede

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## List of publications

A number of journal articles and conference papers were produced during the course of this study, which are subsequently listed.

*A conceptual model of satisfaction with special events: a destination branding context.* (2002). Refereed paper presented at the Annual Council of Australian Tourism and Hospitality Educators' Conference, Fremantle.

*An empirical investigation of the determinants of satisfaction and recommending behaviour at special events (2002).* Refereed paper presented at the ANZMAC Conference, Melbourne, Australia.

*Satisfaction-based cluster analysis of theatre-event attendees.* (2003). Refereed paper presented at the Services Marketing Workshop, Melbourne, Australia.

Segmentation of special event attendees based on their personal values: relationships with satisfaction. (Forthcoming 2004). *Journal of Quality Assurance in Tourism and Hospitality.*

Special event research 1990-2002: a research agenda. (2003). *Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Management*, Vol. 10, p.1-15.

*Special events research during 1990-2001: key trends and issues.* (2002). Refereed paper presented at the Events and Placemaking Conference. Event Research Conference, Sydney.

*The role that attendance at special events can play in changing attitudes towards host destination (Forthcoming 2004).* Refereed paper to be presented at the Annual Council of Australian Tourism and Hospitality Educators' Conference, Brisbane.

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## **Abstract**

It is widely acknowledged that special events serve a number of functions in contemporary societies. These include developing the social cohesion within, and between communities; improving public infrastructure; bringing 'new' money into host economies; and showcasing host destinations. In recent years, tourism destination planners have increasingly incorporated special events into their strategic plans and the special event industry has grown substantially. There seems now to be a countless number of special events that are being staged around the world, which is no doubt, contributing to greater levels of competition to gain attendees. Thus, attendees are clearly of paramount importance to the success of special events; gaining information on attendees, their experiences at special events and their resulting attitudes towards host destinations is an important line of inquiry. This study was aimed at exploring the nexus between attendees of special events, special events themselves and special event host destinations.

In this study, a body of special event literature was systematically reviewed. This process identified that research on special events has burgeoned over the last decade. Aspects of special events that are now particularly well-developed include those relating to the motives for attending special events and to their economic analysis. The review identified a number of research gaps including the need to better understand special event management and to evaluate special events in a more encompassing fashion. Furthermore, it was identified that special event research undertaken during the last decade was not approached in a very strategic manner. In this study, a strategic framework was proposed for the study of special events, which was developed after considering what has already been achieved in the field and in light of some of the contemporary societal trends that are likely to impact upon the industry in the future.

This study was undertaken within the proposed strategic framework. The central concept in the study was satisfaction, as this area is one that was identified as under-researched within the context of special events and being worthy of further

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investigation. A conceptual model was developed that incorporated antecedents and outcomes of satisfaction with special events and special event host destinations, which was later tested empirically. This study explored the roles of demographics, personal values and attribute-satisfaction in forming overall satisfaction with experiences at special events and the role of overall satisfaction in forming post-consumption behavioural intentions and attitudes within the context of attendance at special events.

A case study approach, using a single special event, was used to provide an in-depth understanding of the key dimensions of the conceptual model. The special event was a theatre-event, *Mamma Mia!*, which was staged in Melbourne, Victoria, Australia, from June 2001 to June 2002. Tourism Victoria, the State tourism organisation, strongly supported the staging of this theatre-event in Melbourne as it aligned very well with its strategic plan to further develop tourism in Melbourne and Victoria. A questionnaire was developed for the study and a two-staged approach to the collection of data, often used in special event research, was used to maximise response rates for the study. The resulting sample size for the study was 788.

The results highlighted that there was a match between the demographic characteristics of attendees of the special event and aspects of the special event product and this appears to have enhanced overall satisfaction with the special event. This study also identified the importance of special event attribute satisfaction in forming overall satisfaction with the special event. Although personal values were found to be useful in profiling attendees of the special event, they were found to be less useful in explaining overall satisfaction with the special event.

Overall satisfaction was found to positively influence intentions to recommend the special event and the host destination, but the study did not find that high levels of satisfaction with the event resulted in positive changes in attitudes towards the host destination. Based on the qualitative analysis of the data, it appears that attendance at the special event assisted patrons to *position* the destination in relation to other destinations that they were perhaps more familiar. For many attendees, it was likely

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that their attendance at the special event reinforced attitudes towards the host destination. This outcome of attendance at the special event was an important finding of this study. The finding provides support for incorporating special events in destination marketing strategies.

This study raises some methodological questions in relation to satisfaction and personal values. The heteroscedastic, or bunched, distribution of the satisfaction data was addressed with the use of an algorithm that transformed the data to a normal distribution for later multivariate data analysis. It would be interesting to compare the results that were obtained using the raw and transformed data as this might provide some indication as to whether the transformations were necessary from a practical perspective. With regard to the personal values and the List of Values (LOV), psychometrically the LOV performed well. Similarly, the LOV was used to effectively segment the sample based on systems of personal values, but some of the results obtained using the LOV were somewhat perplexing, given what has been found in other studies on personal values, particularly in relation to its ability to predict behaviour and attitudes. It may be that the LOV's required reassessment in relation to contemporary personal values. Hence, further research is required on this topic.

Recommendations for further research on special events, personal values and satisfaction were proposed. Further research on special events emerges from the strategic framework that was proposed in this study and more directly as a result of this study. It would be useful, for example, to explore the conceptual model developed for this study within the context of other types of special events. By doing this, a better understanding of the model's relevance to special events can be obtained and further contributions can be made to the bodies of knowledge on personal values and satisfaction. Further to this, the results of such research will likely assist the special event industry and tourism destination planners to develop marketing and tourism strategies that are more synergistic than they have been in the past.

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# 1 Introduction

## 1.1 Background

The global recession and September 11<sup>th</sup> 2001 have impacted upon tourist activity globally (Anon. 2000c). Despite this, many governments continue to support tourism because it is generally acknowledged that tourism has the capacity to draw 'new income' into economies (Kottke, 1988). Special event tourism is particularly recognised for its capacity to contribute to the economies of host destinations (Mules and Faulkner, 1996) by attracting tourists to their host destinations (Getz, 1997). Furthermore, special events have the potential to contribute to the vitality of host communities (Wood, 2002) and positively impact upon host community environments (May, 1995).

Special event tourism is also viewed as having the potential to develop positive images of their host destinations (Hall, 1989). Many international and domestic tourists visited Sydney, Australia, for example, to specifically attend the 2000 Summer Olympics. Further to this, images of Sydney, and Australia, were swiftly projected around the world via electronic media. Similarly, the countryside of France is placed 'on show' when the *Tour de France* is televised around the globe annually. Indeed, as destinations begin to function more often as hubs, or gateways to nearby regions, special events may play even more important roles in tourism strategies in the future.

A substantial component of special event research has focussed on the economic impacts of special events. This has assisted many governments to justify their expenditure on special events. Indeed, expertise gained in this area of special event research has possibly contributed to the phenomenal growth of the industry. Various

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economic impact studies (See, for example, Burns, Hatch and Mules, 1986; Long, 1990; Ryan and Lockyer, 2001) have highlighted the potential of special events to induce expenditure within destinations and bring new income into them; this has perhaps justified some governments' support for special events. Such growth is inevitably accompanied by increased competition. Furthermore, the industry has a diverse range of stakeholders, including governments, sponsors, taxpayers, and attendees. As McDonnell, Allen and O'Toole (1999) highlighted, the role that attendees of special events can play in the success of special events. As stakeholders of special events, attendees are of paramount importance for special events.

It is well-recognised that special events provide a range of benefits for their attendees. At their core, special events provide their attendees with opportunities to escape from the routines of their daily lives (Getz, 1997; Jago, 1997a). Understanding the impact of attendance at special events on attendees is an important line of inquiry and some research has already been undertaken in this area. Uysal (1993); Saleh (1998); Kerstetter (1998); Formica and Murmann (1997) and Crompton and McKay (1997) investigated the motives for attendance at special events. This research identified that some of the key motives for attending special events are a desire for novelty, to satisfy one's curiosity and to be with people who are enjoying themselves.

In terms of profiling attendees of special events, demographics appear to be the most commonly used set of variables for this purpose, which is not dissimilar to many other consumption scenarios. Key trends, however, have emerged as to how consumers are profiled; profiling consumers is undertaken to understand, and even predict, future behavior. Indeed, theories of psychology such as motives for consumption, personal values and psychographics, are now more frequently used to

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assist marketers to identify and profile consumers, identify target markets, develop products, services and appropriate marketing communication strategies. The psychological approach to understanding consumer behaviour has emerged in many areas of consumption, including tourism, but within the context of special events it has been scant.

In marketing research, a key post-consumption concept is satisfaction. Satisfaction is a response to a consumption experience and has been likened to attitude (Hunt, 1977). It is also strongly linked with expectations of the consumption experience (Oliver, 1981; Turner, 1999; White, 2000). Its links with loyalty and recommending behaviour (Disney, 1999) make it an important outcome for organisations. Within the context of extended service settings, it is thought that consumers cumulate a series of satisfaction responses before a global satisfaction response is attained (de Ruyter, 1999; Dube, 2000). During this process, it is believed that consumers focus on the various attributes of the service, or product, being consumed.

In the context of tourism, satisfaction has been studied in heritage settings (Laws, 1998); attractions (Vitterso, 2000; Knopf, 1980); and in relation to guided tours (Geva, 1991). Some research has been undertaken on satisfaction in a special events context, such as that by Gandhi-Arora (2000); Mohr (1993); Hultsman (1998); and Thrane (2002). Gandhi-Arora and Shaw (2000) stated that research on satisfaction within the context of special events is sparse and further research in this area is warranted.

## **1.2 Research aim and scope**

This study, set within the context of tourism and special events, investigated the nexus between attendees of special events, special events and special event host

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destinations. The aim of this study was to explore the comparative importance of the characteristics of special event attendees, namely, their demographics and personal value systems, and their levels of satisfaction with special events and special event destinations. The study also aimed to understand the role of satisfaction with regard to related behavioural intentions and changes in attitude towards host destinations. Finally, on a broader level, this research aimed to explore whether there is a relationship between personal values and satisfaction.

This study employed a case study approach and focussed on the Melbourne season of *Mamma Mia!*. The special event for this study was the Melbourne season of the commercial theatre-event, *Mamma Mia!*. It may be that some researchers of special events find it difficult to consider that theatre-events are a part of special event typologies, but theatre-events have many of the characteristics of special events. The *Mamma Mia!* season was limited in duration and provided attendees with opportunities to escape the routines of their everyday lives, both of which are essential elements of special events. Although the season extended to one year, other events such as World Fairs and Expos have also extended durations.

Theatre-events, like *Mamma Mia!* are supported by Tourism Victoria and the City of Melbourne. They are recognised and treated as a form of special events. Theatre-events are recognised by Tourism Victoria for their potential to attract visitors and tourists to Melbourne, and indeed the State of Victoria, both in the short-term and in the long-term basis. Part of Tourism Victoria's *Strategic Plan 2002-2006* (Tourism Victoria, 2001) is to promote Melbourne, Australia, as a destination where major special events are held on a frequent basis (Tourism Victoria, 1997). More specifically, the *Strategic Plan 2002 -2006* aims to promote the image that Melbourne is a 'theatre' destination, where major theatre-events are a key component of the

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tourism product and the staging of this theatre-event was part of that strategy. The staging of *Mamma Mia!* was part of the implementation of this strategy.

Securing *Mamma Mia!* for Melbourne was seen as an important step in operationalising the special event component of Tourism Victoria's *Strategic Plan 2002-2006*. Further to this, *Mamma Mia!* was to be staged in Melbourne before it was staged in other capital cities of Australia, thus there were increased opportunities to attract tourists to Melbourne and the State of Victoria. It was considered that *Mamma Mia!* could potentially attract regional Victorian, interstate, and even international, attendees to Melbourne. The theatre-event's season commenced on June 2, 2001, and finished on June 27, 2002.

*Mamma Mia!* was staged at The Princess Theatre, which is one of Melbourne's iconic theatre attractions, well-known for its cultural and architectural significance. Since the 1980's, a number of other theatre-events have been staged at The Princess Theatre and this has assisted in developing the theatre's reputation as a suitable venue for such theatre-events. The English-based producers of the theatre-event selected the Princess Theatre in preference to the modern theatre, Star City, in Sydney as they felt that the ambience of the Princess Theatre would contribute towards the success of the theatre-event (Usher, 2000).

### **1.3 Importance of the research topic**

From a practical perspective, special events have been one of the fastest growing areas of special interest tourism (Crompton and McKay, 1997) and support for them does not appear to be waning. In such an environment, the market is becoming increasingly competitive. During the last decade, research on special events has burgeoned, particularly in the areas of economics and motives for attendance.

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Further research in other areas of special events is required to understand the phenomenon more fully. Future research on special events, however, needs to be part of a strategy aimed at optimising the sustainability of this area of tourism.

The research is also important from a theoretical perspective. It draws together the concepts of personal values and satisfaction, which have been researched widely, but independently of each other.

### ***1.4 Research approach and outline of this thesis***

This research was predicated on a research model developed specifically for the study, which was set within the context of special events. The research model was developed by undertaking reviews of the special event, personal values and satisfaction literature. Links were then proposed between personal values, satisfaction and post-consumption behavioural intentions within the context of special events. The results of the reviews of a body of special event research, personal values and satisfaction are presented in Chapters Two, Three and Four respectively. In Chapter Five, the development of the research model is discussed and the model is then presented. As the development of the research model is being presented, research questions and research hypotheses are posed for this study. The research questions and research hypotheses assisted in formulating the research methodology for this study, which is detailed in Chapter Six of this thesis. The results of this study are presented and discussed in Chapter Seven. Conclusions that were drawn as a result of this research are presented in Chapter Eight.

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## **1.5 *Limitations and assumptions***

It is acknowledged that special event attendees and attendance at special events do not exist in a vacuum; a range of variables will impact on the consequences of these experiences. It is not, therefore, suggested that this study will fully explain the outcomes of attendance at special events, but it is hoped that this research will provide insights into the impacts of special events for their attendees and advance knowledge in this area.

This study was conducted at one special event, which was a theatre-event. As such, the methodology used was a case study approach. Inherent in the case study approach is the inability to generalise the results to the broader population and this is often considered to be a limitation of such research (Zikmund, 1999). The case study approach is appropriate when little information is known on the topic. Indeed, this study is exploratory. Research on theatre-events is scant, as is coordinated research on personal values and satisfaction within the context of special events. The case study approach was therefore deemed highly appropriate for this study. It was considered that the information gained from this study would provide a platform upon which to undertake further research in this area of special events, and more generally in tourism and marketing.



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## **2     *Special events and special event research***

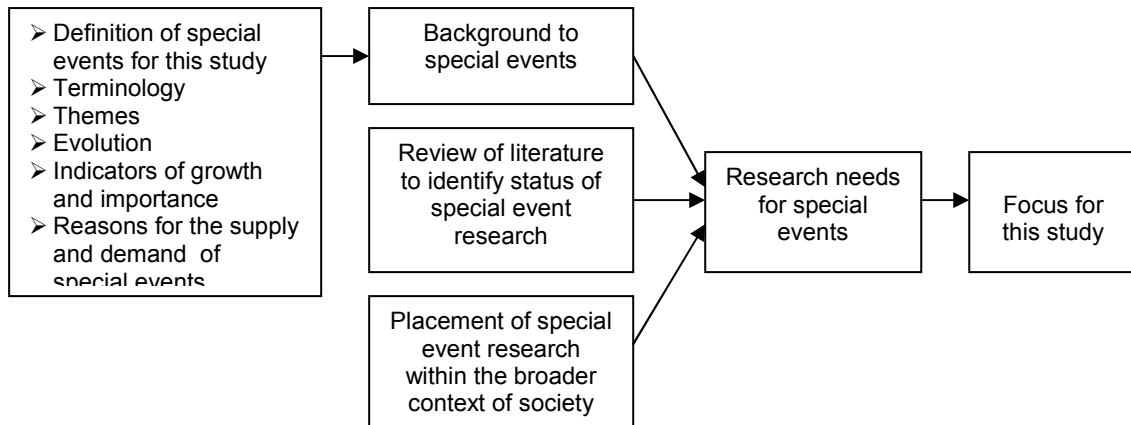
### **2.1   *Introduction***

In the introduction to this thesis, key concepts that are used in the study were introduced to the reader, but these concepts require further exploration so that a model can be developed for this study. The purpose of this chapter is to demonstrate how the research undertaken for this study evolved. At the conclusion of this chapter, the focus of this research will be clearly identified.

The chapter firstly defines the term ‘special event’ within the context of tourism. Special event terminology, typologies of special events and special event themes are then discussed. This information is included to assist in setting the boundaries for the study. Following this, the chapter provides a brief history of special events; identifies some of the key indicators of the growth of special events over the last decade; and discusses the reasons for staging special events in contemporary society. A review of special event research is then conducted and the results are viewed within the context of societal trends. Based on this process, a research agenda for the study of special events is developed and the focus for this study is then identified and discussed. An outline of the process is presented in Figure 1.

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**Figure 1: Process for defining focus of study**



### **2.1.1 Special event: a definition for this study**

Jago (1997a) stated that even though considerable progress had been made to conceptualise and define ‘special events’, the use and interpretation of special event terminology has not always been consistent. He further suggested that, because of this, it is unlikely that an all-embracing definition can be developed for the term ‘special event’. At the very least, however, a description of the term ‘special event’ is required for this study so that boundaries of the study are clear.

Definitions of the terms ‘special event’ have emerged in the literature (Getz, 1997; Jago, 1998; and Arcodia and Robb, 2000) most of which encompass the idea that these occurrences are out of the ordinary, limited in duration, infrequent and may even be one-off. Getz (1997) highlighted that the ‘specialness’ of special events is enhanced by such factors as their uniqueness, quality, festive spirit, authenticity, tradition, theming and symbolism. In relation to tourism, special events can build destination images (Getz, 1988) and attract tourists to the host destinations by helping to raise their profiles. It is these aspects of the term ‘special event’ that are considered when it is used in the context of this study.

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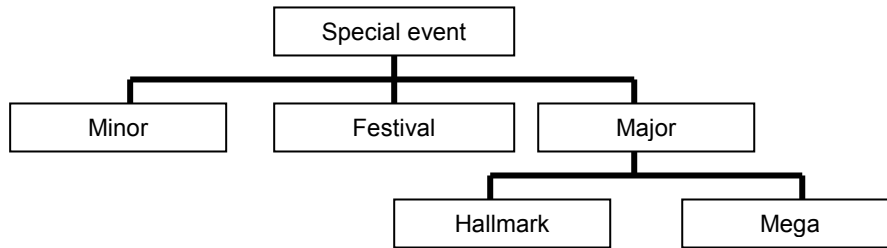
### **2.1.2 Special event terminology**

Special events are often described as ‘festivals’, ‘mega-events’, ‘hallmark events’ and ‘icon events’. Early researchers of special events, such as Hall (1989); Getz (1989); and Ritchie (1984), made initial distinctions between different categories of special events and such distinctions are also evident in the contemporary literature. Similarly, the media uses such terms when reporting on special events.

It is understandable that some confusion has surrounded the use of these terms. Getz and Wicks (1993) noted that although all festivals are special events, not all special events are festivals. According to Jago (1997a), there has been considerable confusion and duplication, for example, in the use of the terms ‘mega-event’ and ‘hallmark’ event. Jago and Shaw (1999) suggested that standardisation in the usage of special event terminology is required to ensure that further progress is made in this field. They used a multi-stimulus approach to develop a complex framework of special events. Attributes of special events listed in the literature and those perceived by potential event attendees were used as the bases for the framework, combined with the distinguishing dimensions of scale, drawing power, production or program, theme and generic grouping. Other miscellaneous dimensions, such as frequency of staging, role of audience, duration of the event, authenticity and the manner in which the right to stage the event was made were also included in the framework.

Jago’s framework provides ease of classification as it uses three categories of special events, namely, minor special events, major special events and festivals. Major special events were further categorised into hallmark and mega-events. The framework is presented in Figure 2.

**Figure 2: Special event framework, Jago (1997a, p, 4)**



As can be seen in Figure 2, an attempt to categorise special events using mutually exclusive categories was made despite Jago's acknowledgement that, at times, there may be some overlap between them. Table 1 presents a description of each of the categories of special events in the framework.

**Table 1: Special events: categories and description of special events**  
(Jago 1997a, pp 56 - 57)

Category	Description
Minor	Small in scale; attracting a moderate crowd and very little, if any, media attention. Often associated with a tradition, or may be a new special event.
Major	Large in scale; high in status or prestige; attracts a large crowd and wide media attention, are often associated with a tradition and incorporate festivals and other types of events; expensive to stage; attract funds to the region, lead to the demand for associated services; leave legacies.
Festival	A public themed celebration, usually developed by the host community.
Hallmark event	Infrequently occurring major event tied to a specific place; the destination and the special event become synonymous with each other; on an international, national or regional scale.
Mega-event	A one time major event on an international scale.

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### 2.1.3 Special event themes

The previous sections have presented a description of special events to be used in this study and a framework of special events based on their attributes. The concept of 'theme', however, requires elaboration given the variety of themes that underpin contemporary special events. The themes of special events tend to capture the essences of the events. Ritchie (1984) and Hall (1989) both proposed classifications of hallmark events based on the themes that they identified across a number of special events. These are presented in Table 2 and provide the basis for this discussion.

**Table 2: Hall (1989) and Ritchie (1984): hallmark events themes**

Author	Ritchie (1984)	Hall(1989)
Themes	Unique carnivals and festivals	Cultural events: carnivals and festivals
	Major sports events	Sports events
	Significant cultural and religious events	Religious and sacred events
	Historical milestones	Cultural events: historical milestones
	Classical commercial and agricultural events	Commercial events
	Major political personage events	Political events
	World fairs/expositions	

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These two classifications were related to hallmark events when they were initially developed, but they appear to have application to the broader context of special events. As can be seen in Table 2, a number of similarities between these classifications is evident. This researcher synthesised these classifications so that the special event terminology used in this study is clearer and more succinct. In synthesising the list of themes, the researcher identified that there were high levels of face validity to include Ritchie's 'world fairs/expositions' in Hall's 'commercial' theme as both of these themes appear to be very similar in terms of their attributes.

The synthesised list of special event themes used in this study is:

- cultural events, including carnivals and festivals and historical milestones;
- sports events;
- religious and sacred events;
- commercial events, including world fairs and expos; and
- political events.

In a similar way to Jago's framework of special events, special event themes will not always be mutually exclusive. Some sporting events, for example, may also fall into the realms of commercial events and some cultural events may also be religious in nature. It is thought, however, that refining these classifications, as has just been done, and using this classification from the commencement of the study, places delimitations on the study, thereby focusing it more effectively.

#### **2.1.4 Evolution of special events**

Special events have been part of cultures and civilisations for thousands of years. Festivals, for example, date back to between the 9<sup>th</sup> and 7<sup>th</sup> centuries B.C., during Babylonian times, when they played a major part in cultural life. Parise (1982, p.8) noted that during this period, the Macedonians staged various festivals throughout

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the year and “although we do not really know what festivals they [the Macedonians] celebrated, we can assume that they had planting and harvest festivals, days honouring their gods, a festival around the winter solstice etc.”. It was during this period that the ancient Olympic games were first staged, which were originally religious in nature (Anon., 2001a).

Some special events have been created in response to events that are going to occur, (for example, the winter solstice) or have occurred (for example, days of political significance) in communities, whilst others have been created as special events in their own right. Historical records have often been punctuated by special events, such as celebrations of the landing of explorers in new territories, coronations of kings and queens or the launching of new governments and legislation. In Australia, one of the country’s first major special events, described as the “event of the century” (Clark, 1981, p. 73), was held in Sydney in 1888. This special event commemorated the centenary of the landing of the first English fleet in Sydney Cove. Just over a decade later, Australians then celebrated the Inauguration of the Federation of Australia in 1901 with the World Expo in Melbourne. In the northern hemisphere, the Dickens-on-the Strand Festival held in Texas is viewed as an opportunity to cement the links between waterfront’s nineteenth century cotton trading connections and its English heritage (Crompton, 1995).

Some special events have also been created to encourage communities to reflect upon and, perhaps, continue their culture’s history and tradition. Sofield and Li (1998) observed that the 800-year old Chinese Chrysanthemum Festival perpetuates and venerates traditional culture and is “an expression of both thanks for past prosperity and hopes for future wealth” (p. 277). Similarly, the World Fair Expositions (Expos) have significant links with history as the sites for these are chosen so that the destination staging the Expo can reflect on a part of its history. Chicago, for

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example, was selected as the destination for the 1893 Expo because that year was the 400<sup>th</sup> anniversary of the arrival of Columbus; the centennial of the French Revolution was celebrated during the 1889 Paris Expo; and in 1909, the tenth anniversary of the American gold rush was commemorated during the San Francisco Expo. In 1988, the bicentennial of Australia's discovery by Europeans was celebrated during the Brisbane Expo.

In an Australian context, Clark (1981, p. 177) described the festival held in Sydney in 1888 that celebrated the centenary of the landing at Sydney Cove as the "peoples" festival. McDonnell, Allen and O'Toole (1999) suggested that in Australia, festivals however, are really a post-war phenomenon. During the 1940s and 1950s in Australia, town-, or city-, based festivals emerged as part of the Australian culture. McDonnell, Allen and O'Toole noted that Australians wanted to celebrate their newfound freedom after the Second World War. Alomes (1985) suggested that the popularity of festivals in Australia during this period can be attributed to Australians wanting to invent some form of celebration that was a reflection of their own culture. In Europe, the end of harsh winters provided the impetus for carnivals and the end of 'picking' seasons signified an abundance of food for farming communities in the USA, but there was less meaning in these for Australians.

Since the 1940s and 1950s, city-based festivals have combined familiar, yet novel characteristics; they usually consisted of a "street parade, a 'Festival Queen' competition, an outdoor art exhibition and sporting event" (McDonnell, Allen and O'Toole, 1999, p.7). Many Australian festivals have reached, or are approaching, their fiftieth anniversary. This demonstrates the long-standing support they have had from local communities. Examples of festivals, which were developed in this era, include the Melbourne Moomba Festival, the Waratah Festival in Sydney, the Festival of the Flowers in Toowoomba and the Begonia Festival in Ballarat.



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City-based festivals were also popular in the northern hemisphere but to a lesser extent. This was possibly because of the competition they experienced from other types of special events such as harvest and 'picking' festivals. Some festivals have failed outright (Getz, 2002) and others have been modified to enhance their sustainability. Examples of festivals that have been modified are the Edinburgh Festival (or International Festival as it is sometimes referred) and the Melbourne Moomba Festival, in Melbourne. Both of these festivals have undergone considerable expansion, resulting from amalgamations with other types of events within the cities in which they are staged and a broadening of their original programs.

The range, size and frequency of special events staged around the world have become more varied. Very large special events are now held more often (Goldblatt, 2000). Many large special events have international status, attract many attendees, and significant levels of media attention. These types of special event are often described as mega-events. The Olympic Games, World Fairs and 'Expos' fall into this category of the special events typology presented in Figure 2 of this chapter. One of the first mega-events to be staged in contemporary society was the 1948 Modern Olympics in London. These games were staged after an eight-year spell, due to the political unrest of the Second World War, and were seen as a symbol of freedom and peace. Since then, the modern day Olympics has "evolved into an international sporting event of such scale that it is difficult to envisage any other single, planned event that rivals it in terms of potential tourism impacts" (Tourism Forecasting Council, 1998, p.8).

Mega-events are considered to be more than just special events. Olds (1998) stated that due to the scale and complexity of mega-events, "they can no longer be understood in terms of the event itself". Mega-events are now often associated with urban policy (Roche, 1994); urban renewal (Ritchie, 2000); and host region awareness (Ritchie and Smith, 1991). Despite the evidence of many positive impacts

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of mega-events, negative impacts of mega-events have also been identified, including housing evictions (Hiller, 1998; Olds, 1998) and those of an environmental kind (May, 1995).

Even with the identification of these negative impacts, the popularity of mega-events appears to be increasing. Olds (1998, p.2) suggested that memories of the Summer Olympic Games, in particular, are suffused with glamour and spectacle. According to Olds, the setting of new world records by Olympic athletes is glamorous, as is the “glamour of the spectacle as the world’s media descends upon one city and television sets beam event-related images to houses and locations from Manhattan to Shanghai” (p.7).

In terms of participation, Stedman, Goldblatt and Delpy (1995) suggested that the trend to become involved in, and the demand for, sporting events can be attributed to the “increased awareness of self-responsibility for personal health” as well as a greater involvement in health clubs. Green and Chalip (1998) suggested that sport tourism is a “celebration of subculture” and that it has substantial importance for a sense of purpose for many of sporting event participants. Some sporting events, originally staged only for the local community, have evolved into national and sometimes international events. Audiences watch the events: ‘track-side’, on the television, sometimes on the Internet and sometimes in cinemas. The Boston Marathon, the athletic Masters’ events and the Tour de France are examples of such sporting events. The broadcasting and sponsorship rights for the most prestigious sporting events are now contested vigorously. For example, the World Cup Soccer, which attracted capacity audiences at the competitions, was also watched by an estimated 32 billion people worldwide (Shani and Sandler, 1996) providing unprecedented opportunities for advertising.

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## **2.1.5 Indicators of the growth and importance of the special events sector**

During the last decade there has been considerable growth in both the numbers and types of special events staged worldwide (Jago, 1997a). It is difficult to identify in the literature an estimation of the value of the special event sector, however, there are a number of indicators as to the extent of the growth of the industry in recent years and the importance of the industry. These indicators include the number of special events being staged, attendance numbers at special events, sponsorship, professional membership, education and training, and the levels of investment in securing special events. These indicators will be briefly discussed in this section.

**Number of special events and attendance numbers at special events.** Many countries have reported increased patronage at special events. Furthermore, there appears to be an increase in the number of events that are now being staged around the world. Attendances at special events in Montreal, for example, increased by 1.6 million in 2000 to 11.5 million (Alonzo, 2001). Numerous special events were staged all over the world at the beginning of the twenty-first century, some of which were participant-based and others audience-based that involved extensive international media coverage. The fireworks displays in Sydney, for example, were televised to regional areas of Australia, as well as other Australian capital cities. Similarly, the New Year's Eve celebrations in Times Square were televised internationally, providing opportunities for sponsorship, advertising and publicity.

In 2001, a wave of special events was staged as a result of the Centenary of Australia's Federation. A review of the Centenary of Federation calendar (Anon., 2001a) highlights the number and range of 'sub-events' included on the yearlong program. A total of 417 official sub-events were staged in city and regional locations,

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including festivals, cultural workshops, conferences and exhibitions. Examples of such events were the 'Our Nation on Parade' series, held in capital cities, and the 'Source to Sea Festival', which was staged in regional towns over a two month period. Harris and Jago (2000) noted that the size of event calendars has increased substantially to the point that they are now produced electronically so that they can be progressively updated.

**Sponsorship.** The value of commercial event sponsorship has increased substantially over the last decade. In 1996, the value of commercial sponsorship in the USA was \$5.4 billion (Shani and Sandler, 1996) and according to the International Events Group in Chicago, in 1998 commercial sponsorship for events was worth over US\$9 billion (Goldblatt, 2000). A decade earlier, the value of this commercial sponsorship was estimated to be worth US\$500 million (Lee, Sandler and Shani, 1997). This growth is also reflected in the level of media attention given to special events. In 1993, the Kodak Albuquerque Balloon Festa, for example, attracted 1,708 accredited photojournalists to capture the event and is now considered to be the most photographed special event in the world (Turco, 1998). Similarly, broadcast rights fees and revenues for special events, particularly mega-events such as the Olympic Games, have escalated since the 1960's (McDaniel, 2002).

**Professional associations.** It was most likely in response to the post-war boom in special events that members of the event industry formed the Festival and Events Society (now called the International Festival and Events Society) in the 1950's. Despite being a relatively young industry, this formalisation process signalled the importance of the industry at that time, and the need for improved professionalisation and collaboration amongst its members. The special events industry had grown significantly since the 1950's and it was perceived that the industry required

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professional management to sustain its future growth (Getz, 2000). Membership numbers of event associations have also increased considerably during the last decade, as has the global coverage of these associations. The International Festival and Event Association (IFEA), one of the peak membership bodies in this field, has experienced substantial growth in its membership numbers, boasting almost 2700 individual memberships from all over the world (IFEA, 2001).

**Education and training.** There has been an increased demand for education and training in the field of special events, which has been reflected in the supply of special event courses being offered around the world. Since 1983, the USA chapter of the IFEA has offered its members the opportunity to become professionally certified event managers. In Australia, the University of Technology Sydney (UTS) has delivered an Executive Certificate in Event Management course to over 300 students (Anon., 2001b). At the tertiary level, the increasing demand for education and training in special events prompted 17 of the 29 Australian universities that offered tourism related courses in 1999 to develop a special event-related subject or course (Harris and Jago, 2000). In parallel with the growth in the demand for and supply of event management education, the UTS instituted the Australian Centre for Event Management (ACEM) in June 1999 (Anon., 2001b). The ACEM delivers its event management course in the Asia Pacific and there is demand for delivery of the course in the United Kingdom.

**Investment.** Levels of investment, by both government and corporate organisations, in special events have escalated. The estimated cost to the Canadian Government for the Toronto 1996 bid for the Summer Olympic Games, initiated in 1985, was \$17.5 million (Getz, 2002). The Australian government appointed a Federal Minister dedicated to oversee the management of the staging of the Sydney 2000 Summer Olympic Games. Some four years prior to the staging of the 2006 Commonwealth

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Games, the Victorian State government appointed a Minister to also oversee the management of that event to be held in the State's capital. In Queensland, Australia, the State government instituted the Queensland Events Corporation to promote the staging of special events in that State. Furthermore, the value of some special events, which are held annually, for example the Formula One Grand Prix and the Tamworth Music Festival, have been monitored over a period of time and highlight increases in their economic values. Similarly, private organisations invest in special events directly as event managers and often indirectly as sponsors.

### **2.1.6 Reasons for the demand and supply of special events**

It appears that where once the public was content to celebrate occasions in small and private ways, celebrations are now often elaborate and require the services of professional event organisers. It was through the 'dawn' of the new millennium that the demand to celebrate special occasions, more substantially than ever before, was most recently demonstrated. In the USA, the demand for fireworks and pyrotechnics exhibitions for 2000's New Year's Eve was unprecedented (Barbieri, 2000). In Australia, Hede and O'Mahony (2001) noted that there was an extraordinary demand to celebrate the occasion with professionally organised special events.

Pine and Gilmore (1999) suggested that individuals are now seeking 'high touch' experiences, largely in response to their 'high tech' lives, which Getz believes may explain the motivation for some individuals becoming involved in special events. A number of reasons have been identified as those that motivate individuals to attend special events. These include novelty-seeking behaviour, curiosity, the need to socialise with family and friends, being with people who are enjoying themselves and relaxation (Mohr, Backman, Gahan and Backman, 1993; Uysal, Gahan and Martin, 1993). Gorney and Busser (1996) found that attendance at special events improved

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attendees' satisfaction with life in general. Walle (1996) noted that for some performers at special events, their participation has even become a symbol of professional status. In a time when work and leisure patterns are changing dramatically, Stebbins (2001) suggested that 'serious leisure', or "the pursuit of an amateur, hobbyist, or career volunteer activity that captivates its participants with its complexity and many challenges" (p. 54), can be a valid substitute for work.

From governments' perspectives, the staging of special events is often driven by economic and political motives. Governments are often politically motivated to become involved in special events when they see that special events have the capacity to improve collaboration amongst councils or shires, particularly in regional areas (Ryan, 1995). Mules and Faulkner (1996) noted that it is common for governments to incorporate strategies to secure special events into their economic policies. The 1984 Los Angeles Summer Olympics, or the "Hamburger Games" (Toohey and Veal, 2001), demonstrated that, for the first time in the history of the modern Olympics, it was possible for an Olympic city to achieve a direct economic benefit from hosting a mega-event. It was reported that the City of Los Angeles "made a surplus of 215 million" (Gratton, Dobson and Shibli, 2000). Staging mega-events is now often viewed as a lucrative and prestigious activity, despite the huge levels of investment required to do so (Mules and Faulkner, 1996). McManus (1999), p. 36) stated that "events create an artificial spike in demand for accommodation, transport and hospitality". Even before the staging of the 2000 Sydney Summer Olympics, Australia's Tourism Forecasting Council estimated that the games would generate an additional AU\$6.1 billion in tourism earnings and create 150,000 new jobs in Australia (1998).

The Centre for Regional Economic Analysis (1999) estimated that the extra economic activity in Australia during the 10-year period 1994-2004 attributable to the 2000 Sydney Summer Olympics would be AU\$6.5 billion. Statistics are not yet

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available to confirm these forecasts, but according the New South Wales Department of State and Regional Development (Anon.2002c) there is some indication that the economic activity generated up until one year after the event was in excess of the original forecasts. Almost AU\$973 million was sourced from the sale of broadcasting rights and a further AU\$450 million was provided by foreign investors (Surry, 2000). Further to this, Jakovac (1993) reported that Victoria, the neighbouring State to New South Wales where the games were held, would stand to benefit AU\$1 billion from the flow-on effects if Sydney was successful in its bid to stage the 2000 Summer Olympic Games. For smaller special events, however, attracting new income into a region is difficult, as they often have limited power to attract attendees from outside the host region. Their objective is often to retain income in the region that would otherwise be spent outside the region if special events, such as festivals, were not staged.

The economic impacts of special events are tangible, but there are other kinds of impacts of special events that are less tangible. The notion, for example, that special events are able to improve images of host destinations is a widely held belief. Hall (1989) suggested that mega-events have the capacity to change how host destinations are perceived. In doing so, Hall stated that these types of special events provide new middle class tourists with the impetus to visit host destinations in the future. The notion has influenced destination marketing activities: the extensive media coverage of 1984 Summer Olympic Games catapulted images of Los Angeles into homes all over the world. Since then, marketers of other host destinations have used this strategy to boost tourism to destinations. Images of the Sydney Harbour with the Opera House and the Harbour Bridge, for example, were used extensively in the television coverage of the 2002 Summer Olympics.



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Similarly, special events have the capacity to improve civic pride within the host community (Wood, 2002). Goldblatt and Perry (2002) suggested that a model be used for special events so that special events revitalise communities, where relaxing and contemplative environments are created for residents and visitors. Arcodia and Whitford (2002), in their analysis of the literature on festivals and social capital, discussed the synergies between these two concepts. In an empirical piece of research, Chessel (2002) examined the social role of three local festivals and concluded that they embraced cultural diversity. She further suggested that, as a form of urban tourism, special events sometimes replace a 'sense of place', which in the past was built on the connectedness of the neighbourhood block. Johnson (2002) also highlighted the role of a small local festival in building the host community's 'sense of place'. Kelly (2002) proposed that special events encourage peace and harmony where the sharing of experiences is encouraged.

The staging of special events often necessitates the construction of purpose-built structures, which it is generally hoped will become tangible legacies for the host destination. Although this is not necessarily the primary reason for wanting to stage special events, it is sometimes argued that these legacies will provide substantial benefits for the host community. There are many examples of such legacies around the world. The Exhibition Buildings in Melbourne, Australia, and the Eiffel Tower in Paris, for example, are legacies of the 1888 and the 1889 World Expositions respectively. It is also envisaged that the sporting stadiums, built for the 2002 Commonwealth Games in Manchester, will provide long-term benefits for the city as part of an urban renewal strategy (Carlsen and Millan, 2002). Special events are often the thrust for the development of new parklands for recreation, cleaner environments and improved road systems.

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In providing these aforementioned reasons for the growth of special events, it is important to acknowledge that some of these are the very same reasons that discourage others to support special events. Painting the picture that everything about special events is positive is simply untrue. Some of the environmental impacts, for example, experienced by residents of cities or regions where special events have been staged have been perceived as being quite negative (Fredline, 1998; May, 1989). These include noise pollution and disruption to normal traffic flows. Some residents of host destinations have also experienced negative social impacts when special events are staged in their communities. Feelings of alienation from the rest of the community have been reported, particularly when the residents are not supportive of the event theme (Fredline, 2000). Barker, Page and Meyer (2002) identified that increased levels of crime occurred as a result of the 2000 America's Cup. Turco (1995) also noted that taxpayers often have little choice but to contribute indirectly to the staging of special events by way of government sponsorship, hence support for special events is often forced upon some members of communities.

## ***2.2 A review of special event research 1990-2002***

In the preceding sections, special events have been discussed in terms of their nature, significance and growth over the last few decades. This section of the thesis turns to special event research conducted from 1990 to 2002 to gain insights into its status and how it can best support stakeholders of special events.

It is important that the direction of future special event research is based on what has been achieved as well as what is needed. Thus, a comprehensive review of the literature is required, where the trends are identified and the gaps are exposed, so that a strategic research agenda for future special event research can be developed.

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By identifying the research needs for the special event industry, duplication in research efforts can be avoided; more efficient use of research funds can be achieved; and the results of special event research will be more pertinent for the industry.

Two key reviews have already been undertaken of special event research. Formica (1998) reviewed a body of special event literature published from 1970 to 1996 in four relevant journals. Getz (2000) reviewed and focussed on articles published in *Event Management*, from its inception in 1993 until 2000. Their reviews highlighted some trends in special events research, including a focus on the economic evaluation of special events. Further to this, they identified comparatively less research on other aspects of special events, such as education and training, community impacts, volunteerism in special events, law and management. Their reviews indicate, however, that much of the special event research undertaken to date has been undertaken in isolation, rather than as part of a broader strategic plan for special event research.

The Getz and Formica reviews are of limited scopes. There is a broader and larger body of special event research requiring analysis. The aim of this section of the chapter is to review and synthesise research on special events in order to identify the trends that have emerged. With this information, and consideration of the broader social context in which special events are placed, an agenda for special event research is then proposed. By undertaking this review, previous research on special events is extended, a platform is provided for special events research, and the direction of this study can be more specifically focussed.

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### 2.2.1 Delimitations on the review

Careful consideration was given to the scope of the review to enable the researcher to achieve the objectives of this part of the study. A preliminary appraisal of the literature on special events was conducted which highlighted the need to place delimitations on the review to enable the researcher to conduct the review effectively. The delimitations on the review included the period of time that was covered, the set of publications that was used as the source of the information, and the types of the individual articles and conference papers that would be included in the review. These three issues will now be elaborated upon.

**Time period.** The preliminary appraisal identified that seminal publications on special events, such as books and journal articles, first emerged in the mid- to late-1980s within the fields of leisure and tourism. Seminal publications, specifically within a tourism context included those by Ritchie (1984); Burns, Hatch and Mules (1986); and Hall (1989). It was not until the mid-1990s, however, that a consistent stream of special event research emerged in the literature. As an objective of this review was to identify key trends in special event research, it was important that the review was based on a critical mass of research over a considerable period of time. As such, it was deemed that 1990 was an appropriate starting point for this review and extending the review period to mid-2002 would enable the status of special event research to become apparent.

**Set of publications.** Once the review period was decided upon, it was then necessary to identify an appropriate set of publications upon which to base the review. The review was limited to those publications that were published in the English language because of the difficulties associated with translation and interpretation. As many of the books on the topic of special events incorporate

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information that has been published in journals, it was decided to undertake the review based on refereed publications in journals and conference proceedings. In the first instance, *Festival Management and Event Tourism*, which was launched initially in 1993 but now entitled *Event Management: An International Journal*, was obviously included in the considered set of publications. This journal is dedicated to the study of special events and their management.

The preliminary appraisal of the literature indicated that articles on special events appeared in a range of journals across a number of different fields, including tourism, economics, leisure, hospitality and history. As special events are referred to here within the context of tourism, the inclusion of the key tourism and travel journals was considered to be important. These were the *Annals of Tourism Research*, the *Journal of Travel Research*, *Tourism Management*, *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, *Tourism Analysis*, the *International Journal of Tourism Research* and the *Journal of Vacation Marketing*. *Tourism Economics* was also included in the considered set as it was thought that high calibre publications on the economic impact of special events would also be captured for this study.

Also identified via the preliminary appraisal of the literature was evidence that special event research was published in the field of leisure, particularly before the launch of a journal dedicated to special event research, *Event Management*. It was, therefore, decided to extend the considered set of journals to also include some key leisure journals, specifically the *Journal of Leisure Research*, *Managing Leisure* and the *Journal of Hospitality and Leisure Marketing*. Including such journals in the review provides a more comprehensive reflection of the key streams in special event research.

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The proceedings of two conferences, namely, the *Annual Council for Australian Tourism and Hospitality Educators' (CAUTHE)* conferences from 1990 to 2002 (Pforr and Carlsen, 2002) and *Event Evaluation, Research and Education* conferences (Allen, Harris, Jago and Veal, 2000; Jago, Deery, Harris, Hede and Allen, 2002) both held in Sydney, were also sources of individual articles and conference papers for this review. The *CAUTHE* research conference is the leading Australian tourism and hospitality research conference and provides a cross-section of tourism and hospitality research being conducted in Australia. The Event Evaluation, Research and Education Conference, first held in 2000, is an international standard conference that attracts delegates with expertise in special event research from around the world. The proceedings of both the 2000 and 2002 conferences contain some of the most contemporary research on special events.

**Individual articles and conference papers.** In order to identify those individual articles and conference papers that were specifically related to special events, it was decided to use the title, and abstract when available, of the publications to identify those that would be included in the sample. The authors of the publications were also used to 'flag' research that may have been related to special events, as some researchers of special events were known to this researcher.

### **2.2.2 Categorisation of individual articles and conference papers**

Once the body of literature for the review was obtained, the individual articles and conference papers were then categorised using a systematic approach based on their research foci, or 'streams'. These were decided upon *a priori* and were based on the research streams used for the Event Evaluation, Research and Education

conference, *Events Beyond 2000: Setting the Agenda* (Allen *et al.*, 2000), which were:

- event evaluation;
- event management and operations;
- event marketing; and
- research issues.

These research streams were considered to be broad enough to identify trends in the research, but that they provided appropriate criteria on which to dissect the literature. Once the categorisation process began, however, it became clear that it was necessary to develop a set of sub-streams to enable a more useful analysis of the literature. An expert panel of researchers developed sets of sub-streams of research independently and these were then merged to produce a refined set of sub-streams. The following table itemises the results of this process.

**Table 3: Research streams and sub-streams**

<b>Stream</b>	<b>Event evaluation</b>	<b>Event management and operations</b>	<b>Event marketing</b>	<b>Research Issues</b>
Sub-stream	Cultural	Accreditation/certification	Attendee motivations	Conceptualisation
	Economic	Human resources	Attendee perceptions	Methodological issues
	Environmental	Planning	Distribution	Comparative analysis
	Social	Quality management	Market segmentation	
		Risk management	Sponsorship	
			Tourism policy and demand	

Hall (1989) and Ritchie's (1984) amalgamation of special event themes, presented in Table 2 of this chapter, was used to categorise the publications included in this study into special event themes. A further category, 'general', was added to this list as the

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preliminary appraisal of the literature indicated that some of the publications were conceptual and did not pertain to any particular event theme. It was thought that this category would be useful for those articles focusing on special events in general, for example, methodological approaches or conceptualisations of the topic. The resulting special event themes used for this study were generic, religious, political, community/cultural, sporting and commercial. It was thought that, by undertaking this secondary categorisation of the individual articles and conference papers, greater insights as to the key trends in special event research would be obtained,

### **2.2.3 Results**

In total, 243 individual articles and conference papers sourced from 12 journals and the proceedings of two conferences were included in the review. The publications are presented in Appendix One under the headings of the source publications.

#### **2.2.3.1 Distribution of individual articles and conference papers**

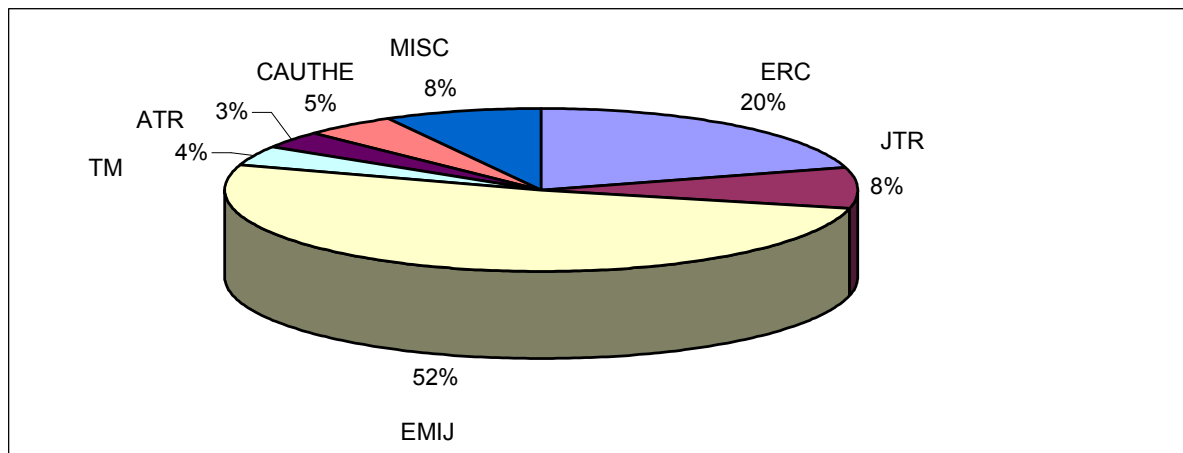
Initial analysis was conducted to determine the distribution of the individual articles and conference papers based on time and the source publications. This enabled the overall trends in publishing to be identified more clearly.

Figure 3 presents the distribution of the individual articles and conference papers across the source publications. As can be seen in Figure 3, the journal, *Event Management*, accounted for just over half of the individual articles and conference papers included in the review. Twenty percent of the individual articles and conference papers included in the review were published in the proceedings of the 2000 and 2002 Events Research Conferences. This highlights the important role that *Event Management* has played for researchers of special events, providing them opportunities to publish the results of their research from a range of perspectives.



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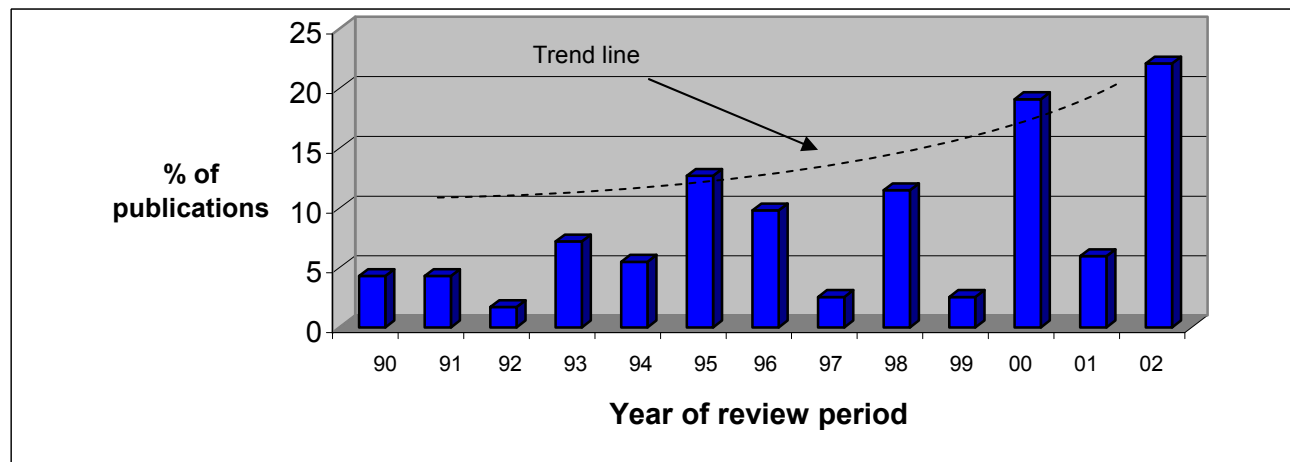
**Figure 3: Distribution of individual articles and conference papers**



**Legend:** ATR: Annals of Tourism Research; TM: Tourism Management; CAUTHE: Council of Australian University Tourism and Hospitality Education Conferences; JTR: Journal of Travel Research; ERC: Events Research Conference; EMIJ: Events Management: an International Journal; MISC: Incorporating all other source publications

The number of publications was tallied for each year and these results are presented in Figure 4. The trend line in Figure 4 is used as a guide as to how the number of individual articles and conference papers published from 1990 to 2002 increased. Figure 4 also highlights that this growth has been spasmodic.

**Figure 4: Distribution of individual articles and conference papers on special events 1990-2002**



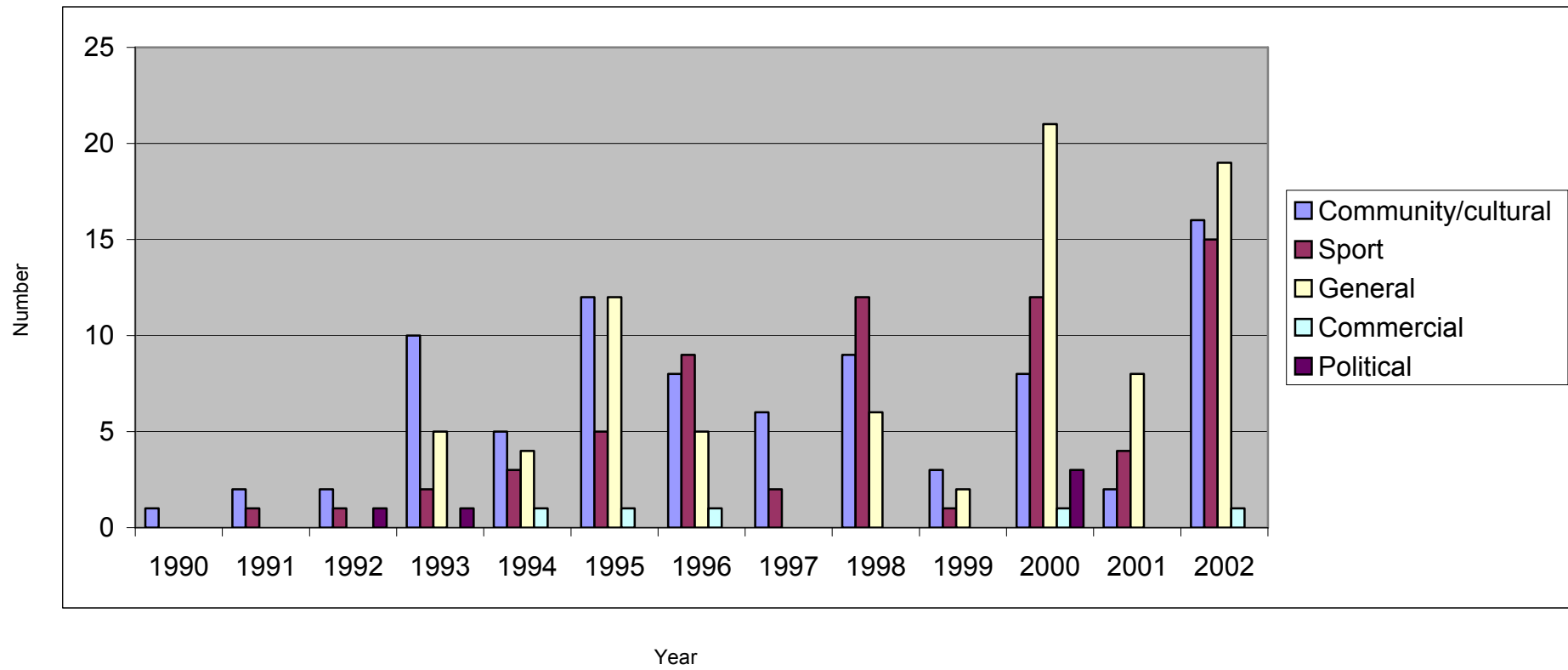
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Substantial increases in the number of publications occurred in 1993, 1995, 1998, 2000 and 2002, which are attributable to a combination of research demands and publishing trends. The increase from 1992 to 1993 can be directly attributed to the launch of *Event Management* and the growth from 1994 to 1995 can be attributed to the double issue on festival and event sponsorship, in which 13 articles were published. The growth in 1998 appears to be attributable to the fact that *Event Management* was not published in 1997, rather than any particular research issue. The absence of any issues of *Event Management* in 1999, combined with the inaugural Events Research Conference in 2000, created a substantial increase in the number of publications in 2000. These publications covered a broad range of special event research. Similar patterns were identified from 2001 to 2002, which highlights that the growth of special event research appears to have occurred in two-year cycles.

#### 2.2.3.2 Special event themes

The results of the analysis of the special event themes highlight that sporting and community/cultural themes were well represented in the publications, as was the 'general' stream. In total, these three themes of special event research comprised almost 95% of the publications that were included in this review. The balance of the publications was spread evenly across the political and commercial themes. Research in these two themes, however, was very sporadic. Figure 5 highlights the mix of individual articles and conference papers in each of the special event themes in each year of the review period.

Figure 5: Special events research 1990- 2002: special event themes



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As can be seen in Figure 5, key years for individual articles and conference papers focussing on the general theme were 1995, 2000 and 2002. This is due to the concentration of individual articles and conference papers in 1995 on sponsorship in a broad range of special events, as well as the staging of the Events Research Conferences in 2000 and 2002, where a number of the papers presented were conceptual in nature. Many of these publications focussed on the formalisation of special event theory and the advancement of methodological issues associated with the research on special events [See, for example, Arcodia and Robb (2000); Burgan and Mules (2000b); Carlsen, Getz and Soutar (2000b); Getz (2000) and Goldbaltt (2000)].

It is also noticeable that, in the early years of the review period (1990-1995), the number of individual articles and conference papers in the community/cultural theme outweighed those in the sporting theme. In contrast to this, during the middle years of the review period, there was an increase in the number of publications in the sporting theme, with less emphasis on the community/cultural theme. The marked increase in the number of individual articles and conference papers in the sporting theme in 1998 was a result of research on the 1992 and 1996 Olympic Games, as well as research on smaller sporting events, for example, on birding festivals, fishing and golf tournaments. From 1998 onwards, the number of individual articles and conference papers in the community/cultural and sporting themes each year were comparable.

### 2.2.3.3 Research stream one: research issues

A number of research issues was explored in the literature where theory pertinent to special events was developed and refined. In many cases, research in this area was based on other disciplines such as sociology, psychology, management and

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marketing [See, for example, Green and Chalip (1998); Crompton and McKay (1997); Faulkner, Fredline, Larson and Tomljenovic (1999) and Abbott and Geddie (2000), respectively].

Key areas of research in this stream include those that focused on the development of a typology of special events. Jago (1997) suggested that despite the increased interest in special events and special event research, confusion had emerged with regard to the terminology associated with special events. He further suggested that this required attention before research on special events could truly advance. Based on a meta-analysis of a body of special event literature, his major contribution to this field was the development of a typology of special events. The tenet of research by Getz is similar to that of Jago, in that he identified the need for consistency in special event research [See, for example, Getz (2000)]. Arcodia and Robb (2000) highlighted that this type of research was still required in the field of special events.

The review also identified a body of special event research that focussed on methodological issues associated with determining the economic impact of special events. Pioneered by Long and Perdue (1990); Crompton (1994) and Mules and MacDonald (1994), these studies focussed on some relevant methodological issues, such as sampling frames (Burgan and Mules, 2000a, 2000b); data collection methods (Breen, Bull and Walo, 2001; Faulkner and Raybould, 1995; Irwin, Wang and Sutton, 1996) and methods of analysis (Tyrrell and Johnston, 2001).

After stating their concern for the more traditional 'exit' intercept interview method, which has most often been employed in economic impact studies, Faulkner and Raybould (1995) experimented with the diary and recall methods for the collection of expenditure data at a sporting event. Seaton (1997) and Breen, Bull and Walo (2001) suggested the use of unobtrusive observation as a qualitative research

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technique in conjunction with survey-based approaches, for the collection of expenditure data at special events. These publications have attempted to refine, and standardise, the approach to be taken when measuring the economic impact of special events so that reliable and comparable results can be obtained.

Apart from the seminal research undertaken by Ritchie and Smith (1991), most special event research during the review period provided a snapshot of a singular special event rather than a longitudinal study or a comparative study of a number of special events. A cluster of research published in 1996 [See Long and Sellars (1996); Ryan, Smee and Murphy (1996); and Schneider and Backman (1996)], however, began to address this methodological issue. More recently, Gratton, Dobson and Shibli (2000) employed a comparative research approach when analysing the economic impact of special events, however, very little research has been undertaken of this type. Nicholson and Pearce (2000) noted that longitudinal and comparative studies were still lacking in special event research and also began to address this issue by investigating the attendee profiles at a number of special events.

#### 2.6.3.4 Research stream two: marketing

The substantial growth in the number of special events staged in many parts of the world was most likely the impetus for analyses on the distribution of special events. Jago and McArdle (1999) and Ryan, Smee, Murphy and Getz (1998) analysed the temporal and spatial distribution of special events in Victoria, Australia, and New Zealand respectively. Prior to these studies, Janiske (1996) analysed the temporal distribution of community special events in the US. This type of research was largely in response to the growth in the number of special events that were being staged in these regions and the increasing levels of competition for market share.

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A number of studies [See, for example, Uysal, Gahan and Martin (1993); Kerstetter and Mowrer (1998); Formica and Uysal (1998); Crompton and MacKay (1997); Scott (1996); Backman, Backman, Muzaffer and Mohr Sunshine (1995); Nicholson (2001); Delpy Neirotti (2001); Schneider and Backman (1996) and Patterson (2002)] investigated the motives for attending special events. As has been mentioned previously in this thesis, this is an area of special event research that has been keenly researched and the results are well documented. Faulkner, Fredline, Larson and Tomljenovic (1999) recommended, however, that further investigation in this area of special event research is still required as it is unlikely that the range of motives already identified are applicable to all types of special events.

Research has been conducted to profile special event markets by using a segmentation approach. In these segmentation studies (Formica and Uysal, 1996, 1998; Grant and Paliwoda, 1998; Nicholson and Pearce, 2000; Yoon, Spencer, Helececk and Kim, 2000), demographics, such as age, income and place of residence, were most commonly used as the profiling criteria. Jago and Shaw (1999) and Fredline and Faulkner (2000b) used alternative approaches to segment special event related markets by using personal values and attitudes respectively.

Research on sponsorship within a special events context has been extensive. An early issue of *Event Management* was dedicated to this topic in which research conducted by Kerstetter and Gitelson (1995); Mount and Niro (1995); Peterson and Crayton (1995); Queen (1995); Sunshine, Backman and Backman (1995); Turco (1995); Walle (1995); and Weppeler and McCarville (1995) was published. Crompton (1993; 1994; 1995) pioneered this area of special event research when he reported, in a succession of publications, the approach organisations adopt when sponsoring special events, their perceived risks and the factors that have contributed to increased levels of sponsorship at major events. Since this special edition issue of



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*Event Management*, very little research was identified in the source publications on sponsorship of special events, apart from that research conducted by Coughlan and Mules (2001) and Brown (2002).

#### 2.2.3.4 Research stream three: operations and management

Getz (1993) first raised the issue of human resource management, within a special events context, when he proposed that the success of special events is related to the organisational culture of special event organisations. More recently, Hanlon and Jago (2000) and Hanlon and Cuskelly (2002) investigated the management of personnel in special event organisations. Similarly, Davidson and Carlsen (2002) suggested that volunteer management is an emerging topic of research in a special event context. This was demonstrated in the number of studies on this topic that were presented at the *Events Research Conference* in 2002 [See Pegg (2002); Slaughter (2002); and Treuren and Monga (2002a; 2002b)], which have laid foundations for further research in this area of special events. This area of investigation appears to still be under-researched.

Just as Getz raised the issue of human resource management in a special events context relatively early in the review period, Sonmez, Backman and Allen (1993) also raised the issue of risk management. Following this, Crompton (1994) explored the risks for organisations in terms of their sponsorship commitment to special events. It was not until 2000, when Abbott and Geddie (2000) and Abbott and Abbott (2000) investigated methods of crowd management and liability minimisation, that the issue of risk management once again emerged in the body of literature that was under review.

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In terms of quality at special events, Getz and Wicks (1994) and Royal and Jago (1998) explored the role of accreditation and certification in the special event industry and how these are linked with each other. Within this context, Getz (1998) and Arcodia and Reid (2002a; 2002b) investigated the activities and perceptions of managers of special events and special event associations. More specifically, Bramwell (1997) explored the extent of strategic planning before and after special events and Verhoven, Wall and Cotrell (1998) investigated the use of desktop mapping for planning and evaluation of special events. Similarly, O'Toole (2000) explored the use of project management techniques to enhance best practice in the industry. More recently, there has been a noticeable stream of research on quality management issues at special events with Baker and Crompton (2000); Bowdin and Church (2000); Crompton and Love (1995); Getz, O'Neill and Carslen (2001) and Wicks and Fesenmaier (1995) contributing to this line of inquiry.

#### 2.2.3.6 Research stream four: evaluation

Although not a new finding, the review of the literature confirmed that special events have been evaluated largely from an economic perspective. Economic impact studies have been conducted on most types of special events including local festivals [See, for example, Agrusa, Coates and Tanner (1999); Crompton, Lee and Shuster (2001); Fredline, Mules, Raybould and Tomljenovic (1999); Long (1990); Ryan (1995); and Walpole and Goodwin (2000)]; some hallmark and mega-events [See, for example, Gratton, Dobson and Shibli (2000); La Lopa, Chen and Nelson (1998) and Senior and Danson (1998)], but predominantly on sporting events [See, for example, Burgan and Mules (1992); Carmichael and Murphy (1996); Higham (1996); Ryan and Lockyer (2001); Simmons and Urquhart (1994); and Walo, Bull and Breen (1996)]. This is likely to be based on the perception that many sporting events, particularly those that are major events, provide 'new' income to a region, as many attendees are

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loyal attendees who are prepared to travel from their usual place of residence to attend such events (Laverie and Arnett, 2000). This aspect of attendance at sporting events was exemplified at the Rugby World Cup in Australia in 2003, where large numbers of English fans travelled to Sydney to attend the Grand Final.

While research on the economic evaluation of special events burgeoned during the review period, research on the social impacts of special events is only beginning to emerge in the literature as a contemporary area of interest [See, for example, Fredline and Faulkner (2000a; 2000b); Fredline and Faulkner (2002a); Derrett (2002); Mihalik (2000), Goldblatt (2002); and Wood (2002)]. Prior to these studies, research in this area was intermittent. Some of the findings of these studies highlight that special events assist in improving community pride, develop more cohesion in communities and can improve the cultural and social capital of communities. A number of studies (Deccion, 2002; Fredline, 1998; Fredline and Faulkner, 2002a, 2002b; Jeong and Faulkner, 1996; Mihalik and Simonetta, 1998; Turco, 1998) evaluated residents' attitudes to special events being staged in their hometown. Delamere (2001); Delamere, Wankel and Hinch (2001a); Fredline, Deery and Jago (2002) and Wood (2002) have recently initiated the development of scales to specifically measure residents' attitudes towards special events. These scales incorporate the concepts of civic pride and social justice, for example, in relation to the staging of special events.

There has been some interest in evaluating special events from the perspectives of attendees, participants and volunteers. Given the perceived roles each of these groups can play in the success of special events, the level of interest in exploring their evaluations of special events has been somewhat limited. In terms of research on volunteers, Williams, Dossa and Thompkins (1995) investigated the role of volunteers in relation to special event management and Elstad (1996) explored their

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learning experiences and their satisfaction with their involvement in a mega-event. More recently, Davidson and Carlsen (2002) and Pegg (2002) investigated volunteer satisfaction with involvement at a mega-event and a community event respectively.

Gorney and Busser (1996) noted that participants in special events can generally feel more satisfied with their life as a result of their association with special events. Hultsman (1998) investigated the factors that affect special event competitors' satisfaction levels at a multi-day competitive leisure event. Findings of Hultsman's study indicate that participants considered their experiences with the special event to be satisfying when their personal goals were met and when they effectively dealt with stressful situations during the special event.

O'Neill, Getz and Carlsen (1999) and Getz, O'Neill and Carlsen (2001) investigated the importance of attendee satisfaction at special events in relation to repeat attendance, but the relationship between the concepts was not explored in a highly detailed fashion. Although they acknowledged that there was a distinction between service quality and satisfaction, there was, however, a blurring of the concepts in their research. In contrast to this, Baker and Crompton (2000) explored the differences between the recreation-based terms 'quality of performance' and 'quality of experience', which they stated were synonyms for the more general terms of 'service quality' and 'satisfaction' respectively.

In their study of an annual two-and-half day festival, Baker and Crompton (2000) explored the role of quality, using both performance and subjective disconfirmation measures, and satisfaction on behavioural intentions. The specific behavioural intentions used in their model were willingness to pay more and loyalty. Baker and Crompton found that higher levels of performance quality enhanced satisfaction and behavioral intentions were stronger when satisfaction was higher. Ghandi-Arora and

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Shaw (2000) used step-wise regression analysis to identify the role of attendee satisfaction with special events. The results of their study identified a modest relationship between satisfaction with special events and intentions to revisit special events.

Whilst the economic and social evaluation of special events progressed during the period of review, research on other seemingly important aspects of event evaluation has been less intense. Apart from the work of Ritchie and Smith (1991), Pennington-Gray and Holdnak (2002) and Richards and Wilson (2002), there appears to be very little research that has been conducted to empirically assess the role of special events in developing destination awareness and images. Similarly, other than the three studies that investigated special events in terms of the legacies that they leave [See Hall and Hodges (1996); Carlsen and Millan (2002) and Ritchie, 2000)], objective examination of this phenomenon has been sparse. Similarly, this review only identified one study that evaluated special events from an environmental perspective (May, 1995). Carlsen and Millan (2002) identified a number of ways in which special events can be evaluated. Recently, there have been a number of calls for a more holistic approach to the evaluation of special events rather than those from a singular perspective [See, for example, Burgan and Mules (2000) and Dwyer, Mellor, Mistilis and Mules (2000)]. Wood (2002) reported the results of a study of the social impacts of a local festival on the residents of the Blackburn region in the UK but noted that it was part of a larger study that also incorporated an economic evaluation of the festival. Hence, the thoughts of Burgan and Mules (2000) and Dwyer *et al.* (2000) seem to have some resonance for other researchers in the field.

Examination of the proceedings of *Events Research Conference* in 2002 highlighted the call for a multi-dimensional, and formal, approach to the evaluation of special events. Indeed, the 'Triple Bottom Line' (Elkington, 1997) emerged as a possible

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way in which this could be achieved [See, for example, Fredline, Deery and Jago (2002) and Hede, Deery and Jago (2002)]. Many researchers at the conference exhibited positive attitudes to the application of the Triple Bottom Line to a special events context. The 'Triple Bottom Line' approach promotes the use of economic, sociocultural and environmental perspectives when evaluating the activities of organisations more holistically. Rogers and Ryan (2001) noted that this approach is increasingly being used in the corporate world as an auditing and reporting framework.

#### **2.2.4 Summary of key findings of review**

In summarising the key findings of the review, it is clear that some areas of special event research have burgeoned. It is not clear, however, whether research on special events during the review period was part of a formal strategy. Rather, it appears that much of the research undertaken during the review period was the result of a range of external factors. For example, early researchers of special events seem to have been *reacting* to the demands of the various stakeholders of special events, particularly governments who were seeking to justify their investments in special events in periods of economic rationalism.

In saying this, however, much of the research conducted contributed to the incremental development of knowledge on special events. In any new area of research, there is likely to be some degree of confusion in relation to the language, or jargon, of the field. Thus, by the mid-1990's, some research was focussed on the development of typologies of special events and special event terminology. Similarly, considerable effort was made to identify the key motives for attending special events. This type of research may have been driven by an underlying need to understand the reasons for the growing demand for special events. Other research was undertaken

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to profile segments of special event attendees, mostly based on demographics. This type of research was likely attributable to the needs of organisers of special events to better understand their markets. There was, however, relatively little research conducted from the perspectives of attendees of special event, special event volunteers or participants of special events.

The review demonstrated the considerable amount of research that was undertaken to evaluate special events and refine methodologies for this purpose. The review further highlighted that a large proportion of the evaluations conducted of special events were focussed on the impacts of the special events. A strong focus on the economic impacts of special events was likely due to an emphasis, particularly by governments, on justifying the staging of special events in monetary terms. Although some research was undertaken from the social or environmental perspectives, overall it was to a lesser extent compared to that undertaken from the economic perspective. This emerged as an important deficiency in special event research. It may be difficult to apply the well-supported Triple Bottom Line approach to the evaluation of special events, when aspects of the individual components of the Triple Bottom Line are under-developed within the context of special event research.

In relation to event management and special event operations, research on quality management emerged as a line of inquiry but this was not evident until the latter years of the review period. Special event planning was also an area that emerged a focus, as did risk management, sponsorship and human resource management. These research foci can be attributed to the increasing competitiveness of the industry, as well as an increasing need for the industry to become more professional.

As a result of the breadth of special event research that has been covered during the review period and the quantity of research that has been undertaken in the area,

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considerable knowledge has been gained on special events. Clearly, much of the research undertaken on special events has been driven by external influences. Much of this research, too, has had practical implications for the industry. In saying this, however, there is a need to consider what has been achieved and capitalise on this by undertaking research that meets the needs of future stakeholders of special events. In order to develop a research agenda that is aimed at producing information, which is both useful and timely for the industry, an understanding of the trends that western societies are experiencing is required. The next section of the thesis discusses some of the key societal trends and then places the special event industry in that context. By doing this, it will be possible to capitalise more fully on research of the past and ensure that research of the future will meet the needs of the special event industry more appropriately.

### **2.3 *Major societal trends***

It is important to place research into the broader context of the society in which it is undertaken so that information gained from the research has relevance to society. In the earlier sections of this chapter, it was identified that some societal trends, such as economic rationalism, appear to have impacted the special event industry and special event research. It is likely that societal trends will continue to impact the special event industry in the future. Consideration of such societal trends will optimise the relevance of future research on special events for stakeholders of special events. By considering societal trends, research undertaken on special events has the capacity to more effectively inform the industry of any opportunities or threats that may emerge in the future.

Some sociologists have suggested that it is now quite difficult to scan and evaluate contemporary societies for future trends and 'peer' into the future by applying traditional theories, such as modernisation theory, to contemporary society



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(Ferrando, 1997). Despite these difficulties some societal trends are apparent and this section will discuss and consider their implications for research on special events in the future. This process will assist the development of priorities for research on special events.

Cetron and Davies (2003) published the findings of a study that examined trends that are currently shaping the future of world economies. Apart from those which are economic in nature, such as the increasing volatility of the global economy, Cetron and Davies suggested that the key trends societies are currently experiencing are related to:

- values and lifestyles;
- energy and environmental issues; and
- the rising of life expectancy and global aging, or changes in demographics.

Bas (1999) stated that there are three main processes that are contributing to contemporary, or post-industrial, societies, namely, the technological revolution, the growth of the global population and economic globalisation. He further stated that these trends are interlocked with each other. More specifically, Kenyon and Black (2001) identified that in Australia, demographic, economic, social, technological, environmental and political centralism and regionalism are impacting on Australians' lifestyles.

In terms of the changes in values and lifestyles, Inglehart (1990) suggested that the prevalence of the 'welfare state' now means that many younger people take survival for granted. It is often perceived that younger generations 'live for today', whilst older generations are continually planning for the future. The increasing fragmentation of social life, operationalised by heightened personal isolation, the widening of the inequality gap, a deepening of the racial, ethnic, religious and sexuality divide, and

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excessive individualism (Eitzen, 2000), is another issue society is facing which appears to be a consequence of changing values and lifestyles.

Attitudes towards work are also changing. Where once paid employment was the ultimate achievement, Stebbins (2001) has suggested that the pursuit of leisure is now a serious affair. He noted that 'serious leisure' activities, where high levels of mastery and commitment are required, have become a large part of peoples' lives, particularly as the role of work is changing for so many people. Similarly, the shift from industrialised economies to 'service economies', where "less effort is focussed on producing material objects, and more effort is focussed on communicating and processing information" (Inglehart and Abramson, 1999, p. 21), is also considered to be a result of changes in values and lifestyles.

The rising of life expectancy and global aging are two sociodemographic trends of fundamental importance. In 1998, the average life expectancy for males and females in More Developed Countries (MDC's) was 71 and 78 respectively (Encyclopaedia Britannica, 2002). These figures are higher than those of the 1960's, when Australian males could expect to live for 68 years and females 74 years (Kendig and Hutton, 1980). Further to this, almost a quarter of the United States, Canada and Australia are members of the 'baby boomers' segment (Muller and Cleaver, 2000), now aged between 38 and 56 years and experiencing middle age (Muller and Woodcock, 1997). These trends will likely have further impacts on societies in a broad range of areas, including welfare, health, employment and leisure.

The redistribution of populations from inner and rural regions to urban and coastal regions is another sociodemographic trend currently being experienced. Both the United States and Australia have witnessed populations moving closer to urban regions and coastal regions, where amenities, such as aged care, resort style

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accommodation and more extensive services are available (Haberkorn, Hugo, Fischer and Aylward, 1999). Kenyon and Black (2001) also noted that a shift away from a dependence on agriculture has contributed to the changes in the distribution of some populations. The nature of what people used to do in rural regions, for example, is quite different from what they now do in city regions.

Substantial technological advances have led to the advent of the 'information age' (Rifkin, 1995). Such advances have caused knowledge management to become a challenge for governments, private organisations and individuals. Similarly, the 'dot.com' generation is a product of technological advances. The importance of the dot.com generation is producing the swift expansion of the education sector globally (Anon., 2002b). The desire to 'learn', however, is not a new trend, but the ways in which modern society can now learn are changing. Since the mid-1940's, consumers have had opportunities to be 'edutained' where learning has been combined with fun, and often in simulated environments (Barbian, 2001). Technology is now being used to extend further the concept of edutainment by incorporating high levels of technology-based interaction in the learning process.

Environmental trends, including the competition for non-renewable energies, global warming and the need to improve environmental sustainability, are also impacting on how societies function. Societies are responding to these trends in both positive and negative ways. The tensions between middle-Eastern countries and the United States of America, which have brought on a myriad of impacts, have frequently been attributed to the competition for non-renewable energies. On a more positive note, environmental agencies are trying to develop positive attitudes towards the 'greening' of the planet by promoting the recycling of resources and water conservation. More transparent reporting procedures are being demanded of governments in relation to their environmental policies and targets. Similarly, governments are now demanding

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more transparent reporting procedures from private organisations and as a result of these trends, the Triple Bottom Line, where social, environmental and economic indicators are all considered to be important, is emerging as a new method of organisational reporting (Topfer, 2000). This reporting approach requires management to carefully consider its environmental, social and economic performance in order to improve its strategic planning processes (Anon., 2002a).

## ***2.4 The impacts of societal trends on the special event industry***

The previous discussion begs the questions *how might such societal trends impact on the special event industry in the future?* and *What research on special events is required in the future?* Responses to these questions are provided in this section of this chapter.

The aging of the population and the increasing numbers of older consumers that Bas (1999) suggested was a major societal trend may mean that markets are more physically and intellectually demanding than they have been in the past. This trend will have some impact upon the special event industry. At the moment, special events are generally developed for physically able markets. In the future, changing physical needs of special event markets may necessitate modifications to be made to products, particularly with regard to special event venues. Access at existing special event venues may require modifications to meet the changed physical needs of attendees and new venues will have to consider the spatial requirements of these markets.

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Changing intellectual needs of special event markets may also require consideration in the future. As has been identified, many consumers now expect to be 'edutained' (Barbian, 2001) where the opportunities to learn are presented in an entertaining environment. Muller and Cleaver (2000) identified that the 'baby boomers' segment is one that is actively participating in this style of learning, particularly within the context of adventure and cultural tourism. The formative years for the 'baby boomers' segment occurred in times of prosperity and as a result it has been suggested that they are more likely to value free expression over material success (MacIntosh, 1998). Hence, the experiential characteristics of special events, such as the opportunity to learn, may become those that are more important for markets of the future. With the importance and size of the 'baby boomers' segment, it is important that special events are developed to stimulate their psychological needs.

Similarly, satisfying the dot.com generation with special event products will also provide a challenge for the industry. The generation appears to be continually seeking novelty in their lives and their need to use technology is impacting on a number of industry sectors (Anon., 2002b). It may be a futile exercise then to try and attract this segment of consumers thinking that they will remain loyal to one special event. Cooperative branding of a range of special events may be a way in which loyalty is promoted within this segment of the market.

As regional and coastal destinations begin to support larger populations (Haberkorn *et al.* 1999), it is likely that consumers will more often travel to attend special events, particularly mega-events, in central urban destinations. This trend is already being witnessed when country social groups, such as local sports clubs, organise attendance at special events in central urban destinations. In this instance, transportation from regional and coastal destinations is generally in large groups, rather than in small travel parties. If major special events, for example, continue to

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be only staged in urban destinations, the venues in which they are held may need to accommodate the changing demands of large travel parties, particularly as they may be arriving at the venues at the same time.

Special events may, indeed, need to become mobile occurrences, less attached to one destination, so that they can be 'delivered' to their markets. Hence the concept of 'hallmark' events may change. Further to this, the traditional distribution channels that have been used to promote and sell special events may also require modification. Marketing may need to be directed more to intermediaries of the tourism system, as well as to various facilitators of the marketing process, such as social clubs, managers of resort and retirement villages.

With the increasing redistribution of populations, it is likely that governments and communities will more frequently turn to special events to assist them to build, or redevelop, communities. As a result of this, the competition to develop special events will likely increase, which will have advantages and disadvantages for the stakeholders of special events. Positive impacts of increased competition may improve the quality of special events on offer, but it could mean that the market becomes saturated. In some instances, some special events may be cannibalised by other special events. Such consequences pose a threat to the special event industry and strategies will be required to enhance the sustainability of the industry.

The widening of the inequality gap, discussed by Eitzen (2000), has the potential to exclude some sections of communities from attending special events. While some consumers will have resources, such as time and money, to attend special events, other consumers are likely to have constraints placed on them in regard to attendance at special events, even if they have strong motives for attendance. Some members of society are 'cash rich/time poor', whilst others are 'time rich/cash poor'.

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This may already be impacting the special event industry; younger consumers, for example, have been found to be under-represented at some special events and this may be a result of their lack of income, rather than limitations on the time they have to attend special events. Pricing strategies will need to be investigated further to understand the elasticities of such market segments in terms of the cost of attending special events.

Environmental trends will have impacts for the special event industry and these impacts will be both at the macro and micro levels. At the macro level, greater consideration will be focussed, for example, on how special events can contribute to the sustainability of the environments in which they are staged. Emphasis will be placed on improving the environmental impacts of special events by setting targets, for example, to reduce pollution levels, improve roads and transport schemes or to rejuvenate pockets of land. At the micro level, developing systems to minimise energy consumption, promote recycling and cope with waste management will become more important in the future, particularly if the trend to stage large special events continues. It is likely that the special event industry will encounter stronger environmental restrictions in the future. It will, therefore, be important that standardised measures to evaluate the performance of special events be developed and used by the industry.

Increased levels of awareness of public safety and security have already filtered through to the special event industry. For some special events it has been difficult to obtain insurance, as it is now more expensive than it has been in the past. In response to increases in the cost of insurance and a heightened awareness of public safety, risk management is becoming more important for special events. Risk management seems to now be more clearly connected with other management concepts at special events, such as accreditation and certification. In a period when

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consumer safety and demands are of paramount importance, the connections between these key performance indicators of special events will likely play a larger role in their success in the future.

The advent of the 'information age' also requires consideration when identifying the future needs of the special event industry. The broadcasting on television of some special events has meant that the number of spectators not at the venues is often much larger than at the venue and these two markets have different needs. Consumers are also accessing information on products and services using a variety of technology. When potential attendees are deciding whether to attend a special event, opportunities to investigate the special event are almost always now offered 'on-line'. This allows potential consumers of special events to discriminate between special events more effectively. This issue has ramifications for the competitive strategies of special events. Hence, understanding what motivates consumers of the information age to attend one special event and not another is an important line of inquiry. Further to this, when attendees of special events have had greater access to information about special events, it is likely that they will also have clearer expectations of special events. Research on how expectations of special events are formed in the information age and the extent to which expectations are met are important lines of inquiry for special event researchers.

The information age has generally increased consumers' awareness of the products and services that are now available and as a consequence competition for customers is often fierce. Attendance at one special event is likely to be considered, not only in relation to other special events, but also in relation to other tourism, leisure, recreational activities and other products and services. There is a need, therefore, to understand the characteristics of special events that distinguish them from other



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special events, other tourism, leisure or recreational activities, and other products more generally.

Another way in which the information age will impact the special event industry is via the use of technology. Technology has the potential to influence how special events are 'delivered' to audiences and evidence of this already exists. Large screens, for example, are now commonly used to enhance the vision of stages, or arenas, at special events. In 2003, the music industry used technology to televise, in real-time, a live performance at a stadium to a cinema where another audience for the event was waiting. The Australian Football League is intending to use similar technology to increase access to football events around Australia. Some markets may have positive attitudes towards attending special events of this kind. Indeed, delivering special events like this may make them more accessible for some markets, but there may be some resistance to this type of special event.

## ***2.5 Research needs for the special event industry***

Based on the findings of the literature review and the previous discussion regarding the way in which societal trends may impact on the special event industry in the future, research needs of the special event industry have been identified. Although it is beyond the scope of this thesis to identify and detail every research need for the special event industry, a set of general research needs has been developed. The proposed research agenda:

- covers a number of key areas of special events;
- encompasses the pre-, during and post-consumption stages of attendance at special events; and
- has been developed with various stakeholders of special events in mind.

The research needs have been organised into a matrix, which consists of one axis labelled 'Perspective' and another labelled 'Stage of consumption'. *Perspective* consists of four categories including three types of stakeholders – individual, organisational and host communities. The fourth category relates to methodological aspects of special events research. *Stage of consumption* consists of three categories - pre-, during-, and post-attendance stages of consumption. It was thought that the combination of these two axes compartmentalised the results into definable components, enabling the gaps in the research to be clearly identified. Table 4 presents the framework for research on special events in the future.

**Table 4: Framework for future special event research**

<b>Perspective</b>	<b>Stage of consumption of special events</b>		
	<b>Pre-attendance</b>	<b>During-attendance</b>	<b>Post-attendance</b>
Organisational stakeholders	Planning Human resource management	Risk management Quality management	Social evaluation Cultural evaluation Environmental evaluation
Individual: (attendee/ volunteer/ participant)	Value profiling Choice modelling	Risk management Quality perceptions	Evaluation Outcomes of attendance
Host community	Attitudes	Risk management Environmental management	Social evaluation Cultural evaluation Environmental evaluation
Methodological	Comparative Longitudinal		

Table 4 highlights that there is a need to research special events from the organisational stakeholder's perspective in each of the stages of attendance. In the pre-attendance stage of consumption, there is a need to investigate special events

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planning and in relation to human resource management. In a special event context, human resource management includes the management of volunteers. With the aging of the population and the high levels of volunteerism in this age group, organisers of special events will particularly require further research to inform them as to how best they can manage this aspect of special events.

Also in the pre-attendance stage of consumption, is the need to identify the characteristics of special events that influence potential markets to attend them. Although this is an area of special event research that has been studied in some depth, with changing demographics and the advent of the information age, knowledge is required within the context of contemporary societal trends. A greater understanding of the attributes that influence individuals to attend the various types of special events will, for example, provide special event planners with information that so that they can meet the needs of their targeted audiences. Further to this, because demographic profiles are changing, demographic variables may be less useful than they have been in the past to identify, describe and target markets for special events. In market research, psychographics are now often used to identify, profile and better communicate with consumer markets. Further analysis of special event markets, particularly in terms of their psychographics, will likely provide planners with valuable information about existing and potential markets.

Table 4 also highlights that the during-consumption stage of special event attendance is under-researched from the organisational, individual and host community perspectives. Risk management is an area that appears to have been under-researched. With the incidence of global terrorism and larger-scaled special events, this is now an area that needs to be understood more clearly than ever before. Similarly, managing the environmental issues that have emerged in a special event context is under-researched. It is important to gain information as to how

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special events can be better managed taking into consideration some of the macro-environmental issues, such as global warming, land filling and environmental sustainability. Information on micro-environmental issues, such as controlling noise pollution, managing traffic congestion and minimising waste at special events, requires further research for managers to use best practices. This area of special event management is one that requires a strategic approach and it will involve engaging experts in the sciences, as well as researchers and practitioners in the special events industry. It may be appropriate that research on environmental issues in relation to special events is linked with research on quality management and accreditation, as there are likely to be synergies between the two areas of special event management.

In the post-event stage of special event consumption, Table 4 highlights that the evaluation of special events, from each of the perspectives is a vital part of the survival of the special event industry. Without further research on the evaluation of special events, it is unlikely that special events will meet the needs of their stakeholders, be they organisations, individuals or host communities. The heavy focus on the economic evaluation of the special events, particularly by governments, appears to have produced a perception that other forms of evaluation of special events are less useful. There has been some research on the social and environmental impacts of special events, and further research in these areas is required. This is particularly the case if the Triple Bottom Line approach to the evaluation of special events is to be applied to special events in the future. With some of the issues that contemporary society is now facing, such as globalisation and increased levels of racial tension, evaluating special events from a social perspective will likely become an important area for further investigation.

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Investigating the outcomes of attendance, or participation, at special events at the individual level and understanding what it is that satisfies individuals about their involvement with special events, appears to be under-researched. This is surprising, given the emphasis that has been placed on satisfaction in the mainstream marketing literature within the context of a myriad of product and service industries, but it may be that research of this type is conducted 'in-house. Information gained from such research is not publicly available. As satisfaction has been strongly linked with repeat purchase and recommending behaviour, it would seem prudent that a greater emphasis is placed on investigating the role of attendee/participant satisfaction in a special event context from an academic perspective. Furthermore, given the integral role that attendees play in the success of special events, the amount of research undertaken on them is deficient.

## **2.6 *Research direction for this study***

The aforementioned process of reviewing the special event literature and placing this within the context of societal trends assisted in identifying a number of areas of special events that require further investigation. It is, however, beyond the scope of this study to cover all these. The area of special events that is the focus of this study is that which explores the nexus between attendees of special events, special events and special event host destinations.

This study was specifically directed towards investigating whether demographic and psychographic characteristics of special event attendees and the attributes of special events impact on satisfaction with special events. The study was further interested in whether these concepts, that is the characteristics of special event attendees and satisfaction, impact on post-consumption behavioural intentions and attitudes in

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relation to special events and special event destinations. This area was chosen as the focus of this study for a number of reasons that are subsequently discussed.

Taking into consideration the possible impacts that societal trends may have on the special event industry, which were discussed earlier in this chapter, it appears that demographics may not be as useful a marketing concept as they have been in the past. With the concentration of consumers in certain age groups and regions, such as retirees in coastal regions, other variables may need to be investigated to profile and more fully understand special event attendees. Personal values, a psychographic concept, may be more useful in this situation; these have the potential to provide considerable information about attendees.

Considering that the special event industry is becoming increasingly competitive, it is important to evaluate special events from the perspective of their attendees. Despite the acknowledged importance of attendees for the success of special events, very little research has been undertaken to evaluate special events from their perspective. Satisfaction, a post-consumption evaluative judgement, is pertinent within this context. Mohr, Backman, Gahan and Backman (1993) noted that attendee satisfaction was an important area of research in special events, and suggested that research findings in the mainstream satisfaction literature indicate that exploration in the field of special events is required. Faulkner, Fredline, Larson and Tomljenovic (1999) stated that research on satisfaction at special events remained a clear gap in special event research and Gandhi-Arora and Shaw (2000, p. 390) stated that research in relation to attendee satisfaction in a special event context has been 'sparse'.

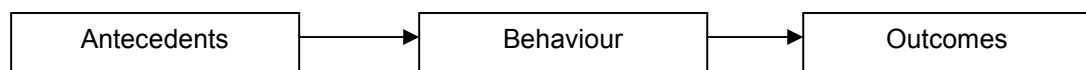
Although considerable support has been directed towards the notion that special events impact upon perceptions of their host destinations, hardly any empirical

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evidence has been obtained on this. This area of special events, which is associated with destination marketing, is under-researched. With the changing distribution of populations and the increased use of special events as catalysts in developing economies, improving knowledge about this notion is important. Current information about this notion can assist marketers of special events and destinations to develop products that are complimentary for each other.

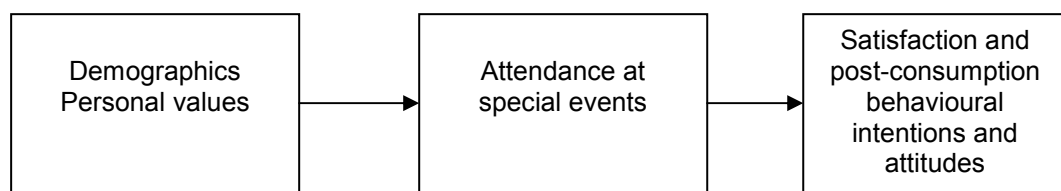
The study was guided by a general model consisting of antecedents to behaviour, behaviour and outcomes of behaviour, which is presented in Figure 6.

**Figure 6: General model guiding study**



Applying the model presented in Figure 6 to a special events context, 'behaviour' is attendance at special events. The specific antecedents to behaviour that were included in the model were demographics and personal values. The specific post-consumption concepts of interest in this study are satisfaction; intentions to recommend special events and the special event destination; and intentions to revisit the special event and the special destination and post-consumption attitudes towards the host destination. This specified model is presented in Figure 7.

**Figure 7: Specified model guiding study**



Now that the direction of this study has been detailed, the thesis will proceed with a review of the personal values literature in Chapter Three and of the satisfaction literature in Chapter Four. These chapters are followed by the presentation of an

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hypothesised research model. The model is discussed in detail with the discussion justifying the inclusion, and linkages between, the concepts included in Figure 7.



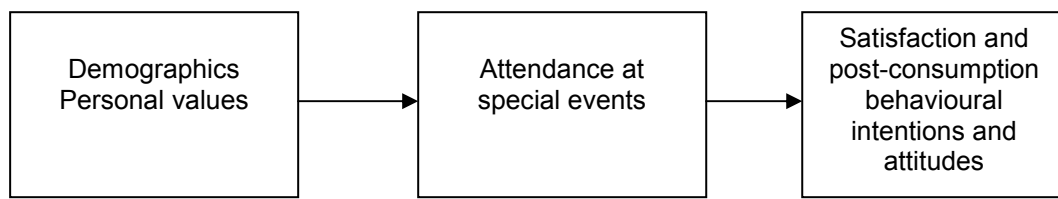
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## 3 Personal values

### 3.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, a body of special event research was reviewed and synthesised. A number of gaps in this research were identified and the direction to be taken for this study was stated. A general model for attendance at special events was also presented by including demographics, personal values, satisfaction and post-consumption variables as its key concepts. This specified model is presented in Figure 8.

**Figure 8: Specified model guiding study**



The purpose of this chapter is to present an overview of the theory on personal values to provide support for their inclusion in the research model. In doing this, the chapter presents the background to the key issues that have emerged in the personal values literature. The findings of this chapter also assisted the researcher to formulate the research hypotheses for this study. This chapter provides a summary of:

- the theory of personal values;
- the methods available, and the problems associated, with the measurement of personal values;
- personal values research set within the context of tourism; and
- the role of personal values in the formation of attitudes and behaviour.

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It was not intended that that this chapter would make a significant contribution to new knowledge on the topic of personal values, but that it would summarise the key issues to be considered when investigating personal values within the context of special events.

### **3.2 *Emergence of personal values theory***

Skinner (1971) suggested that personal values are epiphenomena, or that “they are merely words socialisers teach to children and are unrelated to guidance of behaviour or attitudes” (Homer and Kahle, 1988, p. 638). In the more contemporary literature, however, there is very little debate as to whether this is the case. Long and Shiffman (2000, p. 216) stated that personal values “guide actions, attitudes, judgments, and comparisons across specific objects and situations” and like many other researchers in the field, have based their research on the seminal work of Rokeach (1973). In his work, Rokeach (1973, p.5) stated “a value is an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end state of existence”. He proposed that the theory of personal values was relevant to all areas of life, suggesting that it is one’s personal values that will influence one’s preferred choice of behaviour in any given situation. He further proposed that personal values are learned but can, however, change over time.

In explaining how individuals use their personal values, Rokeach argued that personal values assist one to rationalise one’s attitudes and behaviours that would otherwise be personally or socially unacceptable. When individuals are confronted with situations where they are forced to make choices, Rokeach suggested that they will order their personal values hierarchically. He argued, however, that the order of the hierarchy is likely to alter from situation to situation because he believed that most personal values are as important as each other. Some personal values,

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however, may come to the fore in certain circumstances. In ordering one's personal values systematically, or hierarchically, Rokeach believed that individuals are then able to overcome some of the conflicting situations in their lives. He likened this equalising effect to the concept of cognitive dissonance, which is understood to occur when individuals believe that two thoughts are true, but inconsistent. This situation produces tension for individuals and they generally attempt to then bring some balance to the situation (Loudon and Della Bitta, 1993). Thus, the theory of personal values is considered to be more complex than a single value influencing a single attitude or behaviour.

Rokeach's work initiated considerable debate in the literature. Williams (1979), in support of Rokeach and his theory, disputed the assertion that the concept of personal values is purely academic and that values are not a naturally occurring phenomenon, by stating that:

*“values make a difference: they are not epiphenomenal...  
and that we flatly reject all reductionists formulations that  
would by fiat rule out values as significant causes of  
behaviour”.*

The statement, however, was accompanied by a call for further research to validate the theory, as at that point empirical support for it had not been obtained.

Erdem, Oumilli and Tuncalp, (1999, p. 137) stated that “personal values have significant implications for marketing theoreticians and practitioners alike”. They identified three main uses of personal values in a marketing context, namely:

- to describe the value structure of populations;
- to explain differences in value systems among groups or individuals who are defined a priori; or

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- as a criterion for segmenting the population into homogenous groups of individuals who share a common value system.

### **3.3 *Types of personal values***

Vernon and Allport (1931) empirically tested a set of personal values that was developed by Spranger in the 1920's. The set of values encompassed six constructs, namely, those that were theoretical, economic, aesthetic, social, political and religious in nature. In trying to understand personal values, Vernon and Allport associated them with personality. Brangule-Vlagsma, Pieters and Weidel (2002), however, noted that personal values, and the systems in which they are often organised, are subject to both endogenous and exogenous forces. As examples of these forces, endogenous forces include becoming a parent or changing jobs whereas exogenous forces can include economic impacts or natural disasters.

Kahle (1983) noted that personal values are likely to change for societies over time, represented by 'shifts'. Shifts in personal value systems, or the ways in which personal values are organised in relation to each other, have been noticed over a 10-year period in America from 1970 to 1980 (Kahle, 1983). In a similar area of personal values research, Inglehart (1990) also noted that shifts in personal value systems are always likely to occur, despite personal values themselves being relatively stable over time. Muller and Woodcock (1997) noted that a shift occurred in the personal value systems of the Australian 'Early Baby Boomers' between 1976 and 1986.

Since the work of Rokeach, research on personal values has progressed substantially and, as a result, more information has been gained on the topic. A number of personal values have been identified, other than those identified by Spranger in the 1920s. These include the need for warm relationships, security,

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excitement, fun and enjoyment and achievement (Kahle, Beatty and Homer, 1986) in the List of Values (LOV); equality, inner harmony and a comfortable life (Rokeach, 1973) in the Rokeach Value Survey (RVS); private materialism (Easterlin and Crimmins, 1991) and post-materialism (David and Davenport, 1999). The LOV and the RVS are discussed in more detail in Section 3.4 of this chapter.

### **3.4 Organisation of personal values**

The notion that personal values exist in an interconnected, hierarchical structure has been acknowledged quite widely in the literature. Some researchers of personal values have referred to these underlying dimensions as ‘motivational domains’, which is likely a result of the strong links that have been proposed between personal values and motivational hierarchies. Using some items from the RVS as the basis of an instrument, Schwartz and Bilsky (1987, 1990) empirically tested the existence of a psychological structure based on seven motivational domains of personal values, namely, those that are based on enjoyment, security, achievement, self-direction, restrictive conformity, prosocial and maturity. The personal values in the RVS were assigned to the seven corresponding motivational domains and these are presented in Table 5. Schwartz and Bilsky suggested that there are perhaps only a few other motivational domains than these seven domains in existence.

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**Table 5: RVS and its motivational domains, developed by Schwartz and Bilsky (1987)**

Domain	RVS personal values
Enjoyment	Pleasure, a comfortable life, happiness, cheerful
Security	Inner harmony, family security, national security, world at peace
Achievement	Capable, ambitious, social recognition
Self-direction	Imaginative, independent, intellectual, logical
Restrictive conformity	Obedient, polite, clean, self- controlled
Prosocial	Helpful, forgiving, loving, equality
Maturity	Wisdom, broadminded, mature love, a world of beauty, courageous

Source: Adapted from Schwartz and Bilsky (1987)

Further to this, Schwartz and Bilsky (1987) proposed that 'Collective', 'Individual' and 'Mixed' dimensional directions superimposed the seven personal value domains. Schwartz and Bilsky then tested the validity of this proposition by assigning each of the RVS items to a motivational domain, and one of the three dimensional directions. Based on the results of their research, Schwartz and Bilsky found support for their hypotheses and concluded "people appear to distinguish the seven theoretically derived motivational domains that can be measured with the Rokeach values" (p. 556).

Similarly, the LOV was developed based on motivational domains by using some of the items on the RVS and Maslow's (1954) theory of needs. Maslow's (1954) motivational needs, namely, the physiological, safety, belonging; esteem/self-direction; and self-actualisation needs/achievement, were used to explain the motivational domains in the LOV. Kahle (1983) assigned each of the LOV items to a level of the hierarchy of needs and these are presented in Table 6.

**Table 6: LOV domains**

<b>Domain (Maslow's Need Category)</b>	<b>LOV personal values</b>
Physiological needs/enjoyment	Excitement
	Fun and enjoyment in life
Safety needs/security	Security
Belonging and love needs/maturity	Sense of belonging
	Warm relationships
Esteem needs/self-direction	Self-respect
	Being well respected
Self-actualisation needs/achievement	A sense of accomplishment
	Self-fulfilment

**Source: Kahle (1983)**

Subsequent analysis of the LOV by Kamakura and Novak (1992) indicated that the LOV's items serve 'Individual' and 'Mixed' Interests. Kamakura and Novak's (1992) only concern with this motivational domain classification was that the '*warm relationships*' personal value exhibited a certain degree of equivocalness in its assignment to both the maturity and the enjoyment domains. Table 7 itemises the LOV personal values, the motivational domain and the interests that each value serves as developed by Kamakura and Novak.

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**Table 7: Interpretation of LOV items in terms of motivational domains**

Motivational domain	LOV item	Interest served
Self-direction	Self-respect, self-fulfilment	Individual
Achievement	Accomplishment	Individual
Enjoyment	Fun and enjoyment, excitement, warm relationships	Individual
Maturity	Belonging, warm relationships	Mixed
Security	Security	Mixed

Source: Kamakura and Novak (1992, p. 121)

### ***3.5 Operationalising the concept of personal values***

Although personal values are arguably highly abstract concepts, they are now considered to be measurable and have been used to explore and explain consumer behaviour across a range of consumption situations and for a number of marketing purposes over the past few decades. Blamey and Braithwaite (1997, p. 32) noted that personal values are relevant across different situations and that their limited number makes them economical measures in the psychographic field. In a general context, personal values have been used to explore and explain, for example, the consumption of healthcare services (Woodside, Frey and Daly, 1989) and natural foods (Homer and Kahle, 1988); perceptions of retail outlets (Erdem *et al.*, 1999); to segment the luxury car market (Sukhdial, Chakraborty and Steger, 1995); and to understand smokers and beer drinkers (Kropp, Lavack and Holden, 1999). Although this list of research is by no means exhaustive, it highlights the varied use of the theory of personal values in research and offers support for Rokeach's original proposition that personal values are applicable to all areas of one's life.



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The most commonly used quantitative measures of personal values are the Rokeach Values Survey (RVS) (Rokeach, 1979) and the List of Values (LOV). The LOV has sometimes been attributed to Veroff, Douvan and Kulka (1981), but most commonly to Kahle (1983). It appears that at one stage or another, Veroff, Douvan, Kulka and Kahle each worked on the development of the LOV and this has sometimes caused some confusion as to which author(s) should be cited for its development. Other quantitative measures, such as VALS© (Mitchell, 1983) and the Roy Morgan Lifestyles (Dermott and Associates, 1995) are lifestyle inventories that include other variables than personal values, namely, attitudes, interests and opinions. These measures, however, are not in the public domain. The RVS and the LOV both are in the public domain and have been used extensively in academic research on personal values. From a qualitative perspective, personal values have been operationalised using means-end analysis (Gutman, 1982). This section will provide an overview of each of these methods for the operationalisation of personal values in research to date.

### **3.5.1 The Rokeach Value Survey (RVS)**

Using the typology of terminal and instrumental personal values, whereby terminal values are those that an individual seeks (eg: a prosperous life) and instrumental values are the means to achieving the terminal values (eg: being independent), Rokeach developed the RVS (Rokeach, 1979) for the quantitative analysis of personal values. Terminal values are those that are considered to be relatively stable over time, and are learned very early in one's life. Examples of terminal values are to have 'inner harmony' or to have 'family security'. In comparison, instrumental values are considered to be the modes of behaviour by which individual can achieve the terminal or end values. Examples of instrumental values are to be 'self-controlled' or to be 'helpful'. The typology has been widely accepted in the

literature, demonstrated by its extensive use in applied research. The measure consists of 18 terminal and 18 instrumental values, which are presented in Table 8.

**Table 8: The RVS**

Terminal Values	Instrumental Values
A comfortable life (a prosperous life)	Ambitious (hard-working aspiring)
A sense of accomplishment (lasting contribution)	Broad-minded (open-minded)
A world at peace (free of war and conflict)	Capable (competent, effective)
A world of beauty (beauty of nature and the arts)	Cheerful (light-hearted joyful)
An exciting life (a stimulating life, active life)	Clean (neat, tidy)
Equality (brother hood, equal opportunity for all)	Courageous (standing up for the welfare of others)
Family security (taking care of loved ones)	Forgiving (willing to pardon)
Freedom (independence, free choice)	Helpful (working for the welfare of others)
Happiness (contentedness)	Honest (sincere, truthful)
Inner harmony (free of war and conflict)	Imaginative (daring, creative)
Mature love (sexual and spiritual intimacy)	Independent (self-reliant, self-sufficient)
National security (protection from attack)	Intellectual (intelligent, reflective)
Pleasure (an enjoyable, leisurely life)	Logical (consistent, rational)
Salvation (saved, eternal life)	Loving (affectionate, tender)
Self-respect (self-esteem)	Obedient (dutiful, respectful)
Social recognition (respect admiration)	Polite (courteous, well-mannered)
True friendship (close companionship)	Responsible (dependable, reliable)
Wisdom (a mature understanding of life)	Self-controlled (restrained, self-disciplined)

Source: Adapted from Rokeach (1979)

Kamakura and Novak (1992) and Madrigal (1995) stated that the RVS was the most commonly used instrument for the measurement of personal values, despite some criticism levelled at a few specific items on the RVS. Clawson and Vinson (1978), for example, suggested that not all of the RVS personal values are entirely relevant to contemporary daily life, such as “to have a world at peace” or “to have national

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security". The importance of these personal values was perhaps stronger at the time of the measure's development, waning to some extent afterwards. In light of the recent incidence of global terrorism, however, the relevance of these particular values is perhaps now, once again, quite strong.

Braithwaite and Law (1985) voiced their concerns in relation to the neglect of 'physical development and well-being', and 'basic human rights', such as 'dignity, privacy and protection of human life values' in the RVS. They did, however, conclude that the RVS "fared well in terms of its representativeness and comprehensiveness, and, unwittingly, it has even more than one measure of some of the value constructs" (p. 263).

One major criticism of the measure, which is more substantive is that as respondents are required to rank order the 18 terminal and 18 instrumental values, they are likely to suffer from respondent fatigue. Clawson and Vinson (1978) noted that the RVS may lose information because of the exhaustive ranking procedure and a lack of ability to cope with ties. It is thought that these issues may impact upon the reliability of the results. Further to this, the issue that ranked data offers fewer opportunities for statistical analysis than rated data has also been raised by a number of researchers. Feather (1973), Richins and Dawson (1992) and McCarty and Shrum (2000) have identified a number of reasons as to why the ranking procedure is inadequate. They noted that the ranking method:

- is superficial;
- does not allow interindividual comparisons, as the resulting data is ipsative;
- provides ordinal data, which limits the type of data analysis that can be employed;

- 
- only provides an indication of the relative positions of the personal values, rather than their absolute positions; and
  - that it may force respondents to distinguish amongst the set of personal values, when in actual fact they do not perceive a difference to exist.

These issues about the RVS provided the impetus for further research on personal values that would assist in some part to resolve them.

### 3.5.2 The List of Values (LOV)

In a test of social adaptation theory, Kahle, Kulka and Klingel (1980) developed a list of personal values which Kahle (1983) later refined into what is known as the List of Values (LOV). The LOV is based on RVS terminal values and Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs. The LOV was developed to "make up for the shortcomings of the RVS" (Thrane, 1997a, p.235), which have just been discussed. Consisting of only nine terminal values, the LOV has the obvious advantage of its parsimony. Table 9 itemises the personal values in the LOV.

**Table 9: The List of Values**

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

**Source: Adapted from Kahle (1983)**

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It was, however, initially recommended that the LOV be used with a ranking approach as per the RVS and this aspect of the measure attracted similar criticism to that of the RVS. The suggested analytical techniques for data collected using the LOV involved the use of the single top-ranked personal value. As has been mentioned already, and will be discussed in more detail later in this chapter, the notion that individuals are guided by one personal value is less realistic than that they are guided by their hierarchically ordered system of personal values (Rokeach, 1973). Homer and Kahle (1988), for example, stated that the use of the top-ranked personal value alone is not entirely psychologically satisfactory. Despite this criticism of the LOV, Kamakura and Mazzon (1991) suggested that because the LOV is based on Maslow's hierarchy of needs, the use of the top-ranked personal value could be well justified. Daghfous, Petrof and Pons (1999) suggested that there is some agreement amongst researchers of the LOV's superiority. The LOV is now generally administered with the use of a Likert scale and the data are generally factor analysed for underlying dimensions (McCarty and Shrum, 2000).

### **3.5.3 Commercial inventories related to personal values**

The *Values and Lifestyles (VALS®)* (Mitchell, 1983) system incorporates personal values, attitudes and opinions as well as demographic variables. The VALS® system has been used extensively in a market research context, but it is not available in the public domain due to copyright law. Similarly, the *Roy Morgan Research Lifestyle Segments* (Dermott and Associates, 1995) is a values-based segmentation system. In Australia, the *Roy Morgan Research Lifestyle Segments* are used extensively to profile markets. Tourism Victoria, for example, employs this segmentation approach and focuses on three of the 10 segments currently derived from the analysis of samples of Australian populations, namely, the *Visible*

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*Achievers, the Look at Me's and the Socially Aware segments* (Tourism Victoria, 2001).

Both these inventories include a number of concepts related to personal values, such as attitudes, opinions and behaviours. In one of the few academic studies that has been based on VALS®, Novak and MacEvoy (1990) found that although LOV alone has less predictive power than VALS®, the LOV is a superior measure for predictive purposes when combined with demographic variables. A review of the literature indicated that such comparative analysis involving the *Roy Morgan Research Lifestyle Segments* has not been undertaken in an academic context to this point in time.

### **3.5.4 Means-end analysis**

Means-end analysis is a combination of both qualitative and quantitative research approaches for the study of personal values. Means-end theory is predicated on linkages between the “physical attributes that exist in products (‘the means’), the consequences for the consumer provided by the attributes, and the personal values (‘the ends’) the consequences reinforce” (Reynolds and Gutman, 1988, p.11). Reynolds and Gutman (1988) described the collection of data using the ‘laddering’ interview technique, the data collection method for means-end analysis and stated that the interview begins with asking why it is important to the interviewee that they engaged in the specific behaviour being investigated. After obtaining a response, the interviewee is repeatedly probed, sometimes up to five times, as to why the answer they gave was important to them. The objective of the laddering interview is to identify the cause of the behaviour, which it is believed will be attributable to the interviewee’s system of personal values. The interview is analysed and the researchers develop a ‘means-end chain’ for interpretation. Klenosky, Gengler and

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Mulvey (1993, p. 364) stated that ‘the means-end chain model provides a simple way of characterising the basic pattern of relationships by which the physical features or attributes of products gain personal relevance or meaning for consumers’.

The means-end chain is then content analysed and a summary table constructed to identify the connections between the three elements of the chain, which is subsequently used in a ‘hierarchical value map’ (HVM). A HVM graphically represents the results of means-end analysis. The collection of information on personal values using a means-end approach is obviously resource consuming, but it has proven to be a useful method of collecting and analysing data on personal values. The method has been used, for example, in retail store settings (Thompson and Chen, 1998); services (Botschen, Thelenand and Pieters, 1999); tourism (Claeys, Swinnenand Vanden and Abeele, 1995; Klenosky *et al.*, 1993); and prescribed medication (Doucette and Wiederholt, 1992). Results of these studies indicate that where the resources are available to employ means-end analysis, researchers should consider its use when exploring personal values.

### ***3.6 Research on personal values within the context of tourism***

Kamakura and Mazzon (1991, p. 209) stated that, generally, “the main goal in value measurement is to uncover the value system or hierarchy of the respondent” and a number of studies have attempted to do this within the context of tourism. Personal values have been used to explore a number of consumption scenarios within the context of tourism. These include with the context of preferences of attractions (Pitts and Woodside, 1986); the segmentation of an international tourism market (Muller, 1991); the choice of ski destinations (Klenosky, Gengler and Mulvey, 1993); vacation

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selection (Madrigal and Kahle, 1994); travel style (Madrigal, 1995); the role of personal values in post-visit attitudes (Muller, 1995); patronage at attractions and events (Jago, 1997b); motives for vacations (Thrane, 1997a); segmentation of Norwegian tourism markets (Thrane, 1997b); subscription to airline frequency programs (Long and Schiffman, 2000); adventure tourism (Muller and Cleaver, 2000); the use of media for tourism decision-making (Fall, 2000; Fall and Knutson, 2001); holiday travel (Ekinci and Chen, 2002); and media consumption during a mega-event (McDaniel, 2002). Indeed, based on this research alone, it could be said that the application of personal values theory to tourism is quite extensive. This is contrary to belief of some researchers on the topic who have stated that the theory has not been applied to tourism to any great extent.

The research by Pitts and Woodside (1986) appears to have been the impetus for much of the subsequent research on personal values within the context of tourism. In their study, Pitts and Woodside used the RVS to understand more fully consumers' motivations associated with making leisure and travel decisions. Using personal values, they correctly predicted cluster membership based specific attraction attributes. Despite encountering some difficulties interpreting the results, which they believed was attributable to the RVS, they suggested that further information on personal values would assist in developing marketing strategies that aim to satisfy personal needs and motivations of consumers.

Muller (1991) further developed this line of inquiry by investigating the role of values in relation to destination choice. He found that tourists, who were asked to consider the importance of various destination attributes, demonstrated common patterns in their personal value orientations. Those tourists who rated the LOV items, for example, fun and enjoyment and excitement, as most important, were also those who appeared to enjoy being strangers in tourist destinations. He further noted that



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these tourists were strongly motivated by internally orientated values, such as warm relationships and a sense of achievement. This segment, or the 'Sheer Fun' segment, Muller thought would want to 'let their hair down' (1991, p.65) in unfamiliar destinations and that because security was not a high priority for members of this segment, they would most likely be 'risk-takers'. Muller also suggested that it is not likely that tourists with these value orientations engage with the local population as they possibly prefer to operate at 'arm's length' to local communities and residents, as warm relationships with others are less important to them than the hedonistic values. From this study, a greater understanding of tourists was obtained and it offered insights of them that had not been available in the past by using more traditional segmentation criteria, such as demographics.

Within the context of tourism, the LOV has been the most widely used instrument. This trend is also found in other areas of research on personal values. Table 10 compares the systems of personal values that have emerged in research on personal values within the context of tourism, where the LOV has been used as the research instrument. Table 10 is based on that which Jago (1997a) prepared in his study on special events. The systems of personal values that emerged in each of these studies were not always identifiable. Ekinci and Chen (2002), for example, segmented the sample based on the importance respondents placed on eight of the nine LOV items, not on any system that may have emerged in the responses. Similarly, Mueller used individual personal values to predict cluster membership, rather than any system of personal values present in the data.

**Table 10: Comparison of value factors across tourism studies (LOV)**

Personal value	Madrigal and Kahle (1994)	Muller (1989; 1991)	Madrigal (1995)	Jago (1997a)	Thrane (1997)	Fall (2000)	Fall and Knutson (2001)	Ekinci and Chen (2002)
Self-fulfilment	Achievement	Not Identified	Internal	Achievement	Internal	Interpersonal	Internal	Not Identified
Accomplishment	Achievement		Internal	Achievement	Internal	Achievement	Internal	
Security	External		Not ident.	Achievement	External	Achievement	External	
Excitement	Enjoyment		Internal	Achievement	Internal	Hedonism	Internal	
Fun and enjoyment	Enjoyment		Internal	Achievement	Internal	Hedonism	Internal	
Warm relationships	Egocentrism		External	Affiliation	Internal	Interpersonal	Internal	
Sense of belonging	External		External	Affiliation	External	Interpersonal	External	
Being well-respected	External		External	Affiliation	External	Achievement	External	
Self-respect	Egocentrism		Internal	Affiliation	External	Achievement	Internal	

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At first glance, Table 10 does not appear to present a consistent set of results in regard to personal values research set within the context of tourism. One needs to consider that terms, such as 'Achievement' and 'Interpersonal' were used subjectively in these studies and that they are not definitions *per se*. The term 'egocentrism' was used to describe the personal values, warm relationships and self-respect, as Madrigal and Kahle's (1994) study was focussed on finding relationships between personal values and tourist personality types.

If one replaces the terms 'Achievement' with 'Internal' and 'Affiliation' with 'External' in Jago's results, one can see stronger patterns in the results. When this is done, it highlights that, in the studies reported on here, self-fulfilment, a sense of accomplishment, excitement, fun and enjoyment and self-respect can generally be described as intrinsically-oriented personal values. Within the context of these studies, security, a sense of belonging and being well-respected can generally be described as extrinsically-oriented personal values. It is interesting to note, that Fall (2000) found that the personal values, excitement and fun and enjoyment, emerged together as a hedonistically-oriented personal value domain.

Indeed, other research outside academe, which incorporates the theory of the personal values, has been undertaken within the context of tourism. The results of such research are used extensively in marketing strategies. In Australia, for example, Roy Morgan Research (Dermott and Associates, 1995) has developed a market segmentation approach based on lifestyles, which incorporates personal values. Lifestyle market research incorporates attitudes, opinion and interests and, in most cases, commercial research of this type is quite expensive (Kamakura and Wedel, 1995). Market segments derived from this research include the *Visible Achievers*, the *Socially Aware* and *Look at Me's*. As has already been mentioned, Tourism Victoria aggressively targets these three segments in its marketing strategy

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(Tourism Victoria, 2001). In Canada, research in this area has yielded similar types of market segments, such as the *Autonomous Rebels* and the *Connected Enthusiasts*. Similar sets of market segments have also been identified by research conducted in New Zealand and the United States (Muller and Cleaver, 2000). In New Zealand, a comparable market to Australia's *Visible Achievers* is the *Success-Driven Extroverts* and in the United States, the *Achievers* are comparable to these market segments in the southern hemisphere.

### **3.7 Personal values, attitude and behaviour**

Although apparently similar, differences between 'personal values', 'attitudes' and 'behaviour' have been highlighted in the literature from both the conceptual and operational perspectives. It is important that these differences are acknowledged for this thesis. This section of the chapter, therefore, provides a summary of these differences.

Madrigal and Kahle (1994) identified that within the literature there appeared to be a general consensus that personal values:

- relate to concepts, beliefs or desirable behaviours;
- transcend specific situations;
- guide selection or evaluation of situations; and
- are ordered by relative importance.

With these attributes in mind, personal values are important, but are not consciously anchored to anything in particular. They are also relatively small in number. Although neither claim to be exhaustive, the two measures (specifically the RVS and the LOV), which are most often used in research on personal values, consist of 18 and nine personal values respectively. These two measures are discussed in more detail in sections 3.5.1 and 3.5.2.

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Blamey and Braithwaite (1997, p.32) described attitudes as clusters of beliefs that can be prescriptive, cognitive, affective or behavioural, whereas a personal value is a single prescriptive belief. They further suggested that the number of attitudes is possibly immeasurable. George and Jones (1997) noted, however, that there has been considerable debate within the literature as to the constituents of 'attitude'. They believe that they have synthesised the debate and stated that attitudes are generally considered to:

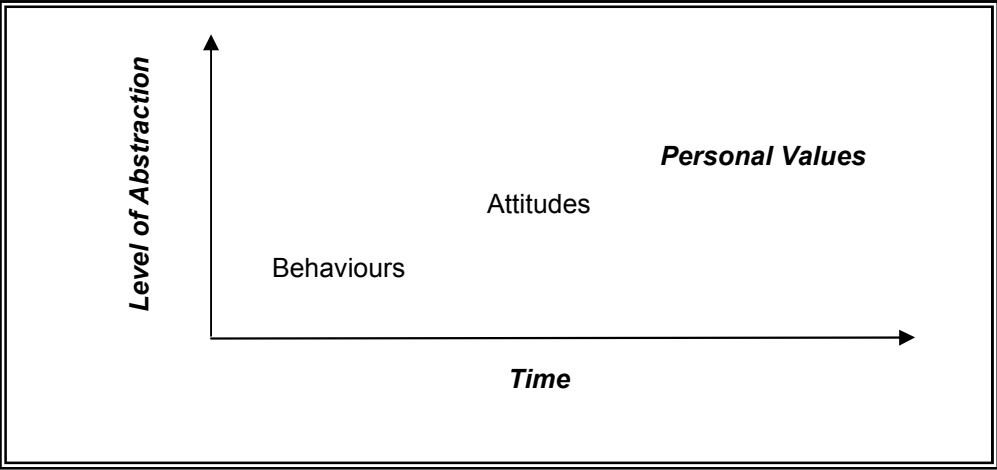
- pertain to a specific or particular target;
- include affect towards the target;
- include thoughts which tend to be cognitive in nature; and
- include predispositions to behave in certain ways.

Fall (2000) noted that previous research in this area has demonstrated that attitudes may be formed as a function of the situation, personal or cognitive activities, or societal demands. Hence attitudes can be easily, and sometimes quickly, formed and similarly changed. Using social adaptation theory (Helson, 1948; 1959; 1964), and the work of Kahle (1983), as a point of reference, Fall stated "people's attitudes serve to help them to adapt to their environment" (2000, p. 6). She stated that this is consistent with Rokeach's theory of personal values. Zhao, He and Lovrich (1998) stated that in, most cases, individual attitudes are considered to be an expression of underlying values. Kamakura and Novak (1992) noted that because personal values are determinants of attitudes and behaviour, they provide a stable and an inner-oriented understanding of consumers.

From Rokeach's perspective, he proposed that personal values are more abstract than the related concepts of attitudes and behaviours. He believed that personal values influence attitudes, which are then operationalised by behaviours. Figure 9

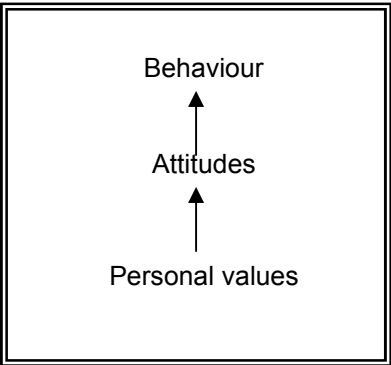
presents this continuum, whereby the position of the concepts also denotes their relative level of endurance over time.

**Figure 9: Relative continuum of personal values, attitudes and behaviours**



Homer and Kahle (1988) empirically validated the relationship between personal values and attitudes whilst validating the more complex hierarchy of personal values, attitudes and behaviour. In their study of attitudes towards nutrition, Homer and Kahle related the importance of nutrition (attitude) and the purchase (behaviour) of natural foods with clusters of personal values. Their research identified that attitude played a mediating role between personal values and behaviour. In conclusion, Homer and Kahle acknowledged that all behaviour is not necessarily a manifestation of personal values, but that knowledge of their influence on behaviour is useful. The hierarchy has been represented graphically and is presented in Figure 10.

**Figure 10: Hierarchy of personal values, attitudes and behaviour**



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Part of this hierarchy, specifically the relationship between attitudes and behaviour, is consistent with Fishbein and Ajzen's (1980) theory of reasoned action, whereby consumer intentions are considered to be a prediction of intended behaviour. Thus, the hierarchy has built upon previous research in this field.

### **3.8 Summary**

In this chapter, some background to the theory of personal values and the application of it within a tourism context has been provided. This chapter also demonstrated that further research on personal values within this context and within an academic context, is warranted. The need for further research is particularly required in light of the extensive use of personal values in commercial contexts for tourism products. Academic research on personal values within this context can inform the commercial environment in an unbiased fashion. There is a dearth of research on personal values in the context of special events and this is important to address given the level of importance placed on markets for special events in tourism strategies.

In this chapter, the relationship between personal values and attitude and behaviour was explored and clarified. It is with this relationship in mind, that satisfaction emerges as a key concept in this thesis. It is thought that systems of personal values are related to the concept of satisfaction and this notion is an integral component of this thesis, however, greater understanding of the concept of satisfaction is required before the notion can be developed and discussed. This thesis will continue with a summary of the satisfaction literature.

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## 4 Satisfaction

### 4.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, an overview of the key issues emerging from research on personal values was provided. Key findings in the chapter included that personal values guide attitudes and behaviour and as such they are an important line of inquiry. It was also identified that personal values, although highly abstract in nature, are measurable using a range of methods. It was also established that a link between personal values, or more specifically systems of personal values, and satisfaction is plausible, however, the relationship has not been extensively explored. Further to this, it was also identified that the theory of personal values has been applied within the broader context of tourism, but its application to special events has been limited.

The purpose of this chapter is to provide an overview of the key issues that have emerged in the satisfaction literature. As was the case with the previous chapter on personal values, it is not intended that this chapter on satisfaction contribute to new knowledge on the topic *per se*. Rather, the purpose of this chapter is to provide insights into satisfaction and the key issues surrounding it to assist in the development of the research model for this study. This chapter provides a summary of the development of contemporary theory on satisfaction and discusses the key issues associated with the concept, including its measurement and importance within the context of consumer behaviour. The chapter also provides a brief summary of the research on satisfaction within the context of tourism.



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## **4.2 Contemporary satisfaction theory**

Satisfaction was initially studied within the context of psychology. Howard and Sheth (1969) were among the first marketing researchers to place satisfaction into the field of marketing. In these early years of satisfaction research, Howard and Sheth modified a psychological definition of satisfaction for a marketing context by stating that customer satisfaction was “the buyer's cognitive state of being adequately or inadequately rewarded for the sacrifice he has undergone” (p. 25). At this stage, research on satisfaction was predominantly based on Cardozo's (1965) work on cognitive dissonance, where it was understood that satisfaction and this concept were 'synonymous'. Cognitive dissonance is where an individual acknowledges [the cognition] and experiences tension that two thoughts are inconsistent [the dissonance] and removes the tension by attempting to bring harmony to the situation (Loudon and Della Bitta, 1993). This definition incorporated a transactional component of satisfaction.

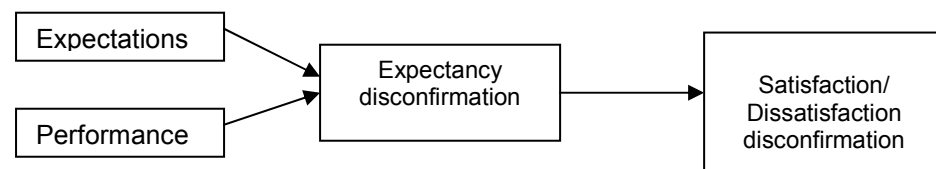
By the mid-1970's, at the first conference for consumer satisfaction in North America, Oliver (1981) noted that it was Hunt (1977) who posited that, rather than satisfaction being synonymous with cognitive dissonance, it was a post-consumption evaluation. Hunt proposed that satisfaction was “not the pleasurable nature of the [consumption] experience rather, it is the evaluation rendered that the experience was at least as good as it was supposed to be” (p. 459). Hunt further suggested that satisfaction was best characterised as an attitude-like post-consumption evaluative judgment.

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### 4.3 *Expectations and satisfaction*

Implicit in Hunt's interpretation of satisfaction was the notion that the expectations one had of the consumption experience would play a role in the process of becoming satisfied, but it was Oliver (1981) who more explicitly incorporated this notion into the theory of satisfaction through his theory of expectancy disconfirmation. Oliver (1981) agreed that satisfaction was the complex emotional response to a consumption experience, but only following expectancy disconfirmation. Expectancy disconfirmation consists of two processes (Oliver and DeSarbo, 1988; Van Montfort, Masurel and Van Rijn, 2000), namely, the formation of expectations and the comparison of those expectations to performance standards (comparison standards). A diagrammatic representation of the process is presented in Figure 11. Even though there had been relatively little empirical analysis of the theory to that point, it was generally accepted within academe that expectancy disconfirmation was a more appropriate framework in which to study satisfaction.

**Figure 11: Expectancy disconfirmation/satisfaction paradigm**



Source: Adapted from Oliver (1980)

The result of the expectancy disconfirmation process is a 'better-than' expectations or 'worse-than' expectations outcome. The 'better-than' expectations outcome represents positive disconfirmation and the 'worse-than' expectation represents negative disconfirmation. Confirmation occurs when the result is as expected and is, in fact, neither satisfaction nor dissatisfaction. Table 11 summarises the range of expectancy disconfirmation scenarios.

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**Table 11: Expectancy disconfirmation scenarios**

<b>Degree to which expectations are met</b>	<b>Valence of disconfirmation</b>	<b>Satisfaction response</b>
Expectations exceeded	Positive	Satisfaction
Expectations met	Neutral	Neither satisfaction or dissatisfaction
Expectations not met	Negative	Dissatisfaction

Oliver's expectancy disconfirmation theory was predicated on well-established psychological theories. The expectation component is based on adaptation theory (Helson, 1948; 1959; 1964). Oliver (1981) used adaptation theory to explain how expectations are used to judge, or compare, stimuli that consumers may encounter. Oliver (1981) stated that adaptation theory is, however, less appropriate in explaining satisfaction responses as it appears that satisfaction responses deteriorate overtime. For this purpose, Solomon (1980) and Solomon and Corbette's (1974) opponent-process theory, which is based on Fletcher's (1942) physiological phenomenon of homeostasis, was used.

When applied to satisfaction, homeostasis theory explains how, prior to the consumption of a product or service, one's attitude or expectation toward the product or service is likened to a neutral state of homeostasis (attitude). Once the product or service is consumed, the process of expectancy disconfirmation results in a state of satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Subsequent to this, opponent process theory, which is of a purely internal origin, causes the state of satisfaction to decay to a new level of homeostasis. As such, there is a strong connection between the satisfaction response and attitudes towards the product or service consumed.

Oliver's early work has been widely accepted within the literature. Since its launch, little other research on satisfaction has been predicated on cognitive dissonance.

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Oliver's work in this area is seminal. Van Montfort, Masurel and Van Rijn (2000), Patterson (2000) and MacKenzie, Spreng and Olshavsky (1996) have highlighted the significance of the expectancy disconfirmation theory to satisfaction research. Wirtz (1993, p.7) stated that the theory of expectancy disconfirmation is considered to be "the most widely used and empirically supported conceptualisation of satisfaction in the contemporary literature". Halstead's (1999) meta-analysis of the satisfaction literature similarly identified high levels of acceptance and application of the theory. As a consequence, there is a prevalence of Oliver's work in the literature, which may also emerge in this thesis, but this focus has not detracted from the considerable progress that has been made on this topic.

#### ***4.4 Contemporary definitions of satisfaction***

Although the satisfaction literature is now clearly predicated on the theory of expectancy disconfirmation, satisfaction is still considered an elusive concept to define (Yuksel and Yuksel, 2001a). This is evident in much of the literature on the topic. Table 12 provides examples of the ways in which satisfaction has been defined or interpreted during the last decade and is based on a broad cross-section of the literature. Although only including a small sample of the literature. Table 12 demonstrates, firstly, the prevalence of expectancy disconfirmation theory and, secondly, the various types of definitions/interpretations of satisfaction that have been used in the literature. Further to this, Table 12 also highlights that in some research on the topic, a definition/interpretation of satisfaction was not provided by the authors.

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**Table 12: Some definitions and interpretations of satisfaction**

<b>Author(s) and year</b>	<b>Definition/interpretation</b>
Das, Das and Mackenzie (1996)	Not provided.
Davis and Heineke (1998)	Describes the concept in terms of a function of i) disconfirmation and ii) perceptions.
Fornell (1992, p.11)	"Satisfaction is a postpurchase evaluation".
Hackl and Westlund (2000)	Not provided.
Oliver (1993)	Not provided.
Oliver (1997)	Pleasurable fulfillment.
Oliver (1999)	Cited Tse and Wilton's (1988, p. 34) definition of satisfaction – as an "evaluation of the perceived discrepancy between prior expectations... and the actual performance of the product" and Oliver's (1997) definition.
Taylor (1994)	Not provided.
Yuksel and Yuksel (2001)	Cited a number of definitions of satisfaction, but do not categorically define satisfaction themselves.
Wirtz and Bateson (1995)	Cited Cadotte (1987), Day (1984); Westbrook and Oliver (1991).

What has emerged in the literature is that satisfaction is generally viewed from two perspectives. Satisfaction is often described with a process in mind, namely, expectancy disconfirmation. For example, Day (1984) described satisfaction as a post-choice evaluative judgment concerning a specific purchase selection, as did Fornell (1992). In their review of the satisfaction literature, Wirtz and Bateson (1999) identified that satisfaction has generally been defined as an evaluative response concerning the perceived outcome of a particular consumption experience. According to de Ruyter and Bloemer (1999), where definitions of satisfaction have been based on expectancy disconfirmation, these definitions have been process driven. Essentially, research based on expectancy disconfirmation is generally predicated on the view that satisfaction is cognitively formed.

On the other hand, satisfaction is often described as a psychological state. The World Tourism Organisation (WTO) likened satisfaction to a psychological concept

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involving feelings of well-being and pleasure as a result of obtaining what one expects from an appealing product and/or service (WTO, 1985). Oliver's more recent work has suggested that satisfaction is an emotional or affective response to a consumption experience. This is an emerging area of satisfaction research in which the phrase 'delighting the customer' (Arnold, 1999; Paul, 2000; Rust and Oliver, 2000; Schneider and Bowen, 1999) is almost becoming a signature phrase within the satisfaction literature.

Although satisfaction appears to have been studied predominantly within a cognitive framework, specifically via expectancy disconfirmation, Westbrook (1991), Oliver (1993) and Mano and Oliver (1993) have pioneered research on satisfaction from the affective perspective. Oliver stated that consumers will generally "attempt to maximise positive affective states and minimise negative affective states" (1993, p.422) in the consumption process. Oliver and Mano (1993) found that both negative and positive affect influences satisfaction, particularly where the product or service consists of a number of attributes.

Westbrook and Oliver (1991, p.84) stated that "the evaluative component of the satisfaction judgment is assumed to vary along an hedonic continuum", which effectively combined the two perspectives. Earlier, Oliver's (1989) five emotional states of both satisfaction and dissatisfaction were proposed. In order of increasing favorableness, Oliver proposed that satisfaction could be described as acceptance, happiness, relief, interest/excitement and delight; and for dissatisfaction, in order of decreasing favorableness - tolerance, sadness, regret, agitation and outrage. Westbrook and Oliver (1991) found that experiential bases of high satisfaction occurred in the instances of pleasure linked to surprise (i.e. delight); and pleasure coupled with high interest. They concluded that surprise is a required element of any satisfaction response. The existence of the two perspectives does not seem to have

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had an adverse effect on each other; it appears that by acknowledging and allowing the two perspectives of satisfaction to co-exist, the extent to which satisfaction is now understood is greater than had this not been the case.

#### **4.5 Key issues in the satisfaction literature**

A number of issues have emerged in the literature in relation to satisfaction, including the comparison standard used by consumers in the expectancy disconfirmation process; frameworks other than expectancy disconfirmation that have been proposed for satisfaction research; the formation of an overall satisfaction response; the conceptual proximity of satisfaction and service quality; and the measurement of satisfaction. The following sections will briefly summarise these issues, which will then highlight the complexities involved in research on satisfaction. Some of these issues remain unresolved in the literature and have been unclear for some researchers of satisfaction, which highlights the need for further research in this area.

##### **4.5.1 Comparison standards**

From the expectancy disconfirmation perspective, expectations have been a core element of the paradigm shift. Different types of comparison standards, however, have emerged in the literature and have been suggested for different consumption situations. Halstead (1999) noted an emerging consensus amongst researchers that there are three different types of comparison standards employed by consumers in consumption situations, namely, expectations, experience-based norms and desires/ideals.

Halstead's review of the literature identified that it is generally found that expectations will likely be used when involvement is low and not much information is available about the product/service under consideration, or when it is non-durable. Cadotte, Woodruff and Jenkins (1987) and Woodruff, Cadotte and Jenkins (1983) stated that

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where consumers are able to refer to their experience with the same, or similar, products or services, experience-based norms, or what consumers feel should be delivered, based on their experience with the product/service, are likely to be employed. Desires are likely to be employed when consumers are processing the consumption experience in terms of their values, or when they have purchased the product previously.

#### **4.5.2 Alternative frameworks to expectancy disconfirmation**

It was not until the late 1980's that frameworks, other than expectancy disconfirmation were proposed for satisfaction research. Oliver and de Sarbo (1988) tested the effects that assimilation, equity, attribution and performance have on satisfaction and concluded that it is possible that consumers are sensitive to all of these processes simultaneously. They identified that expectancy disconfirmation and performance are noticeably the most frequently used processes consumers employ to determine satisfaction and stated that the two concepts "may operate in tandem and that individuals can respond separately to the two concepts even though they appear to be related from a definitional standpoint" (1988, p. 503.). Oliver and Swan (1989) later suggested that, in the instance of interpersonal satisfaction, it would be more appropriate to measure both disconfirmation and equity and its components.

Pizam and Ellis (1999) identified a number of other frameworks, besides expectancy disconfirmation. These have been associated with satisfaction, including the theories of contrast; assimilation; equity, attribution, comparison-level (or experience-based norms), generalised negativity and value-percept. Yuksel and Yuksel (2001b) noted that that these frameworks have been associated with satisfaction, as well as the theories of dissonance, contrast and evaluative congruity.



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MacKenzie, Spreng and Olshavsky (1996) challenged the theory of satisfaction predicated on expectancy disconfirmation. In their study on satisfaction with a camcorder, their results indicated that 'congruency of desires' and performance were more significant than were 'congruency of expectations' and performance. Davis and Heineke (1998) supported these results in their study of the effects of waiting times on consumer satisfaction. Patterson (2000) identified that the relative impact of expectancy disconfirmation differed in various consumption situations. In a tourism or hospitality context, Yuksel and Yuksel (2001b, p.83) stated that the selection of an appropriate framework in which to study satisfaction "continues to represent a dilemma for both researchers and managers, as there is not sufficient research evidence available to answer precisely what comparison standards" [should be used] (p. 99).

#### **4.5.3 Attribute versus overall satisfaction**

Mano (1993) identified that researchers of satisfaction to that point had focused on two major components of a product's relevance to the consumer, namely, utilitarian performance and hedonic or aesthetic performance. Utilitarian performance provides an evaluation of the usefulness of the product, whereas hedonic performance refers to how products "are valued for their intrinsically pleasing properties" (p. 452). An emerging notion in the literature is that consumers will generally make a number of evaluative judgments during the consumption process and arrive at an overall evaluative judgment once the consumption process is complete. In the case of services, it is more likely that an overall evaluative judgment is a result of an aggregated impression of a number of events based on multiple expectancy disconfirmations (Bitner and Hubbert, 1994; Oliver, 1996), rather than a single occurrence. De Ruyter and Bloemer (1999) similarly noted that consumers make fast evaluative satisfaction judgments, based on singular occurrences, and/or as an

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“aggregated impression of a number of events” (p.323). Thus, there appears to be a hierarchy of abstractness amongst the concepts.

Similarly, Jones and Suh (2000) noted that it is most likely that consumers refer to a product/service’s attributes when processing their satisfaction responses and eventually arrive at an overall satisfaction response. Oliver (1993) distinguished attribute satisfaction from attribute performance by stating that it is “a higher-order concept in the consumer’s product judgment” (1993, p. 421). Research by de Ruyter and Bloemer (1999) and Bitner, Faranda, Zeithaml and Hubbert (1997) supported Oliver’s (1981) earlier view that attribute performance is conceptually less abstract than overall satisfaction.

Oliver (1993) noted the extensive use of the correlation tests between attribute satisfaction and overall satisfaction in commercial surveys. Mano and Oliver (1993) and Spreng, Mackenzie and Olshavsky (1996) explored the relationship between ‘attribute-satisfaction’ and overall satisfaction and their results indicated that attribute-satisfaction contributes to the formation of overall satisfaction. Similarly, Jones and Suh (2000) stated that this line of inquiry is important when they noted that little attention has been given to the empirical investigation of both transaction-specific and overall satisfaction in an academic context. Ekinci and Chen (2002) suggested the use of a multi-attribute satisfaction measure in future research on the topic to enhance the validity of the measurement of satisfaction.

#### **4.5.4 Satisfaction compared to service quality**

When reviewing the satisfaction literature, some confusion emerges between satisfaction and the concept of service quality. There are commonalities between the two concepts. There are, however, some key differences and any study based on

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satisfaction must acknowledge both of these. During the mid-1980's, Parasuraman, Berry and Zeithaml (1988) applied expectancy disconfirmation to the theory of service quality using desires as the comparison standard. As has been previously noted, Halstead identified that most researchers in the field now agree that desires are included in the comparison standards consumers may use to form satisfaction responses. The use of desires as a comparison standard in both theories provides an indication as to how the distinction between the two concepts has been blurred.

There has been considerable discussion regarding the distinction between satisfaction and service quality (Baker and Crompton, 2000; Sivadas and Baker-Prewitt, 2000). A few distinguishing features between the two concepts have emerged in the literature. As has been previously identified in this chapter, satisfaction is generally considered to be a post-consumption evaluative judgment anchored to a product or service. One cannot process or experience satisfaction without the consumption of a product or service. In other words, satisfaction cannot be formed vicariously. In comparison, service quality is anchored to an organisation and "would be similar to an individual's general attitude toward the service firm" (Chadee and Mattson, 1996, p. 306). Baker and Taylor (1997) stated that service quality is a long-term attitude reflecting the perceptions of the relative superiority or excellence in service-firm performance. As an attitude, service quality is less transitory than satisfaction. Satisfaction is also related to both tangible and intangible aspects of the product or experience, whereas service quality is related specifically to the intangible aspects of a service.

Finally, from an operational perspective, research undertaken indicates that the application of expectancy disconfirmation, specifically using SERVQUAL (Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry, 1985), is a less appropriate measure for service quality than performance alone. Cronin and Taylor (1992 and 1994) compared the

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results of service quality ratings using expectancy disconfirmation, performance only and weighted performance. Their findings indicated that performance only measures, using SERVPERF (Cronin and Taylor, 1992) were the most reliable of these. The findings of Bolton and Drew (1991) and Teas (1994) support those of Cronin and Taylor. Kettinger and Choong (1997) stated that SERVPERF demonstrates higher levels of predictive power, reliability and construct validity, compared to SERVQUAL. These results provide support that satisfaction and service quality are indeed different concepts, despite appearing to be conceptually similar.

#### **4.5.5 Measurement of satisfaction**

In recent years, both attribute satisfaction and overall (or global) satisfaction have been measured after a key set of attributes of the product/service under examination have been identified [See, for example, Oberoi (1990); Bitner *et al.* (1997); Smith, Bolton and Wagner (1999); Wei, Ruys and Muller (1999); Das, Das and McKenzie (1996) and Aldridge and Rowley (1998). Generally, satisfaction (attributes and overall) is measured on Likert scales producing data suitable for quantitative analysis.

Respondents commonly rate the products/services that they have purchased highly; although it is not entirely clear as to why they do this, the literature suggests that it may be related to social desirability. Respondents may be reluctant to indicate a lower rating of the product/service to an interviewer or may not want to do so because a poor selection on their behalf may be viewed as a reflection of their ability to appropriately select products or services. In many cases the resulting data will not be normally distributed and will require some form of transformation before techniques such as regression or factor analysis can be used to analyse the data. This process, however, is not always executed (Rossi, Giulla and Allenby, 2001).

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Obtaining a reasonable level of dispersion in the responses is a critical issue in satisfaction research, particularly where analyses require the use of the T- or F-test (Zikmund, 1997). Rossi, Giulla and Allenby (2001) stated that it is often the case in social research that respondents use portions of the scale rather than the full scale available to them. They further noted that in satisfaction surveys, in particular, it is not uncommon for respondents to 'end-pile' their responses at the extremes of the scale. Greenleaf (1992) noted that a high proportion of 'yeah-sayers', or respondents who constantly say yes or strongly agree with statements posed to them, in a sample is problematic when analysing the data. The potential to overestimate correlations amongst a set of variables, or identify significant correlations that are spurious is a concern for researchers, in general, but particularly for researchers of satisfaction.

#### **4.6 *Loyalty as an outcome of satisfaction***

Although satisfaction is an important concept in its own right, it is the links that satisfaction has with other organisational and marketing concepts that highlight its significance. From an organisational perspective, the cost associated with obtaining new customers are generally considered to be much more than that associated with retaining loyal customers. As such, for most organisations a primary benefit of satisfying customers is likely to be higher levels of profitability. Fornell (1992) identified that, in the 1970's in particular, increasing customer satisfaction levels were associated with increasing levels of market share. Empirical support for the relationship between customer satisfaction and profitability has been provided by Anderson and Mittal (2000) and Keiningham, Goddard, Vavra and Iaci (1999). Despite the evidence of this relationship, Gummesson (1998) is right in suggesting that satisfaction alone will not necessarily lead to higher levels of profitability. For organisations offering products/services, increasing repeat patronage and positive

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word of mouth, or recommending behaviour, as a result of their customers' satisfaction levels is likely to be an important objective in achieving higher levels of profitability.

The relationships between satisfaction and increased levels of market share and profitability are, therefore, not likely to be direct. It is likely that they will be mediated by the concept of customer loyalty. Oliver (1999, p.34) defined loyalty as,

*“a deeply held commitment to re-buy or repatronise a preferred product/service consistently in the future thereby causing repetitive same-brand or same-brand-set purchasing, despite situational influences and marketing efforts having the potential to cause switching behavior”.*

He suggested that consumers generally develop a sense of loyalty [to the product/service] by proceeding through the cognitive and affective stages of loyalty development. Following this, they then arrive within the conative stage of the development of their loyalty to a product/service where they demonstrate behavioural intentions in relation to the product/service. Oliver suggested that at this stage, the behavioral intentions to repurchase are similar to motivations. There appears to be less research on the action control stage of loyalty (Kuhl and Beckman, 1985), or when consumers actually operationalise their motivations. Links between satisfaction and customer loyalty to products/services have been explored in a number of different consumption situations, including passenger transport (Disney, 1999); extended service settings (de Ruyter and Bloemer, 1999); special events (Gandhi-Arora and Shaw, 2000); retail stores (Sivadas and Baker-Prewitt, 2000) and financial services (Van Montfort *et al.*, 2000).

Loyalty is most often operationalised by intentions to repeat purchase and positive word of mouth, or recommending behaviour (Fornell, 1992). Links between

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satisfaction and positive word of mouth date back decades (Harrison-Walker, 2001), where the relationship has been explored in the context of movie attendance (Arndt, 1967) and professional services such as law and medicine (Brown and Reingen, 1987). Cronin and Taylor (1992) concluded that customer satisfaction significantly affected repurchase intent.

Further to this, loyalty has also been operationalised via customer switching behavior (Ganesh, Arnold and Reynolds, 2000), even though it has been noticed that satisfied customers (Oliver, 1999) sometimes exhibit switching behavior. This phenomenon has been attributed to the fact that some consumers may find the repurchase of a product inconvenient or be influenced by competitor marketing strategies (Keaveney, 1995). It may also be that some consumers are merely seeking novelty in their purchases.

Loyalty to one particular product or service is at its most basic form in a marketing context. Organisations now appear to be developing marketing strategies that promote loyalty to their brand, or the set of products that they offer. This is evidenced in the emergence of new marketing strategies, such as umbrella branding (Erdem, 1998), for example, where the goal is to develop and maintain long-term interactions between providers of product/services and their customers, as in relationship marketing.

#### ***4.7 Research on satisfaction within the context of tourism***

In the previous sections of this chapter, it has been demonstrated that satisfaction has been extensively studied from both the conceptual and operational perspectives. Much knowledge has been gained from such research on satisfaction with regard to its importance to organisations. Kozak (2001) noted that much of the research on satisfaction, within the context of tourism, has been from the guest's perspective. He

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further noted that a considerable amount of research on satisfaction within this context has been in regard to tourist destinations.

Pizam, Reichel and Neumann (1978) conducted one of the earliest studies on satisfaction within the context of tourism and specifically in relation to a tourist destination. In their study, Pizam *et al.* identified that beach opportunities, cost, hospitality, eating and drinking facilities, accommodation facilities, environment, and extent of commercialisation were those attributes that tourists used to measure their satisfaction with a coastal destination in Northern America. Pizam *et al.* (1978) employed a quantitative approach to data collection and analysis, as did Gomez-Jacinto, San Martin-Garcia, & Bertiche-Haud'Huyze (1999). In their study, Gomez-Jacinto *et al.*, 1999) explored how satisfaction with, and attitudes towards, destinations are formed. Their results indicated that inter-cultural interactions can play important functions in developing positive satisfaction responses with destinations and positive attitudes towards destinations, but concluded that further research on this topic was warranted.

In their study, Chadee and Mattson (1996) explored the role of perceptions of quality with regard to global satisfaction by manipulating certain quality variables across four tourist encounters using projective techniques. After measuring four distinct tourist encounters, Chadee and Mattsson, (1996) concluded that significant differences could be found across the four tourist encounters with regard to quality factors. They also concluded that culture may have some influence on satisfaction responses.

Bowen (2001) investigated satisfaction in the long-haul inclusive tour sector. He compared the contributions of equity, emotion, attribution, disconfirmation, expectation and performance, as antecedents, to overall satisfaction. Using a qualitative approach, specifically, conversations with a sample of nine, Bowen



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developed a framework of concepts that included synergies between the aforementioned antecedents, and specific aspects of the long-haul inclusive tour scenario, and those that were more generally within the context of services. Bowen concludes that the description, analysis and interpretation of the data provide insights into satisfaction with the long-haul sector.

In the previous sections of this chapter, it was demonstrated why achieving high levels of satisfaction is important for organisations and their sustainability. In contrast to most satisfaction studies, which are conducted from an organisational perspective, Neal, Sirgy and Uysal (1999) investigated the role of satisfaction with leisure, travel and tourism services and experiences and satisfaction with leisure life and life overall. Using Unger and Kernan's (1983) Leisure Motivation Scale (LMS), as a key component of their research, Neal *et al.* concluded that tourism managers should consider measuring satisfaction with tourism services in relation to satisfaction with life in general, as the latter could be likened to a 'health check' for the tourism industry.

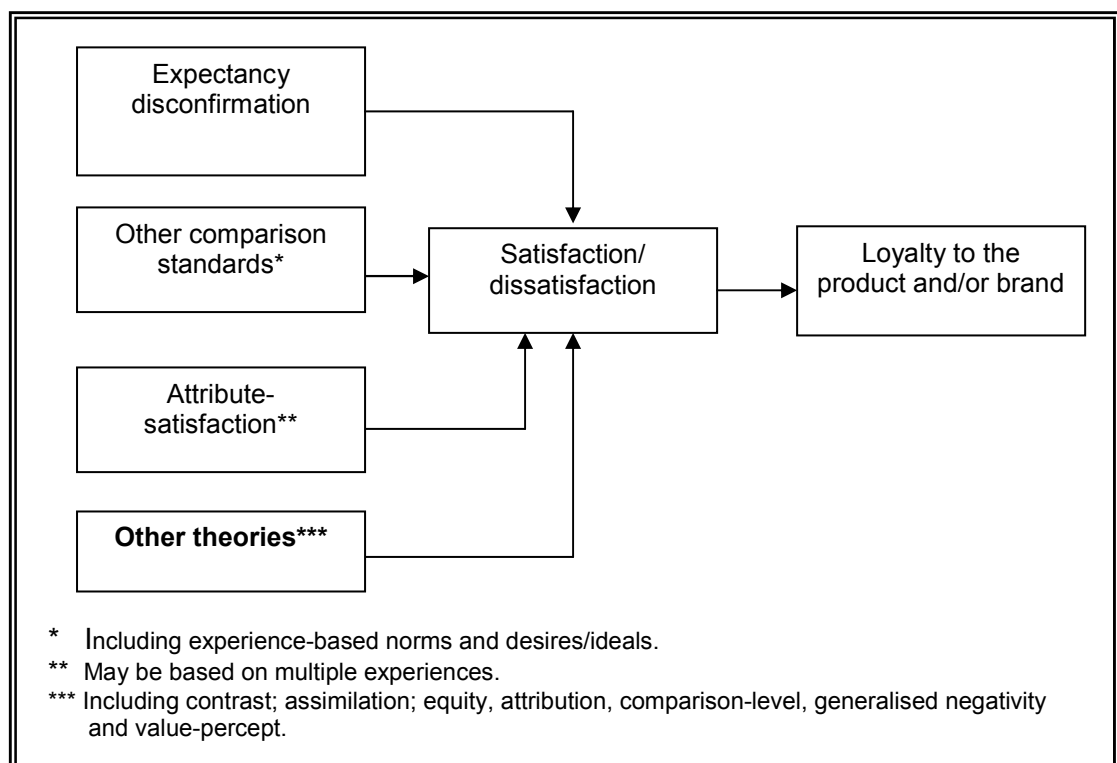
Other studies on satisfaction within the context of tourism include Roest, Pieters and Koelemijer, 1997); (Vitterso, Vorkinn, Vistad and Vaagland, 2000); and Laws (1998), specifically with the attraction sector; Dunn Ross and Iso-Ahola (1991); Geva and Goldman (1991); Weber (1997) and (Master and Prideaux (2000), specifically with the tour sector; and Pizam, Reichel and Neumann (1978); Bramwell (1998); Kozak (2001); Sohn and Park (1999) and Joppe, Martin and Waalen (2001), specifically within the context of destinations. These studies, as has been the case outside tourism, were undertaken using a range of frameworks and research methodologies.

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## 4.8 Summary

On completion of this chapter, it has been noted that research on satisfaction has been extensive and has been undertaken from a range of perspectives. As a result of this, research on satisfaction has attempted to address a number of complex issues associated with the topic whilst linking antecedents and outcomes of satisfaction. Figure 12 presents an overview of the various frameworks in which satisfaction has been studied.

**Figure 12: Satisfaction: conceptual frameworks**



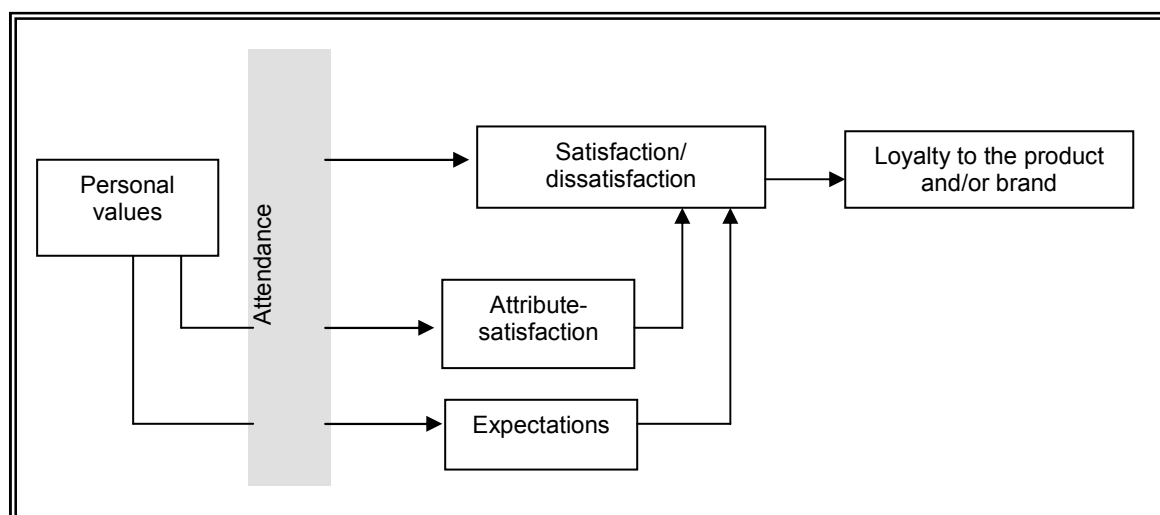
As was mentioned at the beginning of this chapter, the purpose of this chapter was to elucidate on the topic of satisfaction so that the issues associated with satisfaction could be considered when the model guiding this study was being developed. At the outset of this chapter, it was thought that links between personal values and satisfaction could be proposed and the findings of this chapter, and the chapter on personal values, have assisted the researcher to become more confident that such

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links can be established.

A more refined model is presented in Figure 13 that proposes the links between personal values and satisfaction more precisely than in previous parts of this thesis. In this model, links are also proposed between personal values and expectations; and attribute and overall satisfaction. A link is also proposed between satisfaction and loyalty to the product/and or brand. As can be seen from the model, many of the concepts associated with satisfaction (See Figure 12) have not been included in the model and a number of reasons can be provided for this decision. Firstly, including such a large range of concepts would have unnecessarily complicated this study. Further to this, testing the model would have almost been impossible to achieve. By including those concepts that were pertinent to the research context, the model was more parsimonious than one that may have included extraneous concepts. This model, presented in Figure 13, is the core of the research model that was used to guide this study.

**Figure 13: A model including satisfaction and personal values**



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In the following chapter, the model, presented in Figure 13, is further developed and is discussed in detail. In this process, relationships amongst the concepts in the model are proposed and the research hypotheses, for testing in the empirical component of this study, are also developed.

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## **5 Research model and research questions**

### ***5.1 Introduction***

To this point, a background to special event research has been provided and the concepts of satisfaction and personal values have been explored and discussed. In this chapter, an hypothesised model, which integrates these concepts, within the context of special events is developed and discussed. The model, which is presented in its entirety in Figure 14, provides a framework in which to consider the links between personal values, satisfaction and outcomes of satisfaction within the context of special events and guides the empirical part of this thesis.

### ***5.2 Outline of chapter***

In this chapter, Section 5.3 details the scope of the hypothesised model. Section 5.4 then provides a general introduction to the hypothesised model and in the following section the development of the hypothesised model is systematically discussed and links between the concepts in the model are presented. Research questions arising from the hypothesised model and specific hypotheses that emerged from the model are also presented through the course of this chapter.

Following these sections, further research questions are posed for this study, which did not emerge directly from the hypothesised model, but relate to the concepts in the model within the context of special events. These questions are discussed in the latter sections of this chapter. These research questions were aimed at exploring relationships between attendees of special events based on their systems of personal values; satisfaction responses; behavioural intentions and attitudes resulting from their attendance at special events. Hence, this study not only explored relationships between the concepts, but it also explored relationships between

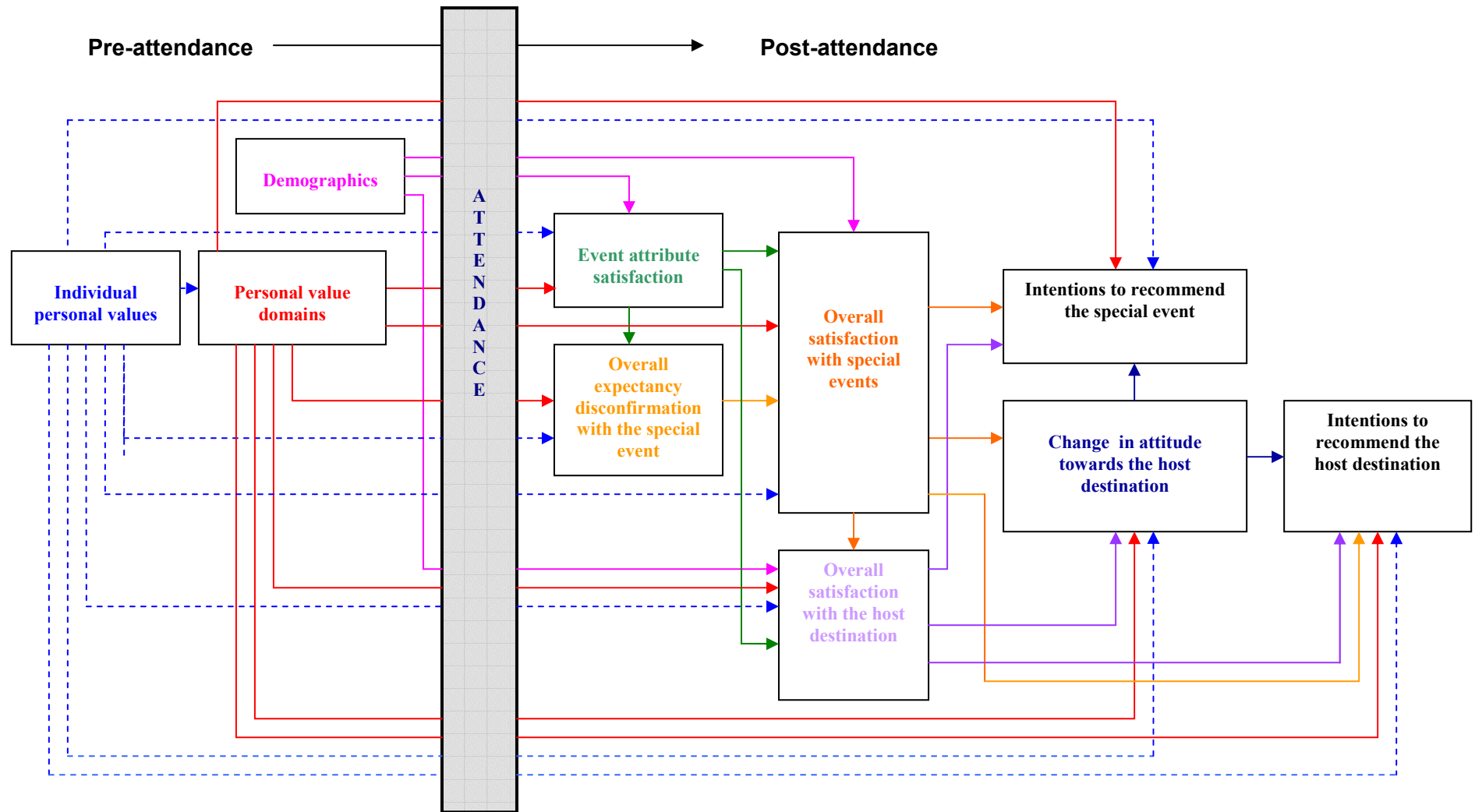
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consumers of special events based on these concepts. These types of questions did not fit into the model given its structure.

### **5.3 *Scope of the model***

As was mentioned in the previous chapter, the literature review on satisfaction identified a number of concepts that could be included in a research model relating to satisfaction. It is argued that the concepts included in the hypothesised model are highly pertinent to special events and will offer explanatory power within this context. Concepts, such as equity and assimilation, were omitted from this study to focus the hypothesised model more specifically. Similarly, actual attendance at special events is not discussed or elaborated upon in this chapter, as the concepts included in the hypothesised model relate specifically to the pre- and post-attendance stages of the consumption of special events. As the hypothesised model relates to satisfaction, the discussion on the development of the hypothesised model relates only to attendees of special events, as non-attendees of special events cannot form satisfaction responses about special events vicariously.

Figure 14: Hypothesised model



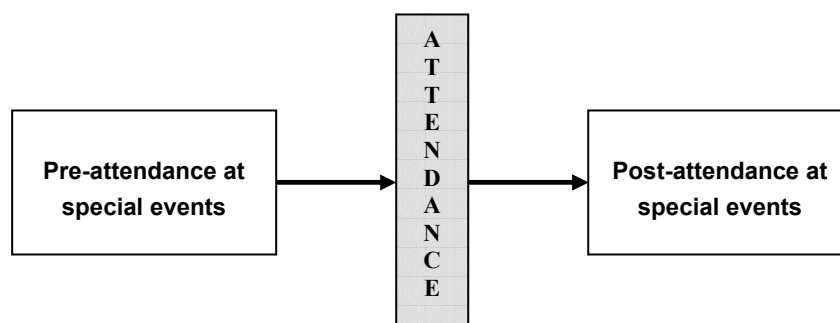
Research model

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## 5.4 Overview of the hypothesised model

The hypothesised model was predicated on a chronological sequence of attendance at special events that begins with the pre-attendance stage, and moves through actual attendance and then on to the post-attendance stage. Although the model included actual attendance at special events, this stage was not the focus of the thesis and was only included in the model for completeness. The purpose of having actual attendance in the model is to follow the chronological sequence of the activity and to link the pre- and post-attendance stages of the model. Figure 15 presents the hypothesised model in a simplified form.

**Figure 15: Simplified hypothesised model**



### 5.4.1 Pre-attendance stage

Demographics, individual personal values and personal value domains were included in the model as antecedents to attendance at special events. Demographics have been widely used in market segmentation studies and for predicting attitudes and behaviour (Thrane, 1997a). Further to this, demographics have been associated with satisfaction responses (Oliver and DeSarbo, 1988). Within the context of tourism, demographics have been used to gauge perceptions of attendees at wine festivals (Taylor and Tekle, 2002); profile casino resort tourists (Morrison, Braunlich, Cal and O'Leary, 1996) and segment attendees at a jazz festival (Formica and Uysal, 1996). In this model, demographics were an exogenous construct. According to Hair,



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Anderson, Tatham and Black (1995), exogenous constructs act only as predictor constructs, or variables, and are not predicted by other constructs in a model. In this hypothesised model, therefore, 'demographics' only had arrows leading out of them as they, clearly, are not predicted by other variables in the model.

Similarly, individual personal values were included in the model as an exogenous variable. As was identified in Chapter Three of this thesis, a number of studies, both generally and in a tourism context, has explored the role of personal values in relation to the consumption of goods and services. These studies have generally been based on the work of Rokeach (1973) who proposed that personal values are the driving force behind attitudes, intentions and behaviour. As personal values theory suggests that personal values will be ordered hierarchically and form personal value domains, personal value domains were also included in the hypothesised model.

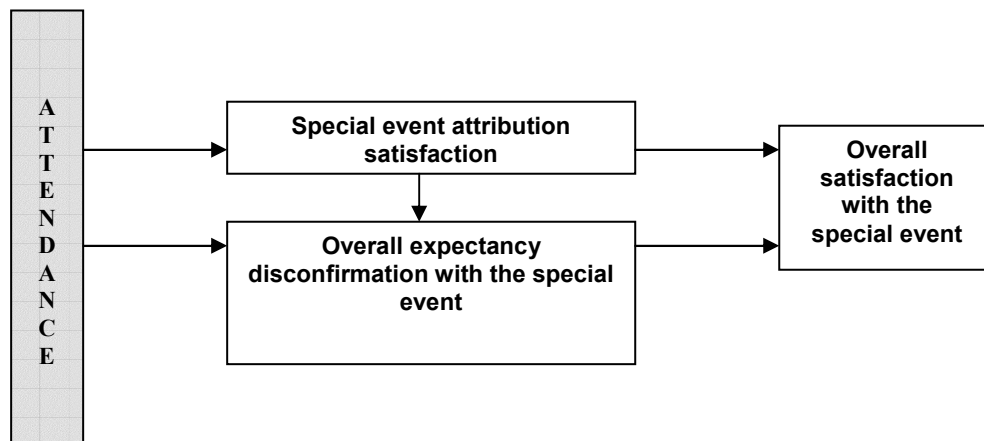
At this point of the thesis, it should be reiterated that this study was not concerned with the impact of demographics, individual personal values or personal value domains on attendance at special events. Although these variables provided the researcher with an opportunity to profile special event attendees, this study was concerned with how these concepts, or variables, in the pre-attendance stage of special event consumption impacted on concepts, or variables, that pertain to the post-attendance stage of special event consumption.

### **5.4.2 Post-attendance stage**

The model progresses from the pre-attendance stage, through actual attendance to the post-attendance stage. The post-attendance stage involves two sub-stages, specifically one that focused on the attendee's evaluation of the special event and

another that focused on related behavioural outcomes of attendance at special events. This section of model is presented in Figure 16.

**Figure 16: Post-attendance stage – evaluative stage**



The evaluative sub-stage included overall expectancy disconfirmation and satisfaction with the context of special events. These concepts were included in the model because it was identified in Chapter Four that these constitute the most immediate evaluative measures of the consumption of goods and services. Oliver (1996), de Ruyter and Bloemer (1999) and Bitner *et al.* (1997) suggested, however, that overall satisfaction is more likely to be an aggregated impression of a number of occurrences in the consumption process. In light of these assertions, satisfaction with the attributes of the special event (attribute satisfaction) was included in the model. This part of the model included relationships between attribute satisfaction and overall expectancy disconfirmation with the special event; attribute satisfaction and overall satisfaction with special events; and overall expectancy disconfirmation with the special event and overall satisfaction with the special event.

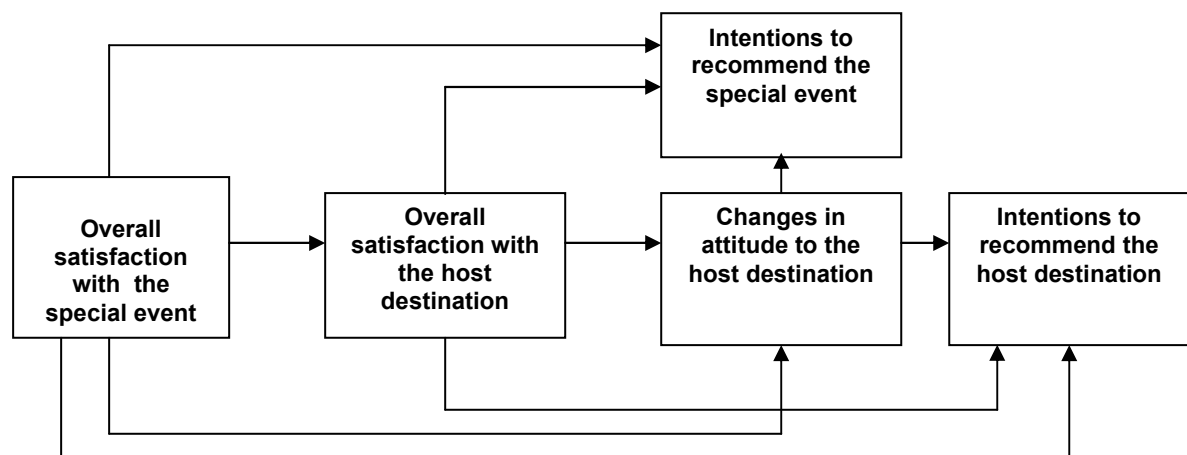
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Context-specific attitudinal and behavioural outcomes of attendance at special events were included in the next stage of the post-attendance stage of the model. The attitudinal and behavioural outcomes occur after attendees have evaluated their attendance at special events. Within the context of special events, a change in attitude towards host destinations was considered to be an important attitudinal outcome of attendance of special events. As was identified in Chapter Two of this thesis, previous literature on special events has purported that special events are often the impetus for changing attitudes about host destinations. This notion was tested in the study by using evaluative judgements regarding attendance at special events as the independent variable. Essentially, it was thought that positive judgements regarding attendance at special events, that is, satisfaction with the special event, cause changes in attitudes towards host destinations. This section of the model also tested the relationship between satisfaction with the special event and intentions to recommend the special event and the special event destination.

In Chapter Four, it was identified that satisfaction is related to context-specific behavioural outcomes and this section of the model is predicated on this theory. The context-specific behavioural outcomes included in this model were those that relate to special events. Fishbein and Ajzen's (1980) model of behavioural intentions and Homer and Kahle's (1988) validated hierarchy of personal values, attitudes and behaviour are also referred to when explaining why the relationships between the concepts, or variables, have been proposed in the model as they have. In Chapter Four of this thesis, it was identified that satisfaction is more transitory in nature than attitude, however, it is thought to be 'attitude like'. Earlier in this thesis, it was also identified that attitudes predict behavioural intentions. It is argued here, that satisfaction responses impact on attitudes by modifying them and in so doing will impact related behavioural intentions. Thus, in this model, a change in attitude

towards the host destination is an antecedent to intentions to recommend the host destination and intentions to recommend the special event. After consideration of the literature, it was thought that intentions to revisit the destination were not entirely relevant to this study as attendees consider their attendance at a special event in a destination as a 'one-off' experience. Hence, intentions to re-visit the destinations were omitted from the model. It was considered that intentions to recommend the host destination and the special event were key variables of interest in relation to this study. This section of the model is included in Figure 17.

**Figure 17: Post-attendance stage of the model**



Now that the model's development has been explained, the reader is again referred to the entire model, which was presented in Figure 14. In the following sections, the research questions for this study are posed and discussed.

## **5.5 Research questions and hypotheses**

The chapter continues by posing research questions for each of the sections of the model. Research hypotheses were developed that stemmed from the research questions. Thus, a series of related research hypotheses evolve through the course of the chapter. At the end of the chapter, the research hypotheses are presented in

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their entirety as a point of reference for when the hypotheses are tested in the empirical component of this study.

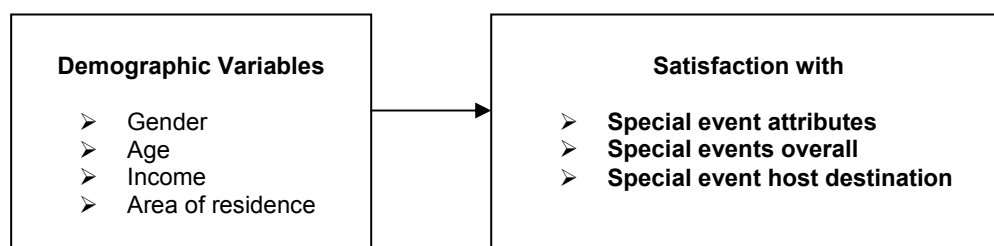
### 5.5.1 The role of demographic characteristics

Previous research on satisfaction has identified that some demographic characteristics of consumers, such as age, gender and income, have each been associated with satisfaction ratings (Bryant and Cha, 1996; Mittal and Kamakura, 2001). In their study conducted within the context of the motor vehicle industry, Mittal and Kamakura (2001) found differences in satisfaction ratings differed based on gender, marital status, age, and area of residence. As special events are marketed and consumed like many other products/services, it is expected that demographic characteristics of special event attendees will impact on satisfaction responses. Therefore, the research question posed here was:

*Are there differences between satisfaction responses within the context of attendance at special events based on demographic variables?*

Figure 18 provides an overview of the variables that are included in a group of hypotheses developed to answer the research question. Following this, the research hypotheses are presented.

**Figure 18: Demographic variables and associated variables**



There is a difference in relation to satisfaction ratings of special event attributes based on:

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H<sub>1a</sub>: *gender*;

H<sub>1d</sub>: *age*;

H<sub>1g</sub>: *income*; and

H<sub>1j</sub>: *area of residence*.

There is a difference in relation to satisfaction ratings of special events based on:

H<sub>1b</sub>: *gender*;

H<sub>1e</sub>: *age*;

H<sub>1h</sub>: *income*; and

H<sub>1k</sub>: *area of residence*.

There is a difference in relation to satisfaction ratings of host destinations based on:

H<sub>1c</sub>: *gender*;

H<sub>1f</sub>: *age*;

H<sub>1i</sub>: *income*; and

H<sub>1l</sub>: *area of residence*.

### 5.5.2 The role of individual personal values

It is generally accepted that personal values underpin attitudes, judgements intentions and behaviour (Rokeach, 1973). It is also acknowledged that personal values are ordered hierarchically (Schwartz and Bilsky, 1987) because individuals differentially weight their personal values (Madrigal, 1995) in order to overcome conflicting situations. It is suggested, therefore, that when personal values are differentially weighted, they will provide greater predictive power than when they are not differentially weighted. In attempting to address some of the methodological issues associated with the measurement of personal values, including the onerous task of ranking a list of personal values, McCarty and Shrum (2000) recommended the use of the 'rank and rate' method whereby personal values are differentially weighted by respondents before they rate the importance of them. McCarty and

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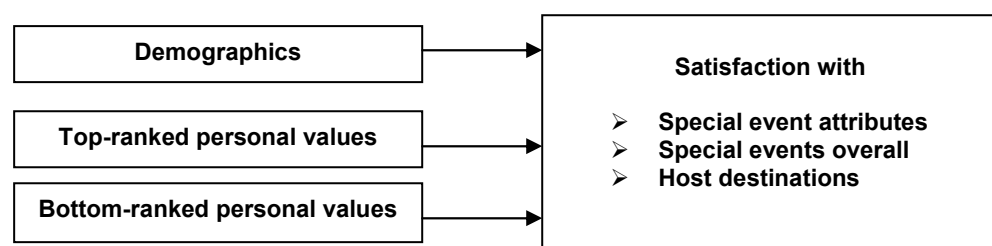
Shrum suggested that respondents be asked to firstly *rank* a list of personal values by using a top- and bottom-rank approach and then *rate* the same list of values in regard to the level of importance they place on them. This procedure enables respondents to differentially weight the list of personal values provided to them.

This ‘rank and rate’ method provides an opportunity to assess the relevance of the differentially weighted top- and bottom- ranked personal values. In this thesis, it is argued that the top- and bottom-ranked personal values provide greater predictive power than either demographics or the ratings of the each of the individual personal values in relation to satisfaction within the context of special events. Therefore, the research question posed here was:

*Are the top- and bottom-ranked personal values better predictors of satisfaction responses than demographics?*

Figure 19 provides an overview of the variables that are included in a group of hypotheses developed to answer this research question. Following this, the research hypotheses are presented.

**Figure 19: Demographics, top- and bottom-ranked personal values and associated variables**



Those values that are top-ranked from a list of values provide greater predictive power in relation to satisfaction with special events attributes than:

H<sub>2a</sub>: *gender*;

H<sub>2d</sub>: *age*;

H<sub>2g</sub>: *income*; and

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H<sub>2j</sub>: *area of residence*.

Those values that are top-ranked from a list of values provide greater predictive power in relation to satisfaction ratings with special events than:

H<sub>2b</sub>: *gender*;

H<sub>2e</sub>: *age*;

H<sub>2h</sub>: *income*; and

H<sub>2k</sub>: *area of residence*.

Those values that are top-ranked from a list of values provide greater predictive power in relation to satisfaction ratings with host destinations than:

H<sub>2c</sub>: *gender*;

H<sub>2f</sub>: *age*;

H<sub>2i</sub>: *income*; and

H<sub>2l</sub>: *area of residence*.

Those values that are bottom-ranked from a list of values provide greater predictive power in relation to overall satisfaction with special events attributes than:

H<sub>2m</sub>: *gender*;

H<sub>2p</sub>: *age*;

H<sub>2s</sub>: *income*; and

H<sub>2v</sub>: *area of residence*

Those values that are bottom-ranked from a list of values provide greater predictive power in relation to overall satisfaction ratings with special events than:

H<sub>2n</sub>: *gender*;

H<sub>2q</sub>: *age*;

H<sub>2t</sub>: *income*; and

H<sub>2w</sub>: *area of residence*.

Those values that are bottom-ranked from a list of values provide greater predictive power in relation to satisfaction ratings with host destinations than:



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H<sub>2o</sub>: *gender*;

H<sub>2r</sub>: *age*;

H<sub>2u</sub>: *income*; and

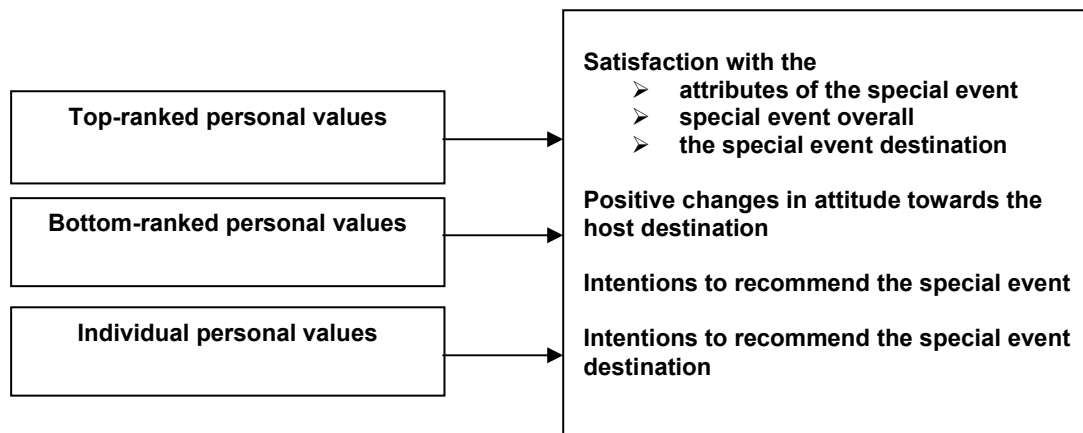
H<sub>2x</sub>: *area of residence*.

Hypotheses were also developed to test the predictive power of the top- and bottom-ranked personal values compared to the ratings of the personal values in relation to the research-context attitudes and intentions. These hypotheses were based on the notion that the top- and bottom-ranked personal values provide greater predictive power than the importance ratings of individual personal values, as well as Homer and Kahle's (1988) validated hierarchy of personal values, attitudes and behaviour, and Fishbein and Ajzen's (1980) model of behavioural intentions. The attitudes and intentions specific to this research were 'intentions to recommend the special event', 'attitudes towards the host destination' and 'intentions to recommend the host destination'. Therefore, the research question posed here was:

*Are top- and bottom-ranked personal values better predictors of satisfaction responses, behavioural intentions and attitude towards the destination than the importance ratings of the LOV items?*

Figure 20 provides an overview of the variables that were included in the group of hypotheses developed to test this research question. Following this, the research hypotheses are presented.

**Figure 20: Top- and bottom-ranked personal values and outcome variables**



Top-ranked personal values provide greater predictive power than the ratings of the each of the individual personal values in relation to:

$H_{3a}$ : *satisfaction with the attributes of the special event;*

$H_{3b}$ : *overall satisfaction with special events;*

$H_{3c}$ : *overall satisfaction with host destinations;*

$H_{3d}$ : *intentions to recommend special events;*

$H_{3e}$ : *intentions to recommend host destinations; and*

$H_{3f}$ : *positive attitudes towards special event destination.*

Bottom-ranked personal values provide greater predictive power than the ratings of each of the individual personal values in relation to:

$H_{3g}$ : *satisfaction with the attributes of the special event;*

$H_{3h}$ : *overall satisfaction with special events;*

$H_{3i}$ : *overall satisfaction with host destinations;*

$H_{3j}$ : *intentions to recommend special events;*

$H_{3k}$ : *intentions to recommend the host destinations; and*

$H_{3l}$ : *positive attitudes towards special event destination.*

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### 5.5.3 The role of personal value domains

A number of studies in the general marketing literature have uncovered the existence of underlying personal value domains in lists of personal values [See, for example, Kamakura and Novak (1992); Sukhdial, Chakraborty and Steger (1995); Erdem Oumilli and Tuncalp (1999); and in tourism, see, for example, Muller (1991); Muller and Cleaver (2000); and Woodcock (1997); Thrane (1997a) and Fall (2000)]. It is also thought that, in the context of special events, personal value domains will underlie individual personal values.

As was identified in Chapter Three of this thesis, the 'intrinsic' and 'extrinsic' personal value domains have emerged as underlying motivational domains in lists of personal values in many studies on personal values across a number of research contexts. It is argued, here, that these two personal value domains are 'generic' personal value domains applicable to many consumption situations and that they will emerge within the context of special events.

It was further identified in Chapter Three of this thesis, however, that the research context may have some bearing on the types of personal value domains that emerge in lists of personal values. In light of the context of this study and particularly because it is generally understood that special events offer attendees the opportunity to digress from the routines of everyday life (Jago, 1997a), it was thought that a personal value domain representing an 'escapism/novelty' factor will be present in the context of special events.

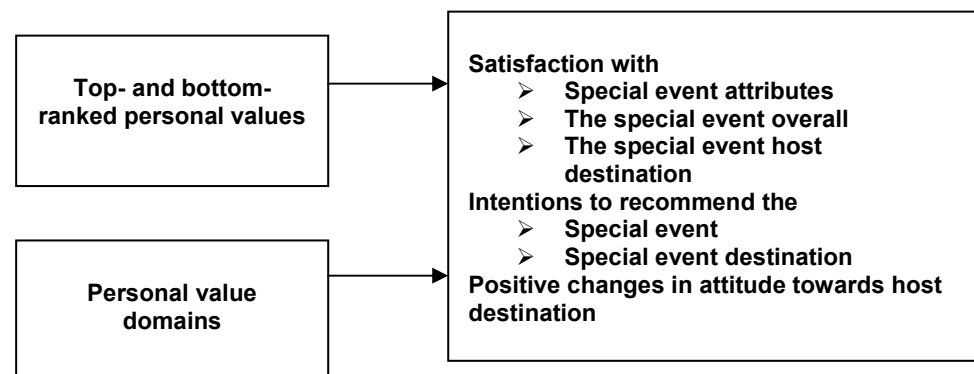
It was also identified in Chapter Three of this thesis that it is generally understood that personal value domains have more predictive power than individual personal values as they represent the structures in which personal values are organised. Thus, the research question posed here was:

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*If the ratings of the importance of the personal values measured here represent personal value domains, are they better predictors of satisfaction and behavioural intentions within a special event context than the top- and bottom-ranked personal values?*

Figure 21 provides an overview of the variables that were included in the following hypotheses, which were the top- and bottom-ranked personal values, personal value domains and the context specific attitudinal and behavioural outcomes.

**Figure 21: Personal values and associated variables**



The following hypotheses were developed resulting from the above discussion.

H<sub>4a</sub>: The values that constitute the LOV are represented by a smaller number of personal value domains;

H<sub>4b</sub>: In a special event context, 'intrinsic' and 'extrinsic' personal value domains will represent the values that constitute the LOV; and

H<sub>4c</sub>: In a special event context, further to the 'intrinsic' and 'extrinsic' personal value domains, a 'novelty/escapism' personal value domain will also represent the values that constitute the LOV.

Personal value domains provide greater predictive power than the top-ranked personal values in relation to:

- 
- H<sub>4d</sub>: *satisfaction with special event attributes;*
  - H<sub>4e</sub>: *overall satisfaction with special events;*
  - H<sub>4f</sub>: *overall satisfaction with host destinations;*
  - H<sub>4g</sub>: *intentions to recommend special events;*
  - H<sub>4h</sub>: *intentions to recommend host destinations; and*
  - H<sub>4i</sub>: *positive attitudes towards special event destination.*

Personal value domains provide greater predictive power than the bottom-ranked personal values in relation to:

- H<sub>4j</sub>: *satisfaction with special event attributes;*
- H<sub>4k</sub>: *overall satisfaction with special events;*
- H<sub>4l</sub>: *overall satisfaction with host destinations;*
- H<sub>4m</sub>: *intentions to recommend special events;*
- H<sub>4n</sub>: *intentions to recommend host destinations; and*
- H<sub>4o</sub>: *positive attitudes towards special event destination.*

#### **5.5.4 The role of attribute satisfaction**

It is understood that consumers generally make a number of evaluative judgements [that is, satisfaction responses] about a product or service's attributes, before they form their overall satisfaction response about that product or service (Bitner *et al.*, 1997; Roest, Pieters and Koelemijer, 1997). In this study, satisfaction with special event attributes were included in the model and it is argued that satisfaction with special event attributes contribute to overall expectancy disconfirmation of the special event, which in turn will contribute to overall satisfaction with the special event.

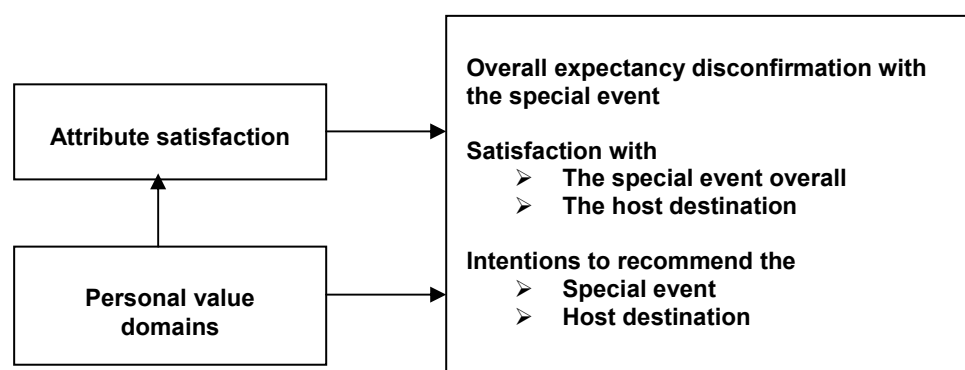
Some research, such as Jones and Suh (1999), has suggested that attribute satisfaction contributes directly to overall satisfaction, rather than via expectancy disconfirmation. This relationship was also included in the hypothesised model.

Similarly, because special events are now often viewed as part of the bundle of destination characteristics, special events are often considered to be part of special event destinations. Therefore, it is argued that satisfaction with special event attributes is likely to contribute to both overall satisfaction with the special event and overall satisfaction with the host destination. The research questions posed here were:

*How does special event attribute satisfaction impact on satisfaction with the special event and host destination? Does special event attribute satisfaction impact on intentions to recommend special events and host destination? Is special event attribute satisfaction a better predictor of expectancy disconfirmation, satisfaction and behavioural intentions within the context of special events than personal value domains?*

Figure 22 provides an overview of the variables that were included in a group of hypotheses developed to test this research question. Following this, the research hypotheses are presented.

**Figure 22: Attribute satisfaction and associated variables**



Special event attribute satisfaction predicts:

$H_{5a}$ : positive *expectancy disconfirmation of the special event*;

$H_{5b}$ : *satisfaction with the special event*;

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H<sub>5c</sub>: *satisfaction with the host destination;*

H<sub>5d</sub>: *intentions to recommend the special event; and*

H<sub>5e</sub>: *intentions to recommend the host destination;*

Special event attribute satisfaction is a better predictor of:

H<sub>5f</sub>: *overall expectancy disconfirmation of the special event than personal value domains;*

H<sub>5g</sub>: *satisfaction with the special event than personal value domains;*

H<sub>5h</sub>: *satisfaction with the host destination than personal value domains;*

H<sub>5i</sub>: *intentions to recommend the special event than personal value domains; and*

H<sub>5j</sub>: *intentions to recommend the host destination than personal value domains.*

### **5.5.5 The role of expectancy disconfirmation**

It was also identified in Chapter Four of this thesis that the concept of expectancy disconfirmation has frequently been considered to be the most immediate antecedent to satisfaction. It is appropriate, then, that expectancy disconfirmation of the special event was included in the research model as an immediate antecedent to overall satisfaction with the special event. Although satisfaction with the special event was included in the research model, expectancy disconfirmation of the host destination is not included in the research model as the focus of this study is special events and not host destinations. The research question posed here was:

*What is the relationship between expectancy disconfirmation of the special event and overall satisfaction with the special event?*

The following hypothesis was developed that aimed at answering this research question.

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H<sub>6a</sub>: Positive expectancy disconfirmation with the special event is associated with higher levels of overall satisfaction with the special event.

### **5.5.6 The roles of post-consumption judgements and attitudes**

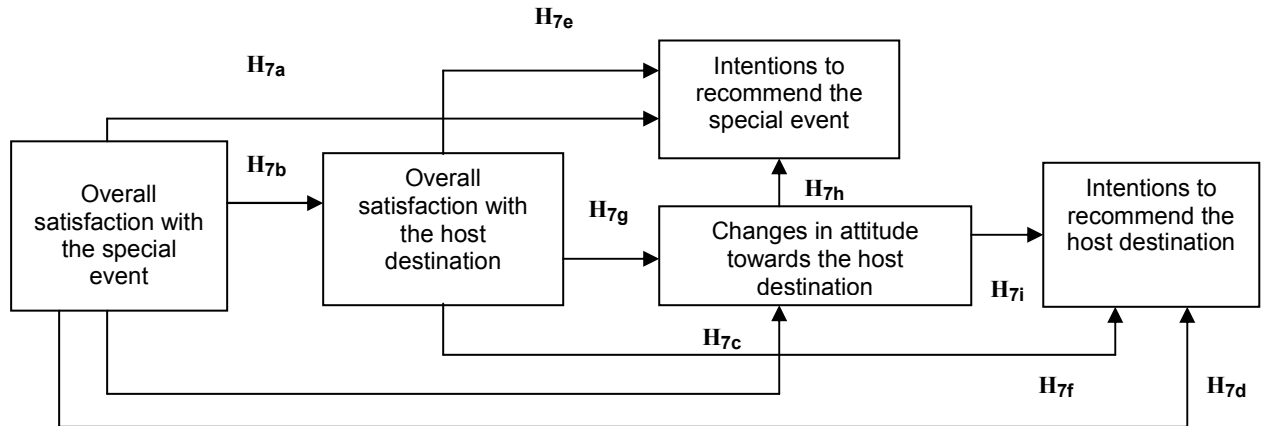
Previous research on satisfaction has indicated that satisfaction impacts on related attitudes and intentions. In the context of special events, it is argued that satisfaction with special events will impact on satisfaction with host destinations, intentions to recommend special events and host destinations, and whether attitudes towards host destinations change. In Chapter Four of this thesis, it was identified that there is a general understanding that attitudes are associated with behavioural intentions [See, for example, Kim and Littrell (1999)]. In the context of special events, it is argued that attitudes towards the destination resulting from attendance at special events impact on behavioural intentions relating to the host destination and the special event. The research questions posed here were:

*Are there relationships between overall satisfaction with the special event and related behavioural intentions and attitudes? Are there relationships between overall satisfaction with the host destination and related behavioural intentions? Do positive changes in attitude towards the host destination impact on behavioural intentions towards the special event and the host destination?*

Figure 23, the post-attendance stage of the model, which was firstly presented in Figure 17, illustrates the relationships between the concepts and specifies the eight hypotheses that were developed to provide a response to these research questions. Following this, the research hypotheses are presented.



**Figure 23: Relationships between the post-consumption variables**



Higher levels of overall satisfaction with special events are associated with:

*H<sub>7a</sub>: higher levels of intentions to recommend special events;*

*H<sub>7b</sub>: higher levels of overall satisfaction with host destinations;*

*H<sub>7c</sub>: changes in attitude towards the host destination; and*

*H<sub>7d</sub>: higher levels of intentions to recommend host destinations;*

Higher levels of overall satisfaction with host destinations associated with:

*H<sub>7e</sub>: higher levels of intentions to recommend the special event;*

*H<sub>7f</sub>: higher levels of intentions to recommend the host destination;*

*H<sub>7g</sub>: positive changes in attitude towards the host destination;*

Positive changes in attitudes towards the host destination are associated with:

*H<sub>7h</sub>: higher levels of intentions to recommend special events; and*

*H<sub>7i</sub>: higher levels of intentions to recommend special events.*

## **5.6 Proposed relationships amongst attendees**

In the preceding sections of this chapter, research questions on relationships between concepts/variables within the context of special events were presented. Hypotheses were then developed aimed at answering the research questions. In this section of the chapter, research questions are posed relating to attendees of special

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events, based on the same concepts/variables. By looking beyond the framework of relationships amongst the concepts/variables and identifying relationships between attendees of special events, a better understanding of special event attendance may be gained.

Three research questions were posed for this component of the study, namely:

*Is it possible to gain meaningful segments of special event attendees based on their personal values? Do demographic characteristics assist in profiling special event attendees? If attendees can be meaningfully segmented based on their personal values, do patterns emerge in their satisfaction responses and behavioural intentions emerge?*

Because these questions are broad, it was considered more appropriate to answer these generally rather than specifically. Hence, hypotheses were not developed for this section.

## **5.7 Summary**

Research questions and hypotheses have now been posed for this study. The research questions related to relationships between the concepts in the model and also related to relationships amongst attendees of special events based on these concepts. The thesis will now continue by explaining the research methodology for this study so that the research questions can be answered.

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## **6 Research methodology**

### **6.1 Introduction**

In the previous chapter, a research model was discussed and the research hypotheses for this study were presented. The purpose of this chapter is to describe the research approach for the study. As such, this chapter will provide a background to the research site, an overview of the data collection instruments and details of the data collection methods that were used for this study.

### **6.2 Research site**

As was discussed in Section 1.2, the research site for this study was the Melbourne season of *Mamma Mia!*.

### **6.3 Research approach**

#### **6.3.1 General approach**

The overall research approach for this study was based on the case study method and the details of the research approach used for this study are discussed in this section. Yin (1988) noted that the case study approach is appropriate when the research to be conducted will focus on contemporary situations, does not require control over behavioural events and where the form of the research question is how or why. These variables were relevant to this study and the research problem that was posed. The case study approach provided the researcher with the opportunity to study the special event and related phenomena in detail.

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It is acknowledged that generalisation of the results of case studies is tentative (Zikmund, 1997), but the research enabled the testing of the model in depth. Despite this perspective, some researchers espouse the benefits of a case study approach as it provides the researcher with a depth of information that cannot be gained from other methodological approaches (Yin, 1988).

Tourism Victoria identified that *Mamma Mia!* was similar to many of the other theatre-events staged at the Princess Theatre in Melbourne. Indeed, special events of this type are regularly staged in iconic venues, like The Princess Theatre, in many other destinations around the world, such as in Sydney, London and New York. Some of these major theatre-events, in different cities involve the same productions (for example, *Cats*, *The Phantom of the Opera*, *Hair*). Hence, it was thought that a detailed study of one special event of this type would provide information about the particular event, and that this information would be useful in developing strategies in relation to these types of special events.

### **6.3.2 Ethical and logistical considerations**

A number of issues, including those of an ethical and logistical nature, were considered before the data collection process commenced. Firstly, it was of paramount importance that the research did not impact upon attendees' enjoyment of the special event. Initially, the possibility of accessing the booking agency's database was explored. It was thought that this could then be used to randomly generate a list of names for inclusion in a follow-up telephone or mail-back survey. This method of sampling, however, would only have included individuals who had booked tickets rather than those who had attended the special event. As attendee satisfaction is central to this study, attendance at the special event was an essential

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criterion for inclusion in the sample. Some purchasers of tickets may not have attended the theatre-events. Further to this, there were ethical issues associated with contacting consumers who had not consented to such contact at the time of their ticket purchase.

The inclusion of a self-complete, mail-back questionnaire in the programs was also considered, but this method of data collection would likely only capture data from those who purchased a program. This method would likely have introduced response bias into the study. Further to this, Dillman (1978) outlined some of the drawbacks of self-complete and mail-back questionnaires, including the provision of incomplete data sets and, most likely, a non-probability sample, which would limit the generalisability of the results. Using this method of data collection, opportunities to optimise response rates would also be limited, as attendee names would be unknown, therefore preventing the implementation of strategies to remind attendees to participate in the study.

Undertaking complete interviews *in situ* was not considered appropriate for this research, largely because of the impact that these may have on attendees' enjoyment of the special event. Further to this, there is limited time available to undertake interviews at theatre-events (McDonald and Harrison, 2002); attendees are usually anxious to enter the theatre before performances and, after performances, they are often in a hurry to leave the theatre and its precinct. Attendees of theatre-events often exit from a limited number of small egress points, which is perhaps not as significant an issue at other types of special events. At festivals, for example, attendees often exit the premises in small groups intermittently over longer periods of time. Interviewing during intermission was considered to be obtrusive and could impact on attendees' experience. It was, therefore, expected

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that access to attendees would be very limited *in situ* and the research approach needed to overcome this problem. Previous research at special events also identified that there can be considerable external interferences to interviewing *in situ*, such as other attendees present at the time of the interview (Pol, 1992)

### **6.3.2 Approach to data collection**

Various approaches to data collection were considered before deciding on the data collection method to be used for this study. Qualitative methods including participative observation, focus groups and in-depth interviews were each considered. These methods placed limitations on the breadth of information that could be gained from the study. This was an important factor to be considered for this study as it was envisaged that tourism planners could test the model in other settings in the future. Management of The Princess Theatre was also concerned at the impact some of these methods of data collection may have on attendees' enjoyment of the event. Taking these issues into account and considering the research objectives, it was decided to adopt a survey-based approach to data collection for this study.

To overcome the issues that have just been discussed, the two-stage approach (Pol and Pak, 1994) to data collection was selected for this study. The first stage of this approach to data collection involved conducting a random sample survey of attendees where, *in situ*, contact details of consenting respondents aged over eighteen years were collected. The second stage of the data collection process involved a follow-up telephone survey with a random sample of attendees who had been intercepted *in situ*. A follow-up telephone survey was selected because it has been identified that telephone surveys achieve better response rates (Yu and Cooper, 1983) than other methods of data collection such as self-complete mail-back surveys. Further to this, low response rates for self-complete mail-back surveys

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require high first stage sample sizes to be achieved. After discussions with the management of The Princess Theatre, permission was granted to survey attendees at the conclusion of performances of the theatre-event on the pavement in front of the theatre.

The results of other tourism research, particularly economic impact studies of special events [See, for example, Faulkner and Raybould (1995) and Burgan and Mules (2000b)] indicate that respondents' recollections, specifically regarding their expenditure at special events, is most likely more accurate when it is collected closer to attendance at the special event. Although visitor expenditure was not the focus of this study, this caution was noted and the subsequent telephone survey was conducted in the two weeks following the *in situ* survey.

## **6.4 Data collection instruments**

### **6.4.1 *In situ* interview: questionnaire development**

A brief *in situ* intercept interview was developed by the researcher to obtain the necessary information for this study from a sample of attendees of the theatre-event. The *in situ* interview firstly asked if respondents would consent to be interviewed and if they were over seventeen years of age. If these two responses were in the affirmative, respondents' contact details were obtained. Non-responses were also recorded so that these could be considered in the data analysis.

An incentive, in the form of a chance to win one of four vouchers to future theatre-events to be staged in Melbourne was offered to each of the attendees approached to participate in the survey. The interviewers were briefed and trained by the researcher to ensure that only every fifth attendee was intercepted and that the

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issues, previously discussed, were addressed. The instrument and data collection approach were tested at two performances of the theatre-event and minor amendments, specifically to its syntax, were made to the questionnaire to improve its efficiency as a result of this testing. A copy of the *in situ* interview is presented in Appendix One.

### **6.4.2 Telephone interview: questionnaire development**

A questionnaire was developed for the telephone survey, or the second stage of the data collection process. According to Pol and Pak (1994), one benefit of using a telephone interview in the second stage of the two-stage data collection approach is that a more detailed interview can be developed than that which is possible using other methods of data collection.

A questionnaire was developed for this study and included questions in relation to the respondent and their psychographic and demographic characteristics, their satisfaction with the theatre-event and its attributes and their post-consumption behavioural intentions. Some of the questions in the questionnaire were developed specifically for this study and others had been used in previous marketing and tourism research. A copy of the questionnaire is provided in Appendix Two. It can be seen in Appendix Two that the questionnaire contains a number of questions that are not included in this study. These questions pertained to a larger study on special events and data for this study and the larger study were collected simultaneously. A description of the questions, pertaining to this study, is provided in the following sections.

**Demographics.** Data were collected in relation to gender, age, marital status and annual household income before tax. Including these variables allowed hypotheses



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testing and descriptive analysis of the sample. Operationalisation of these concepts was based on the National Visitor Survey, which was developed by the Bureau of Tourism Research in Australia.

**Personal values.** It was identified in Chapter Three of this thesis that the most commonly used measures of personal values are the RVS and the LOV. Both measures have demonstrated high levels of reliability. The LOV is considered to be a more parsimonious measure of personal values than the RVS. The LOV has also demonstrated high levels of validity in a number of research contexts since it was first used by Kahle (1983). Maximising the differentiation amongst a list of personal values is another issue that has emerged in the literature. In an attempt to overcome this problem, some researchers have requested respondents to rank lists of personal values in terms of their relative importance. It was identified, however, in Chapter Three of this thesis, that ranking of more than six items can be problematic for respondents.

McCarty and Shrum (2000) recommended the use of a top- and bottom-rank approach followed by an importance rating for each personal value presented to respondents. In an empirical study, McCarty and Shrum used the top- and bottom-rank approach using both the RVS and the LOV. In the conclusion to their study, they further recommended the use of the LOV as their results indicated that the combination of the top- and bottom-end approach and the LOV produced results with stronger face validity than did the use of the top- and bottom-ranked approach with the RVS. Use of the top- and bottom-ranked approach also provides opportunities to analyse the roles of these personal values, which Muller (1995) undertook in an earlier study within a tourism context.

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For this thesis, the LOV was used as the measure of personal values and the top- and bottom-ranked approach was also employed. Respondents were asked to use a seven-point Likert scale to rate the extent to which each of the nine LOV items was important to them, after indicating which of LOV items was the most and least important to them.

**Expectancy disconfirmation.** As was identified in Chapter Four of this thesis, it is generally understood that expectations play an important role in the formation of satisfaction responses. The concept of expectancy disconfirmation, or the extent to which respondents' expectations were met, was measured using the three categories of 'worse than expected'; 'as expected' and 'better than expected'. The single summative measure rather than a difference measure was used, as there is considerable concern in the literature regarding the use of difference scales in multivariate data analysis (Peter, Churchill Jnr and Brown, 1993). Comparisons can also be made between the role of expectancy disconfirmation and theatre-event attribute satisfaction (see below) in the formation of overall satisfaction with the theatre-event.

**Satisfaction.** Satisfaction was measured on two different levels for the theatre-event; both satisfaction with a set of attributes of the theatre-event were measured and a global measure of overall satisfaction with the theatre-event was used. Satisfaction with Melbourne as a tourist destination was also measured at a global level, but satisfaction with the attributes of the destination were not measured in this study, as it was beyond the scope of the study.

As was identified in Chapter Four, respondents often provide satisfaction responses that are high and sometimes even higher than they truly believe. This is largely because respondents view their purchases as a reflection of themselves; hence

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rating a product or service that they have consumed poorly indicates perhaps that they have made a poor selection in regards to the product or service. Thus the possibility of obtaining positively skewed data, which was identified in Chapter four, required addressing. Further to this, respondents may be reluctant to rate a product or service poorly as this may be considered as socially undesirable. Similarly, some respondents aim to please interviewers. These issues have been identified in social research and, in some cases measures are incorporated to detect the impact of such a phenomenon. This study, however, focussed on the formation of satisfaction responses in relation to personal values and the subsequent role of satisfaction on context-specific behavioural intentions; it was not considered necessary to measure the impact of social desirability in this context.

It was decided to provide respondents with a ten-point scale upon which to rate their satisfaction with the attributes of the theatre-event, the theatre-event overall and Melbourne as a tourist destination. It was thought that the use of the ten-point scale would enhance the level of dispersion in satisfaction and assist in addressing the issues often associated with satisfaction surveys.

A list of attributes for the theatre-event was developed for this study. A panel of experienced theatre-goers was asked to indicate the attributes of theatre-events that they considered most influenced their enjoyment, or satisfaction with theatre-events. The responses were collated and the list was referred to the members of the panel for validation. As a result, eight theatre-event attributes were used for this study, namely, satisfaction with the:

- costumes;
- quality of the acting and the singing;
- stage work;

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- theatre and its ambience;
  - service at the theatre;
  - value for money;
  - vision from seats; and
  - storyline.

Although not measuring satisfaction *per se*, questions were included in the interview that probed respondents as to *why* they rated Melbourne as they had done. These were open-ended questions that were included in the study to gain further insights into this area of attendance at the theatre-event.

**Behavioural intentions.** As was identified in Chapter Four of this thesis, intentions are seen as a predictor of future behaviour (Homer and Kahle, 1988). Part of this study was to explore the role that satisfaction and personal values have on context-specific behavioural intentions. In this study, the behavioural intentions measured were intentions to:

- recommend to friends that they visit the theatre-event; and
- recommend Melbourne as a tourist destination.

These variables were measured using a seven-point Likert scale, where 1 represented strongly disagree and 7 represented strongly agree.

**Attitude change.** Respondents were asked to indicate whether their attitude towards the host destination had changed after their attendance at the theatre-event. This is central to the tenet of much of the literature on special events, although, there is little empirical research to substantiate this assertion and no measure of this phenomenon was found in the literature. If respondents answered in the affirmative, they were then asked to indicate whether this was a change for the better or the

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worse. So that greater insights could be obtained as to why this change may have occurred, respondents were then asked in an open-ended question to indicate the reason for their change in attitude towards the host destination after attendance at the theatre-event.

**Preliminary testing of the data collection instrument.** Once the instrument for the telephone interview was developed, it was tested with a convenience sample of individuals known to the researcher where feedback from the individuals was obtained in relation to the wording and sequencing of the questions. Minor modifications relating to wording and phrasing of the questions were made to the instrument and some re-sequencing of the questions was undertaken.

As such, it was identified that the questionnaire was quite long and demanding. It was thought that this might affect the integrity of the data as respondents may suffer fatigue. In order to address this issue, the final instrument consisted of a core set of questions, asked of all respondents, and supplementary questions, which were asked randomly of some respondents. Attention was directed to ensuring that adequate sample sizes for each question were obtained. For example, the questions relating to personal values were asked of only approximately half of the sample, as were the media consumption questions.

**Data collection administration.** The researcher developed a research brief outlining the requirements of the study and a market research company conducted the telephone survey using the Computer Assisted Telephone Interview (CATI) technique. Prior to the commencement of the data collection, the researcher customised the market research company's induction and training manuals for their interviewers to incorporate the elements of the research design specific to this study.

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During the data collection period, the researcher actively communicated with the market research company and progressively checked the quality of the data.

As a professional market research organisation, the market research company addressed the issues raised in telephone interviewing by Dillman (1978) including the use of centralised interviewing facilities; the recruitment and training of interviewers; and the questionnaire's actual administration, under the guidelines of the Australian Market Research Society's *Code of Ethics* (Anon., 2001c). More specifically, standard market research policies and procedures were incorporated into the data collection process which included contacting respondents at appropriate times of the day and conducting four follow-up telephone calls before a replacement respondent was selected. It was considered likely that the use of a market research company to conduct the telephone survey would enhance the response rate to this component of the study, as this has been the case for other studies (Zikmund, 1997).

## **6.5 Sampling frame and sample size**

### **6.5.1 *In situ* survey**

The two-staged sampling strategy for data collection, used by Pol and Pak (1994), was employed for this study. This sampling strategy specified that the sample size of the *in situ* survey needs to be between two and two-and-a-half times the targeted sample size for the telephone survey. A random sample approach was used for this stage of the data collection process where every fifth attendee was intercepted at selected performances of the theatre-event.

### **6.5.2 Telephone survey**

The expected population for the theatre-event was 600,000. A sample size for a telephone survey for a population of this size requires a minimum of 323 respondents

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where the population is not homogenous (Zikmund, 1997) for results to be reliable at the 95% confidence interval. This number of 323 was used as a baseline for this study, however, to allow analysis of sub-groups in the sample a larger sample size was decided upon. The targeted sample size for this study was set for between 780 and 800.

The complete list of contact details collected in the *in situ* survey was provided to the marketing research company and names were randomly selected from this list for follow-up interviews. Each respondent was contacted up to four times, before a substitute respondent was contacted.

## **6.6 Timing of the data collection**

Data were collected in all sessions of the week, namely, evening, matinee and early evening, over a number of pre-defined periods of the theatre-event's season, rather than during one period. The data collection schedule enhanced the representativeness of the resulting sample by collecting data in holiday and non-holiday periods. The data collection process could also be monitored more effectively than had the data been collected in one large block of time. The *in situ* survey was conducted in eight one-week blocks and the telephone survey was conducted in eight two-week blocks immediately after these. The eight three-week blocks of data collection are presented in Table 13.

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**Table 13: Data collection periods**

<b>Week</b>	<b>Data collection period</b>
1	September 4 <sup>th</sup> - September 26 <sup>th</sup> 2001
2	September 18 <sup>th</sup> - October 10 <sup>th</sup> 2001
3	September 25 <sup>th</sup> - October 17 <sup>th</sup> 2001
4	November 7 <sup>th</sup> - November 27 <sup>th</sup> 2001
5	January 29 <sup>th</sup> - February 18 <sup>th</sup> 2002
6	February 26 <sup>th</sup> - March 11 <sup>th</sup> 2002
7	April 30 <sup>th</sup> - June 11 <sup>th</sup> 2002
8	May 26 <sup>th</sup> - June 25 <sup>th</sup> 2002



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## 7 Research results and discussion

### 7.1 Introduction

In Chapters Two through to Five, the conceptual frameworks underpinning the thesis were discussed, a model was developed based on this information, and research questions and hypotheses emerging from the model were posed. The research methodology used for this study was then described in Chapter Six. This chapter details and discusses the results of the data analysis that was undertaken for this study. The structure of this chapter was based on that of Chapter Five, where the research questions for this study were posed. A summary of the results is provided at the end of this chapter to enhance the interpretation of the results and enable conclusions to be drawn more effectively.

The chapter is divided into three sections. The first section focuses on the descriptive analyses of the data and the subsequent examination of the data. The second section focuses on testing the majority of the hypotheses that were developed and presented in Chapter Five of this thesis. The third, and final sections of this chapter, extends the data analyses beyond the *concepts* that were included in this study by investigating the relationships between *respondents* in the sample based on those concepts.

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## **7.2 Section one: descriptive analysis**

### **7.2.1 Sample size**

***In situ* survey.** In the first stage of the data collection process, a total of 3151 attendees was randomly approached to participate in the study at selected performances of the theatre-event. The size of the random sample was within the range of the targeted sample size outlined in the research methodology for this study. Of those attendees intercepted, a total of 1361 answered in the affirmative to both being over 17 years of age and prepared to participate in the study. This provided an overall response rate of 43% to the *in situ* survey. These 1361 respondents then constituted the population for the telephone survey.

**Telephone survey.** In the second stage of the data collection process, the achieved sample size was 788. The response rate to the telephone survey was 90%, which is not surprising given that the consent to participate in the study was obtained in the *in situ* interviews.

### **7.2.2 Descriptive statistics**

Descriptive statistics were obtained on respondents' demographics, personal values, expectations, satisfaction and behavioural intentions and these are presented in this section of this chapter.

**Demographics.** Table 14 summarises the descriptive statistics for the demographics of the sample.

Table 14: Demographics: summary of results

Demographic category							
Gender		Age (years)		Area of residence		Annual combined household income (AUD\$)	
Female	81.0%	16-24	6.6%	Host destination	59.3%	Less than 26,000	10.2%
Male	19.0%	25-44	44.7%	Intrastate	24.1%	26,000 - 51,999	23.2%
		45-64	40.6%	Interstate	16.3%	52,000 - 77,999	23.7%
		65+	8.1%	Overseas	0.3%	78,000 - 103,999	16.8%
						104,000 - 129,999	6.9%
						130,000 plus	8.5%
						Declined to answer	6.5%
						Don't know	4.2%

As can be seen from Table 14:

- a large proportion (81%) of the sample was female. Although this is quite high, the result appeared to be a good reflection of attendees overall based on the observations of the intercept interviewers. This result is similar to those achieved by the Centre for Hospitality and Tourism Research, Victoria University, on other special events held within the State of Victoria;
- 85% were in the 25-64 year age group, with the balance of respondents evenly distributed in the 16-24 years and 65 plus years age groups;
- 47% indicated an annual household income, before tax, between \$26,000 and \$77,999; and
- 59% resided in the host destination; 24% resided in the state, but outside the host destination; and 17% resided outside the state in which the theatre-event was held.

**Expectations of attendance.** The results indicate that 97% of respondents' expectations of the theatre-event were met or exceeded. These results are presented Table 15.

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**Table 15: Degree to which the theatre-event met respondents' expectations**

	Frequency	Percent
Exceeded expectations	558	70.8
Met expectations	204	25.9
Not met expectations	14	1.8
Don't know	12	1.5
Total	788	100.0

**Personal values.** Table 16 provides the descriptive statistics for each of the LOV items and lists the percentage of respondents ranking each of the LOV items as their top- or bottom-ranked personal value. As can be seen from Table 16, the personal value ranked most highly (top-ranked) by most respondents was *to have fun and enjoyment* (21%). *To be self-fulfilled* was also rated highly as a top-ranked personal value (18%). In comparison, the personal value bottom-ranked most often by respondents was *to have excitement* (32%).

**Table 16: LOV items - descriptive statistics (n=354)**

LOV item*	Ranked		Descriptive statistics		
	Top %	Bottom %	Mean	Std Deviation	Skewness
To have fun and enjoyment	21.1	3.7	6.2	1.0	1.4
To be self-fulfilled	18.0	4.5	5.6	1.4	2.1
To be in warm relationships	13.2	4.8	6.0	1.3	2.4
To have self-respect	12.1	1.7	6.4	0.9	5.3
To have security	10.1	7.6	5.8	1.3	1.0
To be well respected	7.3	6.2	5.9	1.3	1.9
To have a sense of accomplishment	6.7	7.9	5.7	1.2	0.6
To have a sense of belonging	5.1	11.0	5.6	1.5	0.5
To have excitement	1.4	32.0	4.9	1.6	-0.5

\*Scale of 1 to 7, where 1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree

Table 16 also provides the descriptive statistics in relation to the extent to which each of the LOV items guides respondents' lives. As respondents were able to indicate that they 'didn't know/were unsure' as to the extent to which they agreed with the statements relating to the LOV items, not all respondents are included in these analyses. As was mentioned earlier in this thesis, not all respondents were asked the personal values questions. The personal values questions (354 respondents), and another set of questions, which was not part of this study, were alternated randomly

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amongst the sample. Thus, approximately half of the sample provided responses in relation to their personal values. This procedure was incorporated into the study to reduce respondent fatigue whilst gaining an adequate sample size for analysis of the personal values data. This resulted in 354 respondents providing data on their personal values.

The mean scores on the seven-point scale are presented in Table 16, and these ranged between 4.9 and 6.4. Table 16 also itemises the standard deviation and skewness for each of the personal values variables. The standard deviations range between 0.9 and 1.6 indicating the variation amongst the responses for each LOV item. The higher the standard deviation, the greater the variation in the results pertaining to that variable. These results indicate the sample was most homogenous for the LOV item *to have self-respect* and the least homogenous for the LOV item *to have excitement*. The skewness figures indicate the extent to which the responses 'lean' toward the ends of the scales used. In this data set, each of the personal value variables is negatively skewed, except for *to have excitement*, which is positively skewed. When variables are described as being negatively skewed, this indicates that the results lean toward the top-end of scale. Responses for the LOV item *to have self-respect* were also the most negatively skewed of all the LOV items. These descriptive statistics for the LOV items indicated that most of the responses fell within the middle to top-end of the seven-point scales.

**Satisfaction.** Table 17 provides the descriptive statistics for each of the satisfaction variables. As some respondents indicated that these variables were 'not applicable' or that they 'didn't know' the extent to which they agreed with the statements relating to each of the satisfaction variables, not all respondents are included in these analyses. Satisfaction with the host destination was only asked of those respondents

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who resided outside the host destination (321 respondents), however, only 317 respondents provided a response to this question.

**Table 17: Satisfaction variables - descriptive statistics**

Satisfaction with*...	n	Mean	Std Deviation	Skewness
The quality of the acting and the singing	788	9.2	1.2	4.4
The costumes	788	9.0	1.3	1.5
The storyline	788	8.7	1.5	1.9
The stage work	786	8.9	1.4	2.7
The value for money	773	8.8	1.6	2.4
The theatre and its ambience	787	8.6	1.7	2.1
The vision of your seats	787	8.5	1.9	2.0
The service at the theatre	757	8.5	1.7	1.3
Attendance at the theatre-event overall	788	9.4	1.0	8.6
Host destination	317	8.7	1.3	1.9

*\*Scale of 1 to 10, where 1=very dissatisfied, 10=very satisfied*

The mean scores on the ten-point scale, presented in Table 17, range between 8.5 and 9.4. Table 17 also itemises the standard deviation and skewness for each of the satisfaction variables. The standard deviations range between 1.0 and 1.9. These results indicate the sample was most homogenous in relation to satisfaction with the theatre-event overall and the least homogenous with satisfaction with the vision from their seats.

The skewness figures indicated the extent to which the responses 'leant' toward the ends of the scales used. In Chapter Four, it was acknowledged skewed data was often encountered in studies on satisfaction. It was thought that the use of a ten-point scale would assist in overcoming this problem. In this data set, each of the satisfaction variables was negatively, and strongly, skewed. That is, the data leaned towards the top-end of the scale. The descriptive statistics for the satisfaction variables, that is the mean, standard deviation and skewness, indicated that most of the responses were 'bunched' and at the top-end of the scale. These results also indicated that there is substantial deviation from a normal distribution for these data.

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Further examination of the data was undertaken to test for this issue. This issue is discussed in more detail in Section 6.2.3.

**Behavioural intentions.** Table 18 provides the descriptive statistics for the two behavioural intentions that were measured as part of this study. As some respondents indicated ‘didn’t know/unsure’ of the extent to which they agreed with the statements relating to their behavioural intentions, not all respondents are included in these analyses.

**Table 18: Behavioural intentions - descriptive statistics**

Intentions*	n	Mean	Std Deviation	Skewness
I will definitely recommend the theatre-event to my friends	787	6.8	0.7	19.8
I will definitely see the theatre-event again	784	5.0	2.2	-0.9

*\*Scale of 1 to 7, where 1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree*

Once again, analysing the mean, standard deviation and the skewness statistics simultaneously provides an indication of the data’s distribution and homogeneity of the sample on these variables. As can be seen from Table 18, the responses in relation to intentions to recommend the theatre-event were strongly and negatively skewed. They were also the most homogenous of the two behavioural intentions measured here. Responses in relation to intentions to re-attend the theatre-event were positively skewed, but only marginally so. More deviation was observed in the responses pertaining to intentions to see the theatre-event again than observed in those responses pertaining to intentions to recommend the theatre-event.

**Changed attitudes towards the host destination.** Table 19 provides the results of the frequency tests for the statement regarding changes in attitudes towards the host destination. The results indicated that 15% of respondents answered in the affirmative to this question. Following Table 19 are the results of the question *‘Is this change for the better or worse?’*. The results indicated that 93% of those

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respondents, who indicated that their attitude towards Melbourne had changed as a result of their attendance at the theatre-event, stated that their attitude had changed for the better.

**Table 19: As a result of attending the theatre-event has your view of Melbourne changed?**

	Frequency	Percent
No	656	83.2
Yes	120	15.3
Not sure	12	1.5
Total	788	100.0

**Table 20: Is this change for the better or for the worse?**

	Frequency	Percent
For the better	112	93.3
For the worse	5	4.2
Not sure	3	2.5
Total	120	100.0

### 7.2.3 Further examination of the data

Although the descriptive statistics provide insights into the data, bivariate and multivariate data analyses enable relationships between the variables to be investigated further. Prior to undertaking any bivariate or multivariate data analysis, the individual variables in the data set required examination for the effects of missing values, patterns of responses, unusual or extreme values, and other problems with the data. The process of examining the data, outlined in Hair *et al.* (1995) was used for this process. This section presents the results of this process and any remedial action that was performed on the data to allow multivariate data analysis to be conducted.

**Missing data analysis.** The raw data set (n=788) obtained from the telephone survey was examined for patterns of missing data. Missing data were not expected in this data set largely because of the design of the questionnaire and the nature of



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the CATI method. The questionnaire was designed to capture responses to all questions and where the options provided for respondents were not adequate for respondents, respondents were provided an opportunity to offer an open-ended response. Complete data sets are also usually yielded using the CATI method as the interview is highly structured (Zikmund, 1997).

In questions that included the option to answer 'don't know/unsure', these responses were converted to missing values to allow 'true means' to be calculated for the descriptive statistics. For most variables where the 'don't know/unsure' response was provided, only small percentages of responses were converted to missing values. In relation to some of the satisfaction variables, however, more respondents answered using the 'don't know/not sure' option. It appears that some respondents were simply not able to indicate how satisfied they were with some of the satisfaction variables, such as satisfaction with the 'vision from the seats' (15 respondents), 'with the service at the theatre' (31 respondents), 'the theatre and its ambience' (31 respondents), and 'value for money' (15 respondents).

The existence of these missing data is not surprising as it is unreasonable to expect that every respondent is able to provide satisfaction responses to all the satisfaction variables that were put to them. As has been identified in Chapter Four of this thesis, satisfaction is a post-consumption phenomenon, which cannot be formed vicariously. Hence, some respondents may not have been in a position to rate their level of satisfaction with all the satisfaction variables, as they may not have encountered that particular element of the consumption experience. Such missing data is termed 'not applicable' (Hair *et al.*, 1995, p. 45), and these need to be considered when analysing the data with the various techniques available to them.

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As was mentioned earlier in this thesis, the entire sample was not asked questions in relation to their personal values. This resulted in the personal values variables containing missing data and these missing data were 'ignorable' (Hair *et al.*, 1995). Of the 354 respondents who were asked the personal values questions, some responded with a 'don't know' response when asked to indicate which, of the LOV variables, were the most (18 respondents) and least (74 respondents) important to them. These responses were likely to be related to the interpretation of the term 'I don't know'. It is not clear as to whether 'I don't know' was interpreted as 'I have no knowledge' or as 'I can't decide' by respondents. As was the case for the satisfaction variables, these responses were recoded as 'missing'. This resulted in 5% of the responses for the most important personal value represented by missing values and 21% of the responses for the least important personal value as missing values.

It is understandable that there was a higher number of missing values in the least important personal value variable because, as discussed in Chapter Three, it is known that respondents often believe that all personal values are important to them (Rokeach, 1975). Designating one personal value as the least important may have been too difficult a task for some individuals to undertake. The level of missing data in the least important value was almost 21%, which was considered to be quite high in comparison to the results for the most important personal value. The missing data in this variable were, therefore, examined for patterns of randomness using the approach suggested by Hair *et al.* (1995), whereby the missing responses were examined in relation to other variables of interest.

As this missing data related to a personal value variable, it was difficult to identify variables in the data set which may not, in some way, be affected by personal values. It was decided that the key variable of interest, and one that would provide some

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insight into the randomness of the missing data in the least important personal value variable, was gender. The use of this variable was based on the observation that in the area of personal values, the literature does not indicate that there are differences in the least important value selected based on gender. This was tested using a cross-tabulation between gender and those respondents who did not know which, of the LOV items, was least important to them and those who did know which was least important to them. Pearson's chi square test was used to test the null hypothesis, which was accepted at the 95% confidence level. It was concluded, therefore, that the missing data within this variable were 'Missing Completely at Random' (MCAR) (Hair *et al.*, 1995).

Questions in relation to income and age will almost always yield missing data given their sensitivity (Hair *et al.*, 1995). Missing data for the age variable were limited to one respondent, which was considered to be ignorable. Missing data, as a result of 'I don't know' and 'declined to answer' for the income variable totalled 52 and 33 cases respectively. These results required further analysis. The approach to test for significantly different relationships between those respondents who provided their annual household income before tax and those who did not, either by way of saying that they did not know or declined to answer, was used.

It was hypothesised that there would be no statistically significant differences between those respondents who indicated either 'I don't know' or 'declined to answer' the income question on the questionnaire, based on whether they were employed or not. This was tested with a cross-tabulation using Pearson's chi-square test for significance. The results indicate that the null hypothesis was rejected at the 95% confidence level. Those respondents who were employed were more likely to

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respond to this question. This is logical as it is likely that these respondents are more aware of their annual household income before tax.

Similarly, it was considered that age may have some bearing on these missing data responses. It was considered that older respondents may be more sensitive to this question and that they may be also less aware of their annual household income before tax. A Pearson's chi-square test for significance on the cross-tabulation between age and those respondents who indicated their total annual household income before tax and those who did not indicate their total annual household income before tax rejected the null hypothesis. The results of these two analyses indicate that the 'I don't know' and the 'declined to answer' responses in this variable were MCAR.

**Remedies for missing data.** The remedies for missing data are varied and depend on the type of missing data being remedied (Hair *et al.*, 1995). Ignorable data are acceptable and do not require remedying; these are data that can be missing based on the instructions provided to respondents. There are two other types of missing data – MCAR (Missing Completely at Random) and Missing at Random (MAR). The remedies available for dealing with MCAR data are more extensive than if the data are Missing at Random (MAR). MCAR data can be dealt with using any number of approaches. MCAR data can be remedied by using the data set as is, deleting the specific cases and/or variables, or by using imputation methods. Depending on the original sample size and the statistical techniques that are intended for the data, deleting variables or cases with MCAR data, although quite simple, can produce the problem of insufficient sample sizes. This issue was not pertinent with this sample size, but it was the least preferred of the methods available, as there would be some loss of data.

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The imputation approach was considered to be more appropriate than case deletion as the imputation approach retains all cases and variables. A blanket approach to imputation, such as replacing the MCAR data with the mean score for the variables, however, was not taken as this can sometimes distort the resulting mean scores. Alternatively, using the data with the missing values is an option, which overcomes extensive loss of data and the distortion of the results. It was decided that this was a better option for the study given the nature of the variables of interest being studied.

**Tests for normality, homoscedasticity and linearity.** The descriptive statistics alluded to distribution problems in the personal values, satisfaction and behavioural intentions variables. Further tests on these variables were conducted to assess the assumptions of multivariate data analysis, including normality, homoscedasticity (thus heteroscedasticity) and linearity. Normality of the variables was tested using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test in SPSS 11 where it was identified that the distributions of the satisfaction and personal values variables were significantly different from both normal and Poisson distributions. The behavioural intention to recommend the theatre-event to others was also identified as being significantly different from the normal and Poisson distributions. Most of these variables, relating to these concepts, were similarly positively skewed exhibiting concentrations of responses in the middle to top-end of the scales used (see Tables 16, 17 and 18). Univariate outliers were not identified as an issue in this data set.

Responses that are ‘bunched’ together produce data which are not homoscedastic (that is heteroscedastic). The issue of homoscedasticity, or whether the dependant variable(s) in a dependant relationship can be predicted within a limited range of the independent variable(s) is an important one to be tested in multivariate data analysis (Hair *et al.*, 1995). If this issue is not remedied in multivariate data analysis, the

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researcher is effectively using categorical variables, which are inappropriate for any multivariate analysis relying on linear regression analysis. As was discussed in Chapter Six of this thesis, this methodological issue was recognised as being a potential problem in relation to satisfaction, prior to the commencement of the data collection. A 10-point scale was used for the satisfaction variables in this study in an attempt to reduce the likelihood of this methodological issue occurring.

Despite the use of the 10-point scale for the satisfaction variables, analysis of the data highlighted that most of the satisfaction variables exhibited patterns of heteroscedasticity, whereby the responses were 'bunched' at the top-end of the scale. The median score, for example, was generally the highest, or very close to the highest level of the scale for each of the variables. As such, the data were negatively skewed. These are not unusual results as skewed data is often found in satisfaction surveys (Rossi, Giulla and Allenby, 2001).

Although exhibiting greater levels of dispersion than the satisfaction data, the personal values data also exhibited a degree of heteroscedasticity. The issue that most of the variables, which to be dependant variables in bivariate relationships could perhaps only be predicted within a limited range of the independent variable's scale (Hair *et al.*, 1995), emerged as a methodological issue which required attention. The statistically significant differences from normal distributions in these variables would restrict data analysis to non-parametric tests.

Transforming the data a way in which this methodological issue can be resolved and can be as simple as recoding variables. Alternatively, it can be more complex, involving mathematical manipulations of the data, including taking the logarithms, the inverse or the square root of the variable(s). Data transformations may be driven by a

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theoretical need where the researcher seeks to improve the correlations between the variables. Rotation of the factor score component matrix is a form of data transformation for this purpose. Data transformations may also be data driven. For instance, the data may violate the assumptions of normality and transforming the data may remedy this issue allowing the researcher to undertake parametric tests. The latter reason was pertinent for this study. As Riani and Atkinson (2000) stated, whatever the purpose of data transformations, the interpretability of the results is imperative and this was a fundamental condition the researcher placed on any analysis that was conducted for this study. Further to this, the statistical issues associated with the data, and the remedies for them, were consistent across the metric variables.

**Types of data transformations.** The use of data transformations was extensively explored for this study so that multivariate data analysis could be employed. Although the process of transformation is quite simple when using statistical programs, Hair *et al.* (1995) recommend that researchers explore the various types of transformations possible for the data and experiment with them before deciding on the most appropriate one for the data.

Rossi, Giulla and Allenby (2001) identified that when respondents are required to rate a number of attributes of a superordinate concept (as was the case in this study for the satisfaction variables), a common method of data transformation is to 'centre' each respondent's data by subtracting the mean over all the variables and dividing this by the standard deviation of the responses. The resulting variable is referred to as the Z score. As a matter of procedure, this transformation was conducted on the satisfaction data but the transformation did not yield variables with distributions very different from those obtained with the raw data.

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In the instance of heteroscedasticity, Hair *et al.* (1995) suggested that the appropriate data transformation to arrive at normally distributed data is to take the logarithm of the raw data. When heteroscedasticity is addressed via transformation of the data, it is likely that the problems associated with normality and linearity are simultaneously addressed (Hair *et al.*, 1995). The researcher is then able to legitimately use multivariate techniques such as correlation, regression, factor analysis and structural equation modelling (Hair *et al.*, 1995).

The natural logarithm and the anti-logarithm of the satisfaction data were also calculated and the resulting data examined for normality. The results of this analysis identified that these two forms of data transformation did not produce normally distributed data. Given the nature of the data distributions of these variables, the next step was to investigate other data transformations that use different types of algorithms.

The proportion estimates method, which ranks the data using the normal distribution, is one form of data transformation that can be used to normalise data. A number of formulae are available for this purpose and each of these was used and the results compared. Although each of the transformations produced the same results, it was decided to use Blom's (1958) algorithm as this is used widely for this purpose. This method transforms the levels of the scale based on the observed frequencies for each level of the scale, so that the data fits to a normal distribution. Effectively, the scale is 'stretched' to produce greater differentiation between the levels of the scale.

If, for example, the variable 'satisfaction with the theatre-event overall' was transformed using this method, the '10' on the original scale was transformed to '533.0' and the '9' transformed to 206.0. Table 21 provides the descriptive statistics



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for the variable 'satisfaction with the theatre-event overall' using the raw data and the transformed data respectively.

**Table 21: Overall satisfaction with attendance at the theatre-event –  
raw and transformed data**

Original levels of the scale	Levels of transformed scale	Frequency	Percent
Very dissatisfied (1)	Very dissatisfied (1)	1	.1
(5)	(5)	7	.9
(6)	(12.5)	8	1.0
(7)	(27.0)	21	2.7
(8)	(86.0)	97	12.3
(9)	(206.0)	143	18.1
Very satisfied (10)	Very satisfied (533.0)	511	64.8
Total	Total	788	100.0

As can be seen from Table 21, the transformation does not alter the observed frequencies for each level of the scale, only the level itself. The researcher employed Blom's (1958) algorithm to transform each of the satisfaction, personal values and behavioural intentions variables.

**Non-response bias.** One method of identifying the influence of non-response bias on the generalisability of the results is to survey non-respondents using an alternative mode of data collection (Crompton and Tian-Cole, 2001). Becker, Dottavio and Mengak (1987) suggested that an 'homogenous' sample is one that is engaged in the same activity in the same source setting. This is intuitively appealing but in the 'real world' it is not likely that this will always be the case. Some other test for the validation of the sample's level of homogeneity was therefore required. Crompton and Tian-Cole (2001) investigated the issue of response bias and sample homogeneity in relation to the number of research waves used for data collection in tourism studies. They concluded that the differences found between respondents to first waves of data collection are generally not statistically significant to those of later waves.

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The general approach Crompton and Tian-Cole (2001) used to test for sample homogeneity was applied to this study as a crude test of homogeneity of the obtained sample. In this study, the eight data collection periods provided the opportunity to test for differences, based on demographics, across the sample. A total of 30 ANOVA tests were conducted and five of these were statistically significant at the 95% confidence interval. Using Pearson's chi-square, 25 cross-tabulations were conducted and two of these were statistically significant at the 95% confidence interval. In total, 13% of the tests for statistical differences were found to be significant. In Crompton and Tian-Cole's (2001) analysis of seven tourism studies, 16% of the total number of tests for differences was found to be significant, which they concluded was sufficient to indicate that the acceptable levels of homogeneity. Thus, in the absence of sampling of non-respondents in this study, the obtained sample appears to be adequately homogenous in light of the benchmark set by Crompton and Tian-Cole.

#### **7.2.4 Discussion of the descriptive analysis**

**Response rates.** The response rate to the first stage of the data collection process was 43%, which is much higher than has been reported for many mail-back surveys. Harbaugh (2002) reported that in medical research, the average response rate for traditional mail surveys is now below 20%. In a recent study that compared response rates of mail, facsimile and web-based approaches to data collection, Cobanoglu, Warde and Moreo (2001) found these to be 26%, 17% and 44% respectively. Thus, the response rate to this *in situ* survey appears to be better than may have been achieved using these other approaches to data collection.

Pol and Pak (1994) reported response rates of 96% and 95% to two *in situ* surveys conducted at a sporting event and a festival. Examples of studies on theatre-events

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where a single-stage approach to data collection was employed reported response rates of 48% (O'Neill, Getz and Carlsen, 1999) and 67% (Faulkner, Fredline, Larson and Tomljenovic, 1999). In comparison to the results obtained for this study, these are quite high, but there are a number of reasons to explain this result. Pol and Pak conducted the interviews during pre-game, time-outs and half-time at a sporting event and exit interviews at the festival. Time to access attendees was available as it was likely that the number of attendees were passing by the interviewers.

Many of the attendees at the theatre-event used for this study were keen to make their way home after their attendance. This exacerbated the difficulties in obtaining a higher response rate to the *in situ* survey. A large proportion of attendees left the theatre precinct within the first five to 10 minutes after the conclusion of the performances, meaning that the entire audience was not always available for interviewing. This is a form of non-response bias, when members of the population are not accessible (Williams, 1978). The impact of this issue on the results, however, was not tested, thus conclusions cannot be drawn as to the extent of this form of sampling error. The use of an incentive to participate in the study may also have been a source of response bias, but this was not tested for in this study.

Crompton and Tian-Cole (2001) noted that, in the instance of *in situ* surveys, strict probability sampling is often difficult to achieve. Every effort was made to maximise the level of randomness for this study by unobtrusively instructing and checking the interviewers during the course of the data collection. The high level of homogeneity of the sample, identified via analysis of the differences between the responses obtained in each of the eight weeks of surveying, provides some support that non-response bias was not an issue for this study.

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**Data transformations.** In order to investigate relationships involving metric data, the assumption of normality needed to be met. As has been mentioned, most of the metric variables in this study did not meet that assumption and would therefore require transformation before they could be used in models. Although some integrity of the raw data is lost with any transformation, it was decided that this loss would be outweighed by the opportunities to test for relationships amongst the variables. To promote consistency within hypotheses testing, the researcher decided to transform each of the personal values, satisfaction and behavioural intention variables. Thus, the results that are reported in Section 7.3 are based on analyses conducted using the transformed data. As has been mentioned earlier in this thesis, researchers need be aware that when a proportional estimate transformation is employed, the results need to be interpreted with the understanding that the results are based on elasticity, rather than absolute values.

### ***7.3 Section two: research questions and hypotheses testing***

Now that the data have been examined and concerns with them have been addressed, further analysis of the data was undertaken that assisted in providing responses to the research questions that were posed in Chapter Five of this thesis. In this section of the chapter, results of the testing of the research hypotheses are presented and discussed. Prior to presenting the results, the methods of analysis and the rules pertaining to the hypotheses testing are discussed. The hypotheses were tested for this study using a range of statistical techniques. These included tests for association and differences and data reduction techniques, such as factor and cluster analysis. In some cases, rather than detail the numerous statistics derived from the analyses, the researcher elected to present the results of the hypotheses testing by simply indicating whether the hypotheses were rejected or accepted. When the

statistics were not reported in detail, the output of the SPSS 11 analysis was then provided for the reader in the electronic appendix accompanying this thesis. This output has been saved in separate files and these are labelled according to the section of the chapter to which they relate.

### 7.3.1 Methods of analysis

A range of methods of analysis was used to test the hypotheses and assist in providing a response to the research questions posed. A summary of the quantitative methods of analysis that were used in this study is presented in Table 22.

**Table 22: Methods of analysis, types of data and example(s)**

Method of analysis		Types of data	Example(s) of variables
Tests of association	Chi-square analysis	Non-metric variables	Age, gender, area of residence, annual household income cluster membership
	Correlation analysis	Metric variables	Satisfaction responses, behavioural intentions
	Linear and logistic regression	Independent and dependent variables are metric.	Satisfaction responses, personal values, annual household income
Identification of differences	ANOVA	Independent variable consisted of more than two non-metric categories Dependent variable was metric	Age, area of residence, satisfaction responses, behavioural intentions
	Independent means T-tests	Independent variable is non-metric and consists of two levels Dependent variable is metric NB Also used when the results of Levene tests for homogeneity of the variances for the categories in an ANOVA test were found to be unequal.	Gender, satisfaction responses, behavioural intentions
Data reduction	Factor analysis	Used to reduce metric data	Personal values responses
	Cluster analysis	Used to reduce the sample of respondents into segments based on personal values data	Personal values responses

Results and discussion

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Pearson's chi-square analysis and cross-tabulations, independent means T-tests and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). Correlation, linear regression and logistic regression were used to test for associations and/or prediction between variables in the relevant hypotheses. Factor analysis and cluster analysis were also used as methods of analysis to identify the underlying themes in responses and reduce the data into more useful information.

Chi-square analysis was used to test for association between non-metric variables and correlation and regression analyses were used to test for associations between metric variables.

It was necessary to use the appropriate form of regression analysis for the specific hypotheses that were being tested. As such, when the dependant variable was metric, linear regression was used as the method of analysis and when it was non-metric, logistic regression was used as the method of analysis.

Another issue to be considered for regression analyses was the nature of the variables in the regression models. Categorical variables could be accommodated as either dependant or independent variables in both linear and logistic regression models, but they required recoding prior to this being possible. The recoding created dummy variables to represent the entire set of levels in the categorical variables. For example, 'age' in this study consisted of four levels and to accommodate this variable in the regression models as an independent variable, three dummy variables that represented these levels were created. By including all but one of the levels of the pertinent categorical variable in the regression models, all the levels of the categorical variables are included in the model (Hair *et al.*, 1985).

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When independent variables were categorical and dependant variables were metric, independent means T-tests and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) were used to test for differences. An ANOVA test was used when the categorical variable comprised more than two levels. When the results of each of these tests indicated  $p < .05$ , the results were considered statistically significant. Standardised residuals of the chi-square analysis were used to identify the source differences and for ANOVA's, Tukey's post hoc test was used for this purpose.

When the existence of underlying themes needed to be identified in metric data, factor analysis was used as the method of analysis. This method of analysis specifically related to the personal values variables. Cluster analysis was used to segment the sample based on their personal values, after factor analysis had been used to reduce these data into meaningful information.

Subsequent to the quantitative analysis of the data, qualitative analyses of the open-ended responses were undertaken to assist in providing responses to the research questions posed in Section 7.4 of this thesis. The open-ended responses, in relation to satisfaction with the host destination and changes in attitude towards the host destination, of each of the derived clusters (that were based on systems of personal values and identified in the quantitative analysis of the data) were used for this analysis. These responses were analysed to identify whether relationships between systems of personal values, satisfaction and attitude change could be supported. It was thought that the process of analysing these data in this manner would provide further information about the relationship between these concepts. It was also thought that the process would assist in validating, or not validating, the results obtained from the quantitative analysis. This approach to analysing data using a

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qualitative approach after the quantitative analysis of the data has been used to provide insights into data that quantitative analysis alone is not able to provide. Fredline (2000) used this approach in analysing data obtained in relation to two major sporting events and Hall (2003) used this approach in relation to personal values and attitudes towards wine consumption.

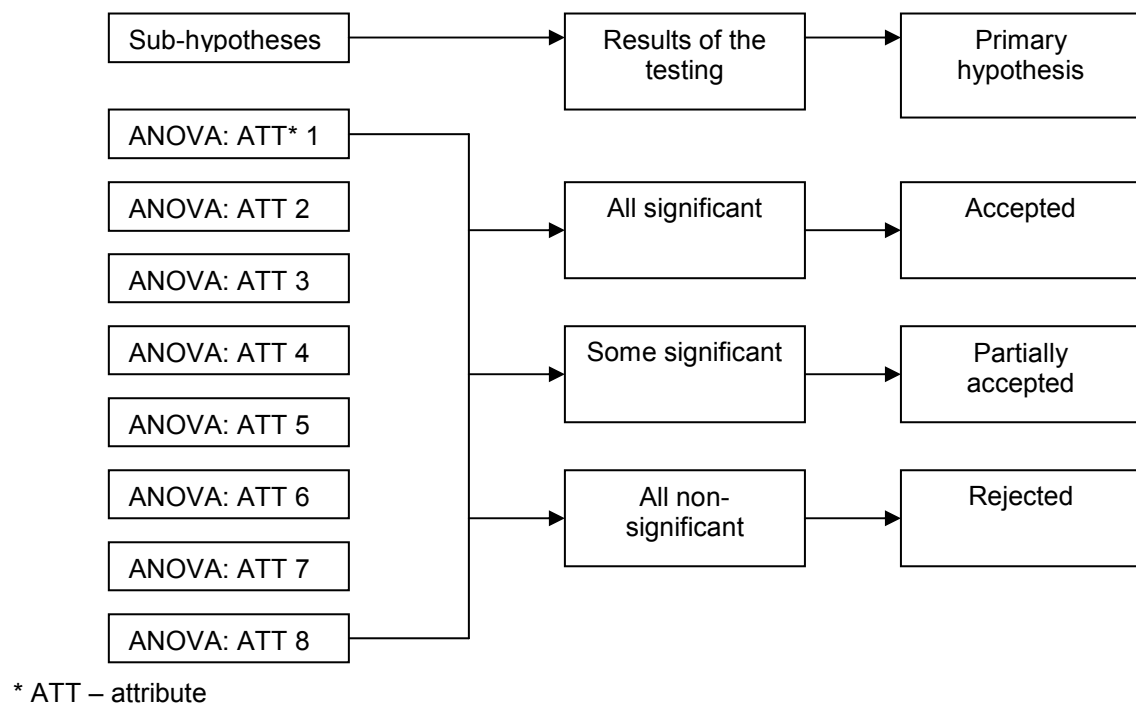
### **7.3.2 Specific rules pertaining to the quantitative analysis of the data**

As has been previously mentioned, the basic rules of statistical analysis were adhered to in this study. A number of decisions were made prior to the commencement of the data analysis relating to how the data would be analysed, interpreted and presented.

The first of these related to the testing of the hypotheses involving ‘theatre-event attributes’. Figure 24 diagrammatically presents the approach used to analyse these hypotheses, using ANOVA as an example. Using this approach, eight hypotheses relating to each of the ‘theatre-event attributes’ were represented by a ‘primary’ hypothesis (see for example, Hypotheses 1a or 2a). For the sake of brevity, however, these were not listed. When testing the primary hypotheses, these were accepted if all eight tests identified statistically significant differences in relation to the theatre-event attributes being measured. Likewise, primary hypotheses were rejected if all eight tests identified statistically significant differences in relation to the theatre-event attributes being measured. When some of these tests were found to be significant and others non-significant, the hypotheses were partially accepted.



**Figure 24: Testing of hypotheses relating to satisfaction with the theatre-event attributes, using ANOVA as an example**



As was mentioned earlier in this chapter, when significant differences were identified using ANOVA, Tukey's post hoc test was used to identify which of the groups' means were different from each other.

Decisions were also made in relation to the interpretation of the results of linear and logistic regression analysis in terms of the hypothesis testing. For example, linear regression analysis was used to compare the ability of the top- and bottom-ranked personal values and the importance ratings of the personal values to predict the satisfaction responses measured here (See Hypotheses 3a or 3g). Logistic regression, for example, was used to explore the role of attribute satisfaction on positive expectancy disconfirmation (See Hypothesis 5a).

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In linear or logistic regression analysis it is not, however, as simple a task as assessing the results of an independent means T-Test where the 'accept/reject at  $p < .05$ ' rule can be used. When assessing the results of linear and logistic regression analyses, a number of statistics require consideration and it was important that, prior to the analysis being undertaken, decisions were made as to how the results of such analyses would be handled in order to promote consistency within the study.

The first step in analysing the results of regression analysis involved identifying the model that explained the greatest level of variance (identified via the highest  $R^2$  value in linear regression and approximated by the highest Nagelkerke  $R^2$  in logistic regression), which was also statistically significant ( $F < .05$ ). When a regression analysis identified a model that was not statistically significant, support was not provided for the hypothesis, thus it was rejected.

For linear regression analysis, models explaining the highest level of variance, which were also statistically significant ( $F < .05$ ), were explored further by examining the t-statistic for each of the variables included in the model. Variables with t-statistics greater than .05 were not included in the assessment of their comparative ability to predict dependant variables, as these do not contribute significantly to regression models. If all the variables included in the model were found to be non-significant, the test was found to be inconclusive and the relevant hypotheses were rejected.

Those variables that were found to be statistically significant were then assessed for their comparative ability to predict the dependant variable, where necessary, by using the standardised beta coefficients as the point of comparison. For the hypothesis to be accepted at this step of the analysis, the coefficient of the top-ranked (or bottom-

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ranked) personal value needed to be the largest of all the co-efficients of the variables, regardless of the sign of the co-efficient.

In relation to logistic regression, Wards backward regression technique was used to identify the most 'parsimonious' model. The most parsimonious logistic regression models include statistically significant variables, whilst explaining the greatest level of variance. Thus, a number of issues required consideration before decisions could be made regarding the hypotheses. Once again, the number of significant variables in relation to the total number of variables that were originally included in the model was considered. When the role of attribute satisfaction was being measured, for example, when all eight attribute satisfaction variables were significant, the relevant hypotheses were accepted. When all eight attribute satisfaction variables were non-significant, the relevant hypotheses were rejected and when some were non-significant and others significant, the hypotheses were partially accepted.

Given the assumptions provided above, the results of the analysis will now be described and discussed. As a large number of hypotheses were tested for in this study, the researcher chose to present the results in a descriptive format, more so than in a 'statistical' format. This decision was made so that the emphasis in this thesis was on the interpretation of the results, rather than the statistical output that was obtained. A more statistically oriented presentation of the results is presented in the electronic appendix accompanying this thesis. This presents the results of the analysis that were obtained using SPSS 11.

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### 7.3.3 Demographics: results and discussion

The research question for hypotheses 1a to 1l was:

*Are there significant relationships between demographic variables and the satisfaction responses within the context of attendance at theatre-events?*

Table 23 summarises the results of the testing of the hypotheses relating to this research question. Following this, the results of the hypotheses are described for the reader. The results that were found in relation to these hypotheses are subsequently discussed.

**Table 23: Are there differences in satisfaction responses based on demographics?**

Hypothesis	Satisfaction with the...	Demographic variable			
		Gender	Age	Annual Household income	Area of residence
1a,d,g and j	Costumes	*	*	*	*
	Storyline	*	*	*	*
	Quality of the acting and the singing	*	*	*	*
	Stage work	*	*	*	
	Service at the theatre	*	*	*	
	Value for money		*	*	*
	Vision from seats		*		*
	Theatre and its ambience	*	*		
1b,e,h and k	Theatre-event overall	*	*	*	*
1c,f, i and l	Destination				

\*denotes statistically significant difference ( $p < .05$ )

NB: SPSS output located in Appendix Three

**Gender.** Of the eight independent means T-tests that were conducted to test Hypothesis 1a, six of these were identified as being statistically significant at the 95% confidence level. Females were more satisfied than males on all the attributes except for satisfaction with the ‘vision from the seats’ and with the ‘theatre and its ambience’. Using the approach previously described to assessment of the hypotheses (see Section 6.3.2), this primary hypothesis, Hypothesis 1a was partially accepted.

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An independent means T-test indicated that there was a statistically significant difference ( $p < .05$ ) between males and females in relation to their satisfaction with the theatre-event overall. Females were more satisfied than males with the theatre-event overall. Hypothesis 1b was, therefore, accepted.

No statistically significant differences were identified in relation to satisfaction with the host destination based on gender ( $p > .05$ ). Hypothesis 1c was therefore rejected.

**Age.** All eight ANOVA tests used to test Hypothesis 1d were statistically significant at the 95% confidence level. Therefore, Hypothesis 1d was accepted. Post hoc tests demonstrated that most of the statistically significant differences were between the 65 years plus age group and the other age groups in the sample. The results demonstrated that the 65 years plus and the 16-24 years age groups were often polarised in terms of their levels of satisfaction with the attributes of the theatre-event. Being in the 16-24 years age group meant that one's satisfaction response with each of the attributes of the theatre-event was lower than if one were in the 65 years plus age group.

The results of an ANOVA test indicated that there is a significant difference ( $p < .05$ ) in relation to satisfaction with the theatre-event overall based on age. Therefore, Hypothesis 1e was accepted. Post hoc tests demonstrated that the 65 years plus and the 16-24 years age groups were also polarised in terms of their level of satisfaction with the theatre-event. Being in the 16-24 years age group meant that one's satisfaction response with the theatre-event was lower than if one were in the 65 years plus age group.

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An ANOVA test did not identify a statistically significant difference ( $p < .05$ ) in relation to satisfaction with the host destination based on age. Hypothesis 1f was, therefore, rejected.

**Income.** Using ANOVA tests, it was identified that six of the eight relationships between annual household income and satisfaction with the theatre-event attributes, which were measured as part of the study, were found to be significant ( $p < .05$ ). Hypothesis 1g was, therefore, partially accepted.

The relationship between satisfaction with the theatre-event overall and income was also found to be significant ( $p < .05$ ). Hence, Hypothesis 1h was accepted.

The relationship between income and satisfaction with the destination was not found to be statistically significant ( $p > .05$ ). Therefore, Hypothesis 1i was rejected.

**Area of residence.** Five of the ANOVA tests used to test Hypothesis 1j were statistically significant at the 95% confidence level. These differences were found on satisfaction with the storyline, satisfaction with the stage work, satisfaction with the costumes and satisfaction with the value for money. Based on the approach to the acceptance/rejection of this hypothesis, Hypothesis 1j was partially accepted. Post hoc tests demonstrated that in relation to those aspects of the theatre-event where the differences were statistically significant, residents of the host destination were consistently the least satisfied with the measured attributes of theatre-event compared to residents of other areas.

An ANOVA identified a statistically significant difference ( $p > .05$ ) in relation to satisfaction with the theatre-event overall based on area of residence. Hypothesis 1k

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was, therefore, accepted. Post hoc tests demonstrated that, as was the case for satisfaction with the measured attributes, residents of the host destination were the least satisfied with the measured attributes of theatre-event compared to residents of other areas. Residents of the regional areas of the host destination were the most satisfied of respondents with the theatre-event overall.

An ANOVA test did not identify a statistically significant difference ( $p > .05$ ) in relation to satisfaction with the host destination based on area of residence. Hypothesis 1! was, therefore, rejected.

**Discussion.** In terms of providing a response to the research question posed for this group of hypotheses, the results indicate that there are significant relationships between demographic variables and satisfaction with the theatre-event attributes and satisfaction with the theatre-event overall. This response, however, does not extend to satisfaction with the host destination.

As can be seen from Table 23, age provides the greatest point of difference in terms of the variables of interest here. Following age, annual household income and gender provide the greatest points of difference. Marginal differences were also identified between respondents residing in different areas, but it was noted that respondents from outside the host destination were slightly more satisfied with their attendance than were respondents from the host destination. In terms of age, the results indicate that older respondents in the sample were more satisfied with the variables of interest. Respondents with higher levels of income generally reported lower levels of satisfaction. In terms of gender, females were more satisfied with the variables of interest than were males. These results assist in painting a picture of the type of respondents who were more satisfied with the theatre-event. As satisfaction has

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been linked to repeat business in previous research and specifically re-attendance at theatre-events (Crompton and Love, 1995), it is important to identify groups of attendees who are more satisfied with the attributes of the theatre-event and with their attendance overall. This information can assist stakeholders of theatre-events to develop and promote their theatre-events more effectively in the future.

These results, however, do not provide support for the notion that there are differences in the level of satisfaction with the host destination based on demographic variables. This may be explained by the idea that the differences are possibly masked at this aggregate level. 'Satisfaction with the destination' may be too 'global' a concept to consider and differences, based on demographics, may be discernable at the disaggregated level. Thus, further examination of this notion would perhaps be possible when respondents are asked to indicate their level of satisfaction with the attributes of the destination prior to them being asked to rate their overall satisfaction with the destination.

In terms of satisfaction theory, these results provide support for previous research on satisfaction that has explored the role of demographics on satisfaction responses. As has already been mentioned, Mittal and Kamakura (2001) identified that, within the context of the automobile industry, differences were found between the genders in terms of their satisfaction levels. The results presented here support Mittal's earlier research on this topic.

### **7.3.4 Individual personal values: results and discussion**

The research question for Hypotheses 2a to 2x was:

*Are the top- and bottom-ranked personal values better predictors of satisfaction responses than demographics?*



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As was identified earlier in this study, *to have fun and enjoyment* was ranked most frequently as the top-ranked LOV item. Similarly, *to have excitement* was ranked most frequently as the bottom-ranked LOV item by respondents. Both these variables were categorical and in order to test Hypotheses 2a to 2x, the corresponding metric variables (ratings of importance) of these two categorical variables were used as surrogates for the top- and bottom-ranked personal values. Dummy variables were created to act as replacement predictor variables for gender, age, place of residence and annual household income in a series of regression models that were undertaken to provide a response to the research question posed for this section of the study. The use of dummy variables enables data obtained using categorical responses in regression models (Zikmund, 1997).

Tables 24 and 25 summarise the results of the testing of the hypotheses relating to this research question. Following this, the results of the hypotheses are described for the reader. The results that were found in relation to these hypotheses are discussed at the end of this section.

**Table 24: Comparative ability of the top-ranked personal values and demographics**

Hypotheses	Satisfaction with the...	Comparing		Comparing		Comparing		Comparing	
		Top-ranked personal value	Gender	Top-ranked personal value	Age	Top-ranked personal value	Income	Top-ranked personal value	Area of residence
2a,d,g and j	Costumes		B	B		B		B	
	Storyline	B		B			B	B	
	Quality of the acting and the singing		B	B		B		B	
	Stagework	B			B	B		B	
	Service at the theatre	B			B	B		B	
	Value for money	B			B	B		B	
	Vision from the seats	B			B	B		B	
	Theatre and its ambience	B		B		B		B	
2b,e,h and k	Theatre-event overall		B	B			B	B	
2c,f,i and l	Host destination	B		B		#		B	

B - found to be a better predictor in a statistically significant model

# - denotes hypotheses rejected as model was found to be non-significant

**Table 25: Comparative ability of the bottom-ranked personal values and demographics**

Hypotheses	Satisfaction with the...	Comparing		Comparing		Comparing		Comparing	
		Bottom-ranked personal value	Gender	Bottom-ranked personal value	Age	Bottom-ranked personal value	Income	Bottom-ranked personal value	Area of residence
2m,p, s and v	Costumes		B		B		<b>B</b>	#	
	Storyline		B		B		B	#	
	Quality of the acting and the singing		B		B		B		#
	Stagework		B		B		B		B
	Service at the theatre		B		B	#		#	
	Value for money		B		B	#		#	
	Vision from the seats	#			B	#		#	
	Theatre and its ambience	#			#	#		#	
2n,q, t and w	Theatre-event overall		B		B		B	#	
2o, r, u and x	Host destination	#			#	#		#	

B - found to be a better predictor in a statistically significant model

# - denotes hypotheses rejected as model was found to be non-significant

NB: SPSS output located in Appendix Three

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**Gender.** Eight regression analyses were conducted to compare the ability of the top-ranked personal value and gender to predict satisfaction with the each of the measured attributes of the theatre-event. The results indicated that, for six of the eight attributes, the top-ranked personal value was a better predictor of the variable than gender. Hypothesis 2a was, therefore, partially accepted.

Eight regression analyses were also conducted to compare the ability of the bottom-ranked personal value and gender to predict satisfaction with the each of the measured attributes of the theatre-event. Gender was found to be a better predictor of satisfaction with the eight attributes measured here. Hypothesis 2m was, therefore, rejected.

The results of regression analyses identified that neither the top-or bottom-ranked personal values were better predictors of satisfaction with the theatre-event overall, than gender. Hence, Hypotheses 2b and 2n were rejected.

The result of a regression analysis identified that the top-ranked personal value was a better predictor of satisfaction with the host destination than gender. Hence, Hypothesis 2c was accepted. The result of a regression analysis identified that the bottom-ranked personal value was not a better predictor of satisfaction with the host destination than gender. Hence, Hypotheses 2o was rejected.

**Age.** Eight regression analyses were conducted to compare the ability of the top-ranked personal value and age to predict satisfaction with the each of the measured attributes of the theatre-event. The results indicated that, for four of the eight attributes measured here, the top-ranked personal value was a better predictor of the variable than age. Hypothesis 2d was, therefore, partially accepted.

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Eight regression analyses were also conducted to compare the ability of the bottom-ranked personal value and age to predict satisfaction with the each of the measured attributes of the theatre-event. The bottom-ranked personal value was not identified as being a better predictor of any of measured attributes than age. Hypothesis 2p was, therefore, rejected.

The results of a regression analysis identified that the top-ranked personal value was a better predictor of satisfaction with the theatre-event overall than age. Hence, Hypotheses 2e was accepted. The results of a regression analysis identified that the bottom-ranked personal value, however, was not found to be a better predictor of satisfaction with the theatre-event overall than age. Therefore Hypothesis 2q was rejected.

The results of regression analysis identified that the top-ranked personal value was a better predictor of satisfaction with the host destination than age. Hence, Hypotheses 2f was accepted. The bottom-ranked personal value, was not found to be a better predictor of satisfaction with the host destination than age. Hence, Hypothesis 2r was rejected.

**Income.** Eight regression analyses were conducted to compare the ability of the top-ranked personal value and income to predict satisfaction with each of the measured attributes of the theatre-event. The results indicated that for seven of the measured attributes, the top-ranked personal value was found to be a better predictor than income. Hypothesis 2g was partially accepted.

Eight regression analyses were also conducted to compare the ability of the bottom-ranked personal value and income to predict satisfaction with the each of the

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measured attributes of the theatre-event. The bottom-ranked personal value was not identified as being a better predictor, of four of the eight attributes that were measured, than was income. Hypothesis 2s was, therefore, partially accepted.

The results of regression analyses did not identify that either the top-or bottom-ranked personal values were better predictors of satisfaction with the theatre-event overall than income. Hence, Hypotheses 2h and 2t were rejected.

The results of a regression analysis to test the comparative ability of personal values and income indicated that such a model was not significant. It was, therefore, not clear, whether personal values are a better predictor of overall satisfaction with the host destination than income. Hence, Hypotheses 2i was rejected. The results of a regression analysis did not identify that the bottom-ranked personal value was a better predictor of satisfaction with the host destination than income. Hence, Hypotheses 2u was rejected.

**Area of residence.** Eight regression analyses were conducted to compare the ability of the top-ranked personal value and area of residence to predict satisfaction with the each of the measured attributes of the theatre-event. The results indicated that the top-ranked personal value was a better predictor of satisfaction with each of eight attributes that were measured here. Hypotheses 2j was, therefore, accepted. In comparison, the results of another eight regression analyses conducted to compare the ability of the bottom-ranked personal value and area of residence to predict satisfaction with the each of the measured attributes of the theatre-event indicated that the bottom-ranked personal value was not the better predictor of the dependant variables. Therefore, hypothesis 2v was rejected.

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The result of a regression analysis identified that the top-ranked personal value was a better predictor of satisfaction with the theatre-event overall than area of residence. Hence, Hypotheses 2k was accepted. The results of regression analyses did not identify that the bottom-ranked personal value, however, was a better predictor of satisfaction with the theatre-event overall than area of residence. Hence, Hypotheses 2w was rejected.

Similarly, the results regression analyses identified that the top-ranked personal value was a better predictor of satisfaction with the host destination than area of residence. Hence, Hypotheses 2l was accepted. The results of regression analyses did not identify that the bottom-ranked personal value, however, was a better predictor of satisfaction with the host destination than area of residence. Hence, Hypotheses 2x was rejected.

**Discussion.** The results of the preceding hypotheses are summarised in Tables 24 and 25 where the trends in the results can be more easily identified.

Focussing specifically on attribute satisfaction within the context of theatre-events, the top-ranked personal value was found to be a better predictor of this concept than demographics. The particular attributes where age was a better predictor than personal values appear to be concerned with what can be described as ‘hygiene’ issues, namely, service at the theatre, value for money and vision from the seats. The particular attributes where income was a better predictor than personal values appear to be concerned with what can be described as the production aspects of the theatre-event, namely, the costumes, storyline, quality of the acting and the singing and the stagework.

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Gender and income were found to be better predictors of satisfaction with the theatre-event overall than both the top- and bottom-ranked personal values. Age and area of residence, however, were not found to be better predictors of satisfaction with the theatre-event than the top-ranked personal values, but age was found to be a better predictor of satisfaction with the theatre-event overall than the bottom-ranked personal value. It is not conclusive, therefore, as to whether top-ranked personal values or demographics are better predictors of overall satisfaction with the theatre-event.

In total, 32 of the 40 tests conducted here indicated that the top-ranked personal value was a better indicator of satisfaction than the demographic variable being compared. Not one of the 40 tests conducted indicated that bottom-ranked personal value was a better predictor of satisfaction than the demographic variable being measured. Therefore, in response to the research question posed for this group of hypotheses, the top-ranked personal value is a better predictor of satisfaction than demographics.

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### 7.3.5 Top-and bottom-ranked personal values: results and discussion

The research question for Hypotheses 3a to 3l was:

*Are top- and bottom-ranked personal values better predictors of satisfaction responses, behavioural intentions and attitude towards the destination than the importance ratings of the LOV items?*

Table 26 summarises the results of the testing of the hypotheses relating to this research question. For Hypotheses 3a through to 3e and 3g through to 3k, linear regression was used as the method of analysis. As attitude change was measured using a categorical variable, Hypotheses 3f and 3l were tested using logistic regression. Following this, the results of the hypotheses are described and discussed.



**Table 26: Comparative predictive ability of the top- and bottom ranked personal values and importance ratings of personal values**

Hypotheses	Satisfaction with the...	Comparing		Specific personal values					Comparing		Specific personal values				
		Top-ranked personal value	Importance ratings of personal values	Well-respected	Fun and enjoyment	Security	Excitement	Self-fulfilled	Bottom-ranked personal values	Importance ratings of personal values	Well-respected	Fun and enjoyment	Security	Excitement	Self-fulfilled
3a/3g	Costumes		B	*	*					B	*	*			
	Storyline		B	*		*				B	*		*		
	Quality of the acting and the singing		B	*						B	*				
	Stagework		B	*						B	*				
	Service at the theatre		B	*		*				B	*	*			
	Value for money		B	*	*	*				B		*			
	Vision from the seats		#							#					
	Theatre and its ambience		B		*					B		*			
3b/3h	Theatre-event overall		B	*	*					B	*	*			
3c/3i	Host destination overall		B	*	*		*			B	*	*		*	
Intentions to recommend															
3d/3j	Recommend theatre-event		#					*		#					
3e/3k	Recommend host destination		B	*						B	*				*
Positive change in attitude															
3f/3l	Towards host destination		B			*				B			*		

B - denotes found to be a better predictor in a statistically significant model ( $F < .05$ ,  $t < .05$ )

\* - denotes  $t < .05$ , in a statistically significant model

# - denotes hypotheses rejected as model was not found to be statistically significant ( $F > .05$ )

## - denotes hypotheses rejected as no variables were found to be statistically significant ( $F > .05$ ,  $t > .05$ )

NB: SPSS output located in Appendix Three

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**Theatre-event attributes.** None of the sixteen regression analyses conducted that compared the predictive ability of the top- and bottom-ranked personal values and the importance ratings of the personal values respectively identified that the top- or bottom-ranked personal values were better predictors of satisfaction with the measured attributes of the theatre-event. Therefore Hypotheses 3a and 3g were rejected. The personal values (importance ratings) that featured as better predictors of satisfaction with the attributes of the theatre-event than the top-ranked personal value were *to be well-respected*, *to have fun and enjoyment* and *to have security*, *to have excitement* and *to be self-fulfilled*. Similar results were identified for the bottom-ranked personal value.

**Theatre-event overall.** The results of regression analyses did not identify that the top- or bottom-ranked personal values were better predictors of satisfaction with the theatre-event than the importance ratings of the personal values. Therefore, Hypotheses 3b and 3h were rejected. The personal values (importance ratings) that featured as better predictors of satisfaction with theatre-event overall than the top- and bottom-ranked personal value were *to be well-respected* and *to have fun and enjoyment*.

**Host destination overall.** Similarly, results of regression analyses did not identify that the top- or bottom-ranked personal values were better predictors of satisfaction with the host destination than the importance ratings of personal values. Therefore, Hypotheses 3c and 3i were rejected. The personal values (importance ratings) that featured as better predictors of satisfaction with host destination than the top- and bottom-ranked personal value were *to be well-respected*, *to have fun and enjoyment* and *to have excitement*.

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**Behavioural intentions.** In terms of behavioural intentions to recommend the theatre-event, the results of regression analyses identified that neither the top- or bottom-ranked personal values nor the importance ratings of the personal values measured here contributed significantly to the regression models ( $t > .05$ ). As such, Hypothesis 3d and 3j were rejected. In terms of intentions to recommend the host destination, the results of regression analyses identified that neither the top- or bottom-ranked personal values nor the importance ratings of the personal values measured here contributed significantly to the regression models ( $t > .05$ ). As such, Hypothesis 3e and 3k were rejected. The personal values (importance ratings) that featured as better predictors of intentions to recommend the host destination than the top-ranked personal values were *to be well-respected* and *fun and enjoyment*. The personal values (importance rating) *to be self-fulfilled* was a better predictor of intentions to recommend the host destination than the bottom-ranked personal value.

**Change in attitude towards the host destination.** The results of logistic regression analyses did not identify that the top- or bottom-ranked personal values were better predictors of a changed attitude towards the host destination than the importance ratings of personal values. Therefore, Hypotheses 3f and 3l were rejected. The importance rating of *to have security* was found to be a better predictor of changed attitude towards the host destination than the top-and bottom-ranked personal values.

**Discussion.** As can be seen from Table 26, there is a high level of consistency in the results obtained here. These results indicate that neither the top-and bottom-ranked personal values are as effective in explaining post-consumption attitudes and behavioural intentions as the importance ratings of the personal values measured here. The results indicated that respondents perhaps ordered the personal values

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that were measured here hierarchically. This result provides further support for Rokeach's (1973) view on the topic. The results also indicated that one personal value in particular, whether this a top- or bottom-ranked personal value, for example, is not an adequate surrogate for a hierarchy of personal values. In response to the research question posed for this part of the study, the top- and bottom-ranked personal values are not better predictors of the post-consumption attitudes and behavioural intentions measured here than the importance ratings of the personal values measured here.

The results, however, provide some insights into the types of personal values that are important to consumers of theatre-events. Focussing on the specific personal values (importance ratings) which featured in the results, it is noticeable that *to be well-respected* and *to have fun and enjoyment* were those that featured in relation to satisfaction with the attributes of the theatre-event, the theatre-event overall and the host destination. As has already been mentioned, the State and local governments offered high levels of support for the theatre-event and the theatre-event sustained high levels of media promotion. It was quite likely that because of the high profile that the theatre-event achieved, a certain level of prestige was associated with attending the theatre-event. This notion may begin to explain why *to be well-respected* featured prominently in the results. Further to this, perhaps 'theatre' brings some connotations of social class, which has been related to the price of the tickets (Currie and Hobart, 1994). Attendance at such a theatre-event is often prohibitive for some members of society because of the price of the tickets. Tickets were also released in blocks, meaning that consumers needed to purchase their tickets well in advance, hence, not only did attendees need to be organised, they also needed to have the funds to attend the theatre-event. This theatre-event was held in one the most prestigious

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theatres in Australia, which may have also provided attendees with the feeling that they would be well-respected by others because of this.

Whether attendees of the theatre-event were tourists or not, attendance at the theatre-event was a leisure experience, and although not all leisure experiences need be associated with fun, most are associated with some type of enjoyment, which may explain why *fun and enjoyment* featured so prominently in the results.

*To be well-respected* and *to be self-fulfilled* were found to be better predictors of intentions to recommend the host destination than the top- and bottom-ranked personal values. In Chapter Three of this thesis, it was noted that *to be well-respected* and *to be self-fulfilled* are generally associated with the intrinsic and extrinsic personal value domains respectively. As these two personal values stem from almost opposite personal value domains, it is difficult to identify a pattern in the results.

In regard to the change in attitude towards the host destination, the results highlight the role of the personal value *to have security* in changing attitudes towards the host destination. This data collection period for this study commenced soon after the September 11<sup>th</sup> 2001 terrorist attack on New York and continued until June of 2002. The recency of the terrorist attacks may have heightened attendees' awareness, and thus focus, on security within the host destination. Melbourne's theatre precinct is near the 'better' end of town and many attendees may have felt comfortable when engaging in leisure activities before or after the performance in close proximity to this precinct.

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### 7.3.6 Personal value domains: results and discussion

The research questions representing Hypotheses 4a to 4o were:

*If the ratings of the importance of the personal values measured here represent personal value domains, are they better predictors of satisfaction within a theatre-event context than the top- and bottom-ranked personal values?*

So that a response could be provided to this research question, it was firstly necessary to analyse the personal values data to identify whether any salient themes existed in them. This was achieved using factor analysis, but before this could be conducted, tests were performed on the data to demonstrate that factor analysis was an appropriate method of analysis for this data. The result of the Keiser-Meyer-Olkin test was .731, which indicated that the data were appropriate for factor analysis. The measure of sampling adequacy for these variables was also significant at the 95% confidence interval. Hence, Hypotheses 4a to 4c could be tested with these data.

Factor analysis was, therefore, used to identify the existence of salient themes, or personal value domains, in the personal values measured here using a Principal Components Factor Analysis with a Varimax rotation. A three-factor solution was obtained with five iterations of the data. Table 27 presents the statistics relating to three factor, specifically the loadings for each of the variables, the percentage of variance explained, the eigenvalues and Cronbach's alpha score (note the use of the transformed personal value variables as discussed in Section 7.2.3 and presented in Table 21).

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**Table 27: Results of factor analysis of the personal value variables**

Variables	Factor One	Factor Two	Factor Three
To have a sense of belonging	.75		
To be well respected	.70		
To be in warm relationships	.65		
To have security	.61		
To have self-respect	.46		
To have excitement		.85	
To have fun and enjoyment		.83	
To be self-fulfilled			.86
To have a sense of accomplishment			.74
Eigenvalue	3.1	1.4	1.1
Percentage of variance explained	34.0	15.7	11.3
Cronbach's alpha for factor	.70	.65	.70
Factor name	<b>Extrinsic</b>	<b>Hedonistic</b>	<b>Intrinsic</b>

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

NB: SPSS output located in Appendix Three

As can be seen from Table 27, three factors emerged, with eigenvalues greater than one, accounted for 34%, 16% and 11% of the variance respectively. The total percentage of the variance explained was 61%. Reliability analysis was conducted for each of the factors using the variables loading on the factors and this produced alpha coefficients of .70, .65 and .70 respectively for the three factors. Hair *et al.*, (1995) noted that 0.7 is generally the threshold for a scale's reliability, or its internal consistency, however, they also noted that this is not an absolute standard. In this study, the three factors were deemed to demonstrate acceptable levels of reliability.

The sample was split equally and two separate factor analyses were conducted to validate the original three-factor solution obtained. The results of these factor analyses indicate that the factor solutions are comparable. Certainly, there were some differences noted but, generally, the factor solutions were very similar to the original solution. The validation analyses similarly obtained a three-factor solution, explaining approximately 60% of the variance with the same variables loading on the various factors obtained.

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In summary, the results of this analysis indicate that the personal values that constitute the LOV are represented by a small number of personal value domains. Therefore, Hypothesis 4a was accepted.

Analysis of the three-factor solution (see Table 27) identifies the factors upon which the LOV items load most strongly. These 'strongly' represent the factor because their loadings are above 0.5, which Hair *et al.* (p.385) indicate would be 'practically significant'. Significance in this context does not refer to mathematical significance but rather to practical significance. As can be seen from Table 27, the loading for *to have self-respect* was .46.

As can be seen from Table 27 the first factor is strongly represented by the following LOV items: *to have a sense of belonging*, *to be well-respected*, *to be in warm relationships* and *to have security*. Although, one is, to some extent, able to control these aspects of their life, one is generally dependant on others to achieve these goals. Thus, the first factor has an external orientation and, for the purposes of this study, was described as the **Extrinsic** factor. Factor Two is represented by *to have excitement* and *to have enjoyment*. This factor has a pleasure-seeking orientation and, for the purposes of this study, was described as an **Hedonistic** factor. The third factor is strongly represented by *to be self-fulfilled* and *to have a sense of accomplishment*. This factor has an internal orientation and, for the purposes of this study, can be described as an **Intrinsic** factor. The three terms used to label the three personal value domains are the same as those used by Fall (2000), and are similar to those used by Madrigal and Kahle (1994).



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In summary, the preceding interpretation of the three-factor solution supports the hypothesis that both **Extrinsic** and **Intrinsic** domains can represent the personal values that constitute the LOV. Therefore, Hypotheses 4b was accepted.

The preceding interpretation of the three-factor solution also supports the hypothesis that within the context of theatre-events, a Novelty/Escapism-related personal value domain is present in the personal values that constitute the LOV. The **Hedonistic** domain identified here is represented by the values *to have fun and enjoyment* and *to have excitement*, which are considered by the researcher to relate well to the concepts of novelty and escapism. Therefore, Hypotheses 4c was accepted.

Now that the personal value domains for this study have been identified, the second component of the hypotheses testing (Hypotheses 4d to 4o) involved testing the predictive ability of these domains compared to the importance ratings of the individual personal values measured here.

It was necessary, however, to select the most appropriate measure to represent the personal value domains in the hypotheses testing and three options were available. One option was to use the factor scores for each of the personal domains; the second option was to use surrogate variables to represent each of the factors, which is usually the item with the highest loading on the factor; and the third option was to use a summated scale, where the variables loading on each of the factor are summed and then divided by the number of variables that load on the factors to arrive at an average score. Each of these methods is appropriate for different circumstances and each has its advantages and disadvantages. Factor scores represent a composite score for the factors, however, because they are based on correlations, they are error-prone indicators of the salient factors. Surrogate variables

ignore the other components of the factor. The summated scale, however, accounts for the variables that load the most highly on the factor and is considered to be a compromise between the factor scores and surrogate variables. As the summated scale is an average of the variables loading most highly on the factors, Hair *et al.* (1995) noted that they are most appropriate when the instrument's reliability and validity has been tested. In this study, the summated scale was used as the LOV has been widely used and has demonstrated high levels of validity and reliability, hence this option was used in this study. The results of the testing of hypotheses 4d to 4o are presented in Table 28.

**Table 28: Comparative predictive ability of the top-and bottom-ranked personal values and personal values domains**

Hypotheses		Comparing		Statistically significant better predictors			Comparing		Statistically significant better predictors		
		Personal value domain	Top-ranked personal value	Extrinsic	Hedonistic	Intrinsic	Personal value domain	Bottom-ranked personal value	Extrinsic	Hedonistic	Intrinsic
4d and j	Costumes	B	X	b			B		b		
	Storyline	B		b			B		b		
	Quality of the acting and the singing	B		b			B		b	b	
	Stagework	B		b			B		b		
	Service at the theatre	B		b			B		b		
	Value for money	B		b			B		b		
	Vision from the seats	B		b			B		b		
	Theatre and its ambience	B		b			B		b	b	
4e and k	Theatre-event overall	B		b			B		b		
4f and l	Host destination overall	B	X	b			n/s				
Intentions to recommend											
4g and m	Theatre-event	B		b			B		b		
4h and n	Host destination	B		b			B		b		
Attitude change											
4i and o	Towards host destination	n/s					n/s				

B - denotes found to be a better predictor in a significant model ( $F < .05$ ,  $t < .05$ )

b - specific personal value domains found to be better predictors

X - denotes was also found to be a significant predictor

n/s - denotes model was not found to be significant

NB: SPSS output located in Appendix Three

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**Theatre-event attributes.** Eight regression analyses were conducted to compare the ability of the three personal value domains and the top-ranked personal value to predict satisfaction with each of the measured attributes of the theatre-event. The concept, personal value domains, was found to be a better predictor of attribute-satisfaction than the concept of a top-ranked personal value. More specifically, the personal value domain described here as Extrinsic was found to be a statistically significant variable in each of the regression models. Since some support was provided for the hypothesis that personal value domains will be better predictors of satisfaction with theatre-event attributes than the top-ranked personal value Hypothesis 4d was partially accepted.

Another eight regression analyses were conducted to compare the ability of the three personal value domains and the bottom-ranked personal value to predict satisfaction with each of the measured attributes of the theatre-event. For each of the measured attributes, the personal value domain described here as Extrinsic was found to be a statistically significant variable in each of the regression models. For satisfaction with the stage work and satisfaction with the theatre and its ambience, the personal value domain described here as Hedonistic was also a significant variable in the regression model. Since some support was provided for the hypothesis that personal value domains will be better predictors than the bottom-ranked personal value of satisfaction with theatre-event attributes, Hypothesis 4j was partially accepted.

**Theatre-event overall.** A regression analysis identified that the personal value domain, described as Extrinsic, was the only statistically significant variable in a model that included the three personal value domains and the top-ranked personal value. Hypothesis 4e was, therefore, partially accepted. Similarly, a regression analysis indicated that the personal value domain described as Extrinsic was the only

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statistically significant variable in a model that included the three personal value domains and the bottom-ranked personal value. Hypothesis 4k was, therefore, partially accepted.

**Host destination.** A regression analysis identified that the personal value domain that was described as Extrinsic was the only statistically significant variable in a model that included the three personal value domains and the top-ranked personal value. Hypothesis 4f was, therefore, partially accepted. When the ability of personal value domains and the bottom-ranked personal value to predict satisfaction with the host destination were compared, the regression model was found to be non-significant. Hypothesis 4l was, therefore, rejected.

**Behavioural intentions.** Regression analyses were conducted to compare the ability of the top-ranked personal value and personal value domains to predict both intentions to recommend the theatre-event and the host destination. Results of these analyses indicated that the Extrinsic personal value domain was the better predictor of these two behavioural intentions, as it was found to be the only statistically significant in variable in both models. Hypotheses 4g and 4h were therefore partially accepted.

When the ability to predict both intentions to recommend the theatre-event and the host destination of the personal value domains and the bottom-ranked personal value were compared, the results indicated that the Extrinsic personal value domain was the better predictor of these two behavioural intentions. As was the case for the top-ranked personal value, the Extrinsic personal value domain was found to be the only statistically significant in variable in both the regression models. Hypotheses 4n and 4m were therefore partially accepted.

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**Positive change in attitude towards host destination.** Logistic regression was conducted to compare the ability of the top- and bottom-ranked personal values respectively and the personal value domains to predict a positive change in attitude towards the host destination as a result of attendance at the theatre-event. The results did not indicate that either of the models was statistically significant ( $p > .05$ ). Therefore, Hypothesis 4i and 4o were rejected.

**Discussion.** The research question posed for this group of hypotheses was two -fold. The first part of the research question posed here focussed on the interpretation of the importance ratings of the personal values measured here. In response to this part of the research question, it was identified that the ratings of the importance of the personal values measured here were represented by a smaller set of personal value domains.

The structure of the derived factor solution provide support for the notion that personal values are ordered hierarchically, which was discussed in Chapter Three of the thesis. As such, the results obtained here provided support for the validity for the theory of personal values. The LOV also performed well, which provide support for the reliability of the LOV as an instrument.

One may argue, however, that factor analysis will almost always identify underlying dimensions in data of this type and that the results here are merely an artefact of the way in which the data were analysed. Single factor solutions are often yielded using factor analysis, but this was not the case in this study; the three factors emerged from the data and were not manipulated by specifying the number of factors to be derived from the data. Further to this, it is the similarity between the results obtained in this study and other studies on personal values [See, for example, Madrigal and

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Kahle (1994); Jago (1997a); and Fall (2000)] that provided support for the theory of personal values and the LOV.

The face validity and the reliability of the interpreted dimensions, or personal value domains, are also of interest and importance to this study. The three domains, described as Extrinsic, Hedonistic and Intrinsic, are very similar in structure to those obtained in other studies on personal values, particularly of those undertaken in the context of tourism [See, for example, Muller (1995); Fall and Knutson (2001); Muller and Cleaver (2000), which were discussed in Chapter Three of this thesis]. Further to this, the proportion of variance that each of the interpreted dimensions explained in this study is similar to that which has been obtained in other studies on personal values, particularly that of Fall's (2000) study on personal values. With these results, the researcher had confidence that the results could be used in subsequent analyses of this study.

More specifically, within the context of theatre-events, the three domains provide an indication of the dominant personal values of respondents in this study. The Extrinsic personal value domain, represented by the personal values *to have a sense of belonging; to be well-respected; to be in warm relationships; and to have security*, featured prominently in analyses that involved using the factors independent variables. Consideration should be given, however, to the number of personal values represented by each of the underlying factors, or personal value domains. Hair *et al.* (1995), for example, noted that the variance explained by a dimension is related to the number of items loading on the underlying dimension. When these results are being interpreted, one needs to consider that the Extrinsic personal value domain is represented by four LOV items and the Hedonistic and Intrinsic personal values domains are both represented by two LOV items.

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Even considering this issue, however, the results still indicate that many respondents placed a high level of importance on the Extrinsic personal values, in their own right, and compared to the other personal values in the LOV. Thus, it is likely that the attendees of this theatre-event perceived that their attendance would provide them with opportunities to feel part of the experience, be respected, and engage with other attendees in a safe environment. These issues may have been considered when they made their decision to attend the theatre-event. Although the Hedonistic and Intrinsic personal value domains explained much less of the variance than did the Extrinsic personal domain, the personal values that they represent are still important for respondents to the study.

As has been mentioned, the research question posed for this group of hypotheses was two-fold; the second part of the research question focussed on the predictive ability of the top- and bottom-ranked personal values compared to personal value domains. This analysis could only be undertaken because the researcher had confidence in the results of the factor analysis conducted on the importance ratings of the LOV items.

Overall, the results indicated that the concept of personal value domains is a better predictor of satisfaction and behavioural intentions when compared to the top- and bottom-ranked personal values. Of the 24 regression analyses that were conducted to test the hypotheses in this group of hypotheses, 23 of these indicated that the concept of a personal value domain is a better predictor of satisfaction and behavioural intentions than the top- and bottom-ranked personal values.

Previous researchers of personal values have not suggested that data obtained by using the 'rank then rate' approach be used to identify the predictive ability of the top-

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and bottom-ranked personal values compared to personal value domains, but analysis conducted here provides some insight into this issue in relation to satisfaction and behavioural intentions. Of the three personal value domains (Extrinsic, Hedonistic and Intrinsic), the Extrinsic personal value domain consistently outperformed the top- and the bottom-ranked personal values in relation to predicting satisfaction and behavioural intentions within a theatre-event context.

The Hedonistic personal value domain also outperformed the top-and the bottom-ranked personal values, but only on two of the dependant variables (satisfaction with the storyline and satisfaction with the quality of the acting and the singing). These results are overshadowed by the fact that the Hedonistic personal value domain was not a better predictor than the top- and bottom-ranked personal values of the other 10 satisfaction and behavioural intentions variables measured here. The Intrinsic personal value domain was not found to be a better predictor than the top- or bottom ranked personal values of any of the satisfaction and behavioural intentions variables measured here.

On the face of it, the results, therefore, indicate that the Extrinsic personal value domain is a better predictor of satisfaction and behavioural intentions within a theatre-event context than the top- and bottom-ranked personal values.

It was also observed that *to have fun and enjoyment* was most often top-ranked by respondents. This personal value is included in the Hedonistic personal value domain and not in the Extrinsic personal value domain, which explained the greatest amount of variance in the factor analysis. This appears to be an anomaly in the results. This result can be explained perhaps by the relative weighting of the underlying variables. If some form of weighting approach to the factor analysis was used, it is likely that the



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Hedonistic personal value domain may have then featured more strongly in the results than they did in this study.

The descriptive statistics also indicated that *to have excitement* was most often ranked as the bottom-ranked personal value. This is consistent with the results of other studies on personal values, where *to have excitement* has been found to be rated the least important of all the personal values (Muller and Cleaver, 2002). When respondents were asked to rate the importance of the LOV items, the polarity that they assigned to the ranking to both *to have fun and enjoyment* and *to have excitement* may have impacted on the overall position of the Hedonistic personal value domain within the hierarchy of personal values domains. Taking this into consideration, it is not surprising, therefore, that the Hedonistic personal value domain did not feature prominently in the results.

### **7.3.7 Attribute satisfaction: results and discussion**

Three research questions were posed for this part of the study, namely:

*Does attribute satisfaction impact on expectancy disconfirmation, satisfaction and behavioural intentions within the context of theatre-events? and Is attribute satisfaction a better predictor of expectancy disconfirmation, satisfaction and behavioural intentions than personal value domains, within the context of theatre-events?*

In this section, a response to the first question is provided by Hypotheses 5a to 5e and the results of the testing of these hypotheses are presented in the first part of this section of the chapter. Following this, a response to the second question posed here is provided by Hypotheses 5f to 5j. The results of the testing of these hypotheses are then presented. The results of Hypotheses 5a to 5j are discussed at the end of this section.

The term 'attribute satisfaction' in each of these hypotheses is represented by the eight attribute satisfaction variables that were measured in this study. As such, the rules pertaining to the testing of hypotheses where attribute satisfaction was concerned (See Section 6.3.2) were followed in this section of the data analysis.

Table 29 itemises the statistics relating Hypotheses 5a to 5e, and specifically identifies those attribute satisfaction variables that were found to significantly contribute to the final regression models. Following this, the results of the hypotheses are described for the reader. The results that were found in relation to these hypotheses are discussed at the end of this section.

**Table 29: Role of attribute satisfaction on dependant variables**

Attribute satisfaction predicts...	Positive expectancy disconfirmation 5a	Overall satisfaction with the		Intentions to recommend the	
		Theatre-event 5b	Host destination 5c	Theatre-event 5d	Host destination 5e
Quality of the acting/singing	*	*	*	*	
Value for money	*	*		*	
Storyline	*	*		*	
Service at the theatre	*	*	*		*
Costumes			*		*
Stage work		*			
Vision from seats		*			
Theatre and its ambience		*			
Percentage of the variance explained	13	60	19	25	19
Hypothesis partially accepted	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

\* denotes found to be a statistically significant variable in a statistically significant model ( $p < .05$ )  
NB: SPSS output located in Appendix Three

In order to test Hypothesis 5a, or whether attribute satisfaction contributes to positive expectancy disconfirmation, logistic regression was used as the method of analysis. A backward WALD logistic regression analysis was conducted beginning with all eight attribute satisfaction variables as the independent variables and positive expectancy disconfirmation as the dependant variable. Using this method of logistic

regression, SPSS11 software yields the most parsimonious model. The results of this analysis are summarised in Table 30.

**Table 30: Model summary and odds ratio – attribute satisfaction and positive expectancy disconfirmation**

Model Summary		Odds ratio of variables ( $p < .05$ )	
Nagelkerke's $R^2$	Classification	Storyline	1.002
13%	74%	Quality of the acting and singing	1.001
		Value for money	1.002
		Service at the theatre	0.999

NB: SPSS output located in Appendix Three

Based on Nagelkerke's  $R^2$ , the final logistic regression model explained 13% of the variance and the model included four of the eight attribute satisfaction variables measured here that were statistically significant ( $p < .05$ ). The statistically significant variables in the final model were satisfaction with the *storyline*, satisfaction with the *quality of the acting and the singing*, satisfaction with the *service at the theatre* and satisfaction with the *value for money*. The results also indicated that a model including these variables would be able to correctly classify respondents based on whether their expectations were positively confirmed, 74% of the time. This is well above the cut-off of 50%. This is the result that would be achieved if respondents were classified randomly.

Having said this, however, one must consider the exponential of beta for each of the statistically significant variables in the final model. This statistic signifies the extent to which a change in one unit of the independent variable impacts on the dependant variable. This statistic is sometimes referred to as the 'odds ratio' (Hair *et al.*, 1995). When the exponential of beta is greater than one, this signifies that there is a positive change in the dependant variable. The exponential of beta for satisfaction with storyline, satisfaction with the quality of the acting and singing and satisfaction with the value for money were 1.002, 1.001 and 1.002 respectively. Although the three

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statistics indicate positive relationships between the variables and the dependant variable, the strength of the relationship is only marginally positive. The exponential of the remaining variable, satisfaction with the service at the theatre, was 0.999. Although this figure is less than one, indicating that the relationship is negative, it is also only marginally negative.

Based on these results, it would appear that there is not enough evidence to support Hypothesis 5a outright, and that it should be only partially accepted. Before the researcher made this decision, however, the hypothesis was tested using linear regression as the method of analysis. The non-metric variable of positive disconfirmation was converted to a metric variable for this process. This analysis was undertaken because, in some instances, very large sample sizes can over-fit logistic regression models (Zikmund, 1997) and it was important that this be investigated before a decision was made in regard to the hypothesis. The results of the linear regression indicated that the same four variables (satisfaction with the storyline, satisfaction with the quality of the acting and the singing, satisfaction with the value for money and satisfaction with the service at the theatre) significantly contributed to the final linear regression model, which explained 10% of the total variance. The standardised co-efficients for satisfaction with the storyline, satisfaction with the quality of the acting and the singing, satisfaction with the value for money and satisfaction with the service at the theatre were 0.159, 0.125, 0.146 and -0.092. These results provide support for the results that were obtained via the logistic regression analysis. Based on the results of these two analyses, Hypothesis 5a was partially accepted.

A regression analysis was used to test whether satisfaction with the theatre-event attributes measured here contributed to overall satisfaction with the theatre-event.

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The results of this analysis indicated that satisfaction with all the eight attributes of the theatre-event, except for satisfaction with the costumes, were found to significantly contribute to the regression model. Further to this, the final model that included the seven attributes, explained 60% of the variance, based on the standardised  $R^2$  statistic. The  $R^2$  statistic is recommended as a better indicator of a model's explanatory power than the  $R$  statistic (Hair *et al.*, 1995) Hypothesis 5b was, therefore, partially accepted.

A regression analysis was used to test whether satisfaction with the theatre-event attributes measured contributed to overall satisfaction with the host destination. The results of this analysis indicated that satisfaction with only three of the theatre-event attributes that were measured here were found to significantly contribute to the final regression model. Satisfaction with the costumes, satisfaction with the quality of the acting and satisfaction with the service at the theatre were those variables that were identified as significantly contributing to the regression model. The final model, that included the three variables, explained 19% of the variance, based on the standardised  $R^2$  statistic. Hypothesis 5c was, therefore, partially accepted.

A regression analysis was used to test whether satisfaction with the theatre-event attributes measured here contributed to intentions to recommend the theatre-event. The results of this analysis indicated that satisfaction with only three of the theatre-event attributes that were measured here were statistically significant in the regression model. The statistically significant variables in the final model were satisfaction with the storyline, satisfaction with the quality of the acting and the singing and satisfaction with the value for money. Hypothesis 5d was, therefore, partially accepted.

A regression analysis was used to test whether satisfaction with the theatre-event attributes measured here contributed to intentions to recommend the host destination. The results of this analysis indicated that satisfaction with only two of the theatre-event attributes that were measured here were statistically significant in the final regression model. The variables were satisfaction with the costumes and satisfaction with the service at the theatre. Hypothesis 5e was, therefore, partially accepted.

To test Hypotheses 5f to 5j, the summated scales of the three personal value domains, Extrinsic, Hedonistic and Intrinsic, which were discussed in Section 6.3.6, were used to compare the predictive ability of attribute satisfaction and personal value domains in relation to overall expectancy disconfirmation, overall satisfaction and the post-consumption behavioural intentions measured in this study. Hypotheses 5f to 5j are summarised, and the results of the testing of these hypotheses, are presented in Table 31.

**Table 31: Comparative predictive ability of attribute satisfaction and personal value domains**

Attribute satisfaction	is a better predictor of...	5f Overall expectancy disconfirmation	than personal value domains	Partially accepted
		5g Satisfaction with the theatre-event		Partially accepted
		5h Satisfaction with the host destination		Partially accepted
		5i Intentions to recommend the theatre-event		Partially accepted
		5j Intentions to recommend the host destination		Partially accepted

NB: SPSS output located in Appendix Three

In order to test whether theatre-event attribute satisfaction is a better predictor of overall expectancy disconfirmation of the theatre-event than personal value domains, logistic regression was used as the method of analysis. The form of logistic regression that was used was WARD's backward technique, which was described earlier in this chapter. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 32.

**Table 32: Model summary and odds ratio – comparison of role of attribute satisfaction and personal value domains on positive expectancy disconfirmation**

Model Summary		Odds ratio of variables ( $p < .05$ )	
Nagelkerke's $R^2$	Classification	Storyline	1.002
18%	74%	Value for money	1.002

NB: SPSS output located in Appendix Three

The final regression model included attribute satisfaction variables, namely, satisfaction with the storyline and satisfaction with the value for money. The three personal values domains were not included in the final regression model. The regression model, which was able to classify 74% of the cases correctly, explained 18% of the total variance and the beta coefficients for the two attribute satisfaction variables were both 1.002. These results indicate that the hypotheses can be partially accepted. Once again, because of the large sample size, the model may have over-fitted the data. Before the researcher decided whether this was outcome of hypothesis testing, the data were further analysed using linear regression, modifying the dependant variable to a metric variable. The results of this analysis indicated that the same two attribute satisfaction variables contributed significantly to expectancy disconfirmation, with the  $R^2$  for this linear regression model being 14%. None of the personal value domains were included in the final linear regression model. Considering the results of the logistic regression analysis and of the linear regression analysis, Hypothesis 5f was partially accepted.

In order to test whether theatre-event attribute satisfaction is a better predictor of overall satisfaction with the theatre-event than personal value domains, linear regression was used as the method of analysis. The final regression model, which explained 60% of the total variance, included five of the attribute satisfaction variables as significantly contributing to the model. The attribute satisfaction variables

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were satisfaction with the storyline, satisfaction with the quality of the acting and the singing, satisfaction with the theatre and its ambience and satisfaction with the service at the theatre. Therefore, Hypothesis 5g was partially accepted.

In order to test whether theatre-event attribute satisfaction is a better predictor of overall satisfaction with the host destination than personal value domains, linear regression was used as the method of analysis. Although the final regression model, which explained 23% of the total variance, included the three personal value domains, these did not significantly contribute to the model. Two of the eight attribute satisfaction variables, however, were found to significantly contribute to the regression model. The specific attributes were satisfaction with the storyline and satisfaction with the theatre and its ambience. Therefore, Hypothesis 5h was partially accepted.

Linear regression was used to test whether theatre-event attribute satisfaction is a better predictor of intentions to recommend the theatre-event than personal value domains. The final regression model, that explained 31% of the total variance, included three of the eight attribute satisfaction variables, namely, satisfaction with the storyline, satisfaction with the quality of the acting and satisfaction with the value for money. None of the three personal value domains were included in the final regression model. Therefore, Hypothesis 5i was partially accepted.

Linear regression was used to test whether theatre-event attribute satisfaction is a better predictor of intentions to recommend the host destination than personal value domains. The final regression model, that explained 31% of the total variance, only included one of the eight attribute satisfaction variables, namely, satisfaction with the



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service at the theatre. None of the three personal value domains were included in the final regression model. Therefore, Hypothesis 5i was partially accepted.

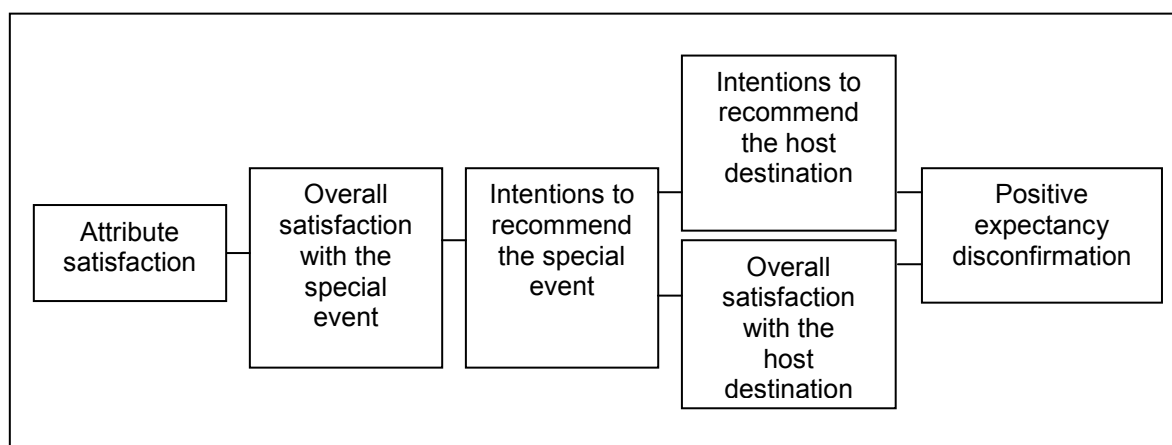
**Discussion.** In response to the first research question posed here, attribute satisfaction does impact on overall expectancy disconfirmation, satisfaction and behavioural intentions within the context of theatre-events. It appears that attribute satisfaction is, however, more important in developing post-consumption attitudes and behavioural intentions in relation to the theatre-event, than overall expectancy disconfirmation.

The percentage of variance explained by the regression models (see Table 29) provided some indication as to how the dependant variables are positioned in relation to attribute satisfaction. The results indicate that, of the relationships proposed here with attribute satisfaction (that is between expectancy disconfirmation; overall satisfaction with the theatre-event and host destination; and intentions to recommend the theatre-event and the host destination), the strongest overall connection is between overall satisfaction with the theatre-event, as this regression model explained 60% of the variance. The results indicate that the weakest connection is between attribute satisfaction and positive expectancy disconfirmation, where the regression model explained only 13% of the variance. In conjunction, these two results provide support for Jones and Suh's notion (2000) that attribute satisfaction is a better predictor of overall satisfaction than expectancy disconfirmation.

Figure 25 presents the positioning of the dependant variables in relation to attribute satisfaction, based on the results of Hypotheses 5a to 5e. In Figure 25, attribute satisfaction is positioned the closest to overall satisfaction with the theatre-event and attribute satisfaction is positioned the farthest from positive expectancy

disconfirmation. The other concepts in Figure 25 are positioned based on the percentage of variance that attribute satisfaction explained of them. The position of the variables in Figure 25 provides some support for the hypothesised model that was developed for this study.

**Figure 25: Positioning of variables in relation to attribute satisfaction**



The ‘connection’ between theatre-events and host destinations has been a constant theme in the theatre-event literature. Hall (1989) was one of the earliest researchers of theatre-events to suggest this association and the more contemporary literature on theatre-events continues to support this notion. This notion is further supported by the emphasis that tourism authorities now place on the role of theatre-events in developing tourism in host destinations. The results here indicate that attribute satisfaction explained 19% of the variance in relation to both satisfaction with the host destination and intentions to recommend the host destination. These results provide support for the notion that there are synergies between attribute satisfaction and post-consumption attitudes and behavioural intentions in relation to theatre-events.

More specifically, the results of Hypotheses 5a to 5e indicate that for most of the dependant variables, satisfaction with the quality of the acting and the singing, satisfaction with the value for money, satisfaction with the storyline and satisfaction

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with the service at the theatre featured as statistically significant independent variables in the final regression models. These variables appear to represent the two underlying themes in the attributes, namely, the 'craft' of the theatre-event and a 'hygiene' component associated with the theatre-event. Satisfaction with the quality of the acting and the singing and satisfaction with the storyline appear to be concerned with the 'craft' of the theatre-event. Satisfaction with the value for money and satisfaction with the service at the theatre appear to be concerned with a 'hygiene' component of the experience of attendance at the theatre-event.

In response to the second research question posed at the beginning of this section, the results indicate that attribute satisfaction is a better predictor of the dependent variables measured here than are personal value domains. These results provide support for the notion that, although personal values are thought to be important in guiding attitudes and behaviour, the evaluation of the consumption experience appears to be more important than personal value domains in determining resulting context-specific attitudes and behaviour. This result suggests that attribute satisfaction perceptually 'sits' between personal value domains and attitudes and behaviour.

### **7.3.8 Expectancy disconfirmation: results and discussion**

The research question representing Hypothesis 6a was

*Is there a relationship between expectancy disconfirmation and satisfaction within the context of theatre-events?*

As was the case in previous hypotheses concerning expectancy disconfirmation, differences in overall satisfaction with the theatre-event based on whether attendees' expectancy disconfirmation was positive or not positive, were tested. An independent means T-test was conducted and the results of this test indicated that there were

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statistically significant differences in the level of overall satisfaction based on positive expectancy disconfirmation with the theatre-event. Respondents who indicated positive expectancy disconfirmation with the theatre-event reported much higher levels of overall satisfaction with the theatre-event.

In the second instance, Hypothesis 6a was further investigated using regression analysis. The independent metric variable was positive expectancy disconfirmation, with two levels, and the dependent variable was overall satisfaction with the theatre-event. It was thought that by further investigating this hypothesis using this method of analysis, more information about the nature of the relationship between the two variables could be gained. The results of this analysis indicated that positive expectancy disconfirmation contributed significantly to overall satisfaction with the theatre-event. This model explained 6% of the total variance, which is only a marginal amount. With the results of these two analyses taken into consideration, Hypothesis 6a was accepted.

**Discussion.** In Chapter Four of this thesis, the strong support for expectancy disconfirmation theory in a range of consumption scenarios, both at the conceptual and theoretical levels, was discussed. The results of Hypothesis 6a indicated that Oliver's (1980) theory of expectancy disconfirmation can also be applied within the context of theatre-events, however, based on results of the regression analysis, support for its application is quite weak. This may be attributable to some of the key motives for attending theatre-events. Previous research in this area of theatre-events indicated that the motives for attending theatre-events include the need to satisfy one's curiosity and to engage in a novel experience. Under these circumstances, expectations are likely to play less of a role in the consumption experience, as attendees are less likely to have well-defined expectations of theatre-events. It may

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be that the unknown or surprise elements of the theatre-event attracted attendees. This provides some explanation for the weak relationship that was found between expectancy disconfirmation and overall satisfaction with the theatre-event.

Despite the relationship between the two concepts being quite weak (6%), it is important, however, to consider that when attendees' expectations were met or exceeded, they reported higher levels of overall satisfaction than when attendees' expectations were not met. With this information, it would be remiss of theatre-event managers to ignore the fact that the expectations attendees have of theatre-events are important. Effective communication in regard to what attendees may expect from their attendance, as well as some consistency in the products that are delivered by the theatre-event industry, is important in terms of developing higher levels of satisfaction with theatre-events. Therefore, in response to the research questions posed for this section of the study, there is a relationship between expectancy disconfirmation and satisfaction within the context of theatre-events.

### **7.3.9 Satisfaction with the theatre-event and host destination: results and discussion**

The research questions that represented Hypotheses 7a to 7h was:

*Are there relationships between overall satisfaction with the theatre-event and related behavioural intentions and attitudes? Are there relationships between overall satisfaction with the host destination and related behavioural intentions? Do positive changes in attitude towards the host destination impact on behavioural intentions towards the theatre-event and the host destination?*

The research questions were operationalised by Hypotheses 7a through to 7i. The hypotheses and the results of the testing of these hypotheses are presented in Table

33. Following this, the results are described for the reader and then subsequently discussed.

**Table 33: Results of Hypotheses 7a to 7i**

Hypothesis	Accepted
7a Higher levels of satisfaction with the theatre-event are associated with stronger intentions to the recommend the theatre-event	Yes, $p < .05$
7b Higher levels of satisfaction with the theatre-event are associated with higher levels of satisfaction with the host destination	Yes, $p < .05$
7c Higher levels of satisfaction with the theatre-event predict more positive attitudes towards the host destination	No, $p > .05$
7d Higher levels of satisfaction with the theatre-event are associated with stronger intentions to recommend the host destination	Yes, $p < .05$
7e Higher levels of satisfaction with the host destination are associated with stronger intentions to the recommend the theatre-event	Yes, $p < .05$
7f Higher levels of satisfaction with the host destination are associated with stronger intentions to the recommend host destination	Yes, $p < .05$
7g Higher levels of satisfaction with the host destination predict more positive attitudes towards the host destination	No, $p > .05$
7h Positive changes in attitude towards the destination predict intentions to recommend the theatre-event	No, $p > .05$
7i Positive changes in attitude towards the destination predict intentions to recommend the host destination	No, $p > .05$

NB: SPSS output located in Appendix Three

Hypotheses 7a to 7d investigated the relationship between satisfaction with the theatre-event and the post-consumption variables included in the model. Linear regression was used to test whether higher levels of overall satisfaction with the theatre-event are associated with higher levels of satisfaction with intentions to recommend the theatre-event (Hypothesis 7a); satisfaction with the host destination (Hypothesis 7b); and intentions to recommend the host destination (Hypothesis 7d). Logistic regression was used to test whether satisfaction with the theatre-event predicts positive changes in attitude towards the host destination (Hypothesis 7c).

The results indicated that higher levels of satisfaction with theatre-events caused higher levels of intentions to recommend the theatre-event ( $\beta = .495$ ,  $p < .05$ ), with the model explaining 24% of the variance. Therefore Hypothesis 7a was accepted. The results also indicated that higher levels of satisfaction with the theatre-event caused

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higher levels of satisfaction with the host destination ( $\beta=.340$ ,  $p<.05$ ), with the model explaining 11% of the variance. Therefore Hypothesis 7b was accepted. Similarly, the results indicated that higher levels of satisfaction with the theatre-event caused higher levels of intentions to recommend the host destination ( $\beta=.341$ ,  $p<.05$ ), with the model explaining 10% of the variance. Therefore, Hypothesis 7d was accepted.

The results of the logistic regression analysis aimed at testing whether satisfaction with the theatre-event predicts a positive change in attitude toward the host destination (Hypothesis 7c) did not identify that satisfaction with the theatre-event was a significant variable in the model ( $p>.05$ ). The approximated percentage of variance that the model explained based on Nagelkerke's  $R^2$  was less than 1%. This hypothesis was also tested using linear regression, with the non-metric variable of positive attitude change converted to a metric variable so that this analysis could be undertaken. The results of this linear regression analysis converged with the results of the logistic regression that was undertaken. Based on these results, Hypothesis 7c was, therefore, rejected.

Hypotheses 7e through to 7g investigated the relationships between satisfaction with the host destination and:

- intentions to recommend the theatre-event (Hypothesis 7e);
- intentions to recommend the host destination (Hypothesis 7f); and
- positive changes in attitude towards the host destination (Hypothesis 7g).

Linear regression was used to test Hypotheses 7e and 7g. The results indicated that higher levels of satisfaction with the host destination caused stronger intentions to recommend the theatre-event ( $\beta=.198$ ,  $p<.05$ ), with the model explaining 4% of the variance. Based on these results, Hypothesis 7e was, therefore, accepted.

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The results indicated that higher levels of satisfaction with the host destination also caused stronger intentions to recommend the host destination ( $\beta=.491$ ,  $p<.05$ ), with the model explaining 24% of the variance. Based on these results, Hypothesis 7f was, therefore, accepted.

The results of the logistic regression analysis aimed at testing whether satisfaction with the host destination predicts a positive change in attitude toward the host destination (Hypothesis 7f) did not identify that satisfaction with the host destination was a significant variable in the model ( $p>.05$ ). Nagelkerke's  $R^2$ , which is an approximation of the percentage of variance that the model explained, was less than 4%. This hypothesis was also tested using linear regression, with the non-metric variable of attitude change converted to a metric variable so that this analysis could be undertaken. The results of this linear regression analysis converged with the results of the logistic regression analysis. Hypothesis 7g was, therefore, rejected.

Hypotheses 7h and 7i investigated the relationship between positive changes in attitude towards the host destination and intentions to recommend the theatre-event (Hypothesis 7h) and the relationship between positive changes in attitude towards the host destination and intentions to recommend the host destination (Hypothesis 7i). Linear regression was used to test these hypotheses with the variable, positive changes towards the host destination. Positive changes towards the host destination was treated as a metric variable with '0' representing no change and '1' representing a positive change. In this way the variable was linear, rather than categorical. The results indicated that neither the relationship between positive changes towards the host destination and intentions to recommend the theatre-event (Hypothesis 7h) or positive changes towards the host destination and intentions to recommend the host



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destination (Hypothesis 7i) was significant ( $p > .05$ ). Hypothesis 7h and 7i were, therefore, rejected.

**Discussion.** In response to the first research question posed here, relationships were identified between overall satisfaction with the theatre-event and:

- intentions to recommend the theatre-event; and
- intentions to recommend the host destination.

Higher levels of satisfaction with the theatre-event were similarly associated with intentions to recommend the theatre-event and intentions to recommend the host destination. Based on the beta coefficients for these two models, the associations were found to be moderate to strong and, in both scenarios, the relationships explained 24% of the variance. Given the similarity between the results of these models, there appears to be synergies between satisfying experiences at theatre-events and post-consumption behavioural intentions towards the theatre-event and the host destination.

Although the percentage of variance explained by the relationship between satisfaction with the host destination and intentions to recommend the theatre-event was very small, being only 4%, this result provides further support for the synergies between attendance at theatre-events and post-consumption behavioural intentions in relation to the host destination.

Interestingly, the strength of the relationships between;

- overall satisfaction with the theatre-event and overall satisfaction with the host destination; and
- overall satisfaction with the theatre-event and intentions to recommend the host destination,

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were also similar in intensity. Based on the beta coefficients for these two relationships, the associations were found to be weaker than the relationships between overall satisfaction with the theatre-event and the post-consumption behavioural intentions measured in this study. Conceptually, these results are intuitively appealing.

It is important to note the percentage of variance that overall satisfaction with the theatre-event contributed to overall satisfaction with host destination. When one considers the myriad attributes or activities that are likely to contribute to overall satisfaction with a host destination, such as transport, accommodation, dining, sightseeing, shopping and the like, the fact that the experience of attendance at this theatre-event contributed 11% of this variance, is worthy of consideration. Consideration should perhaps be given to including attendance at theatre-events in inventories designed to measure satisfaction with destinations.

Also of interest in the results, is the similarity in the intensity of the strength of the associations between:

- overall satisfaction with the theatre-event and overall satisfaction with the host destination; and
- Overall satisfaction with intentions to recommend the host destination.

Once again, this finding is worthy of consideration as it highlights the synergies between the experience of attendance at the theatre-event and post-consumption behavioural intentions in relation to the host destination.

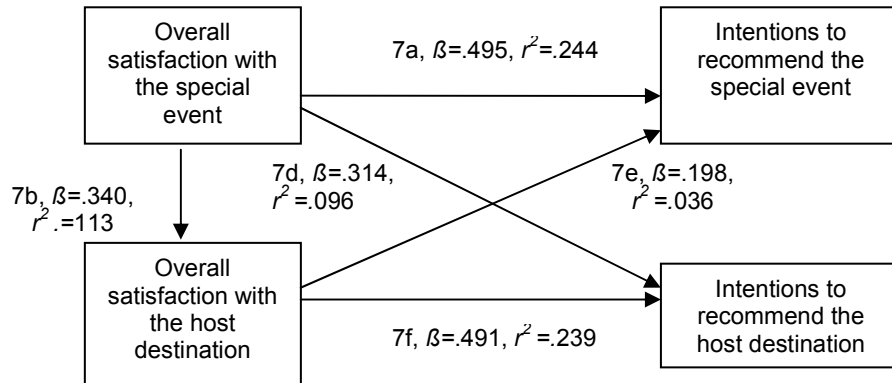
The similarities in the intensity of the relationships and the percentage of variances that the independent variables explained of the dependant variables indicated many synergies between the concepts just discussed. It may be that attendees of this

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theatre-event perceived their attendance to be 'synonymous' with their visit to the host destination. More broadly, it may be that this theatre-event, or this *type* of theatre-event, is now perceived to be 'synonymous' with Melbourne. As was discussed in Chapter Six, both Tourism Victoria and the City of Melbourne have strongly supported the staging of theatre-events in Melbourne, such as *Phantom of the Opera*, *Les Miserables* and *Mamma Mia!*. This continued support might be producing a cumulative effect on the images that attendees of theatre-events in Melbourne have of Melbourne, and that this phenomenon has manifested itself in the results obtained in this study. It appears that Tourism Victoria's Strategic plan to develop Melbourne's image of Melbourne as a theatre-event destination is being operationalised successfully, but further research is required to explore this issue.

Each of the relationships tested here that included the concept - a positive change in attitude towards the destination - either as an independent or dependant variable, was not found to be significant. These results are surprising given the support in the literature that theatre-events have been afforded in forming attitudes towards host destinations. It may be that attendance at the theatre-event reinforced attitudes towards the host destination and that respondents did not view this a change in their attitudes. It may also be that the single item measure that was used in this study was too simplistic for this concept and that, indeed, a multi-item construct may be what is required to measure this concept adequately. Given these results, however, the post-consumption stage of the model was modified, by omitting this concept. The revised section of the model, which includes significant relationships ( $p < .05$ ) and specifies the beta coefficients and percentage of the variance explained by the independent variables, is presented in Figure 26.

**Figure 26: Revised post-attendance stage of the model**



## 7.4 Section three: relationships amongst attendees

In Section 5.6, a series of research questions was posed pertaining to relationships amongst theatre-event attendees, based on the variables of interest in this study.

Three research questions were posed for this component of the study, namely:

*Is it possible to gain meaningful segments of special event attendees based on their personal values? Do demographic characteristics assist in profiling special event attendees? If attendees can be meaningfully segmented based on their personal values, do patterns emerge in their satisfaction responses and behavioural intentions?*

This next stage of the data analysis was aimed at developing responses to these research questions. In the first instance, the data were analysed to answer the research question, *is it possible to gain meaningful segments of theatre-event attendees based on their personal values?* The results of the data analysis, which assisted in developing a response to this research question, are presented and discussed in Section 7.4.1. As it was found that it was possible to gain meaningful segments of theatre-event attendees based on their personal values, further analysis was undertaken which assisted in providing responses to the subsequent research

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questions, posed in Section 7.3 of this thesis. The results of these analyses and a discussion of the results are presented in Sections 7.4.2 to 7.4.5.

### **7.4.1 Cluster analysis of the sample using personal values data**

In order to identify if meaningful segments of the sample could be identified based on the personal values data, cluster analysis was used. In this section, the approach used to segment the sample based on personal values is described. The results of this analysis are then reported and discussed.

**General approach.** A two-step approach to segmenting the sample, employing cluster analysis, was used whereby a hierarchical cluster analysis was first conducted and then a K-means, or quick cluster analysis, was performed. This approach has been used successfully where cluster analysis has been employed [See, for example, Singh (1995) and Fredline (2000)].

The purpose of the first step of the approach, the hierarchical cluster analysis, is to explore the data in order to identify the most appropriate profile and number of clusters to be used for a K-means cluster analysis. No single cluster solution is correct and another incorrect, however, the initial hierarchical cluster solution selected for the K-means cluster analysis should be based on a sound theoretical argument rather than chosen arbitrarily (Fredline and Faulkner, 2000a).

**Data distribution.** It has already been mentioned that the personal values data were negatively skewed. This problem in the personal values data was addressed in the same manner as the problem was resolved for the satisfaction data, namely, by using Blom's (1958) algorithm to transform the data. Whilst this action addressed the

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mathematical problems with the personal values data, it also promoted consistency in terms of the transformations that were applied to the key variables of interest in this study.

**Discriminating variate.** Earlier in this thesis, it was identified that the summated scales of the interpreted personal value domains (factors) were appropriate for subsequent analysis of the personal values data. Hence, the three summated scales of the three personal value domains were used as the discriminating variate for this study.

**Detection of outliers.** The cluster analysis either partitions or agglomerates objects (respondents in this analysis) into homogenous groups and, as such, outliers have the potential of distorting the data and the results. Mahalanobis  $D^2$  is a measure in a multidimensional space of the distance of each observation from the mean centre of the observations (Hair *et al.*, 1995). The statistic is a measure of statistical significance and assists in detecting outliers in a regression analysis.

In order to detect outliers in the sample based on personal value domains, the three summated scales of the personal value domains were used as independent variables in a regression analysis on overall satisfaction with the theatre-event. It was thought that this was an appropriate model in which outliers, in relation to their personal value domains, could be detected for this study. The critical (chi-square) value for Mahalanobis  $D^2$  was 7.8157 ( $p < 0.001$ ). Based on this critical value, seven outliers were identified in the sample, which could have been eliminated by default from the study. It was decided, however, based on the Mahalanobis  $D^2$  for these cases, that the extent to which these cases were outliers was not excessive and that their retention in the sample would not impact the results substantially. The impact of their

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inclusion in the sample was monitored during the clustering process by evaluating the number of cases in each of the clusters. If, for example, a number of clusters comprised only a few cases, it was likely that these were outliers that should indeed be deleted from the sample.

**Hierarchical cluster analysis.** In Chapter Six, the research methodology indicated that not all the respondents were asked questions in relation to their personal values. As such, the sample size for this part of the study was 354. As the summated scores for the derived factors were used as the cluster variate, there were no missing responses in the data, which can be an issue in this stage of the methodological approach.

Solutions consisting of two to eight clusters were developed and assessed using the centroids scores, or means, for each of personal value domains, the number of respondents in each of the clusters, and the proximity distances of the clusters from each other, as the criteria for assessment. Further to this, the way in which the clusters were 'spawned', that is how they were formed from other clusters, was used to assess subsequent cluster solutions. Choosing an initial cluster solution from the hierarchical cluster analysis for the K-means analysis required a balance between these criteria. The approach used by Naylor and Bardi Keliser (2002), where the chosen solution was the most reasonable and distinctive of all the solutions, was also used in this study.

In terms of the five-cluster cluster solution, two of the five clusters appeared to be polarised on all three personal value domains, whilst the other three clusters demonstrated high ratings on particular personal value domains. The number of respondents in each of the clusters was also acceptable as each cluster consisted of

a reasonable number of respondents, although it was likely that these would alter for the subsequent K-means cluster analysis. It is tempting to describe, in more detail the profile of clusters derived from the hierarchical clustering procedure, however, these results are exploratory and the results of the subsequent K-means cluster analysis are of priority. At this stage of the analysis, the five-cluster solution appeared to provide adequate interpretative ability that would assist the researcher to provide a response to the research question posed in this section of the thesis.

**K-means cluster solution.** The subsequent K-means cluster analysis produced a classification of 354 cases into one of five clusters. The mean scores for each of summated scales of the personal value domains, the mean distance of the cases from the centroids for each of the clusters and the number of cases in each of the clusters are presented in Table 34. The average of the personal value domain scores for each of the clusters is also presented in Table 34, which provides a crude indicator of the relative ‘intensity’ of the attitudes towards the personal value domains reported by members of the cluster. The maximum score for each of the summated scales is also presented in the final column of the table as a point of reference for the reader.

**Table 34: Final K-mean scores and mean distance of the cases from the centroid for the five-cluster solution**

Mean	Cluster One n=75	Cluster Two n=55	Cluster Three n=52	Cluster Four n=72	Cluster Five n=100	Max. score on the scale
Extrinsic personal value domain	123.8	140.2	124.3	230.5	230.2	281.4
Hedonistic personal value domain	84.3	232.9	170.4	116.9	267.5	296.0
Intrinsic personal value domain	95.4	81.2	242.9	203.2	240.3	299.8
Distance from cluster centre (centroid)	79.2	76.6	75.1	79.9	72.8	
Average personal value domain scores	101.2	151.4	179.2	183.5	246.0	292.4



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The summated scales reflect the original ratings of the individual personal values as a composite score and general observations of the results, presented in Table 34, highlight that the summated scales for each of the personal value domains were the lowest for Cluster One and the highest for Cluster Five. The results in Table 34 also highlight that members of Cluster Two rated the Intrinsic personal value domain the lowest of all the clusters, whilst rating the Hedonistic personal value domain relatively high (232.9 on a maximum scale of 296.0). In comparison, Cluster Four rated the Hedonistic personal value domain relatively low (116.9 on a maximum scale of 296.0), but rated the Extrinsic personal value domain the highest of the five clusters. Cluster Three rated the Intrinsic personal value domain the highest of the three personal value domains here.

In terms of the mean distances from the centroids for each of the clusters, the results in Table 34 highlight that they ranged between 72.8 to 79.9. These results indicate that respondents in each of the clusters are in a similarly sized 'space'. This result should be considered, however, in conjunction with the number of respondents in each of the clusters. For example, although the mean distances from the centroids are similar to each other for all the clusters, there is almost double the number of respondents in Cluster Five than there is in Cluster Two or Cluster Three. This result indicates that Cluster One and Cluster Four both contain a similar number of respondents and that they are similarly dispersed in the cluster spaces. Based on this interpretation of the results, in comparative terms, Cluster Five has the highest level of homogeneity, Clusters One and Four have a moderate level of homogeneity; and Clusters Two and Three have the lowest level of homogeneity of the five clusters.

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Another measure provided in Table 34 is the average of the scores for each of the personal value domains for each of the clusters. This is a crude indicator of the average level of importance that each of the clusters placed on the personal value domains that were used in this study. As can be gleaned from these scores, Cluster One overall placed the least importance on the personal value domains and, overall, Cluster Five placed the most importance on the three personal value domains of the five clusters.

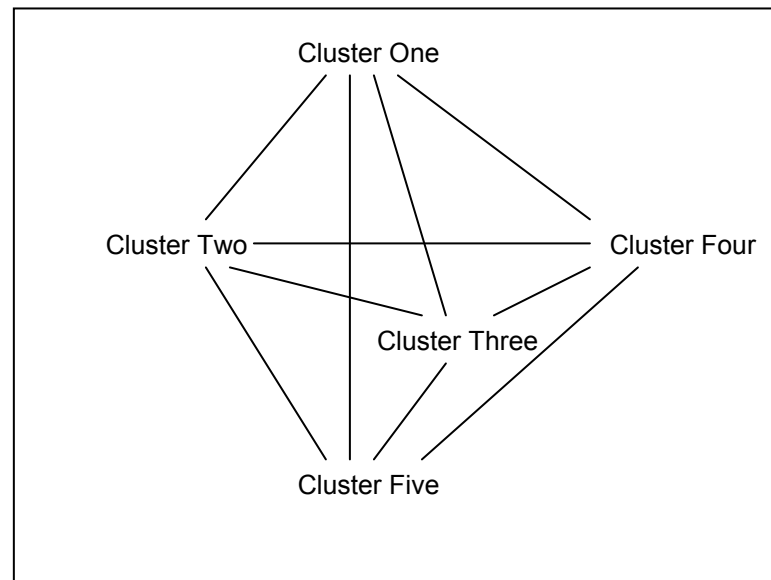
Distance measures, or measurements of the proximity of all the clusters to each other, are another statistic that can be used to interpret cluster solutions. These measures provide an indication of the level of heterogeneity between the derived clusters. In a discussion on distance measures for cluster analysis, Hair *et al.* (1995) indicated that it is sometimes difficult to determine the most appropriate measure of distance that should be used between clusters. As Ward's method was used for this cluster analysis, the squared Euclidean distance needs to be used as the measure of distance between the clusters. The distance between the clusters assists the researcher to identify the proximity of each of the clusters to all the other clusters. Some measures of distance are standardised, but in this study the non-standardised measures have been used. Interpreting measures of distances using non-standardised measures is a little more difficult than if standardised measures are used, but the results here are highly interpretable. The results are presented for the five clusters in Table 35.

**Table 35: Distances between final cluster centers (squared Euclidean distances)**

Cluster	One	Two	Three	Four
One				
Two	150.2			
Three	170.8	174.0		
Four	155.1	191.0	125.4	
Five	256.7	186.1	143.8	155.2

Figure 27 presents this information visually. It should be noted that Figure 27 is not to scale and was developed to assist the researcher to ‘visualise’ how the clusters were ‘positioned’ in relation to each other.

**Figure 27: Approximation of the proximity of the clusters, based on the squared Euclidean distances**



As can be seen in Table 35 and from Figure 27, Clusters One and Five are the ‘farthest’ away from each other. Cluster Five, however, is similarly ‘close’ to Clusters Two and Four. Clusters Two and Four are reasonably apart from each other. Cluster Three is positioned in ‘between’ Clusters Four and Five. This information, when combined with each of the clusters’ profiles, based on the cluster variate, provided the researcher with more information upon which to assess the usefulness of the segmentation process.

**Descriptions of the clusters (segments) using the cluster variate and proximity measures.** Members of Cluster One (75 respondents) do not place very much importance on the three personal value domains used in this study. Having a good time, obtaining a sense of achievement and having meaningful relationships are not

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very important goals for members of this cluster. They do, however, place slightly more importance on their 'connectedness' with others, but only marginally so. In this study, members of this cluster are described as the 'Drifters', as they are relatively aimless in terms of the personal value domains measured here.

Members of Cluster One are quite the opposite of members of Cluster Five. This is evidenced in the levels of importance they each placed on each of the personal domains and the squared Euclidean distance between the Cluster One and Cluster Five. Cluster Five (100 respondents) is the largest cluster, in terms of the numbers of respondents it contains. Cluster Five is also the most densely 'populated' of the five derived clusters, which indicated that the cluster is the most homogenous of the five clusters. Members of this cluster place a high level of importance on all the personal value domains used for this study. Generally, members of this cluster want to have positive experiences in their lives by having meaningful relationships, fun, and a sense of achievement. These goals are almost equally important to them and the level of importance they place on them is intense. In this study, members of this cluster are described as the 'Dynamos'.

Cluster Four (72 respondents) is moderately homogenous. Members of Cluster Four are not so concerned with having fun times in their lives as they are about having meaningful relationships. Members of this cluster also want a sense of achievement. Based on these attributes, members of Cluster Four are possibly quite serious in nature. In this study, members of this cluster are described as the 'Temperate Networkers', where the term 'Temperate' refers to the 'reserved' and controlled characteristics of the members of this cluster. The term, 'Networkers' refers to the way in which members of this cluster are likely to actively connect with their friends, relatives and colleagues, professionally and socially. There are some similarities

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between the members of Clusters Four and Three (52 respondents) and this perception is supported by the close proximity of the two clusters in the Euclidean space. Cluster Three is more homogenous than Cluster Four, as a result of the number of members it contains. In terms of the cluster variate, members of Cluster Three place emphasis on gaining a sense of achievement in their lives and life has got to be interesting for them. Members of Cluster Three are not, however, overly concerned with building relationships. They possibly harness opportunities without consideration for their relationships and networks and seek novelty in their lives. They are self-focussed and are self-gratifying. In this study, they are described as the 'Playful Achievers'.

The final cluster to be described is Cluster Two (55 respondents). Of all the clusters, this is possibly the simplest in its interpretation. Members of this cluster are heavily biased towards having fun and enjoyment and excitement in their lives. They are not, however, overly concerned with having meaningful relationships and are even less predisposed to gaining a sense achievement in their lives. The term, 'live for today', comes to mind when describing this cluster. In this study, Cluster Two is described as the 'Hedonists'.

**Discussion.** In providing a response to the research question posed here, the five clusters appeared to be sufficiently different from each other, whilst at the same time being sufficiently internally homogenous. The derived clusters also demonstrated levels of homogeneity that indicated that the members of the clusters were appropriately classified in the clusters. By considering the profiles of the clusters, based on the cluster variate, and the proximity of the clusters to each other, information was gained about the sample that would not have been obtained had the

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sample not been segmented. Thus, from a statistical perspective, the sample was meaningfully segmented based on the personal values data.

As has been mentioned, however, cluster solutions are subjective, relying on the researcher's interpretation of the results. As such, it is important to identify whether the derived cluster solution provided information about the sample that was useful for the study based on its practicality. The profiles of the clusters, based on the cluster variate, provided an indication of the derived cluster solution's practicality.

In the first instance, the dichotomy between the Drifters and the Dynamos is practical for this study. These two clusters demonstrated distinguishable differences from each other in that members of the clusters demonstrated low or high importance ratings of the cluster variate. This was one of the reasons as to why the researcher felt that the derived cluster solution would be one that was practical for this study.

In the second instance, the 'isolation' of the Hedonists was also thought to be practical for this study. The isolation of this segment, which was quite different from the other clusters in terms of the importance that they placed on this personal value domain and the lack of importance that they placed on the other two personal value domains, would later provide an opportunity to investigate the segment. Finally, it was also thought that the subtle, but distinguishable differences between the Hedonists and the Drifters and the Dynamos, Temperate Networkers and Playful Achievers would also provide opportunities to contrast and compare the segments more fully.

Another factor that prompted the researcher to consider the five cluster solution was the fact that three of the five clusters (Temperate Networkers, Playful Achievers and

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the Dynamos) placed considerable levels of importance on the Intrinsic personal value domain. Within the context of tourism in Victoria, the state in which *Mamma Mia!* was held, three major target markets for the State Tourism Organisation are those that place considerable emphasis on achievement in their lifestyles. These segments are referred to as the *Visible Achievers*, *Look at Me's* and *Socially Aware* segments. These segments are extremely important in Tourism Victoria's Strategic Business Plan. Hence, it was thought that it would be useful if the selected cluster solution includes clusters that are comparable to the market segments that Tourism Victoria is aiming to attract.

Thus, on the basis of this discussion regarding the practicality of the derived cluster solution and its statistical attributes, it was considered that the derived cluster solution was meaningful for this study. The thesis will now discuss the results of data analysis that assisted in developing responses to the remaining research questions that were posed for this study.

#### **7.4.2 Segments and demographics**

The research question posed for this section of the thesis was, *do demographic characteristics assist in describing the derived segments?* The variables used to assist in developing a response to this question were gender, age and income, as the literature indicated that these variables may have some impact on espoused personal value systems. Cross-tabulations and chi-square analysis were used as the method of analysis to compare the age, gender and annual household income of the members of the segments.

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The results, which are presented in Table 36, indicated that there were no statistically significant differences between the five segments based on gender ( $\chi^2_{(4)}=5.5$ ,  $p>.05$ ) and annual household income ( $\chi^2_{(12)}=20$ ,  $p>.05$ ) . In comparison, chi-square analysis indicated that there were statistically significant differences on age between the five segments based on ( $\chi^2_{(12)}=32.5$ ,  $p<.05$ ).

**Table 36: Demographic chi-square analysis**

Variable	Result
Age	Chi square=32.5, df=12, $p<.05$
Annual household income	Chi square=(20) =13.0, $p>.05$
<b>Gender</b>	Chi square=5.5, df=4, $p>.05$

Table 37 presents the results of the cross-tabulation of the segments and age. The standardised residual for each cell is also presented in this table. In the instance of this statistic being greater than  $\pm 1.96$ , it is the contents of this cell that is then considered to contribute significantly to the relationship (Hinkle, Wiersma and Jurs, 1994). Hence, in this cross-tabulation between the segments and age, the Hedonists comprised a larger proportion of younger members (25-44 years) and the Temperate Networkers comprised a larger proportion of middle-aged (45-64 years) members and a smaller proportion of those aged 24-44 years, than what was expected based on chi-square analysis. Although not contributing significantly to the relationship, it is noticeable that one Hedonist was in the 65 years plus age group, when chi-square analysis indicated that this figure should have been over five times as high as this.



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**Table 37: Statistically significant between the segments and age**

Age (years)		Segments					Total
		Drifters	Hedonists	Playful Achievers	Temperate Networkers	Dynamos	
16-24	Count	4	6	6	2	7	25
	Expected Count	5.3	3.9	3.7	5.1	7.1	
	Std. Residual	-.6	1.1	1.2	-1.4	.0	
25-44	Count	31	33	20	16	48	148
	Expected Count	31.4	23.0	21.7	30.1	41.8	
	Std. Residual	-.1	<b>2.1</b>	-.4	<b>-2.6</b>	1.0	
45-64	Count	32	15	22	43	35	147
	Expected Count	31.1	22.8	21.6	29.9	41.5	
	Std. Residual	.2	-1.6	.1	<b>2.4</b>	-1.0	
65 plus	Count	8	1	4	11	10	34
	Expected Count	7.2	5.3	5.0	6.9	9.6	
	Std. Residual	.3	-1.9	-.4	1.6	.1	
Total	Count	75	55	52	72	100	354

**Discussion.** On a broad level, the results are supported by the notion that the ‘shifts’ in the personal value systems of societies over time, which were discussed in Chapter Five of this thesis, are related to age. The members of the segment in the 25-44 years age group represent Generation X, or those born between 1965 and 1976 (Kotler, Bowen and Makens, 2003). Although members of Generation X represent a much smaller proportion of the population than do members of the ‘baby boomers’ segment, it is thought that their values are having an impact on societal values and the results here may be attributable to this phenomenon.

Overall, however, the demographics measured here (age, gender and income) did not provide greater descriptive power for the derived personal value segments than would have been the case had the sample not been segmented. This result may be attributable to the demographics used in this study, but it is more likely to be attributed to the high level of homogeneity of the entire sample in relation to its demographics. This characteristic of the sample was discussed in earlier sections of this chapter. It is likely that this attribute impacted more substantially on the

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descriptive power of demographics in relation to the segments, rather than any inadequacies of the derived cluster solution.

There were, however, statistically significant differences across the derived segments based on age. This is useful information for marketers of theatre-events and highlights the importance of understanding the underlying values of various age segments. Hedonists are often searching for new and exciting goods and services to satisfy their underlying pleasure-seeking values and there was a larger proportion of Hedonists in the 25-44 years age group. It may prudent of marketers of theatre-events to accentuate the pleasurable opportunities that this age group can enjoy whilst attending theatre-events of this type. By highlighting the unique opportunities that different theatre-events offer Hedonists for pleasurable experiences, loyalty to theatre-event attendance, more generally, may then increase. In terms of the sustainability of theatre-events, this is an important age group to build, and secure, as a core market for theatre-events. Tourism Victoria appears to be mindful of the importance of this age segment in operationalising its tourism strategy. The results obtained here provide some validation for the longitudinal research Tourism Victoria has commissioned on its market segments that are based on lifestyles.

### **7.4.3 Segments and satisfaction**

The research question posed for this section of the thesis was, *do patterns emerge in relation to the satisfaction responses of the derived personal value segments?* The variables used to assist in developing a response to this question were the attribute satisfaction variables, overall satisfaction with the theatre-event and overall satisfaction with the host destination. ANOVA tests were used as the method of analysis to assist in providing a response to the research question posed here.

**Attribute satisfaction.** Table 38 presents the results of the ANOVA tests using the segments as the independent variable and each of the satisfaction variables as the dependent variables. Table 38 orders the segments based on their increasing levels of satisfaction for each of attributes of the theatre-event. As can be seen from Table 38, no statistically significant differences ( $p > .05$ ) were identified between the clusters based on their satisfaction with the vision from the seats, but statistically significant differences ( $p < .05$ ) were identified between the clusters in terms of the other seven attribute satisfaction variables measured here.

**Table 38: Results of the ANOVA tests - segments and attribute satisfaction**

Satisfaction with the...	Sig.	F Statistic df=4	<div> <div>Lowest</div> <div>Level of satisfaction</div> <div>Highest</div> </div>				
Storyline	.000	5.937	Drifters	Hedonists	Playful Achievers	Temperate Networkers	Dynamos
Stagework	.003	4.087	Drifters	Playful Achievers	Hedonists	Temperate Networkers	Dynamos
Costumes	.003	4.117	Drifters	Playful Achievers	Hedonists	Temperate Networkers	Dynamos
Acting and singing	.005	3.823	Drifters	Playful Achievers	Hedonists	Temperate Networkers	Dynamos
Ambience of the theatre	.003	4.014	Drifters	Playful Achievers	Hedonists	Temperate Networkers	Dynamos
Service at the theatre	.002	4.452	Drifters	Playful Achievers	Hedonists	Temperate Networkers	Dynamos
Value for money	.007	3.602	Drifters	Playful Achievers	Hedonists	Dynamos	Temperate Networkers
Vision from the seats	.188	1.547	Drifters	Playful Achievers	Hedonists	Temperate Networkers	Dynamos

Tukey post hoc tests were used to identify the trends key differences between the clusters in relation to their satisfaction with the attributes of the theatre-event that were measured here. The post hoc tests indicated that:

- the Drifters were very much less satisfied with the attributes of the theatre-event than were the Dynamos;
- there were statistically significant differences between the Drifters and the Dynamos in relation to each of the attributes of the theatre-event, except for satisfaction with vision from the seats;

- there were statistically significant differences between the Drifters and the Temperate Networkers in relation to their satisfaction with the storyline, stagework, service at the theatre and the value for money. The Temperate Networkers indicated much higher levels of satisfaction with these attributes of the theatre-event than the Drifters;
- the Temperate Networkers also demonstrated a statistically significant difference from the Dynamos based on their levels of satisfaction with the value for money. The Temperate Networkers were more satisfied with this aspect of the theatre-event than were the Dynamos;
- the Hedonists demonstrated a statistically significant difference from the Dynamos based on their levels of satisfaction with the storyline and the theatre and its ambience; and
- the Playful Achievers did not demonstrate any statistically significant differences with any of the other clusters based on their satisfaction with the attributes of the theatre-event measured here.

**Overall satisfaction with the theatre-event and the host destination.** The results of two ANOVA tests did not identify statistically significant differences ( $p > .05$ ) between the segments based on their levels of satisfaction with the theatre-event overall or the host destination. These results are presented in Table 39.

**Table 39: Results of ANOVA tests - segments and overall satisfaction with the theatre-event and the host destination**

Satisfaction with the...	Sig.	<i>F</i> Statistic df=4	Level of satisfaction				
			Lowest				Highest
theatre-event overall	0.130	3.202	Drifters	Playful Achievers	Hedonists	Temperate Networkers	Dynamos
host destination	0.321	1.183	Drifters	Playful Achievers	Dynamos	Hedonists	Temperate Networkers

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**Discussion.** The results here indicate that there are statistically significant differences across the segments in terms of attribute satisfaction and that each of the segments demonstrated fairly consistent responses along the satisfaction continuum in regard to the attributes of the theatre-event. The Drifters were most often the least satisfied of the segments and the Dynamos most often the most satisfied of the segments. The Playful Achievers, Hedonists and Temperate Networkers were generally 'placed' between the Drifters and the Dynamos on the satisfaction continuum. These results appear to provide convergent validity for the derived segment solution, which was based on the personal value domains. These results are also consistent with the way in which the segments were juxtaposed in relation to each other as presented in Figure 27.

The statistically significant differences between the Drifters and the Dynamos and the Drifters and the Temperate Networkers appear to be attributable to the different levels of importance they placed on the Extrinsic personal value domain. These results indicate that the extrinsic personal value domain is an important factor in the formation of satisfaction responses in this context. At the outset of this research, it was thought that the hedonistic personal value domain was going to play a dominant role in the personal value systems of the attendees at theatre-events and that this would impact on satisfaction. The results, however, indicate that this was not the case.

Despite the fact that the differences between the segments, based on their overall satisfaction with the theatre-event were not found to be significant, the patterns in the responses were consistent with the patterns in the responses in regard to attribute satisfaction. This result highlights the homogeneity of the sample at the aggregated level, but further highlights how gaining information on attribute satisfaction can

provide insights into the sample that would have been masked at the aggregated level. It appears that although satisfaction with the theatre-event overall cannot be explained by the personal value segments, personal value segments are important in how attendees of theatre-events focus on various attributes of the theatre-events.

The patterns in the differences between the segments based on their levels of overall satisfaction with the host destination diverge from what was identified in regard to theatre-event attribute satisfaction and overall satisfaction with the theatre-event. This difference is possibly a function of the complexity of host destinations. If satisfaction with the attributes of the host destination had been measured in this study, perhaps patterns in these responses may have been similar to those obtained in relation to theatre-event attribute satisfaction and overall satisfaction with the theatre-event.

#### 7.4.4 Segments and behavioural intentions

The research question posed for this section of the thesis was, *do patterns emerge in relation to the behavioural intentions of the derived segments?* The variables used to assist in developing a response to this question were intentions to recommend the theatre-event and intentions to recommend the host destination.

**Table 40: Results of the ANOVA tests - segments and behavioral intentions**

Intentions to.....	Sig.	F Statistic Df =4	<div> <div>Lowest</div> <div>Level of satisfaction</div> <div>Highest</div> </div>				
			Drifters	Playful Achievers	Hedonists	Temperate Networkers	Dynamos
recommend the theatre-event	.166	1.633	Drifters	Playful Achievers	Hedonists	Temperate Networkers	Dynamos
recommend the host destination	.013	3.273	Drifters	Hedonists	Playful Achievers	Temperate Networkers	Dynamos

Statistically significant differences ( $p < .05$ ) were identified between the segments based on their intentions recommend the host destination to others, but not in

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relation to their intentions to recommend the theatre-event to others ( $p > .05$ ). These results are presented in Table 40. In terms of intentions to re-attend the theatre-event, statistically significant differences ( $p < .05$ ) were identified between the Dynamos and the Drifters, Hedonists and Playful Achievers. Tukey's post hoc test further indicated that the Dynamos and the Temperate Networkers were a homogenous subset of the sample. In terms of intentions to recommend the host destination, statistically significant differences ( $p < .05$ ) were identified between the Drifters and the Dynamos.

**Discussion.** It is interesting to note that the patterns in the responses for the derived segments that were quite similar for both intentions to recommend the theatre-event and the host destination. This is despite the fact that the results indicated differences between the derived segments were not statistically significant in relation to the intentions to recommend the theatre-event. The position of each of the derived segments clearly emerges in the matrix and highlights that there is a reasonably consistent pattern in the results for each of the segments. The Drifters and the Dynamos are placed at the extremes of the satisfaction continuum; the levels of satisfaction that members of these two segments reported are a reflection of the strength of the importance that they placed on the personal value domains. The Temperate Networkers who placed considerable importance on two of the three personal value domains used here, were similarly positioned on the continuum in relation to the Drifters and the Dynamos. The deviation in the patterns that emerged in both intentions to recommend the theatre-event and the host destination, involved both the Hedonists and the Playful Achievers. Thus, in response to the research question posed here, patterns emerged in relation to intentions to recommend both the theatre-event and the host destination of the derived segments.

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#### 7.4.5 Segments: satisfaction with host destination and changes in attitudes towards the host destination

The research question posed for this section of the thesis was, *do patterns emerge between the reasons for satisfaction with the host destination and the reasons provided for changes in attitudes towards the host destination, based on personal value segments?* This question was posed to assist in understanding whether there is a connection between personal values, satisfaction and attitude change within the context of attendance at theatre-events. The variables used to assist in developing a response to this research question were the personal values segments; the open-ended responses in relation to respondents' satisfaction with the host destination; and the open-ended responses as to why respondents' attitudes towards the host destination had changed as a result of their attendance at the theatre-event.

The open-ended questions were:

- *Why did you rate your satisfaction with Melbourne as a tourist destination like that?*
- *Why did your attitude towards Melbourne as a tourist destination change?*

**Data analysis.** The open-ended responses provided by the members of each of the five personal value segments for each of the aforementioned questions were analysed independently. These data were analysed using a grounded theory approach, which informs the researchers. A grounded theory approach is different from a positivist approach to data analysis where the data analysis is undertaken within a predefined framework (Goulding, 2002). The process used to analyse the open-ended responses was consistent with the ethos of grounded theory, whereby a systematic approach is taken to make the links between qualitative data and formal theory more explicit (Locke, 2001).

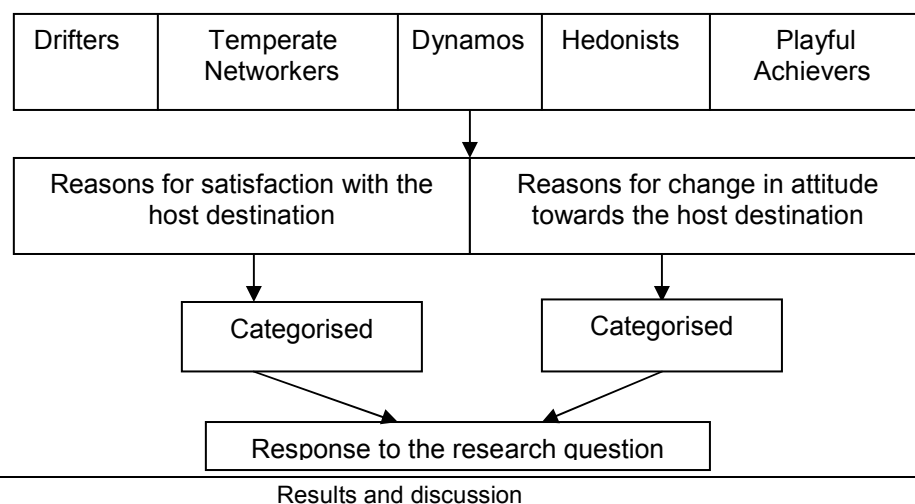


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With the ethos of grounded theory in mind, the system used to analyse the data involved categorising responses to each of the questions based on the key reason(s) that each respondent provided. The same system was used for responses in relation to satisfaction with the host destination and changes in attitude towards the host destination. The categories used to classify the responses were not pre-defined, but emerged from the data. Once a category was used, however, the researcher used it again, where appropriate, so that any themes in the data could be later identified. This approach to categorising the data was used to enhance the objectivity the data analysis. The researcher used Microsoft Excel to tally the responses in the categories as this was deemed to be an effective and efficient tool to use for this purpose.

As already mentioned, the analysis was undertaken independently for both variables (reason for satisfaction with the host destination and reason for change in attitude towards the host destination). The results of these analyses were then assessed to identify whether consistencies in the responses were evident. This assessment assisted the researcher in providing a response to the research question that was posed for this section of the thesis. Figure 28 provides a summary of the process of analysis that was used for this section of the study.

**Figure 28: Process of analysing open-ended responses**



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This section of the thesis proceeds by separately reporting and discussing the results of the analysis of the data obtained from the two open-ended questions. Following this, an overall summary and discussion of the results is provided so that a response to the research can be provided.

**Results: satisfaction with the host destination.** The categories that emerged most frequently in the responses relating to overall satisfaction with the host destination, and what they represented included:

- *Access*, or how easy it was to get to, and around, the host destination;
- *Attractions*, or restaurants, cafés, other events, tourist attractions in the host destination;
- *Enjoyment*, or the enjoyment that the experience in the host destination provided respondents;
- *Novelty*, or how different the host destination was compared to what the respondents were used to;
- *People*, or the interactions and observations of other people within the host destination;
- *Security*, or how safe the respondents felt in the host destination;
- *Surprise*, or how aspects of the destination were not as expected;
- *Theatre-event*, or specific references to the theatre-event that respondents attended; and
- *Variety*, or the range of activities that could be participated in within the host destination.

Many of these categories seem to dovetail into Dickman's (1999) approach to assessing tourism potential by using the 5A's, namely, Attractions, Accommodation, Activities, Access and Amenities.

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Table 41 presents the results of the analysis of the open-ended responses in relation to satisfaction with the host destination and these are presented in matrix format. Information gained in previous parts of the study were used to develop the axes of the matrix. For example, in Section 7.4.3 it was identified that the Drifters were the least satisfied of the segments with the host destination and the Temperate Networkers were the most satisfied of the segments with the host destination. Thus, the vertical axis in Table 41 uses this information and orders the personal value segments in terms of their satisfaction with the host destination.

The horizontal axis in Table 41 indicates the frequency that respondents referred to the categories. If a category is placed at the left hand side of the matrix, the category was referred to more frequently than if the category is placed at the right hand side of the matrix.

The use of the matrix approach allowed the researcher to identify those concepts that each of the segments prioritised when considering what they considered when rating their satisfaction with the host destination. For example, responses that were categorised as *Attractions*, frequently emerged in the responses provided by Temperate Networkers, but *Attractions* emerged less often in the responses provided by the Drifters.

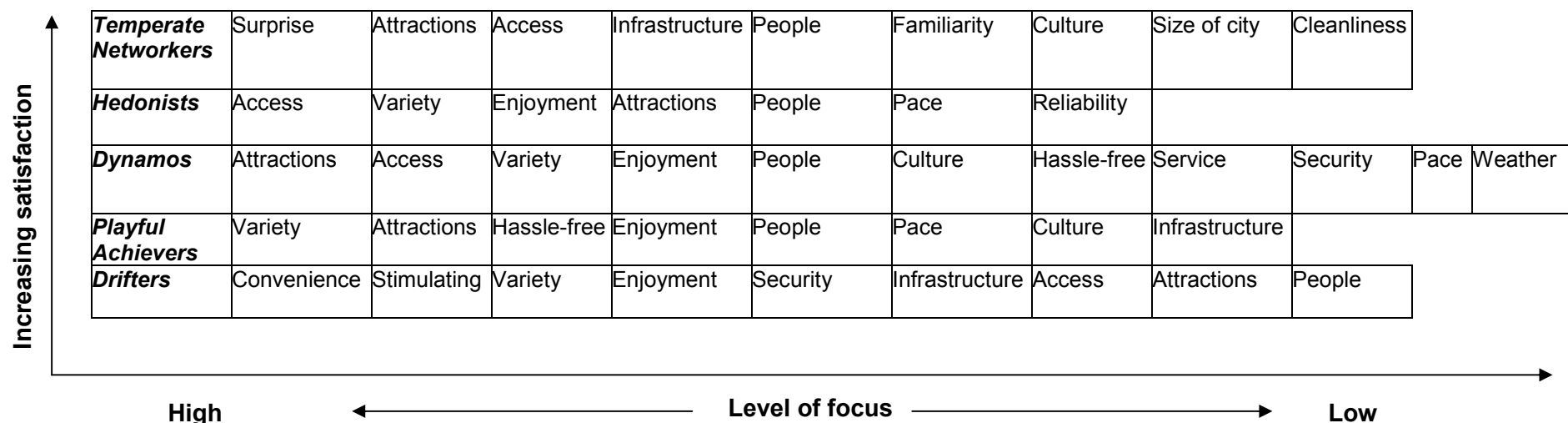


Table 41: Reasons for satisfaction with the host destination – personal values and focus

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**Discussion of these results.** As can be seen from Table 41, the extent to which each of the categories emerged in the responses in relation to satisfaction with the host destination for each of the personal values segments varied. Each of the personal value segments, except for the Drifters, placed a moderate to strong focus on *Attractions* when they considered their satisfaction rating of the host destination. *Variety*, or the number of activities that were available in the host destination, featured strongly in the responses of the Hedonists, Dynamos, Playful Achievers and the Drifters. *Access*, or the ease of getting to and around the host destination, featured strongly in the responses provided by the Temperate Networkers, Hedonists and the Dynamos, but this aspect of the host destination did not feature strongly in the responses provided by the Drifters and not at all in the responses provided by the Playful Achievers.

Table 41 also highlights that the Temperate Networkers, Hedonists, Dynamos and Playful Achievers referred to similar concepts, and to similar extents, when they indicated their reasons as to why they rated the host destination as they had done. *Attractions*, *Access* and *Variety* were those concepts that emerged as generally being most important for these four segments when they considered their reasons for their level of satisfaction with the host destination. These three concepts were often intertwined in the responses. This indicated that these aspects of the host destination were perhaps part of a 'bundle' of concepts that were used as a point of reference when satisfaction with the host destination was considered by these segments. Examples of responses that epitomised the thoughts of respondents in these segments, include:

- *I think that Melbourne offers culture and diversity in entertainment and has easy access to things* (Hedonist); and

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- *Melbourne has different attractions. Shopping is good, good cafés, nice buildings, easy to get around* (Playful Achiever).

In contrast to the other four segments, the Drifters, who placed the least amount of importance on each of the personal value domains measured in this study, indicated that *Access* and *Attractions* were not very important for them when considering why they rated their satisfaction with the host destination as they had done. *Convenience* and *Stimulation* were the two concepts that were most frequently referred to by the Drifters. One Drifter indicated that he *'liked its transport. It is easy. It is convenient because there are so many locations to visit'*. Another Drifter referred to the vitality of Melbourne, stating that there is *'a good atmosphere in Melbourne and that it is alive'*.

The analysis of the data indicated a level of homogeneity between four of the five segments, namely, the Temperate Networkers, Hedonists, Dynamos and the Playful Achievers in relation to the term, *'People'*. In this analysis, *People* was used to categorise statements that referred to the quality of the interpersonal contacts respondents had with others. The Dynamos and the Temperate Networkers placed similarly high levels of importance on the Extrinsic personal value domain, whereas the Hedonists and the Playful Achievers did not. This result is somewhat confounding. In saying this, however, the responses do provide insights into the importance that was placed on the interpersonal interaction in the host destination. One Temperate Networker, for example, indicated that she rated her satisfaction with the host destination as she had because *'of Melbourne's friendliness; the people were very helpful'*. Another respondent, who was classified as a Hedonist indicated that the *'staff at our accommodation were nice. Lots of nice people make you feel welcome'*.

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**Changes in attitude towards the host destination.** As has already been mentioned, the approach to analysing the data obtained from this open-ended variable was the same as that used for the data obtained for the open-ended variable in relation to satisfaction with the host destination. After a preliminary assessment of the results, it was decided that a matrix format, using the same axes in Table 41, was also an appropriate framework in which to present the results that were obtained via the analysis of these open-ended responses.

Table 42 presents the results of the analysis of the open-ended responses in relation to the reasons for changes in attitudes towards the host destination. The consistent style in the presentation of the results provided opportunities to later compare and contrast the results of these analyses. It was thought this would also assist in developing a response to the research question posed for this section of the thesis.

The categories that emerged most frequently in the responses detailing the reasons for the changes in attitude towards the host destination, and what they represented included:

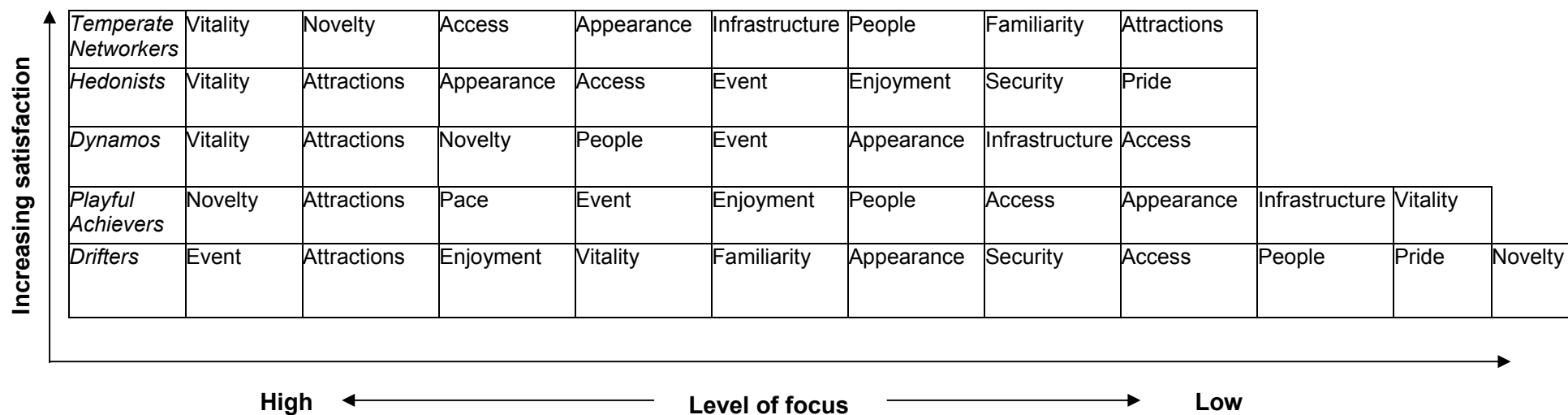
- *Vitality*, or the impression that the host destination was 'alive';
- *Novelty*, or how different the host destination was compared to what the respondents were used to;
- *Theatre-event*, or specific references to the theatre-event that respondents attended; and
- *Attractions*, or restaurants, cafés, other events, tourist attractions in the host destination; and
- *Appearance*, or the image of the host destination.

Fewer categories emerged in these responses than what emerged in the responses in relation into satisfaction with the destination. This is likely a direct result of the

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number of respondents who were required to answer the question in relation to changes in attitudes towards the host destination (n=120), compared to the number of respondents who were required to state why they rated their satisfaction with the host destination was they had done (n=321).





**Table 42: Reasons for changes in attitude towards the host destination – personal values and focus**

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**Discussion of these results.** From Table 42, it is noticeable that the Drifters and the Playful Achievers referred, less often, to the *Vitality* of the destination as a reason for their changes in attitudes towards the host destination, than did the Temperate Networkers, Hedonists or the Dynamos. These results are surprising, given the personal value profiles of the segments. The results may have been more intuitively appealing had the Hedonists, Playful Achievers and Dynamos, for example, been more similar in terms of this concept when considering their change in attitude towards the host destination. Such a result would have reflected the similarities between these segments based on the level of importance they placed on the personal value domains that emerged in this study. The results obtained here do not support, however, that there is an overriding relationship between the reasons for any changes in attitudes towards the host destination, satisfaction and personal values.

The results indicate that some of the categories that emerged were often associated with other categories; it was sometimes difficult to categorise responses into one particular category. For example, responses that represented *Attractions* were often associated with responses that represented *Access*. One respondent stated that ‘there were more buildings; the roadways, the freeways, the tunnel. The traffic flow was better and it didn’t take us as long to travel in from the country.’ Another respondent stated that he ‘enjoyed going to Melbourne to have dinner. Go to the show and have supper afterwards. Also the parking was excellent’. The connection between *Attractions* and *Access* was quite clear for these respondents.

Responses relating to the category, *People*, were often associated with responses that referred to the *Theatre-event* category. For example, one respondent indicated that his attitude towards the host destination changed for the better because of the

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‘crowds that attended the event and the enjoyment that the people got from it’. Similarly, another respondent indicated that he ‘didn’t think that the event was going to be that good...but the performance was brilliant. The crowd was great’.

In some cases, respondents referred to other destinations and compared their experience at the theatre-event in the host destination to their experience with and thoughts about other destinations. For example, one respondent indicated that the host destination was different to her hometown: that the host destination was ‘faster’ and that the people were ‘different’. This respondent also noted that there were more things to do in the host destination than in her hometown and commented on the number of attractions and events staged in that destination. Another respondent referred to negative attitudes about the host destination in her hometown, but that as a result of her attendance at the theatre-event, her attitude towards the host destination had changed, ‘...all I could see were positives’. The differences noted by some of these respondents were also received positively. Even though the host destination ‘was very different’ to where one respondent came from, he noted that the host destination had a lot to offer and that it had a ‘different feel and atmosphere’ to his hometown. Hence, there seemed to have been a positive connotation associated with the difference that the host destination presented. To some extent, the responses indicated that attendance at the theatre-event enabled respondents to more firmly position the host destination in relation to other destinations with which they were familiar.

**Response to the research question.** The members of each of the segments referred to similar concepts when they considered their reasons for satisfaction with, and change in attitude towards, the host destination. There were differences, however, in the level of focus that each of the segments placed on the concepts. In

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response to the research question, the results obtained here did not identify patterns in the responses across the two variables that provide support for a relationship between personal values, satisfaction and changes in attitudes towards the host destination within the context of theatre-events.

**Summary of results analysis of qualitative data.** The qualitative analysis drew together three concepts in the study, namely, personal values, satisfaction and changes in attitudes. The results of the analysis of the qualitative data provide support for some of the results that were obtained in relation to personal values, satisfaction with the destination and changes in attitude towards the host destination.

Further information was gained about the host destination in terms of what issues were considered when satisfaction with the host destination was being formed and as to why attitudes towards the host destination changed as a result of attendance at the theatre-event. This information was gained by using a grounded theory approach to the analysis of the data. The results indicate that respondents referred to a range of destination attributes and these were very often tangible.

## **7.5 Summary of results of the data analyses**

The results of the quantitative and qualitative analysis of the data will be summarised in this section of the thesis within two contexts. The first of these is within the context of the staging of *Mamma Mia!* in Melbourne and the second is within the context of the hypothesised model that was developed for this study. Following the summarising of the results, a listing of the results of hypotheses testing is provided for the reader. Conclusions drawn from the results of this study will be presented in Chapter Eight.

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### 7.5.1 The case of *Mamma Mia!* in Melbourne

**Demographic profile.** The general demographic profile of respondents of to the survey of attendees at *Mamma Mia!* was, in the majority, female; between 25–64 years of age; resided in households with incomes above AU\$50,000 and within the State of Victoria. Differences were noted in some of the demographic groupings in regard to their levels of satisfaction with the attributes of *Mamma Mia!* and with *Mamma Mia!* overall.

**Satisfaction.** In terms of their satisfaction with *Mamma Mia!*, respondents to the survey were generally highly satisfied with the theatre-event at the attribute level and overall. Indeed, respondents generally reported similar levels of satisfaction with the attributes of *Mamma Mia!* and with *Mamma Mia!* overall. Females were generally more satisfied with *Mamma Mia!* overall and with its attributes, as were those attendees who were in older age groups. It also emerged that respondents to the survey categorised the attributes of the theatre-event that were measured in this study into two dimensions; one was the craft of the theatre-event (e.g. storyline, quality of the acting and the singing) and the other was related to hygiene issues at the theatre-event (service at the theatre, value for money). Satisfaction with the attributes of *Mamma Mia!* that were measured in the study were very strong predictors of overall satisfaction. The predictive ability of satisfaction with the attributes of *Mamma Mia!* outperformed personal values at both the individual and the personal value domain levels.

**Personal values.** Using factor analysis, three personal domains were found to underpin the LOV and these were described as Intrinsic, Extrinsic and Hedonistic. Combined, the three systems of personal values explained a large percentage of the variance. Personal values, as individual personal values or as personal value

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systems (or domains), generally lacked the ability to predict satisfaction and post-consumption judgements and attitudes within this context. Attribute satisfaction and the personal value domains were compared for their ability to predict expectancy disconfirmation, overall satisfaction with *Mamma Mia!* and Melbourne, and intentions to recommend *Mamma Mia!* and Melbourne. Attribute satisfaction was generally found to a better predictor of these concepts than the three personal value domains identified in this study.

The three personal value domains assisted in segmenting respondents into discernable groups on these criteria and five segments were selected as being appropriate for the study. Each of the segments demonstrated differing levels of importance on three systems of personal values. Three of the five segments placed high levels of importance on the Intrinsic, or achievement-oriented personal value system. It was these segments that rated their satisfaction with *Mamma Mia!* the highest of the five segments.

**Satisfaction and personal values.** The satisfaction data were analysed further using the derived personal value segments as the independent variables. Trends emerged in data that could not have otherwise been observed had this process not been undertaken. The segments that reported the highest levels of satisfaction with the attributes of *Mamma Mia!* and with *Mamma Mia!* overall, were those that also placed high levels of importance on the Intrinsic personal value domain. Statistically significant differences, however, were only noted between the different personal value segments in relation to the attributes of the theatre-event, and not to overall satisfaction with *Mamma Mia!*.

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The qualitative analysis assisted in converging some of the results of the quantitative analysis of the data that was undertaken for this study. The analysis indicated that personal values were linked to satisfaction with the attributes of *Mamma Mia!*, however, they were not linked to satisfaction with *Mamma Mia!* overall, with Melbourne as a tourist destination or changes in attitude towards Melbourne.

**Satisfaction with Melbourne as a tourist destination.** In relation to satisfaction with Melbourne as a tourist destination, respondents to the survey were highly satisfied with Melbourne. The personal value segments were used to explore the reasons as to why attendees rated Melbourne as they had done. The results demonstrated that the five personal value segments used a cohesive set of tourist destination attributes as their points of reference when they considered why they were satisfied with Melbourne as a tourist destination. Respondents consistently referred to Melbourne's vitality, access to, and within, Melbourne and tourist attractions, when they considered both the reasons for their satisfaction with Melbourne and why their attitude towards Melbourne had changed.

When the reasons that each of the segments provided for their satisfaction ratings with Melbourne as a tourist destination were analysed, very little difference was identified between the segments. Indeed, reasonably low levels of heterogeneity were identified between the segments in terms of the aspects of Melbourne that they referred to and the extent to which they were referred. The qualitative analysis therefore, provided some indication that Melbourne offered a consistent product across personal value segments. Satisfaction with Melbourne as a tourist destination was measured by referring to a range of attributes including its attractions and infrastructure.

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**Behavioral intentions.** The importance of satisfaction with *Mamma Mia!* and of satisfaction with Melbourne as a tourist destination was demonstrated by their relationships with intentions to recommend attendance at *Mamma Mia!* and visiting Melbourne. Synergies were noted between both satisfaction with *Mamma Mia!* and satisfaction with Melbourne as a tourist destination and recommending behaviour in relation to both *Mamma Mia!* and Melbourne when relationships were identified between these concepts.

**Changes in attitude towards Melbourne.** Almost 15% of the attendees surveyed at *Mamma Mia!*, indicated that their attitude towards Melbourne had improved as a result of their attendance at the theatre-event. Changes in attitude towards Melbourne as a tourist destination, however, were not significantly related to satisfaction with *Mamma Mia!* or with satisfaction with Melbourne as a tourist destination. Indeed, changes in attitude towards Melbourne did impact on intentions to visit Melbourne again in the future.

Some understanding as to the reasons as to why respondents' attitudes towards Melbourne had changed as a result of attending *Mamma Mia!* was gained within the framework of the five personal value segments. Responses were fairly homogenous across the segments. The responses were also somewhat similar to the reasons as to why respondents rated their satisfaction with Melbourne as they had done.

### 7.5.2 Hypothesised model

In the hypothesised model, presented in Figure 14 of the thesis, a hierarchy of related concepts was proposed and this was illustrated by the 'placement' of the concepts in the model. A series of hypotheses tested this aspect of the model whilst also testing the relationships between the concepts in the model. Most of the



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relationships that were hypothesised were supported and the hierarchy of the relationships between the concepts that was discussed in Chapter Five was also generally supported. Some aspects of the model, however, were not supported.

In the pre-attendance stage of the model, demographics were generally found to be associated with satisfaction. When compared to personal values (in the form of the top-ranked personal value), personal values were found to be better predictors of attribute satisfaction than demographics. The concept of personal value domains also out-performed individual personal values and the top- and bottom-ranked personal values in terms of predicting attribute satisfaction.

The model was also focussed on investigating whether the concepts in its pre-attendance stage could be linked with the concepts in its post-attendance stage. An over-arching aspect of this study was testing whether relationships between personal values, satisfaction and attitude can be established. It was thought that these concepts would be related to each other and the relationship would be hierarchical. The concept of attitude change was not significantly related to any of the other concepts included in the model.

Interactions were found between satisfaction, at both the attribute and global levels, and behavioural intentions. Indeed, this aspect of the post-consumption part of the model was well-supported.

As was mentioned earlier in this section, the results of the testing of the hypotheses are provided in Table 43.

**Table 43: Results of the testing of the hypotheses (cont.)**

Hypothesis		Result
There is a difference in relation to satisfaction ratings of special event attributes based on:		
H <sub>1a</sub>	<i>gender</i>	Partially accepted
H <sub>1d</sub>	<i>age</i>	Accepted
H <sub>1g</sub>	<i>income</i>	Partially accepted
H <sub>1j</sub>	<i>area of residence</i>	Partially accepted
There is a difference in relation to satisfaction ratings of special events based on:		
H <sub>1b</sub>	<i>gender</i>	Accepted
H <sub>1e</sub>	<i>age</i>	Accepted
H <sub>1h</sub>	<i>income</i>	Accepted
H <sub>1k</sub>	<i>area of residence</i>	Accepted
There is a difference in relation to satisfaction ratings of host destinations based on:		
H <sub>1c</sub>	<i>gender</i>	Rejected
H <sub>1f</sub>	<i>age</i>	Rejected
H <sub>1i</sub>	<i>income</i>	Rejected
H <sub>1l</sub>	<i>area of residence</i>	Rejected
Those values that are top-ranked from a list of values provide greater predictive power in relation to satisfaction with special events attributes than:		
H <sub>2a</sub>	<i>gender</i>	Partially accepted
H <sub>2d</sub>	<i>age</i>	Partially accepted
H <sub>2g</sub>	<i>income</i>	Partially accepted
H <sub>2j</sub>	<i>area of residence</i>	Accepted
Those values that are top-ranked from a list of values provide greater predictive power in relation to satisfaction ratings with special events than:		
H <sub>2b</sub>	<i>gender</i>	Rejected
H <sub>2e</sub>	<i>age</i>	Accepted
H <sub>2h</sub>	<i>income</i>	Rejected
H <sub>2k</sub>	<i>area of residence</i>	Accepted
Those values that are top-ranked from a list of values provide greater predictive power in relation to satisfaction ratings with host destinations than:		
H <sub>2c</sub>	<i>gender</i>	Accepted
H <sub>2f</sub>	<i>age</i>	Accepted
H <sub>2i</sub>	<i>income</i>	Accepted
H <sub>2l</sub>	<i>area of residence</i>	Accepted

Results and discussion

**Table 43: Results of the testing of the hypotheses (cont.)**

Hypothesis		Result
Those values that are bottom-ranked from a list of values provide greater predictive power in relation to satisfaction with special events attributes than:		
H <sub>2m</sub>	<i>gender</i>	Rejected
H <sub>2p</sub>	<i>age</i>	Rejected
H <sub>2s</sub>	<i>income</i>	Partially accepted
H <sub>2v</sub>	<i>area of residence</i>	Rejected
Those values that are bottom-ranked from a list of values provide greater predictive power in relation to satisfaction ratings with special events than:		
H <sub>2n</sub>	<i>gender</i>	Rejected
H <sub>2q</sub>	<i>age</i>	Rejected
H <sub>2t</sub>	<i>income</i>	Rejected
H <sub>2w</sub>	<i>area of residence</i>	Rejected
Those values that are bottom-ranked from a list of values provide greater predictive power in relation to satisfaction ratings with host destinations than:		
H <sub>2o</sub>	<i>gender</i>	Rejected
H <sub>2r</sub>	<i>age</i>	Rejected
H <sub>2u</sub>	<i>income</i>	Rejected
H <sub>2x</sub>	<i>area of residence</i>	Rejected
Top-ranked personal values provide greater predictive power than the ratings of the each of the individual personal values in relation to:		
H <sub>3a</sub>	<i>overall satisfaction with the attributes of special events</i>	Rejected
H <sub>3b</sub>	<i>overall satisfaction with special events</i>	Rejected
H <sub>3c</sub>	<i>overall satisfaction with host destinations</i>	Rejected
H <sub>3d</sub>	<i>intentions to recommend special events</i>	Rejected
H <sub>3e</sub>	<i>intentions to recommend host destinations</i>	Rejected
H <sub>3f</sub>	<i>positive changes in attitudes towards special event destinations</i>	Rejected

**Table 43: Results of the testing of the hypotheses (cont.)**

Hypothesis		Result
Bottom-ranked personal values provide greater predictive power than the ratings of the each of the individual personal values in relation to:		
H <sub>3g</sub>	<i>overall satisfaction with the attributes of special events</i>	Rejected
H <sub>3h</sub>	<i>overall satisfaction with special events</i>	Rejected
H <sub>3i</sub>	<i>overall satisfaction with host destinations</i>	Rejected
H <sub>3j</sub>	<i>intentions to recommend special events</i>	Rejected
H <sub>3k</sub>	<i>intentions to recommend host destinations</i>	Rejected
H <sub>3l</sub>	<i>positive attitudes towards special event destinations</i>	Rejected
H <sub>4a</sub>	The values that constitute the LOV are represented by a smaller number of personal value domains	Accepted
H <sub>4b</sub>	In a special event context, 'intrinsic' and 'extrinsic' personal value domains will represent the values that constitute the LOV	Accepted
H <sub>4c</sub>	In a special event context, further to the 'intrinsic' and 'extrinsic' personal value domains, a 'novelty/escapism' personal value domain will also represent the values that constitute the LOV	Accepted
Personal value domains provide greater predictive power than the top-ranked personal values in relation to:		
H <sub>4d</sub>	<i>overall satisfaction with the attributes of special events</i>	Partially accepted
H <sub>4e</sub>	<i>overall satisfaction with special events</i>	Partially accepted
H <sub>4f</sub>	<i>overall satisfaction with host destinations</i>	Partially accepted
H <sub>4g</sub>	<i>intentions to recommend special events</i>	Partially accepted
H <sub>4h</sub>	<i>intentions to recommend host destinations</i>	Partially accepted
H <sub>4i</sub>	<i>positive attitudes towards special event destinations</i>	Rejected
Personal value domains provide greater predictive power than the bottom-ranked personal values in relation to:		
H <sub>4j</sub>	<i>overall satisfaction with the attributes of special events</i>	Partially accepted
H <sub>4k</sub>	<i>overall satisfaction with special events</i>	Partially accepted
H <sub>4l</sub>	<i>overall satisfaction with host destinations</i>	Rejected
H <sub>4m</sub>	<i>intentions to recommend special events</i>	Partially accepted
H <sub>4n</sub>	<i>intentions to recommend host destinations</i>	Partially accepted
H <sub>4o</sub>	<i>positive attitudes towards special event destinations</i>	Rejected

Results and discussion

**Table 43: Results of the testing of the hypotheses (cont.)**

Hypothesis		Result
Special event attribute satisfaction predicts:		
H <sub>5a</sub>	<i>positive expectancy disconfirmation of special events</i>	Partially accepted
H <sub>5b</sub>	<i>overall satisfaction with special events</i>	Partially accepted
H <sub>5c</sub>	<i>overall satisfaction with host destinations</i>	Partially accepted
H <sub>5d</sub>	<i>intentions to recommend special events</i>	Partially accepted
H <sub>5e</sub>	<i>intentions to recommend host destinations</i>	Partially accepted
Special event attribute satisfaction is a better predictor of:		
H <sub>5f</sub>	<i>overall expectancy disconfirmation of special events than personal value domains</i>	Partially accepted
H <sub>5g</sub>	<i>satisfaction with special events than personal value domains</i>	Partially accepted
H <sub>5h</sub>	<i>satisfaction with host destinations than personal value domains</i>	Partially accepted
H <sub>5i</sub>	<i>intentions to recommend special events than personal value domains</i>	Partially accepted
H <sub>5j</sub>	<i>intentions to recommend host destinations than personal value domains</i>	Partially accepted
H <sub>6a</sub>	Positive expectancy disconfirmation with special events is associated with higher levels of overall satisfaction with special events	Accepted
Higher levels of overall satisfaction with special events are associated with:		
H <sub>7a</sub>	<i>higher levels of intentions to recommend special events</i>	Accepted
H <sub>7b</sub>	<i>higher levels of overall satisfaction with host destinations</i>	Accepted
H <sub>7c</sub>	<i>changes in attitude towards host destinations</i>	Rejected
H <sub>7d</sub>	<i>higher levels of intentions to recommend host destinations</i>	Accepted
Higher levels of overall satisfaction with host destinations are associated with:		
H <sub>7e</sub>	<i>higher levels of intentions to recommend special events</i>	Accepted
H <sub>7f</sub>	<i>higher levels of intentions to recommend the host destinations</i>	Accepted
H <sub>7g</sub>	<i>positive changes in attitude towards the host destinations</i>	Rejected
Positive changes in attitudes towards the host destination are associated with:		
H <sub>7h</sub>	<i>higher levels of intentions to recommend special events</i>	Rejected
H <sub>7i</sub>	<i>higher levels of intentions to recommend host destinations</i>	Rejected

Results and discussion

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Now that the results of the study have been presented and discussed and a summary of the results provided, conclusions will be drawn of them in the final chapter of this thesis.

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## 8 Conclusions and recommendations

In this study, a body of special event literature was systematically reviewed and research gaps for the study of special events were identified. These results directed the focus of this study, which investigated the nexus between attendees of special events, special events themselves and special event host destinations. Overviews of the personal values and satisfaction literature were provided and an hypothesised model was developed that drew these areas of research together within the context of special events. The model was tested within the context of a theatre-event and the results were presented and discussed in Chapter Seven. This chapter presents the conclusions that are drawn from this study.

In Section 8.1, conclusions that stem from the analysis of the body of special event literature are provided. To some extent these have been discussed in parts of Chapter Two, but the conclusions presented in Section 8.1 relate more broadly to the area of special event research. Section 8.2 outlines the conclusions that relate directly to the staging of *Mamma Mia!* in Melbourne. Although this was a case study of one particular theatre-event in a single destination, the findings of this study are worthy of consideration within the broader context of special events. Such managerial considerations of the findings of this case are provided in 8.3. Conclusions that were drawn in relation to the hypothesised model and the concepts included in the model are presented in Section 8.4. Some implications for researchers of special events, personal values and satisfaction are presented in Section 8.5. In Section 8.6, the limitations of the research are acknowledged and recommendations for future research are suggested in Section 8.7.

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## **8.1 *Special event research 1990-2002***

As has been mentioned, in Chapter Two some conclusions were drawn with regard to the review of the special event literature and these assisted in directing the focus of this study. The purpose of this section is to present conclusions that relate more broadly to the area of special event research than those that related more specifically to this study.

The body of literature used for this study was extensive and a systematic approach to its analysis was employed; this assisted in identifying the development of special event research during the review period. In light of key societal trends, gaps for future research on special events were identified and a strategic framework for future research in the area was provided.

Some of the results obtained in Chapter Two are similar to those of Formica and Getz, who had already conducted reviews of bodies of special event research. The three reviews identified that economic evaluation of special events has dominated the literature and that other areas of special events, such as planning, operations and management, remain comparatively under-researched. Hence, there is a real need for researchers of special events to assess what has already been achieved in the field and what is required by the industry. The results of the review highlight that there are many opportunities for researchers of special events to pioneer research within the context of special events. Furthermore, researchers of special events have many opportunities to test generic theories within this context, which may assist the special events industry and contribute to new knowledge. Furthermore, editors of journals that publish research on special events need to be cognisant of these issues and support research that advances knowledge on special events.



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A large proportion of research undertaken on the special events seems to have been undertaken in isolation from other research on the topic. Furthermore, not many of the studies on special events have built on the research and theory of other fields of study, such as marketing or management. In the future, researchers of special events need to carefully consider what has been achieved, not only within the context of special event research, but also within the context of other fields and disciplines, before embarking on new research. In this way, research on special events can contribute more effectively to the understanding and management of special events and to knowledge more generally.

There are, however, some fundamental differences between the results of the review undertaken for this study and those of Formica and Getz. These differences emerged because of the breath of this review, in terms of the time period that it covered, and because the review was placed within the broader context of societal trends. A key difference in the results of this review from those of Formica and Getz was the identification of the emergence of the concept of the Triple Bottom Line within the context of special events. This review identified that a Triple Bottom Line (TBL) approach to the evaluation of special events is well-supported by researchers of special events. Another key difference between the results of this review and that of Formica and Getz is that special event research was placed within the context of societal trends and their possible impacts on the special event industry were considered. Both the TBL and some of the societal trends were not evident at the time Formica and Getz undertook their reviews of the literature. These implications of these two issues are subsequently discussed.

The application of the TBL approach to the evaluation of special events is intuitively appealing. It can provide an integrative framework in which to evaluate special

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events that incorporates the social, economic and environmental dimensions of special events. Further research, however, is required on each of these dimensions within the context of special events before the TBL can be successfully implemented. The social and environmental dimensions of special events are under-researched, particularly when compared to the economic dimension of special events.

The possible impacts of contemporary societal trends on the special event industry were considered in Chapter Two. Some of the trends that were discussed have been known for some time, such as the aging of the population, but other trends, such as those associated with safety, have only emerged more recently as being key issues that the special event industry needs to confront.

It was noted that special events have become increasingly popular with many of their stakeholders for various reasons and that the size of audiences at special events has been steadily increasing. In light of increasing levels of terrorism, often aimed at western societies, and an increasing litigious society, risk management is of paramount importance for the special event industry. Managers of special events need information that will assist them to address, as much as possible, these types of threats to the industry. In this social context, it is important to also understand how to operationalise the potential of special events to develop, or improve, social cohesion. The special event industry seems to be using technology more innovatively than in the past and this is impacting upon the way in which special events are delivered. As a consequence, the nature and perceptions of special events are changing. It is not well-understood how this might impact the industry in the long-term. Thus, it is important that research is undertaken to investigate the future impacts of the increasing availability and use of technology in the special event industry.

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## **8.2 The case of *Mamma Mia!* in Melbourne**

From the study, it can be concluded that the outcome of attendance at *Mamma Mia!*, measured via satisfaction, was successful for its attendees. The match between the demographics and the personal values of attendees at *Mamma Mia!* and aspects of the *Mamma Mia!* product seem to have contributed to a satisfying experience at the theatre-event. As a result of the high levels of satisfaction that attendees experienced with *Mamma Mia!* and with Melbourne as a tourist destination, attendees were predisposed to recommend to others that they also attend *Mamma Mia!* and visit Melbourne. Hence, satisfying experiences at *Mamma Mia!* had the potential to impact upon the sustainability of the theatre-event. Considering the fact that over 40% of respondents to the survey resided outside Melbourne, satisfaction with *Mamma Mia!* also had the potential to impact upon tourist visitation to Melbourne. Hence, from the results obtained in this study, it is likely that the promoters of *Mamma Mia!* and Tourism Victoria would have considered the staging of *Mamma Mia!* to have been successful.

Aspects of the *Mamma Mia!* product provide some insights into the way in which the characteristics of attendees played an important role in the outcome of attendance at *Mamma Mia!*. For example, *Mamma Mia!*, was based on the music of ABBA, which was extremely popular when the key age group attending this theatre-event was young. Hence, a sense of nostalgia was inherent in the product. It was also novel the way that the lyrics of 17 of ABBA's songs were woven into the script. The storyline was a light-hearted comedy and provided attendees with an opportunity to enjoy themselves.

These aspects of the product seem to reflect some of the previously identified motives for attending special events, such as novelty-seeking behaviour, nostalgic

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experiences and to be with people who are enjoying themselves. The complementarity between the generic motives for attending special events, the demographics of attendees of *Mamma Mia!* and the product that was delivered, seem to have contributed to the positive evaluations of *Mamma Mia!*.

The fact that a large proportion of attendees at *Mamma Mia!* placed high levels of importance on the Intrinsic personal value domain, which represents achievement-oriented values, is an important finding. Attendees with these personal value preferences want to be successful and seek to engage in activities that demonstrate their successes. The three markets that Tourism Victoria is targeting, the *Socially Aware*, *Visible Achievers* and *the Look at Me's*, are also achievement-oriented (Tourism Victoria, 1997; 2001). From a methodological perspective the segmentation approach used by Tourism Victoria (the *Roy Morgan Lifestyle Segments*) has not been validated by other research, largely due to the proprietary nature of the segmentation approach. In an informal way, the results of this study go some way towards validating this approach. Also important is the fact that those attendees of *Mamma Mia!* who placed high levels of importance on the Intrinsic personal value domain were generally in the segments that were most satisfied with *Mamma Mia!*. Tourism Victoria and the City of Melbourne can use information gained about *Mamma Mia!* when they are considering supporting other theatre-events in the future. It appears that markets, similar to the *Visible Achievers*, *Socially Aware* and *the Look at Me's*, were particularly attracted to this type of special event. This would indicate that Tourism Victoria should continue to incorporate theatre-events in its marketing strategy for Melbourne and Victoria, whilst it continues to target these three segments.

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Before the empirical component of this study was undertaken, it was thought that satisfaction with *Mamma Mia!* would impact on changes in attitudes towards Melbourne. This notion was developed as a result of the integration of satisfaction and personal values theory. The descriptive statistics highlighted that for nearly 15% of attendees surveyed at *Mamma Mia!* their attitudes towards Melbourne had changed for the better as a result of their attendance at the theatre-event. This is an important finding in light of the strong image that Melbourne has as a tourist destination. Further analysis, however, identified that satisfaction with *Mamma Mia!* did not appear to be the reason for these changes. Given the high levels of intended recommending behaviour in relation to *Mamma Mia!* and Melbourne, as a result of satisfaction with *Mamma Mia!* and with Melbourne as a tourist destination, high levels of attendee and visitor satisfaction should still be considered an important objective to be achieved within this context.

Attitudes towards Melbourne prior to attendance at *Mamma Mia!* may have been so strong that satisfaction with *Mamma Mia!*, or even with Melbourne, had little potential to cause changes in attitudes towards Melbourne. Changes in attitudes towards Melbourne may have occurred before attendance at *Mamma Mia!*, particularly in the search or decision-making stages of consumption, but this was not tested for in this study. What may have also happened is that attendance at *Mamma Mia!* reinforced attitudes towards Melbourne. Indeed, the analysis of the open-ended responses in relation to satisfaction with Melbourne as destination and changes in attitudes towards Melbourne as a result of attendance at *Mamma Mia!* indicated that engaging in the activity assisted respondents to more clearly position Melbourne as a tourist destination in relation to other comparable destinations.

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### **8.3 Considerations for stakeholders of theatre-events**

This study used the case study approach and as such the results are technically only applicable to the research context. Furthermore, it is not likely that *Mamma Mia!* will be staged in Melbourne again in the near future, but it would be useful for the stakeholders of theatre-events, like *Mamma Mia!*, and other types of special events to consider the findings of this study. *Mamma Mia!* seems to be a theatre-event upon which other products in this category can be modelled in the future.

Even though theatre-events may well be commercially oriented, attendees of *Mamma Mia!* focussed on many of the core elements of the 'theatre' when forming their satisfaction response to the theatre-event. Maintaining the integrity of 'block-buster' theatre-events to the craft of theatre would seem to be an important part of staging successful theatre-events. This study indicates that managers of theatre-events need to carefully analyse and select productions that successfully deliver the core elements of 'theatre', or the craft of theatre. This is not to underestimate the importance of the functional elements of attendance at theatre-events, such as service at the venue or vision of the stage.

Many of the attendees of *Mamma Mia!* reported high levels of importance on achievement-oriented personal values. These attendees also reported high levels of satisfaction with *Mamma Mia!*. Developing products, therefore, that appeal to consumers with an achievement-oriented value profile will likely assist in building market share and developing loyal markets. Such markets may particularly appreciate access to reserved seating, for example, or the opportunity to 'mingle' with the cast after the performance. Hence, packages could be offered to these markets that boost revenue for the promoters of theatre-events and expenditure in the destination. Ticketing strategies that provide an opportunity to attend theatre-

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events in a preview period and again later in the season may also appeal to such markets.

In this study, the Dynamos, Temperate Networkers and the Playful Achievers, which place high levels of importance on achievement-oriented personal values, reported the highest levels of satisfaction with the theatre-event. These segments appear to be similar to those segments that are the key domestic target markets for Tourism Victoria namely, the *Visible Achievers*, *Socially Aware* and the *Look at Me's* (Tourism Victoria, 2001). Based on the emphasis that Dynamos, Temperate Networkers and the Playful Achievers and Tourism Victoria's three key domestic target markets place on achievement-oriented values, it would seem worthwhile for Tourism Victoria to continue to incorporate theatre-events into its strategic plan to develop tourism in Melbourne and Victoria. Attendance at theatre-events perhaps enables members of these segments with opportunities to fulfil their achievement-oriented goals. This being the case, however, it will be important that the theatre-events that are staged in Melbourne meet the needs of the members of these achievement-oriented market segments. Indeed, the members of such segments may be more loyal to theatre-events than they are to Melbourne, or to any one destination, and it is important that Tourism Victoria is mindful of this issue.

#### **8.4 *Hypothesised model and the concepts included in the model***

Overall, the empirical component of this study supported the model reasonably well. The hypothesised model, presented in Figure 14, however, included some links between concepts that were not supported by the empirical component of the study. Links included in the model, namely, between the characteristics of attendees of the

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theatre-event and their post-consumption evaluations and behavioural intentions were supported. On the basis of the results of this study, the link between personal values and attribute satisfaction was also clearly supported and links between demographics and satisfaction (both at the attribute and the global level) were supported. The link between personal values and global satisfaction, however, was not supported. After testing the model, it was also found that the relationships between the concept - changes in attitude towards the host destination - and other concepts in the model were not supported.

Modifications were made to the hypothesised model developed for this study and the revised model is presented in Figure 29. The revised model is less complex than the hypothesised model that was presented in Figure 14.

One of the key differences between the model presented in hypothesised model and the revised model is that personal values and personal value domains have not been linked to the post-consumption concepts that remain in the model. The link between personal values and personal value domains is incorporated in the revised model as the empirical component of this study provided support for this relationship.

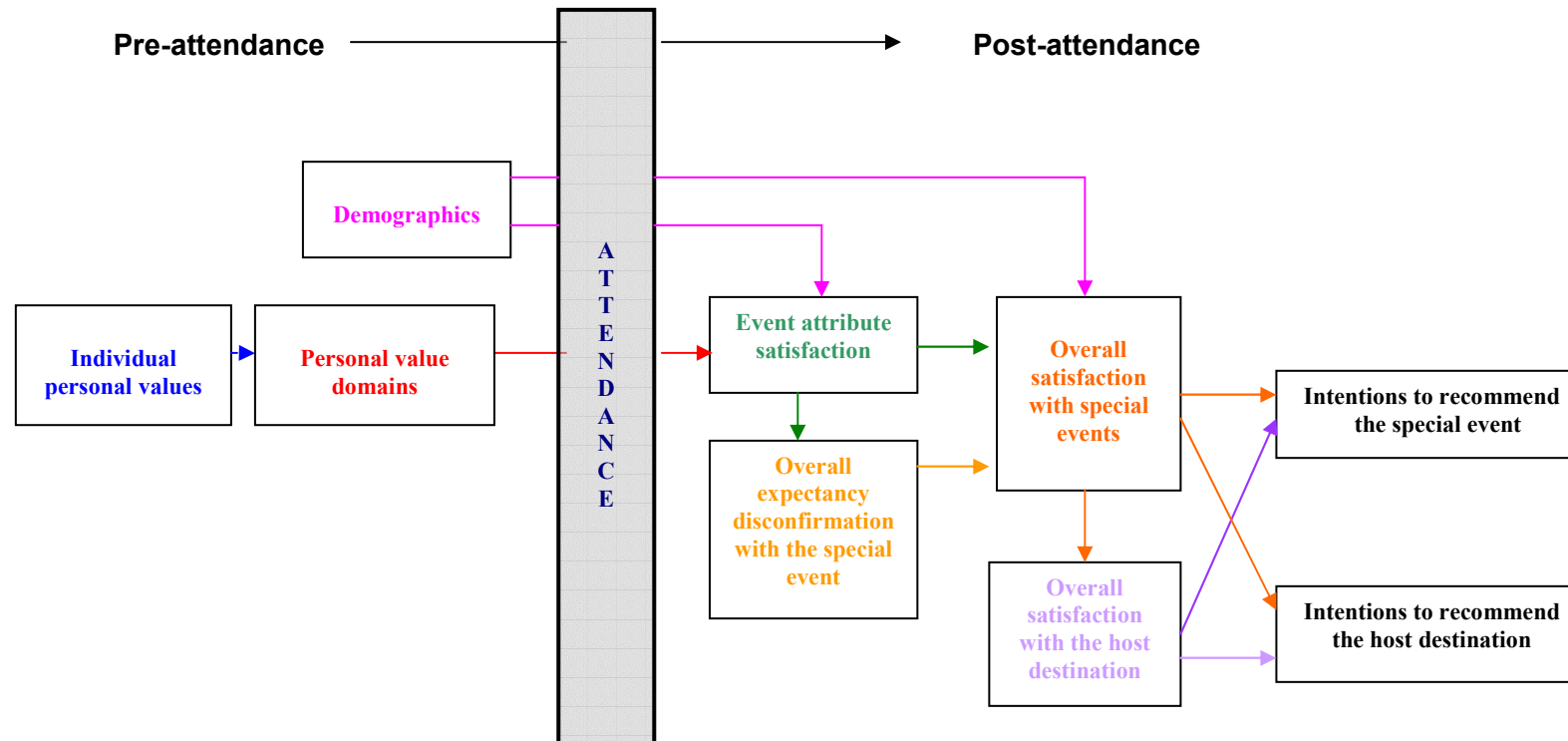
Another key difference between the hypothesised model and the revised model is that the concept - changes in attitudes towards the host destination – has been omitted from the revised model. Certainly, the descriptive statistics demonstrated almost all of the 15% of respondents who indicated that their attitude towards the host destination also indicated that their attitude changed for the better as a result of their attendance at the theatre-event. There was, however, little empirical evidence to suggest that changes in attitudes towards the host destination and behavioural intentions were associated with each other.



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Figure 29 does not indicate the strength of the relationships between the concepts in the model the revised model. It should be noted that when compared to the strength of all the relationships between the concepts in the model, the relationship between special event attribute-satisfaction and overall satisfaction with the special event was the greatest.

Figure 29: Revised model



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**Personal values.** Conclusions can also be drawn about research on personal values. The ‘rank and rate’ approach that was used in this study to measure personal values appears to have assisted respondents to hierarchically order the LOV items and identify the differences between them in terms of their importance. Referring solely to the top- and bottom-ranked personal values, however, would most likely produce misleading results as it is the systems of personal values that provide researchers with greater interpretive opportunities.

The LOV performed quite well in this study in terms of its psychometric properties; the underlying domains and the percentage of the variance that it explained were very similar to other studies that have employed the instrument. In this study, the underlying domains in the LOV were effective in assisting to *describe* attendees at the theatre-event, but these were less effective in *predicting* post-consumption behavioural intentions and changes in attitudes, given the low percentages of variance that the models explained. These results are somewhat perplexing, given the support that the LOV has been afforded in predicting attitudes and behaviour in other studies. From this study, two issues, thus, emerge about the LOV; does it adequately represent contemporary personal values and does it measure this concept? To answer these questions, new exploratory research on personal values in contemporary society is required and tests for convergent validity of the LOV with other measures of personal values are required. In light of the results of this study, Skinner’s opinion of personal values (that they are epiphenomena), which was mentioned earlier in this thesis, may be more significant than it has been given credit in the literature.

**Expectancy disconfirmation.** As has been the case in other consumption scenarios, the study provides support for the application of the theory of expectancy

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disconfirmation to the context of special events. Despite the understanding that special events are 'one-off' events, attendees do have expectations of them, which was demonstrated by the role of expectancy disconfirmation in the hypothesised model. Exactly what these expectations are, however, was not explored in this study.

**Satisfaction.** In this study, satisfaction was principally viewed as a cognitive concept, and not one that was related to affect. To some extent, it appears that respondents to this survey echoed this view. When the open-ended responses in relation to satisfaction with the host destination were analysed, it became clear that respondents most often referred to tangible aspects of the host destination, such as attractions or the city's infrastructure, rather than aspects that may have stemmed from their emotions. For example, few respondents referred to how 'happy', 'delighted' or 'pleased' they were with the host destination, or how proud they were of the host destination, when they explained why they rated their satisfaction with the host destination as they had done.

In terms of the use of attribute or global measures of satisfaction, this researcher recommends the use of both of these in quantitative studies on satisfaction. Had only a global measurement of satisfaction been used in this study, information as to what attendees focussed on when forming their level of satisfaction with their attendance would not have been gained. Furthermore, probing respondents for their reasons for their satisfaction ratings provided information about the concept that would not have been gained through the use of closed responses alone.

Some of the literature on satisfaction has not discussed the issues associated with measuring satisfaction, such as those relating to the distribution of the data. As a result, it is not entirely clear whether other researchers of satisfaction have

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encountered the issues with their data that were encountered in this study, but it is unlikely that they are restricted to this study. This can mislead researchers of satisfaction as they unknowingly incorporate severe measurement error into their research and subsequently analyse skewed data.

Some researchers of satisfaction have, however, attempted to address the issues associated with the measurement of satisfaction *before* the data collection process is undertaken. Providing respondents with, for example, 10-point scales on which to rate their levels of satisfaction is a way in which many researchers of satisfaction have sought to do this. This approach was used in this study, but the use of the 10-point scale did not resolve the issue. Subsequent transformations of the data to normal distributions indicated that some of the satisfaction scales should really have extended to above 500 to enable respondents to truly indicate their satisfaction responses. In the real world, however, the use of such extensive scales may not have addressed the issue. The use of such extensive scales, however, would have been awkward for respondents and, indeed, the data obtained may have been prone to higher levels of measurement error than had 10-point scales been used. Hence, further research on the measurement of satisfaction is warranted. In saying this, however, it is important that further research in this area of satisfaction does not amount to 'tail-chasing' and that it does make a positive contribution to knowledge on the topic.

In this study, the issues associated with the distribution of the satisfaction data were addressed using data transformations. The data transformations normalised the data, thus the assumptions of parametric analysis were met. The application of data transformations is not often reported on in satisfaction research. This raises the question as to whether there is a difference between the results obtained by using

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the untransformed and transformed data. Although it was beyond the scope of this study, the results of the analysis using the non-transformed and transformed data were compared; few differences were found between them. Further research is required to understand the practical significance of skewed satisfaction data and the value of transforming data. This might be achieved by undertaking a meta-analysis of research on satisfaction to investigate this important methodological aspect.

## **8.5 *Implications for researchers of special events***

**Typologies of special events.** The state tourism organisation, Tourism Victoria, views theatre-events as an integral part of Victoria's, and more specifically Melbourne's, special event product. From a theoretical perspective, this gives rise to the notion that it is timely for researchers in the field to revisit special event typologies. Certainly, it would be remiss not to draw upon the work of Hall (1989), Ritchie (1984) Jago (1997a) and Arcodia and Robb (2000), but their work needs to be modified to incorporate the array of special event product that is now being produced around the globe. Revised typologies need to include touring special events and special events that use technology to deliver the product. For example, the Australian Football League is considering televising football events to cinemas and some live performance-based special events have already done this. Questions arise as to how these might 'fit' into existing typologies of special events.

**Evaluation of special events.** The analysis of the special event literature undertaken for the study highlighted the suitability of the application of the Triple Bottom Line (TBL) approach to the evaluation of special events. Indeed, it has already been noted how the concept was positively embraced by a number of researchers in the area at the Special Events Research Conference in Sydney in

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2002. Although some concerns have been raised about the TBL paradigm shift within the context of research on special events in Section 8.1, there is clearly some merit in using the TBL approach to evaluate special events. As mentioned earlier, so that the TBL approach can be operationalised, each of its components requires further research. For example, Computerised General Equilibrium Models, which are currently being proposed to determine the economic impacts of special events require validation before they are used in such an integrated framework. Similarly, further research is required on the social impacts of special events. Considering the paucity of research on environmental issues associated with special events, this area requires even further research to enable the TBL approach to be implemented. Further to this, if the TBL is going to be used to evaluate special events, a schema is required to classify special events based on the three elements of the Triple Bottom Line to ensure that the results of a TBL evaluation can be compared to targets that were set. These are challenges for researchers of special events.

**The future of the special event industry.** In this study, the future of the special event industry was discussed in light of the trends that are likely to impact upon societies in the future. This was an important process in this study as it assisted in identifying some of the key needs of the special event industry. It was, indeed, very difficult to find authoritative information on trends that might impact the special event industry. Some governments and industry associations scan the horizon for trends that might impact industries, but this does not appear to have been done for the special event industry to date. It would be prudent for governments, particularly those that place considerable weight on special events in their tourism and economic strategies, to invest in research to explore how societal trends might impact the special event industry in the future. The results of such research, perhaps in the form of a vision statement for the industry, could then be disseminated to stakeholders of

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special events. In this way, the special event industry will be better placed to harness opportunities and overcome weaknesses in the future.

**Special events and host destinations.** This study demonstrated that satisfaction with a special event can lead to recommending behaviour in relation to both the special event and the special event destination. Similarly, satisfaction with the special event destination leads to recommending behaviour in relation to the special event. Hence, there are obvious synergies between the two consumption experiences. The information gained from this study, although useful, needs to be further explored to maximise these synergies. Further research is particularly recommended to enhance the role of special events in developing positive attitudes towards destinations, as this appears to be associated with positioning of destinations.

## **8.6 Limitations of this research**

The use of the case study approach for this research enabled an in-depth analysis of the topic to be undertaken. The case study approach, however, limits generalising the findings to a broader context than the focus of the study. Some consideration has, however, been given to the findings of this study to the broader context of theatre-events and special events, but further research is required to validate these discussions.

Earlier in this study, it was acknowledged that attendance at special events does not occur in a vacuum. Attendees of *Mamma Mia!* may have also engaged in other activities whilst attending *Mamma Mia!*, but their impact is known as a result of this study. It is also not entirely clear as to how potent the role of attendance at *Mamma*



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*Mia!* was in changing attitudes towards Melbourne. Further research on this topic should consider this issue.

The way in which changes in attitudes towards the destination were measured in this study may have been too simplistic; a multi-item measure may have captured the essence of the concept more effectively. Gaining information from attendees in relation to their perceptions of Melbourne as a tourist destination prior to their attendance may have been a way in which attitude changes could have been measured effectively. Conducting a pre-attendance survey may have been useful to improve the reliability of the results obtained from the study, but the logistics and cost of such a strategy would have been complicated and possibly prohibitive.

## **8.7 Further research**

This study has highlighted that although considerable progress has been made in regard to special event research, further research is still required. The study provides a platform for investigating the nexus between special events, their attendees and special event destinations.

This study investigated whether attendance at a special event can influence attitudes towards the host destination. As it is generally accepted that attitudes influence behaviour, understanding the role of special events in developing positive attitudes towards destinations, or reinforcing them, is an important area of research. The results elucidate this aspect of special events, but the results are not conclusive and further research is required to comprehensively assess this phenomenon. With this information, destination marketers can direct their efforts to the appropriate stage(s) of consumption in an appropriate manner.

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Recommendations have been made throughout the course of this chapter in regard to further research on special events, but some of the key recommendations that have emerged from this study are summarised below.

Research is required to:

- revise typologies of special events to reflect current practices in the industry. Such revision needs to incorporate new types of special events, such as those that are centrally produced or technologically-based;
- develop a comprehensive inventory of special event attributes so that products can be produced that meet the needs of specific markets. Marketers of special events should perhaps consider periodically exploring and identifying special event attributes, particularly as societal trends impact upon the industry more substantially. This information can be used for planning, marketing, operations and evaluation purposes;
- advance the implementation of the TBL approach to the evaluation of special events by undertaking research on each of the components of the TBL and to develop a standardised methodology to synthesise the components into a holistic framework;
- develop a vision for the special event industry by considering the impacts of societal trends;
- validate inventories that are being used by tourism organisations to segment markets. From this study, it can be inferred that further research, using the LOV would be particularly useful for Tourism Victoria. If the results of such research validate the proprietary instrument used to profile Tourism Victoria's markets, the LOV may offer Tourism Victoria a more cost-effective method of market segmentation in the future than what is currently being employed.

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## Appendices

### Appendix One: Intercept questionnaire

Good morning/afternoon/evening. My name is ... and I am representing Tourism Victoria. We are doing a survey and would like your help. There is the chance to win a copy a Mamma Mia! Sampler CD and to be entered in the draw to win one of two \$500 Ticketek vouchers for those who are able to participate in a telephone survey in the next few weeks.

RECORD DATE, DAY and SESSION

Tuesday	Evening	1	Thursday	Evening	4	Friday	Evening	7
Wednesday	Matinee	2	Saturday	Matinee	5	Sunday	Evening	8
Wednesday	Evening	3	Saturday	Evening	6	Date		

S.1	<b>We will be conducting a telephone survey about Mamma Mia! There is no need to answer the questions now, but I would like to take down your name, telephone number and a few other details if you would like to participate. The telephone questionnaire will take about 15-20 minutes to complete. Will you help us?</b>											
	Yes	1	Continue with interview									
	If respondent says "No" Thank attendee and finish interview	Mark how many negative responses you received before getting a positive response	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
11			12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	

S.2	<b>Before I collect your contact details, I need to confirm that you are over 16 years of age. Are you over 16 years of age?</b>											
	Yes	1	Continue with interview									
	If respondent says "No" Thank attendee and finish interview	Mark how many attendees you Approached who were under 16	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
			11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20

Q.1	RECORD GENDER	Male	1
		Female	2

Q.2	And do you live...	In metropolitan Melbourne	1	Postcode	
	<b>READ OUT</b>	Somewhere else in Victoria	2	Postcode	
		In another state	3	Postcode	
		Overseas	4	Country	

Q.3	<b>When would be the most convenient time for us to call you for the telephone interview?</b>			
	<u>Weekday (Mon-Fri)</u>		<u>Weekend</u>	
	Morning (9am - 12pm)	1	Saturday	4
	Afternoon (12pm – 4pm)	2	Sunday	5
	Evening (4pm – 9.30pm)	3		
Q.4	Can I please have your name and number so that one of our interviewers can call you at that time?			
Name		Area Code		Contact Number

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR HELP. AS I SAID, I AM REPRESENTING TOURISM VICTORIA, PLEASE CALL (03) 9688 5269 DURING OFFICE HOURS IF YOU WOULD LIKE TO CONFIRM ANY OF THESE DETAILS.

I certify this is a true, accurate and complete interview, conducted in accordance with IQCA standards and the ICC/ESOMAR code of conduct. I also agree to hold in confidence and not disclose to any other person the content of this questionnaire or any other information relating to this project.

INTERVIEWER SIGNATURE:	DATE:
INTERVIEWER NAME:	

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## Appendix Two: Telephone questionnaire

START TIME:

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Hello, I'm ..... and I'm calling from ..... marketing research company. Could I please speak to (READ OUT NAME FROM INTERCEPT LIST – REINTRODUCE AS NECESSARY). You may remember giving your name to one of our interviewers when you attended Mamma Mia! We are conducting a survey on your experiences at Mamma Mia! and we are wondering if it would be possible to complete the questionnaire with you now? On completion of the questionnaire, we will be sending you a Mamma Mia! soundtrack sampler CD in appreciation of your time, and you will be entered into a draw for a chance to win one of four Ticketek vouchers to the value of \$500. All the answers you give will be strictly confidential. The questionnaire takes around 15-20 minutes to complete and we'd really appreciate your involvement.

1. How did you first find out about Mamma Mia!

On the television	1
On the radio	2
In newspapers/magazines	3
On the internet	4
From friends/relatives	5
Other	6

2. How far in advance were your Mamma Mia! tickets booked?

Less than one week	1
1-4 weeks	2
1-3 months	3
4-6 months	4
More than six months	5
Not applicable (didn't book tickets)	6 Go to Q5

3. How did you book your tickets?

Over the phone	1
On the internet	2
With an accommodation package	3
Through the mail	4
Other	5

- 
4. How many tickets did you purchase?

A Reserve	
B Reserve	
C Reserve	

5. Have you seen the Mamma Mia! show prior to this performance?

Yes, in Melbourne	1
Yes, overseas	2
No	3

6. On a scale of 1 to 7, where 1 represents 'strongly disagree' and 7 represents 'strongly agree', to what extent do you agree with the following statements?

	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
I wanted to see Mamma Mia! in its premiere launch city	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I wanted to escape the routines of my daily life at Mamma Mia!	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I was curious to see Mamma Mia!	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I love the music of ABBA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I thought Mamma Mia! was going to be different from anything else I'd seen before	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I thought that Mamma Mia! would provide me with a chance to be with people who were enjoying themselves	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I wanted the family to do something together at Mamma Mia!	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

7. Before you attended Mamma Mia!, you probably had some expectations of what the show was going to be like. Did the Mamma Mia! show

*(Read out all responses and then allow respondent to answer)*

Exceed your expectations?	1
Meet your expectations?	2
Not meet your expectations?	3

8. On a scale of 1 to 10, where 1 represents 'Very dissatisfied' and 10 represents 'Very satisfied', how dissatisfied/satisfied were you with the following aspects of Mamma Mia!?

	Very Dissatisfied									Very Satisfied
The storyline	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
The stage work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
The costumes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
The quality of the acting and singing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
The vision of the stage from your seats	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Value for money	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
The theatre and its ambience	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
The service at the theatre	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

And overall, how dissatisfied/satisfied were you with your attendance at Mamma Mia!?

Overall satisfaction with your Mamma Mia! experience	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
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9. On a scale of 1 to 7, where 1 represents 'strongly disagree' and 7 represents 'strongly agree', to what extent do you agree with the following statements?

	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
I will definitely see Mamma Mia! again	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
As a result of my attendance at Mamma Mia! I will definitely attend more theatre-events in the future	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I will definitely recommend Mamma Mia! to my friends	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

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10. Where do you usually live? (*Get from intercept interview*)

In Metropolitan Melbourne	1	Go to question 21
Somewhere else in Victoria	2	Go to question 11
Interstate	3	Go to question 11
Not in Australia	4	Go to question 11

These are some questions about your stay in Melbourne

11. On this visit to Melbourne, how many nights did you stay in Metropolitan Melbourne?

--

 Nights

12. During this visit, what was your estimated expenditure in Metropolitan Melbourne?

Could you please estimate how much you spent on yourself and others in Metropolitan Melbourne on this trip? Please include all spending made by you, but do not include any amounts that were spent on you by others. Include all payments made by cheque, bankcard and credit cards and include your best estimates if you are unsure of exact amounts.

- |    |                                                                                                         |          |
|----|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------|
| a) | Accommodation? (Include any prepaid amounts)                                                            | \$A..... |
| b) | Meals, food and drinks, not included in your accommodation bill?                                        | \$A..... |
| c) | Mamma Mia! tickets? (Include advance bookings)                                                          | \$A..... |
| d) | Other entertainment costs? (eg. If going to other tourist attractions not connected to Mamma Mia!)      | \$A..... |
| e) | Transport in Metropolitan Melbourne? (eg. taxi fares, petrol, vehicle repairs, bus fare, car hire, etc) | \$A..... |
| f) | Personal services? (eg. hairdressing, laundry, medical)                                                 | \$A..... |
| g) | Any other expenditure? (eg. films, gifts, books, wine, souvenirs, clothing, toiletries)                 | \$A..... |

For those residents from Victoria, Go to Question 14.

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For interstate and overseas residents ONLY

13. And the same set of questions but in relation to your expenditure in Victoria – what was your expenditure in Victoria during this visit? Please include in these figures, the expenditure you recorded in the previous question.

- a) Accommodation? (Please estimate amount and include prepaid) \$A.....
- b) Meals, food and drinks, not included in your accommodation bill? \$A.....
- c) Other entertainment costs? (eg. other tourist attractions not connected to Mamma Mia!) \$A.....
- d) Transport? (eg. taxi fares, petrol, vehicle repairs, bus fare, car hire, etc) \$A.....
- e) Personal services? (eg. hairdressing, laundry, medical) \$A.....
- f) Any other expenditure? (eg. films, gifts, books, wine, souvenirs, clothing, toiletries) \$A.....
- g) How many nights did you stay in Victoria, including the nights you stayed in Melbourne ..... Nights

14. How many people did all of this expenditure cover?

Adults	
Children (Children are defined as under 15)	

The following questions are about 'you' only (that is, do not consider other members of your travelling party).

15. Would you have come to Metropolitan Melbourne this year had Mamma Mia! not been held?

Yes	1	Go to Q16
No	2	Go to Q19

- 
16. If you were coming to Metropolitan Melbourne in any case this year, was this an additional visit especially for Mamma Mia! during 2001?

Yes	1	Go to Q19
No	2	Go to Q17

17. Since you were coming to Metropolitan Melbourne in any case at this time of year, did you extend your stay because of Mamma Mia!?

Yes	1	Go to Q18
No	2	Go to Q19

18. How many more nights did you stay?

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19. What was the primary reason you travelled to Melbourne?

Read out and probe for the PRIMARY reason Single response

To specifically attend Mamma Mia!	1
Holiday/Leisure	2
Visit friends and relatives	3
Business	4
Other	5
Other Specified	

20. How many times have you visited Metropolitan Melbourne in the past five years?

Never	1
Once	2
Twice	3
Three to five times	4
Six to ten times	5
More than ten times	6

21. As a result of attending Mamma Mia! has your view of Melbourne changed?

Yes	1	
No	2	Go to Q24
Not sure	3	Go to Q24

22. Is this change for the better or worse?

For the better	1	
For the worse	2	
Not sure	3	Go to Q24



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23. Can you explain in a few words, why your attitude towards Melbourne has changed?

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24. Which of Australia's capital cities (ie. Melbourne, Sydney, Adelaide, Brisbane, Perth, Darwin, Hobart, Canberra) would you describe as

*(Respondents are only allowed to choose one of the cities for each of the descriptors)*

	Melbourne	Sydney	Adelaide	Brisbane	Hobart	Darwin	Canberra	Perth	Not sure
Stylish									
Sophisticated									
Romantic									
Intelligent									
Trendy									
Busy									
Arrogant									
Fun									
Boring									
Adventurous									
Traditional									
Cutting edge									
Cultural									
Friendly									
Leader									
Fresh									

25. FOR REGIONAL, INTERSTATE AND INTERNATIONAL ATTENDEES ONLY

On a scale of 1 to 10, where 1 represents 'Very dissatisfied' and 10 represents 'Very satisfied', overall how satisfied were you with Melbourne's performance as a tourist destination?

Very Dissatisfied										Very Satisfied
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	

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26. FOR REGIONAL, INTERSTATE AND INTERNATIONAL ATTENDEES ONLY

Can you explain, in a few words, why you rated your satisfaction with Melbourne this way?

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27. On a scale of 1 to 7, where 1 represents 'strongly disagree' and 7 represents 'strongly agree', to what extent do you agree with the following statement?

	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
I will definitely recommend to my friends that they visit Melbourne	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

28. FOR REGIONAL, INTERSTATE AND INTERNATIONAL ATTENDEES ONLY, which of the following activities did you participate in whilst visiting Melbourne? RANDOMISE

	Yes	No
Shopping in retail stores and markets	1	2
Gaming	1	2
Dancing at night clubs	1	2
Attending other live theatre performances	1	2
Eating out in restaurants and cafes	1	2
Going on a day trip to regional Victoria	1	2
Going for a walk in a park	1	2
Visiting wineries	1	2
Seeing a movie	1	2
Going to a sports event	1	2
Attending festivals or special events	1	2
Attending a popular music concert/cabaret	1	2
Visiting museums/art galleries	1	2
Other (Specify)		

- 
29. On a scale of 1 to 7, where 1 represents 'Not very often' and 7 represents 'Very often',  
how often do you engage in the following leisure activities? RANDOMISE

	Not very often						Very often
Watching TV	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Gaming	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Dancing at night clubs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Going to a hotel	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Attending a classical music concert	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Attending the ballet	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Attending the opera	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Shopping in retail stores and markets	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Attending a live theatre performance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Eating out in restaurants and cafes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Going for a walk in a park	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Seeing a movie	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Going to a sports event	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Attending festivals or special events	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Attending a popular music concert/cabaret	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Visiting museums/art galleries	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Other (Specify)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Specified							

**Questions 30 to 35 – Only half of the respondents will be sampled on questions**

**30 to 32, and the other half will be sampled on questions 33 – 35.**

30. Which radio station do you listen to most frequently? (*Respondent is only able to provide one answer*)

Not sure	98

31. Which television station do you watch most frequently? (*Respondent is only able to provide one answer*)

Not sure	98

- 
32. Which newspaper do you read most frequently? (*Respondent is only able to provide one answer*)

Not sure	98

The following three questions relate to you and what it is that guides you in your life.

33. I'll read out a list of guiding principles and when I have finished, could you indicate which one of them is the **most important** in your life? (*Respondent is only allowed to choose one guiding principle*)

Randomise list

To be self-fulfilled	1
To have security	2
To have a sense of accomplishment	3
To have a sense of belonging	4
To be in warm relationships	5
To be well respected	6
To have excitement	7
To have self-respect	8
To have fun and enjoyment in life	9

34. I'm now going to read out the same list of guiding principles and when I have finished, could you indicate which one of them is the **least important** in your life? (*Respondent is only allowed to choose one guiding principle*)

Randomise list

To be self-fulfilled	1
To have security	2
To have a sense of accomplishment	3
To have a sense of belonging	4
To be in warm relationships	5
To be well respected	6
To have excitement	7
To have self-respect	8
To have fun and enjoyment in life	9

35. I'll read out the same set of principles again and could you now indicate on a scale of 1 to 7, where 1 represents 'Very unimportant' and 7 represents 'Very important', how important is each one of these to you in your life? *(Read out each principle and ask respondent to indicate a level of importance)*

	Very unimportant						Very important
To be self-fulfilled	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To have security	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To have a sense of accomplishment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To have a sense of belonging	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To be in warm relationships	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To be well respected	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To have excitement	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To have self-respect	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To have fun and enjoyment in life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

36. What is your age group? Are you (Read out)

16-24 years	1
25-44 years	2
45-64 years	3
65 years plus	4

37. Record Sex (From the intercept interview)

Male	1
Female	2

38. Are you (single or part of a couple?)

Single, never married, divorced, separated, widowed and not part of a couple	1
Part of a couple (married, defacto living together)	2
Refused to answer	3

39. Which of the following applies to you? Are you.....(read out, stop at first yes)

Working fulltime	1
Working part time	2
Unemployed and looking for work	3
Retired	4
Mainly doing home duties	5
Studying	6
Other	7
Refused to answer	8

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40. Which of these groups would contain the combined annual income of everyone in your household, before tax or anything else is taken out? Please include pensions and allowances.

Less than \$26,000	1
\$26,000 or more, but less than \$52,000	2
\$52,000 or more, but less than \$78,000	3
\$78,000 or more, but less than \$104,000	4
\$104,000 or more, but less than \$130,000	5
\$130,000+	6
Refused to answer	7
Don't know	8

Thank you again. Just in case you missed it, my name is ..... and I am calling from ..... My supervisor may need to check my work and you may get a call from him/her in the next few days. Could we have your postal address, so that we can send you the Mamma Mia! CD and contact you if you win one of the prizes we are offering.

Respondent's Name: ..... (Obtain from intercept)

Respondent's Postal Address:

Respondent's Phone Number: ..... (Obtain from intercept)

We will be conducting some further research about the theatre and tourism, and we were wondering if you would be available to participate in another survey in the future. A questionnaire would be sent out to you in the mail, or via email. Is it all right if we send out the questionnaire out to you?

Yes	1	Do you have an email address? Record email address
No	2	

**FINISHING TIME:**

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**INTERVIEW LENGTH (Minutes):**

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### SUPERVISOR'S VERIFICATION

I CERTIFY THAT I HAVE VALIDATED THIS INTERVIEW AND THAT IT IS ACCURATE AND COMPLETE.

Supervisor's Name .....

Supervisor's Signature .....

### INTERVIEWER DECLARATION

I have conducted this interview. It is a full, and to the best of my knowledge, an accurate recording and has been completed in accordance with my interviewing and ICC/ESOMAR guidelines.

Interviewer (sign) .....

ID

Date:     /     /

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### ***Appendix Three: Compact disk of SPSS11 output of results***

The results of the testing of Hypotheses 1a through to 7l are presented on the compact disk accompanying this thesis. The following list indicates the hypotheses and the files in which they are located.

- Hypotheses 1a to 1l                      Section 7.3.3
- Hypotheses 2a to 2x                      Section 7.3.4
- Hypotheses 3a to 2ll                      Section 7.3.5
- Hypotheses 4a to 4o                      Section 7.3.6
- Hypotheses 5a to 5j                      Section 7.3.7
- Hypotheses 6a                              Section 7.3.8
- Hypotheses 7a to 7l                      Section 7.3.9