

Citation for published version:

Donald Getz, and Stephen J. Page, 'Progress and prospects for event tourism research', *Tourism Management*, Vol. 52: 593-631, February 2016.

DOI:

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2015.03.007>

Document Version:

This is the Published Version.

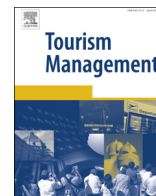
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Progress in Tourism Management

Progress and prospects for event tourism research

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HIGHLIGHTS

- Event tourism as a growth area has expanded exponentially since 2008.
- The review documents the main changes in the event tourism literature.
- Event tourism as a response to planned events is evaluated from a social science perspective.
- Event tourism is categorised and the literature critically evaluated.

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 15 January 2014

Accepted 14 March 2015

Available online 14 May 2015

Keywords:

Event tourism
Trends
Research
Theory
Ontology

ABSTRACT

This paper examines event tourism as a field of study and area of professional practice updating the previous review article published in 2008. In this substantially extended review, a deeper analysis of the field's evolution and development is presented, charting the growth of the literature, focussing both chronologically and thematically. A framework for understanding and creating knowledge about events and tourism is presented, forming the basis which signposts established research themes and concepts and outlines future directions for research. In addition, the review article focuses on constraining and propelling forces, ontological advances, contributions from key journals, and emerging themes and issues. It also presents a roadmap for research activity in event tourism.

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1. Introduction

The field of event studies, reviewed by Getz (2012a, 2012b) depicts the expanding field of event management and the wider social science contribution to this interdisciplinary area of study, heralded as a major success story in terms of its educational provision within higher education, its expansion of research activity and its contribution to tourism development within the commercial arena. Within the context of tourism and the tourism system (Leiper, 1990), events comprise a key element in both the origin area (i.e. events are an important motivator of tourism) as well as within the destination area (i.e. events feature prominently in the development and marketing plans of most destinations). Events are both animators of destination attractiveness but more fundamentally as key marketing propositions in the promotion of places given the increasingly global competitiveness to attract visitor

spending. To use Leiper's analogy of the tourism system, events have become a core element of the destination system where accommodation, attractions, transport and ancillary services have been utilised or specifically developed (e.g. the provision of infrastructure for mega events) to enhance the destination offer thereby expanding the tourism potential and capacity of destinations beyond a narrow focus on leisure-based tourism (e.g. holidays). Recent research (e.g. Connell, Page, & Meyer, 2015) also demonstrates the critical relationship that exists between events as a bridge between the market for visitor attractions created by tourists and the use of events to fill the gap left in the off-peak season by a seasonal drop in tourism demand, as residents and domestic visitors provide a substitutable form of demand stimulated by events. In this respect, events have a wider remit than destination-related tourism although the focus of this article is primarily on the destination-related issues of event tourism and the studies associated with this area.

Interestingly, place marketing, often referred to as boosterism (where events are used to 'boost' visitor numbers and appeal) has emerged as a key feature associated with events to develop a unique selling proposition that differentiates the destination from

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the competition. With its nineteenth century origins (Pike and Page 2014) event-led place marketing and development initially promoted in the USA (Ford & Peeper, 2007) has continuously utilised conventions and events to achieve key tourism and other visitation objectives linked to place development, although the analysis of its wider contribution to tourism development as both a field of study and area of critical research is a more recent outcome of the evolution of event studies (Getz, 2008). In the previous review of event tourism, Getz (2008) outlined many of the principal themes around the growth of event research and subsequent studies (e.g., Getz, 2012a, 2012b) expand upon the nature of the contributing disciplines that are coalescing to create an event knowledge base. Yet synthesising this knowledge is no easy task and this review examines the evolution, progress and future prospects for event research within a tourism context, focused on the notion of the planned event within tourism.

Planned events in tourism are created for a purpose, and what was once the realm of individual and community initiatives has largely become the realm of professionals and entrepreneurs. Fig. 1 provides a typology of the four main categories of planned events within an event-tourism context, including the main venues associated with each. Business events (or the MICE sector) require convention and exhibition centres, including numerous, smaller private parties and functions held in restaurants, hotels, or resorts. Sports also require special-purpose facilities including athletic parks, arenas and stadia. Festivals and other cultural celebrations are less dependent on facilities and can use parks, streets, theatres, concert halls and all other public or private venues. Entertainment events, such as concerts, are generally provided by the private sector and utilize many types of venue.

It was only a few decades ago that 'event tourism' as a phenomenon became established as a recognisable term within the tourism industry and research community, so that subsequent growth of this sector can only be described as spectacular. One indication of the progress can be gauged from searches of the scientific literature since 2007 when the initial Getz (2008) review was undertaken. SCOPUS results based on a search for the period 2008–October 2014 report over 1000 articles using the search terms 'event' + 'tourism', with an increasingly interdisciplinary focus within the literature. If one then assumes that even 10

references in each article are from events-related literature (and the bibliographies of these articles typically cite a much more comprehensive events related literature than that), then we see the field is drawing upon a burgeoning literature base of over 10,000 items as a conservative estimate, probably nearing 15,000 items. This makes producing a second synthesis of the research literature increasingly challenging and requiring certain parameters to be established to draw out the essence of growth in the field since 2007, the end date when the previous review was undertaken (Getz, 2008). For this reason, the review is necessarily selective in what it draws upon citing major studies in the leading interdisciplinary and specialist journals in cognate fields (e.g. tourism, leisure, hospitality) as well as the increasing move towards new areas (e.g. risk, travel medicine, history, planning and cultural studies) where the focus is related to event tourism. Clearly this requires a certain academic judgement on what to include and not include (i.e. excluding conference papers). Therefore, the purpose of the review is to demonstrate this expanding nucleus of knowledge that continues to assist in our understanding of event tourism, building upon elements of the previous article that remain valid in 2015. We deliberately exclude the debates on event studies (see Getz, 2012a, 2012b) and event management (Bowdin, Allen, Harris, McDonnell, & O'Toole, 2012) as sub-fields, deliberately structuring the review around germane concepts and approaches to event tourism that help in our synthesis of this large knowledge base that is expanding across the social sciences. Critics may point to missing themes, articles or studies and we accept that achieving a comprehensive coverage from the volume of material is impossible even in an article of this extended length.

1.1. Structure of the paper

To aid the reader, the paper is structured in three discrete sections: the conceptualisation of event tourism and then progress in the research literature and then a model of the event tourism system: We commence the first section by discussing the epistemology and ontology of event tourism to outline some of the key propositions around events tourism so as to highlight its significance to tourism, in much the same way that previous reviews (e.g. Ashworth & Page, 2011 on urban tourism) have done. Following on

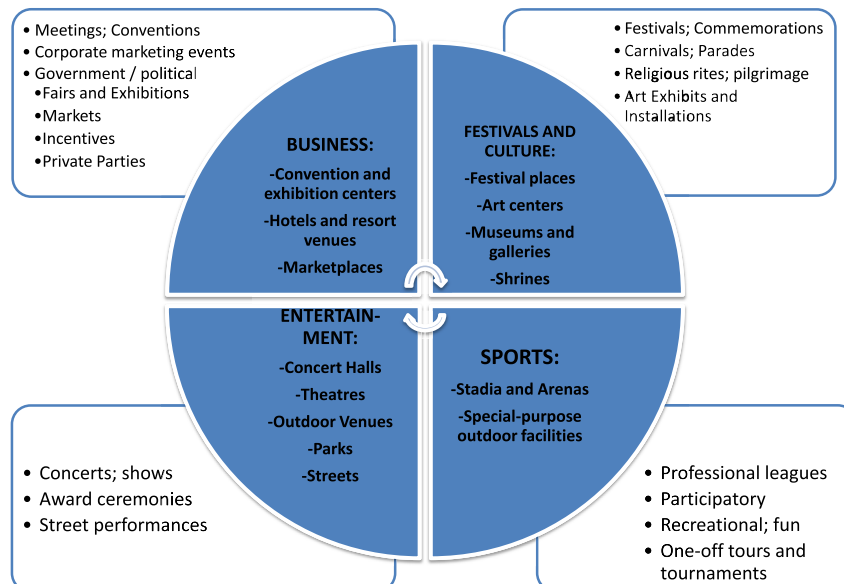


Fig. 1. Typology of planned events and venues: An event-tourism perspective.

from the propositions, the conceptualisation of event tourism is discussed in terms of “the tourism perspective” is examined where event tourism is defined from both a demand and supply perspective, utilising Leiper’s (1979) tourism system model. A number of event tourism career paths are identified (Fig. 3) which arises from the event tourism nexus. This is followed by a more focused discussion of the destination perspective in which an event portfolio model is examined (Fig. 4) and role of tourism organisations. This strategic approach can help shape evaluation, planning, and policy for events. An event-centric perspective on event tourism is discussed, referring to how many events are marketed to attract tourists. The conceptual section concludes with a brief review of major trends in the context of propelling and constraining forces, and this helps to explain the phenomenal growth of events and event tourism.

The second part of the review then reviews “Event tourism in the research literature” commencing with a review of key journals, then a chronological summary that reveals the origins and evolution of event tourism within the context of both tourism and event management. Developments subsequent to 2007 have been added, with citations, primarily from journals (although some books are referred to when they are advancing the field forward as major syntheses). A thematic approach is then taken by assessing literature specific to the four general categories of events and related venues (i.e. business, sport, festivals, and entertainment) that dominate praxis and have attracted the most attention from researchers.

The last section of the paper presents a model (Fig. 5) of the event tourism system emanating from the synthesis of the concepts and literature. The core phenomenon (event experiences and meanings) is introduced followed by the antecedents and choices (including motivation research), planning and managing event tourism, patterns and processes (including spatial, temporal, policy making and knowledge creation), outcomes and the impacted. Tables 2–10 provide a summary of established research themes and key concepts and terms within event tourism, categorized by reference to the main elements in the framework. Each table also considers future directions by pinpointing emerging or desired lines of research, as well as methodologies, so that these can be

viewed as a research agenda. The paper concludes with a discussion of implications for the practice of event management and tourism as well as in advancing theory in event tourism.

2. The epistemology and ontology of event tourism

From the point of view of professional praxis, or industry, we are dealing with the nexus of event and tourism management. But is there a distinct and substantial body of knowledge that justifies treatment of event tourism as a field of study? Ontologically, this question requires the identification of distinct claims to knowledge, core concepts and terminology, leading to the conclusion that event tourism is a sub-field of both event and tourism studies. This ontological analysis is quite different from epistemological considerations where we examine the foundation disciplines and their theories and methodologies.

A set of core propositions that started as reflections upon observable phenomena have subsequently shaped the entire event-tourism discourse. These propositions are well established in the literature, with plenty of research support, but they are not predictive or explanatory theories; they are a stage in theory development and can readily be turned into hypotheses for testing. For example, while it is obvious that events attract many tourists around the world, generating huge expenditures and helping to overcome seasonality and animate places, one cannot use this knowledge to predict the specific outcomes of any given planned event or event-tourism strategy.

The discourses associated with events and tourism and the ontological mapping of event studies have been discussed by Getz (2012a, 2012b). In that paper consideration was given to the theoretical and methodological contributions of various foundation disciplines, along with public policy implications. This has led to the evolution of event studies that has evolved to a more social science informed subject area passing through a series of phases of growth as will be highlighted in Section 3 later. What Fig. 2 depicts is the way in which event studies now incorporates a wider perspective of event scholarship in which event management and event tourism are situated as foundation blocks for event studies. This suggests why the exploration of the nexus of event and leisure

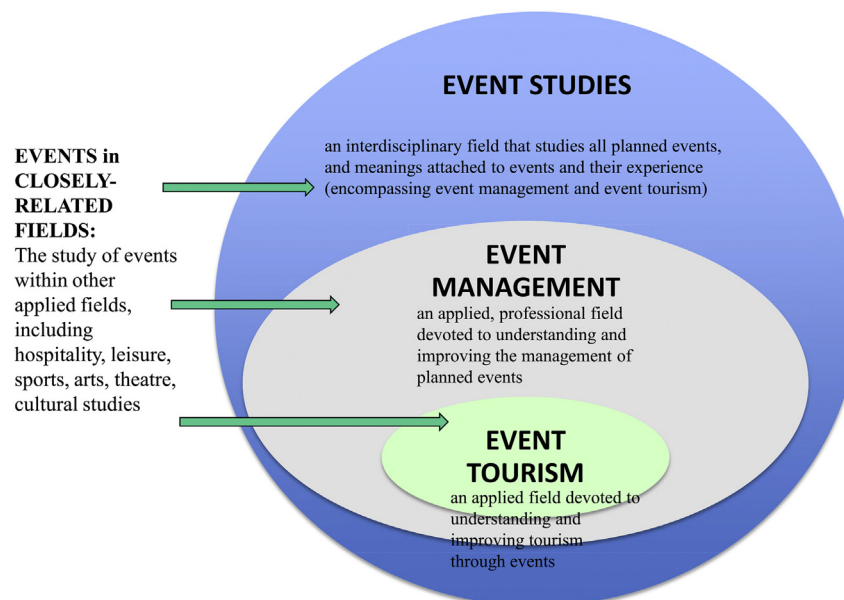


Fig. 2. Event studies, event management and event tourism.

TYPICAL FUNCTIONS	MAJOR TASKS
Event Facilitator/Coordinator	-work with events in the destination to help realize their tourism potential (funding, advice, marketing) -liaison with convention/exhibition centres and other venues - liaison with sport and other organizations that produce events
Event Tourism Producer	-create and produce events specifically for their tourism value -stakeholder management (with numerous event partners)
Event Tourism Planner	-develop a strategy for the destination -integrate events with product development and image making/branding
Event Tourism Policy Analyst and Researcher	-work with policy makers to facilitate event tourism -conduct research (e.g., feasibility studies, demand forecasting, impact assessments and performance evaluations)
Event Bidding	-bid on events -develop relationships leading to winning events for the destination -conduct risk assessments and feasibility studies for each potential bid
Event Services	-provide essential and special services to events (e.g., travel and logistics; accommodation and venue bookings; supplier contacts)

Fig. 3. Event tourism career paths.

studies is of considerable relevance beyond the event tourism focus as leisure is a more all-embracing paradigm in which tourism is situated. The leisure dimensions were illustrated by Page and Connell (2010a) and Patterson and Getz (2013) where the contributing concepts and underlying focus is on entertainment, consumption and the desire to attend events in modern society.

2.1. The core propositions

The core propositions of event tourism essentially define an instrumentalist sub-field. The ontology of event tourism consists of claims to knowledge related to these propositions, together with concepts and terminology specific to them. These can also be

viewed as goals to pursue or as development roles played by events. The logic is cascading, starting with the observable phenomenon that events attract tourists (See Table 1).

Embedded in the core propositions in Table 1 are many related propositions or assumptions that are rooted in event and tourism studies. Since the starting point is the observable phenomenon that events attract tourists, there has emerged research themes on motivation and what makes events needed and attractive. The benefits of event tourism are both generic to leisure and travel, and specific to special interests. Meanings attached to event tourism cover the spectrum from personal identity and development to economic, social and cultural development, but are highly dependent upon one’s perspective; often it is the distribution of costs and

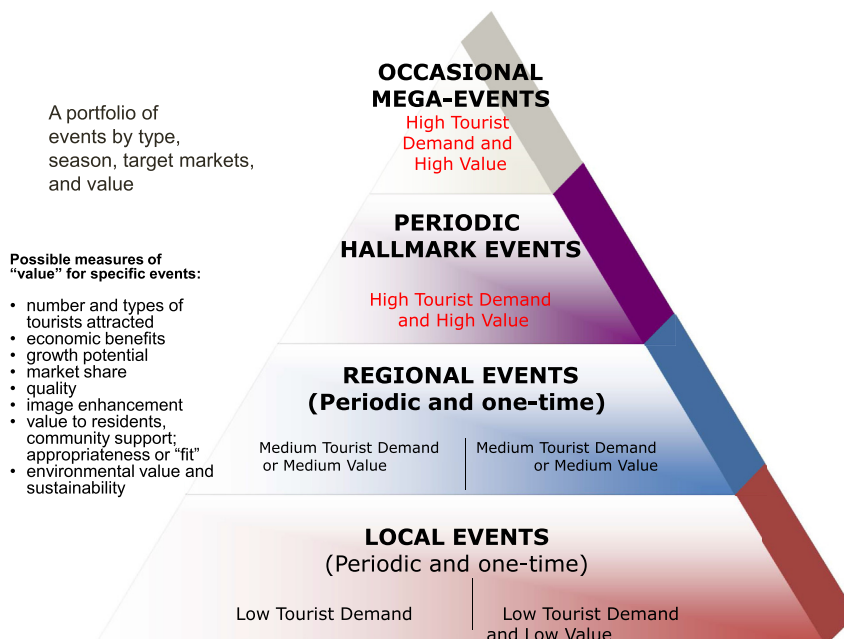


Fig. 4. The Portfolio approach.

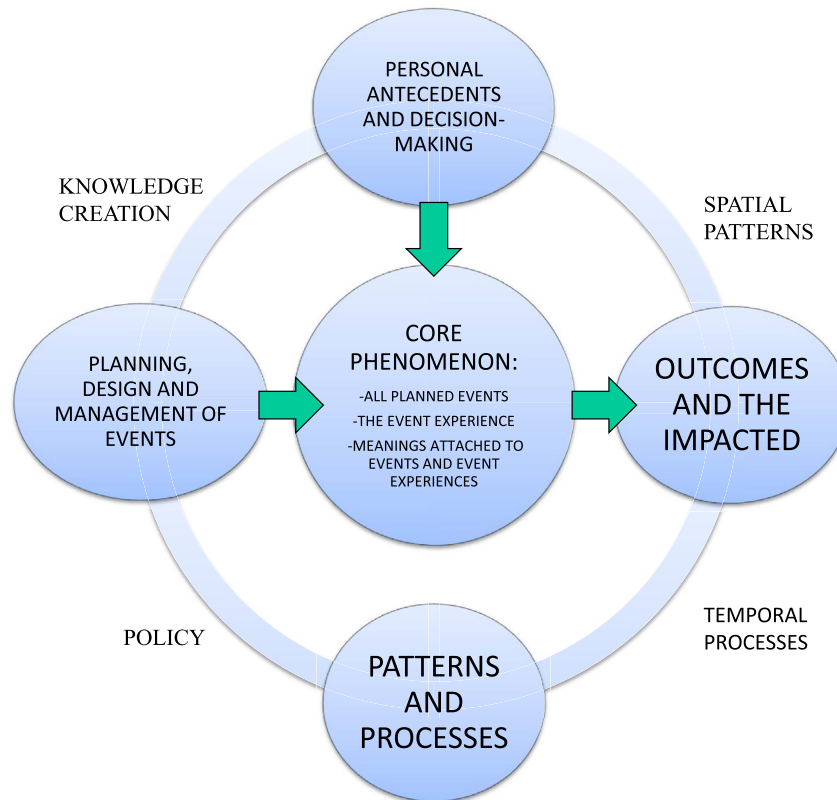


Fig. 5. A framework for studying knowledge on event tourism (After Getz, 2005, 2013a).

benefits that should be of paramount concern. Distinct concepts and terms do exist in the ontology of event tourism, and these are identified throughout the paper. They include terms linked to the functionality of events (i.e., destination, hallmark, mega, regional and iconic event), and those related to event tourists, such as the event-tourist career trajectory.

Ontological mapping, in which claims to knowledge are identified, is quite different from the listing of things to know and skills to possess that constitute professional standards such as [EMBOK](http://www.embok.org/) (the event management body of knowledge – see www.embok.org/) and [MBECS](http://www.mpiweb.org/MBECS) (Meeting and Business Event Competency Standards – see www.mpiweb.org/MBECS). Both these projects lend themselves to development of curriculum and certification processes, but do not establish knowledge or the means to acquire it.

Table 1
Core propositions of event tourism.

- | | |
|----|--|
| a) | Events can attract tourists (and others, such as sponsors and the media) who otherwise might not visit a particular place; the spending of event tourists generates economic benefits; event tourism can be leveraged for maximum value in combatting seasonality of demand, spreading tourism geographically, and assisting in other forms of urban and economic development; portfolios of events can be designed for maximum impact, especially by appealing to multiple target segments. |
| b) | Events can create positive images for the destination and help brand or re-position cities. |
| c) | Events contribute to place marketing by making cities more liveable and attractive. |
| d) | Events animate cities, resorts, parks, urban spaces and venues of all kinds, making them more attractive to visit and re-visit, and utilizing them more efficiently. |
| e) | Event tourism acts as a catalyst for other forms of desired development (including urban renewal, community capacity building, voluntarism and improved marketing), thereby generating a long-term or permanent legacy. |

2.2. The emergence of event tourism as a research paradigm

The term ‘event(s) tourism’ was not widely used, if at all, prior to 1987 when The [New Zealand Tourist and Publicity Department \(1987\)](#) reported: “Event tourism is an important and rapidly growing segment of international tourism”. [Getz \(1989\)](#) developed a framework for planning ‘events tourism’. Prior to that, conventional reference to special events, hallmark events, mega events and specific types of events dominated the discussion. Therefore, 1989 marks a watershed in the recognition of the term ‘event tourism’, generally recognized as being inclusive of all planned events in an integrated approach to development and marketing.

As with all forms of special-interest travel, event tourism can be categorised into demand and supply issues. ‘Special’ in this context refers to the experiences of tourists who are motivated by particular interests ([Trauer, 2006](#)) and not what is offered by way of products. This definition suggests that only intrinsically motivated travel qualifies, but this cannot be true as many trips to events combine intrinsic (i.e., freely-chosen leisure) and extrinsic motivations (i.e., arising from the demands or expectations of others, including work and career advancement, or in pursuit of offered rewards). A demand-side or consumer perspective (see [Getz, 2013a](#)) requires determining *who travels for events* and *why*, and also *who attends events while traveling*. Additional attributes to assess are what ‘event tourists’ do and spend. Included in this demand studies are the assessments of the value of events in promoting a positive destination image, place marketing in general, and co-branding with destinations. In supply terms, destinations develop, facilitate and promote events of all kinds to meet the multiple goals discussed in the core propositions. This can be called ‘industry’, but it is more appropriately thought of as a strategic area of tourism and place-marketing praxis ([Leiper, 2008](#)).

There is no real justification for considering event tourism as a separate field of study. The constraint is that both tourism and event studies are necessary to understand this kind of experience. There are sub areas like sport and cultural tourism (in which intrinsic motivations prevail) and business travel (mostly extrinsically motivated) that also focus on the event tourism experience (for example, see Music Events in Gibson & Connell, 2012). In a similar vein, Deery, Jago, and Fredline (2004) asked if sport tourism and event tourism are the same thing. Their conceptualization showed sport tourism as being at the nexus of event tourism and sport, with both sport tourism and event tourism being sub-sets of tourism in general. Indeed, there is almost limitless potential for sub-dividing tourism studies and management in this manner.

Event tourism is not usually recognized as a separate professional field. Mostly it is seen as an application of, or speciality within national tourism offices (NTOs) and destination marketing/management organizations (DMOs). Event development agencies (as opposed to agencies focused on protocol, arts and culture which also deal with planned events) embody event tourism completely, and there are a growing number of associated career paths or technical jobs, as illustrated in Fig. 3.

Research on event-tourism careers has been minimal. McCabe (2008, 2012) has examined careers and career planning and development for the convention and exhibition industry, while Ladkin and Weber (2010) looked at the Asian context in the same sector. Baum, Deery, Hanlon, Lockstone, and Smith (2009) examined work in events and conventions. Profiles of professionals documented by Getz (2013a, 2013b) demonstrate how direct experience in the event sector, especially organization and marketing, was essential for those occupying private and public-sector positions. A more recent review by Getz (2014) has also highlighted wider debates associated with the evolving nature of such pathways and Barron and Leask (2012) focused on the wider debates around event education. University education for event-tourism careers is similarly underdeveloped, with Indiana University – Purdue University in Indianapolis offering the only named degree in Event Tourism, being at the Masters level. Many degree programs in tourism that feature event management do combine the subjects, such as the Master's Degree in Event Management for Tourism at Universidad Europea de Madrid.

2.3. *The destination perspective on event tourism: the portfolio approach*

The specific role of a DMO (destination marketing organization) is generally to promote tourism – both business and leisure motivated (see Pike and Page 2014 for a detailed review). Conventions are considered business travel and participation sport events or festivals are part of leisure travel. In a study of Canadian visitor and convention bureaus (Getz, Anderson, & Sheehan, 1998), events were revealed to be one of the few areas of product development engaged in by DMOs; typically their membership (often dominated by commercial accommodation operators and attractions) want visitor demand all year round. Yet the contribution to events to inbound tourism growth through time via sport events, for example, is often one approach utilised to justify the importance of such events (see Nishio, 2013). Adopting a comprehensive portfolio approach leads to greater emphasis on creating new events and attracting them through competitive bidding although this is not without its critics as it depends upon the political economy and mandate for such bidding (see Sant, Mason and Hinch, 2013 and the Vancouver 2010 Games). Similarly, Liu, Broom and Wilson (2014) point to the legacy for Beijing 2010 and the support from residents in other cities to adopt such an approach to destination development.

The portfolio approach (see Fig. 4) is similar to how a company strategically evaluates and develops its line of products and services, or how financial assets are managed. It is goal-driven, and value-based (Ziakis 2010). Ziakas (2013:14) defined “An event portfolio ... [as] ... the strategic patterning of disparate but inter-related events taking place during the course of a year in a host community that as a whole is intended to achieve multiple outcomes through the implementation of joint event strategies.” Destinations must decide what they want from events (the benefits), and how they will measure their assets' short-term and accumulating value within the prevailing political economy of public funding for such public sector interventions in a locality. Public acceptance of such strategies and localised benefits remain a contested area of study and run in parallel to the historical debates on how destinations leveraged public sector support for tourism promotion in the nineteenth century (See Pike and Page 2014) and events. Interesting studies from the history of sport have demonstrated these debates in the case of the Stockholm 1912 Olympic Games (Edvinsson, 2014) and at a local level (e.g. Noël, 2008). More recently, the debates associated with bidding for and hosting European City of Culture (Richards and Palmer, 2010) continue these debates over the use of public funds to bid for and then invest in the infrastructure in host cities to leverage long-term tourism development initially via events. Therefore, the notion of the event portfolio remains a key concept in seeking to assess “The return or benefit realised on the investment in an events portfolio is various and distributed over time” (O'Toole, 2011: 6). Portfolio management is therefore strategic and quite different from typical project management as applied to events. Asset management theory has a key role to play in event tourism, argued O'Toole, including the matter of how to dispose of non-performers.

Within the portfolio model, two terms are notable: ‘Mega events’, with a long history of their use to enhance tourist attractiveness and related image-making or developmental roles (e.g., Gripsrud, Nes, & Olsson, 2010; Grix, 2012). Indeed, this was the subject of an AIEST conference in 1987. The perceived successes of mega events, including the Brisbane World's Fair and America's Cup Defence in Perth, Australia, definitely stimulated the creation of event development agencies, research, and event management programs, helping position Australia as a world leader. A similar consequence of staging major events has been observed in other countries, including New Zealand (Gnoth & Anwar, 2000). The other notable term is ‘hallmark event’ which has various meanings. Ritchie (1984, p. 2) published the first general discussion of their impacts and referred to them as “Major one-time or recurring events of limited duration, developed primarily to enhance the awareness, appeal and profitability of a tourism destination” adopting a typology that included World Fairs/Expositions, Unique Carnivals and Festivals, Major Sport Events, Significant Cultural and Religious Events, Historical Milestones, Classical Commercial and Agricultural Events and Major Political Personage Events. C.M. Hall (1989: 263) defined hallmark events this way, incorporating the key consideration of international stature: “Hallmark tourist events are major fairs, expositions, cultural and sporting events of international status which are held on either a regular or a one-off basis. A primary function of the hallmark event is to provide the host community with an opportunity to secure high prominence in the tourism market place.” In his subsequent book on Hallmark Events, Hall added (1992: 1): “Hallmark events are the image builders of modern tourism ...”, but he also equated the term with “mega or special events”.

Getz (2005, p. 16) used the term in a manner more specifically tied to image making, place marketing and destination branding where ‘hallmark’ describes an event that possesses such significance, in terms of tradition, attractiveness, quality, or publicity, that

the event provides the host venue, community, or destination with a competitive advantage. Over time, the event and destination can become inextricably linked, such as Mardi Gras and New Orleans.

While occasional mega events are generally perceived to be a means to pump-prime or boost image, tourism, and development in general, hallmark events may, for a fraction of the cost, provide permanent benefits that are valued by the entire community (see for example, the classic sociological study by [Duvignaud, 1976](#) on festivals). [Getz and Andersson \(2008\)](#) and [Getz, Svensson, Pettersson, and Gunnervall \(2012\)](#) argued that events that become permanent institutions have assured resources and political support, and are viewed as valued traditions, and perform essential roles within the community (see [Jepson, Clarke, & Ragsdell, 2014](#); [Jepson and Clark, 2014](#) for recent examples of such events).

'Local' and 'regional' events, occupying the base levels of the portfolio pyramid, are problematic from a tourism perspective. Some of these events have tourism potential that can be developed, requiring investment, and some are not interested in tourism per se—perhaps even feeling threatened by it. If local events are primarily community or culturally oriented there is a good argument to be made for not exploiting them. Certainly the issue of preserving cultural authenticity (e.g. [Matheson, Rimmer, & Tinsley, 2014](#)) and local control emerges whenever tourism goals are attached to local and regional events and the Scottish Highland Games is a case in point ([Brewster, Page and Connell 2009](#)) where the tourism potential varies according to the scale of the event, its history and organising committee and its reliance upon volunteerism (e.g. [Benson, Dickson, Terwiel, & Blackman, 2014](#); [Wang & Yu, 2015](#)). In addition, [Brida, Disegna, and Scuderi \(2014\)](#) highlight the importance of the 'local' in Christmas markets. There are also important strategic differences to be drawn between event tourism activity that has longevity versus that which is based upon a short-term fad as illustrated by [Chang and Mahadevan \(2014\)](#) using contingent valuation methods to distinguish between the willingness to pay for long-term performing arts compared to visual arts that were seen as faddish.

When contemplating generic event development strategies, some destinations appear to over-emphasize mega events to the detriment of a more balanced portfolio, while others pursue the promotion of one or more events as destination hallmarks to signify both quality and other brand values. [Santos \(2014\)](#) points to the history of Brazil with its bidding for mega events such as the 1919 South American Football Cup through to the 2014 hosting of the World Cup and 2016 Olympic Games. Santos also analysed this strategy in terms of the country's principal approach to international politics in the twenty-first century. A related strategy is to deliberately seek to elevate existing events into those with hallmark status, a process that can be said to 'institutionalize' events. This was demonstrated by [Lavenda \(1980\)](#) in the political analysis of the Carnival of Caracas, Venezuela where the old Carnival was transformed into a highly organised, European mass event. As [Lavenda \(1980\)](#) illustrated, the wild, rowdy and attitude of a barbaric event was pilloried in the media to justify the creation of the civilizing model which was modelled on the Carnivals in Venice, Paris and Rome (i.e. masked and with floats) to create a directed and institutionalised events in which around 30% of the population became involved. A more recent trend is for DMOs and event development agencies to create and produce their own major events as part of a sophisticated branding strategy. An important consideration is that the typology of events in the portfolio model is based on functionality; this is the degree to which certain economic, tourism or political goals can be met through hosting and marketing events. As such it represents a discourse dominated by specific developmental and political assumptions that might run

counter to an events strategy based on fostering community development, culture, sport, leisure, health or other aims which may require long-term research activity to assess (e.g. see [Benedict & Dobkin's, 1983](#) anthropology of World Fairs) for localities.

It is also possible to classify events on the basis of their place attachment, being the degree to which they are associated with, or institutionalized in a particular community or destination, epitomised in the Scottish Highland Games worldwide. Mega events are typically global in their orientation and require a competitive bid to 'win' them as a one-time event for a particular place (see [Lai, 2015](#)). By contrast, 'hallmark events' cannot exist independently of their host community, and 'local' or 'regional' events are by definition rooted in one place and appeal mostly to residents. As the number, size and significance of events and event-tourism increases, greater attention to the dynamics and management of portfolios and whole populations of events is required. Population studies have been scarce, with research in Norway leading the field (e.g. [Getz, Andersson, & Mykletun, 2013](#); [Jaeger and Mykletun, 2013](#)). The application of organizational ecology theory helps explain how the fate of individual events is dependent upon processes of competition versus co-operation, resource limits, finding a sustainable niche, or being a generalist versus a specialist in terms of resources and target markets. The event development agencies that exist in every state and major city in Australia certainly led the way in developing a collaborative model for event tourism development. For example, EventsCorp Western Australia and Queensland Events Corp (now Queensland Tourism and Events), have strategies, policies and programs for attracting, bidding, developing and assisting events primarily to foster tourism. [Getz \(1997, 2005\)](#) profiled the Queensland agency, while [Getz and Fairley \(2004\)](#) examined media management issues surrounding the state agency's two major 'owned' events on the Gold Coast.

A substantial part of the event tourism business of DMOs and event development agencies is bidding on events that have owners. This process has been described as a special-purpose marketplace by [Getz \(2004b\)](#) who studied the event bidding goals, methods and attributed success factors of Canadian DMOs. Bidding has also been studied by [Emery \(2001\)](#), [Persson \(2002\)](#), and [Westerbeek, Turner, and Ingerson \(2002\)](#), [Berridge \(2010\)](#), and [Foley, McGillivray, and McPherson \(2012\)](#). [Lockstone-Binney, Whitelaw, Robertson, Juneke, and Michael \(2014\)](#) have extended this rather neglected line of research by focussing on the roles of ambassadors in the bidding process.

[Gnoth and Anwar \(2000\)](#) examined New Zealand's event tourism initiatives and offered a framework for developing an effective strategy. Although it is obvious that resources have to be committed, perhaps a more important issue was determining how to measure the country's return on investment and to coordinate the various stakeholders necessary to become competitive. [Getz \(2003b\)](#) provided specific advice on planning and developing sport event tourism, including a case study from Seminole County, Florida, to illustrate supply, demand and process issues. [Higham \(2005\)](#) is an excellent source of practical planning and marketing advice on that sector, while [O'Toole \(2011\)](#) features festival tourism. Additional examples include the study by [Getz \(2013\)](#) which derived examples from EventScotland, representing a national event tourism strategy and program, Visit Denver as a city that produces its own events, and also Calgary Sports Tourism Authority and Northern Ireland Tourist Board. A systematic comparison of organizational and strategic approaches to event tourism should be a research priority to begin to appreciate the various approaches possible for organisations to aid organisational learning for destinations. For example, in addressing peripherality and to achieve place branding outcomes, Jutland's food and lobster festival created both local and external audiences ([Blichfeldt & Halkier, 2014](#)).

To be most effective, the DMO or event agency has to establish relationships with the event sector and individual events, hence a network approach is useful as [Frew and Williams \(2014\)](#) study of the tourism relationships with sport, dance and events. This reiterates many of the findings of other studies such as [Whitford's \(2004a, 2004b\)](#) research in Australia which documented the development of event tourism policies and programs, particularly as a tool in regional development, a classic theme that can be dated to [Coppock's \(1977\)](#) seminal study of tourism. In one region, [Whitford \(2004a\)](#) found that policies did not give adequate recognition to the roles of events in fostering regional growth, being largely socio-cultural in nature. This revealed a gap and disconnect between local authority policies and those of states and the nation that aggressively pursued event tourism for its economic benefits.

Similarly, [Stokes \(2004\)](#) studied the Australian event development agencies from the perspective of stakeholder networks, collaboration, and strategy making, and specifically looked at the relevance of the concept of knowledge networks. [Stokes' \(2008\)](#) analysis revealed the dominance of a corporate orientation in which event-related strategy and decisions were made at the state level. A 'soft' or informal network of stakeholders existed, dominated by a core of influential governmental agencies which varied depending on whether the agency was engaged in event bidding, development or marketing. This approach contrasted with the community orientation found at the regional-authority level, where more formal networking occurred between public agencies and private organizations for the purpose of actually producing events. [Phi, Dredge, and Whitford \(2014\)](#) also examined the role of Q method in resolving problems in the planning and management of events amongst different stakeholders (also see [Andersson & Getz, 2009](#) for a fuller discussion of the scope of organizations involved in event tourism).

Most strategy, development and marketing research in the event-tourism sector has been developed from a supply perspective, that is focused on selling space in venues, marketing existing events, and bidding on one-time events. Achieving competitive advantage in this global marketplace requires increasing investment in infrastructure and bidding capabilities, with the result of increasing power for the owners of popular events and the division of destinations into 'leagues' defined by the size and quality of their venues and other resources. Global cities are now the only ones able to compete for the most desired mega events. A demand perspective offers greater scope for innovation and growth, potentially at much lower costs and risks. This strategy is based on market intelligence to gain greater understanding of the motivations and social worlds of special-interest groups. Leisure and sports in particular present almost unlimited potential for growth, as involvement in any sport, hobby, artistic expression or lifestyle pursuit leads to event-related travel ([Getz & Patterson, 2013](#)), often mediated by formal organizations such as DMOs, travel companies and clubs. For example, DMOs such as Visit Denver produce their own events to fill gaps in its event portfolio.

2.4. An event-centric perspective on event tourism

Many planned events are produced with little or no thought given to their tourism appeal or potential since that is not always the intended outcome. Sometimes this is due to the organizers' specific aims, and sometimes there is simply no relationship established between events and tourism. In Calgary, case study research ([Getz, Andersson, & Larson, 2007](#)) found that seven festivals were overlooked by the DMO that had limited or no interest in their tourism potential. This situation had evidently arisen because of the absence of both a tourism plan and a comprehensive events policy. It appeared that the long-standing promotion of one hallmark event, the annual Calgary Exhibition and Stampede,

results in small festivals being perceived as insignificant, overshadowed in the media, and somewhat deprived of sponsorship—according to the festival managers.

Festivals and events desiring the support or cooperation of tourism agencies, or simply looking for increased respect, tend to conduct tourism and economic impact studies to 'prove' their value in economic terms. A significant number of such studies were also undertaken in the early new millennium by Scottish Enterprise with its involvement in using events as a means to address market failure in visitor markets and to intervene to stimulate off-peak growth ([Page and Connell 2012](#)). This saw many events reach the first stage of growth, which can broadly be labelled as becoming a tourist attraction, then the next stage would be to use that positioning to gain legitimacy or foster growth. In the context of stakeholder and resource dependency theory, events must secure tangible resources and political support to become sustainable, giving up a degree of independence in the process and creating long-term value in the event transaction and offer.

Creating and marketing events as tourist attractions, or as image makers and catalysts, requires a marketing orientation and commitment to customer service. Destination events, those that are intended to attract tourists, have to be positioned and branded in such a way as to be attractive both to those seeking generic benefits such as entertainment, socializing and escapism – often these will be residents – and those with special interests who seek very specific benefits. For example, [Tkaczynski and Toh's \(2014\)](#) analysis of visitor motivation at a multicultural event highlighted many of these broad benefits in their factor analysis identifying people, escape, culture and enjoyment as key elements within their segmentation study. In this context hallmark events satisfy both benefit categories, being established traditions for residents, while iconic events hold symbolic value for special-interest travellers.

Models consisting of goals and processes for developing hallmark and iconic destination events have been published in [Getz et al. \(2012\)](#) and [Getz \(2013a, 2013b\)](#). When events are purposefully established to be tourist attractions, market intelligence – especially to understand special interest groups within their social worlds – is the key. But when they are also intended to become permanent institutions, a much broader consideration of stakeholders and community benefits is necessary as [Pappas \(2014\)](#) observed with the London Olympics in 2012. Yet such planned growth also has to be set against constraining forces or inhibitors that will certainly slow or halt growth. The most problematic are climate change (see [Scott, Steiger, Rutty, & Johnson, 2014](#)) and rising fuel costs which can impact leisure and tourism simultaneously. [Jones \(2012\)](#) argued that a combination of public-sector cuts owing to recession, higher energy costs and regulations stemming from worries about climate change make the events sector vulnerable; retrenchment might be imminent. [Hall \(2012\)](#), amongst others, questioned the sustainability of mega events and noted that it is unlikely that the convergence of political and corporate interests that favour mega events will adapt steady-state sustainability principles. New research perspectives on constraints or inhibiting factors are being better understood from the interdisciplinary growth of work from tourist health and safety, especially travel medicine with its focus on risk and disease. For example, [van Panhuis et al. \(2014\)](#) examined the risk of dengue fever among visitors to the World Cup 2014 estimating risk rates of getting the disease given the local immunity to the disease.

3. Event tourism in the research literature

The ensuing discussion aims to be systematically comprehensive, leading to identification of theoretical and research themes and gaps. First, a chronological review is provided, showing how

this sub-field originated and evolved. Then a thematic review is undertaken, looking specifically at types of events and ‘mega-events’. Earlier literature reviews have been consulted. These include reviews of research in the event management field by Formica (1998), Getz (2000b), and Harris, Jago, Allen, and Huyskens (2001). Hede, Jago, and Deery (2003) reviewed special events research for the period of 1990–2002. Sherwood's doctoral dissertation (2007) also entailed a large-scale review of pertinent literature and specifically examined 85 event economic impact studies prepared in Australia. A review by Mair and Whitford (2013), employing the Q-sort technique to elicit expert opinion, concluded that the majority of outputs had focused on economic impacts. Yet Mair and Whitford (2013) acknowledged that the most important topics for future research were socio-cultural and community impacts, then environmental impacts and sustainability issues as well as the policy dimensions of event tourism.

3.1. Review of key journals

Events are a very well established theme within tourism, with the first event-related articles appearing in the 1970s. Most tourism journals contain articles of relevance to event-tourism, but a complete review of all of them has not been attempted. Geographic coverage is expanding, in part owing to the spread of event tourism around the globe, and in a part a reflection of the growing number of scholars interested in event studies. There have been surges in research tied to mega-events in particular, and this has had the effect of greatly increasing event scholarship within, and external interest in host countries.

The most consulted tourism journals are *Annals of Tourism Research* (*Annals*), *Journal of Travel Research* (*JTR*) and *Tourism Management* (*TM*). Kim, Boo, and Kim (2013) conducted a review of event-related articles published in these three, consisting of 178 research papers from 1980 to 2010. They found 25% were published in *Annals*, 30% in *JTR* and 45% in *TM*. Of these, the most frequently covered were sporting events (22.5%). The authors were surprised to learn that only 41% of the papers examined the event-tourism perspective (as opposed to organisational/management topics) with impact assessments dominating as well as a focus on international-scale events, such as the Olympics which have created their own genre of books and journal outputs across the social sciences. Interest in participants, residents and tourists had also increased over the 30 years, *JTR* having a greater focus on behaviour and economic impacts, while *Annals* addressed a wider range of topics, and *TM* published papers focused on the planning and management of event tourism. Kim et al. (2013) argued that more research was needed on the individual behavioural and psychological factors of event tourists and on non-economic impacts.

The event-focused journals are primarily management oriented, but *Event Management* (called *Festival Management* and *Event Tourism* from its inception in 1973 through the first five volumes until 2000) has contained tourism-specific articles from the very first issue. North American content has dominated, but it has become increasingly international in scope. Tourism-related content from 2012 through 2014 (vols. 16–18) covered a wide range of topics including papers on: golf, music and festival tourism, social, image and economic impacts, visitor motivation, experience and spending, event quality and tourist satisfaction, capacity building, event-tourism development and legacies, support for events, mega-event sustainability, and destination and venue selection for conventions. As examples of geographic coverage, Pechlaner, Dal Bò, and Pichler (2013) examined destination images and cultural events in Italy, Blešić, Pivac, Stamenković, and Besermenji (2013) researched music festival motives in Serbia, and Avgousti (2012)

reviewed event tourism in Cyprus. Oh and Lee (2012) studied festival tourism in Korea, Trost and Milohnic (2012) looked at management attitudes towards event impacts in Croatia, Mohan and Thomas (2012) focused on team identification and sport-event travel in the USA. Kruger and Saayman (2013) undertook research on music festivals in South Africa, while Whitford and Dunn (2014) reported on research concerning indigenous festivals in Papua New Guinea and Tikkanen (2008) examined the internationalisation of such festivals. There were other articles focused on Singapore, Canada, Australia, Germany, Switzerland, Sweden, Finland, Norway, Italy, Serbia, England and Scotland. There are now many Chinese scholars studying events and tourism but China-specific publications in English-language journals have so far been few.

Convention and Event Tourism has a mandate to cover both event operations and event tourism. Given its previous name, *Convention and Exhibition Management*, this journal features more content on MICE or business events, and somewhat less on sports and cultural productions. The *International Journal of Event and Festival Management* does not focus on tourism, yet many articles are pertinent. Event-tourism content is also found in the *International Journal of Event Management Research* (a free, online journal) and the *Journal of Policy Research in Tourism, Leisure and Events*. Given the magnitude of sport-event tourism it is no surprise that various sport journals extensively cover event-tourism topics, with the *Journal of Sport and Tourism* being the most prominent.

3.2. A chronological review of the event tourism literature

Important concepts and terminology are highlighted, with particular reference to seminal contributions. The review ends with articles and books published by early 2015, including volume 18(3) in *Event Management*. Given the ever-increasing number of pertinent articles and books complete coverage has become nearly impossible, but more important is the identification of themes, issues and trends.

3.2.1. The formative years

Formica (1998) found a limited number of papers on events management or tourism published in the 1970s—with a total of four in *Annals of Tourism Research* and *Journal of Travel Research*. Events were not yet ‘attractions’ within the tourism system of Gunn's (1979) landmark book, *Tourism Planning*, although in passing he did mention ‘places for festivals and conventions’. In the 1960s and 1970s the events sector was not recognized as an area of separate study within leisure (Page and Connell 2010b), tourism or recreation, all of which were rapidly growing in the academic community and in professional practice. Boorstin (1961), a historian, first drew attention to the phenomenon of ‘pseudo events’ created for publicity and political purposes. Attention was paid to festivals as anthropology, sociology and art. For example, Greenwood's (1972) study of a Basque festival from an anthropological perspective lamented the negative influence of commodification for tourism purposes on authentic cultural celebrations. The authenticity of events, their social-cultural impacts, and effects of tourism on events remain enduring themes as the antecedents were outlined earlier in this paper with classic studies by Benedict and Dobkin (1983), Duvignaud (1976) and Lavenda, 1980). J.R.B. Ritchie and Beliveau (1974) was the first to specifically focus on event tourism illustrating how ‘hallmark events’ could combat seasonality of tourism demand, with a case study of the Quebec Winter Carnival. The paper included citation of an unpublished study of the economic impacts of the Quebec Winter Carnival dated 1962, which is perhaps the earliest such study recorded in the research literature. Most of the pioneering

published studies were single-event economic impact assessments, notably [Vaughan's \(1979\)](#) study of the 1976 Edinburgh Festival and [Della Bitta, Loudon, Booth, and Weeks \(1978\)](#) which has now developed as the [Edinburgh Festival Impact Study](#) (Edinburgh Impact Study).

3.2.2. The 1980s

Event Tourism expanded dramatically as a research topic in the 1980s. A number of extension studies at Texas A&M focused on events and tourism including the [Gunn and Wicks \(1982\)](#) report on visitors to a festival in Galveston. Two notable research articles from early in this decade include those by [Gartner and Holocek \(1983\)](#) on the economic impact of an annual tourism industry exposition, and [J.R.B. Ritchie's \(1984\)](#) treatise on the nature of impacts from hallmark events, which remains a classic in terms of citations and influence on the subject. A major study of festival visitors and the economic impacts of multiple festivals in Canada's National Capital region was conducted in the latter part of this decade ([Coopers and Lybrand Consulting Group, 1989](#)), followed by a similar major study in Edinburgh ([Scotinform Ltd., 1991](#)). These remain landmarks in terms of their scope and cross-event comparisons.

By the mid 1980s, [Mill and Morrison's \(1985\)](#) USA-based text *The Tourism System* explicitly recognized the power of events. The 1985 TTRA Canada Chapter conference was themed 'International Events: The Real Tourism Impact' ([Travel and Tourism Research Association & Canada Chapter \(TTRA\), 1986](#)), with the impetus coming from the planned 1986 Vancouver World's Fair and the 1988 Calgary Winter Olympics. Internationally, the [AEST \(1987\)](#) conference produced a notable collection of material on the general subject of mega events. [Hall \(1989\)](#) also reviewed the growing number of student dissertations in the field in the 1980s.

Australian scholars have always been prominent in event-tourism research. Prior to the America's Cup Defence in Perth in 1988, the [People and Physical Environment Research Conference, 1987](#), was held under the theme of the Effects of Hallmark Events on Cities and other papers (e.g. [Cowie, 1985](#); [Shaw, 1985](#)) examined impacts. [Soutar and McLeod \(1993\)](#) later published research on residents' perceptions of that major event. One of the most influential research projects of that period was the comprehensive assessment of impacts from the first Adelaide Grand Prix ([Burns, Hatch, & Mules, 1986](#); [Burns & Mules, 1989](#)). At the end of the 1980s, [Syme, Shaw, Fenton, and Mueller \(1989\)](#) *The Planning and Evaluation of Hallmark Events* was a landmark review of the research field that has seen a substantial growth. Another seminal study was also published by [C.M. Hall \(1989\)](#) which noted the need for greater attention to social and cultural impacts. Other key studies were by [Ley and Olds \(1988\)](#) on world fairs and [Jackson's \(1988\)](#) analysis of carnivals, a theme expanded substantially by [Ferdinand and Williams \(2013\)](#).

3.2.3. The 1990s

1990 was a pivotal year in the event management literature. [Goldblatt's \(1990\)](#) *Special Events: The Art and Science of Celebration* was published, followed by *Festivals, Special Events and Tourism* ([Getz, 1991](#)) and a year later [Hall's \(1992\)](#) *Hallmark Tourist Events*. In the early 1990s academics were clearly leading the way, as at that time there were few if any degree programs, and few courses available anywhere, that featured event management or tourism. In the USA George Washington University pioneered event management education, leading [Hawkins and Goldblatt \(1995\)](#) to address the need for event management education. They also asked how events should be treated within a tourism curriculum. The mid-to-late-1990s were the 'take-off' years for academic institutionalization of event management, and with it a more legitimized

advancement of scholarship on event tourism and event studies. This process has been roughly 25–30-years behind the equivalent for tourism, hospitality and leisure. There is also no doubt that leisure, tourism and hospitality provided a large part of the foundation, by having adapted discipline-based theory and methodology, supporting event-specific courses, and by spinning off event management degree programs.

Festival Management and Event Tourism (later renamed *Event Management*) started publishing in 1993, and many of its articles have advanced event tourism research and theory. [Uysal, Gahan, and Martin \(1993\)](#) in the very first issue began an enduring discourse on why people attend and travel to festivals and events. Two other vital event tourism research themes were established early in this journal, including [Bos \(1994\)](#) who examined the importance of mega-events in generating tourism demand, and [Crompton and McKay's \(1994\)](#) on measuring the economic impacts of events. [Crompton's \(1999\)](#) related contributions *Measuring the Economic Impact of Visitors to Sport Tournaments and Special Events* continued this theme. A very large number of research projects were commenced in Australia in preparation for the Sydney 2000 Summer Olympic Games. [Faulkner et al. \(2000\)](#) reported on this impressive initiative; Australian research on tourism and events has remained substantial, in large part funded by the Sustainable Tourism Cooperative Research Centre (STCRC) which operated from 1997 through 2010. The permanent site www.sustainabletourisonline.com provides a repository of relevant research reports including the pioneering [ENCORE](#) Event Evaluation Toolkit.

3.2.4. After 2000

As the 20th century closed, the world celebrated with numerous special events. This undoubtedly boosted the events sector and its tourism value. Since then we have witnessed unprecedented growth in event tourism accompanied by immense investments in bidding, especially for mega events, and destinations relying on impressive new infrastructure for events. Global media coverage of events (see [Ritchie, Shipway, & Chien 2010](#)) has been facilitated by both mass and social media (e.g. see [Potwarka, Nunkoo and McCarville's 2014](#) use of planned theory to understand television of the 2010 Winter Olympics), and the rise of a vibrant private sector in event production and marketing is noteworthy. Events and event-tourism have become mainstream, accepted as ordinary parts of contemporary lifestyle, and as legitimate research topics in many disciplines and applied fields reflected in the growing nucleus of articles in wider social science journals such as *Urban Studies*.

Signalling this acceptance, the peer reviewed *Routledge Handbook of Events* ([Page and Connell, 2012](#)) is a compendium largely concerned with event management topics. The Getz article on event studies discusses the event-tourism "discourse", and Weed's article on an interdisciplinary research agenda for sport, tourism, leisure and health stresses the outcomes expected of events and event tourism. Frost's article emphasises events within a destination planning and development context, with mega and hallmark events being featured, plus business events and sports. Other tourism-related topics discussed in the Handbook include events as attractions, safety and security, and tourist development and urban regeneration.

Other recent advances in the field include *Event Tourism* ([Getz, 2013](#)), designed as a comprehensive textbook on the subject, and *Eventful Cities* ([Richards & Palmer, 2010](#)), which assesses the multiple roles and planning of events in city cultures and tourism. *Tourism Economics and Policy* ([Dwyer, Forsyth, & Dwyer, 2010](#)) essentially codifies all knowledge of tourism and event-tourism economics. Books devoted to meetings, conventions and

exhibitions contribute significantly, although they are seldom framed as event tourism. General and topic-specific textbooks on event management, as updated periodically, also help advance the study of events and tourism. Perhaps surprisingly, *The Routledge Handbook of Tourism Research* (Hsu & Gartner, 2012) has no content specific to events, but the six-volume collection of re-printed articles called *Tourism* (Page and Connell, 2010b) includes a six-article section on Event Tourism in Vol. 6. In the editors' introduction entitled *The Evolution of the Subject of Study*, Page and Connell (2010b, p. xiv) argue that "The period since the 1970s saw the gradual evolution of an enduring area of study – event tourism" marking its legitimacy within the comparative recent history of tourism research. Given the vastness of relevant literature, a thematic review now follows, starting with event types and continuing through a systematic framework for understanding events and tourism, emphasising ontological development, that is key concepts and terminology.

3.3. Literature specific to event types

Although all types of planned events have tourism potential, including even the smallest wedding or reunion (see Kruger, Saayman, & Ellis, 2014), larger events dominate in the literature and in event tourism development. In this section attention is given to the four general categories illustrated in Fig. 1.

3.3.1. Business events and tourism

Interest in the tourism value of business events, including meetings, conventions, and exhibitions (both trade and consumer shows) has a long pedigree given that almost all major cities now possess impressive convention and exhibition facilities (see Boo, Koh, & Jones 2008), along with agencies devoted to selling the space and bidding on events (see Kim, Yoon, & Kim, 2011 on the competitive positioning strategies of event convention centres in East Asia). The first convention bureau in the USA was established as far back as 1896 (Spiller, 2002) and the *Destination Marketing Association International* traces its origins to 1915 (www.destinationmarketing.org/) as highlighted in the *Introduction*. Often referred to as the MICE industry, that is, meetings, incentives, conventions and events/exhibitions (Schlenrich, 2008), there is some doubt about the validity of including incentive tours; Fenich (2005) prefers MEEC for Meetings, Expositions, Events and Conventions. Weber and Chon (2002) assessed this sector in *Convention Tourism: International Research and Industry Perspectives*. Other books on the subject of business-event tourism include those by Davidson and Cope (2003), Davidson and Rogers (2006), Davidson, Holloway, and Humphreys (2009), and Mair (2013).

Weber and Ladkin (2004, 2008) explored trends in the convention industry including government's increasing awareness of its economic benefits. Review articles have covered convention tourism research (Yoo & Weber, 2005; Mair 2012) and convention and meeting management research (Lee & Back, 2005) including the tourism dimension. Lee and Lee (2014) reviewed research articles on exhibitions and discussed themes related to exhibitors in particular. Lee and Palakurthi (2013) conducted research on how constraints influenced exhibition attendance. Mair (2012) reviewed 144 articles from the business-event literature for the period 2000 through 2009; the vast majority of which were published in the *Journal of Convention and Event Tourism*. Mair concluded that it remained difficult to obtain adequate statistics on this sector. Major themes in this literature include the meeting planner, technology, economic impact assessments, venue selection, evaluation of satisfaction, the role of destination image on attendance, and the decision-making processes of attendees (also see Jiu and Weber 2013; Whitfield, Dieko, Webber and Zhang, 2014). Research needs

were identified by Mair (2012) focused on social and environmental impacts; climate change effects; incentive travel, and qualitative research such as the experience and meanings attached to events.

The economic value of business events has been the subject of many studies (e.g. Deng & Li, 2014; Wang, Li and Peng 2014), including at the city level (e.g., *Melbourne Convention and Exhibition Centre*, 2010), for rural areas (Grado, Strauss, & Lord, 1998) and for entire countries (e.g., *Convention Industry Council*, 2012 for the USA, and Hanly (2012) for Ireland. Dwyer (2002) discussed six facts about MICE impacts, all of which support and elaborate upon the core propositions of event tourism. The fundamental "facts" are that international convention-goers spend more and are often accompanied by others. The "yield" of event tourists is generally found to be higher than visitors with more general travel motives. In 2011 the Convention Industry Council released a study entitled *The Economic Significance of Meetings to the U.S. Economy*, revealed that "the U.S. meetings industry directly supports 1.7 million jobs, a \$106 billion contribution to GDP, \$263 billion in spending, \$60 billion in revenue, \$14.3 billion in federal tax revenue and \$11.3 billion in state and local tax revenue". Interest has recently expanded to include a broader social and economic legacy, with Foley, Schlenker, Edwards, and Lewis-Smith (2013) focussing on how business events promote knowledge diffusion, networking, new collaborations leading to innovation, and educational outcomes. There can also be effects on raising awareness and profiling, showcasing and destination reputation building, and providing a platform for intercultural understanding.

It might be assumed that extrinsic motivators explain most business-event travel, that it is necessitated by doing business or to advance one's career. However, business events and pleasure travel do mix, and the connection has been examined by Davidson (2003). Research in the UK suggested that 40% of business travellers and their families or colleagues return to the hosting destination as leisure visitors in the future (*Business Tourism Partnership*, 2004). Furthermore, the mix of business and pleasure, particularly the lure of specific destinations, can be a crucial factor in decisions. The motives and decision-making of business-event travellers have been frequently studied, such as for trade or consumer shows (Lee, Harris, & Lyberger, 2010; Lee, Yeung, & Dewald, 2010; Park, 2009; Rittichainuwat & Mair, 2012) and convention attendance (Jago & Deery, 2005; Mair & Thompson, 2009). Attendee decision-making, satisfaction and loyalty are also major topics of researchers (e.g., Bauer et al., 2008; Breiter & Milman, 2006; Lu & Cai 2011; Mair & Thompson, 2009; Severt, Fjelstul, & Breiter, 2009; Severt, Wang, Chen, & Breiter, 2007; Tanford, Montgomery, & Nelson, 2012; Yoo and Chon; 2010). Rittichainuwat, Beck, and LaLopa (2001) studied motivations, inhibitors and facilitators for attending international conferences (also see Ramirez, Laing, & Mair, 2013 on intentions to visit). Oppermann and Chon (1997) examined convention tourism from the perspectives of both association and attendees' decision making including locational factors, intervening opportunities, personal and business factors, association and conference factors, experiences and their evaluation. Ngamsom and Beck (2000) researched motivations and inhibitors affecting event-travel decisions by association members. Recent research includes a study of the Millennial Generation and what they want from meetings and events (Fenich, Halsell, Ogbeide, & Hashimoto, 2014).

MICE tourism cannot exist without special-purpose venues, but research on this critical input has been limited. Nelson (2006) and Nelson, Baltin, and Feighner (2012) examined issues surrounding public financing of convention hotels and the benefits cities can realize, while Clark (2006) looked at the additional requirements imposed on cities once a convention centre has been built. Krugman and Wright (2006) discussed special considerations for

international business events, and Wan (2011) assessed Macao's competitiveness as a MICE destination. The competitiveness of the Italian convention industry was framed in the context of clusters by Bernini (2009). How meeting planners and associations or corporations make locational and venue decisions has been the subject of repeated studies, including those by Oppermann and Chon (1997), Crouch and Ritchie (1997), Jago and Deery (2005), DiPietro, Breiter, Rompf, and Godlewsk (2008) and Elston and Draper (2012) (also see Meeting Planners International, n.d.).

Jin and Weber (cited in Getz, 2013a, 2013b) documented how China has become a dominant player in the Asia Pacific exhibition market, with indoor exhibition space in 2011 totalling 4.7 million square meters, or 15% of the world total. China ranks 2nd among the countries with the highest venue capacity, following the U.S.A and preceding Germany (UFI, 2011, 2012), but actual utilization is much less than global averages. Park, Wu, Ye, Morrison, and Kong (2014) specifically studied meeting-planner perceptions of Beijing as a destination. Major international congresses attract large enough attendance for them to be considered mega events, at least from the tourism perspective; media coverage is often minimal, however. World's Fairs, or expos, certainly qualify as mega events, particularly as they often last six months and can therefore draw huge numbers of tourists as well as media.

World's fairs and their tourism connections have been examined by Mendell, MacBeth, and Solomon (1983), Dungan (1984), Lee (1987), Hatten (1987), Dimanche (1996), and de Groote (2005), yet tourism remains a minor topic in this context. Most literature on world's fairs deals with historical, sociological and anthropological themes as already discussed with reference to classic studies, urban development or advances in technology. Tourism is, however, discussed in the *Encyclopaedia of World's Fairs and Expositions* (Findling & Pelle, 2008). In a recent contribution to this sub-field, Lee, Mjelde, Kim, and Lee (2014) examined the intention-behaviour gap for attendance at a major exposition in Korea.

3.3.2. Sport events and tourism

In a recent review article, Alexandris and Kaplanidou (2014) intimated that "Sport tourism is one of the fastest growing forms of special tourism internationally", and certainly the pertinent literature on sport event tourism has been expanding at a fast pace. Sport tourism is globally well established (e.g. Presenza & Sheehan, 2013), and sports as 'big business' is an enduring theme. A growing number of books now exist on sport tourism, both theoretical and applied in nature, and sport events figure prominently (see: Gammon & Kurtzman, 2002; Gibson, 2006; Higham, 2005; Hinch & Higham, 2011; Hudson, 2002; Ritchie & Adair, 2004; Standeven & De Knop, 1999; Turco, Riley, & Swart, 2002; Weed & Bull, 2009). Weed's (2012a, 2012b) *Olympic Tourism and Sport and Tourism: A Reader* (2009) provide extensive coverage of sport-event tourism. Throughout North America, almost every city has a sport tourism initiative, often with dedicated personnel and agencies, and global competition to bid on events and attract the sport event tourist is fierce. In 1992 the US National Association of Sport Commissions was established, with the well-publicized experience of Indianapolis leading the way. The Travel Industry Association of America (TIAA) in 1997 conducted a survey that examined sport-related travel, providing vastly improved understanding of this market (TIAA, 1999). An early published contribution by Rooney (1988) remains a classic geographical analysis of sport (Page, 1990), specifically in the form of a paper on mega sport events as tourist attractions at the 1988 TTRA Montreal conference. The journal of *Sport and Tourism*, founded in 1993 (after 7 years in electronic format) as the Journal of Sport Tourism and edited by Joseph Kurtzman as an initiative of the new Sports Tourism International Council. Gibson (1998) provided the first assessment of sport

tourism research and Weed (2006) reviewed the literature from 2000 to 2004, examining what exactly sport tourism is and its place in academia.

The nature of the sport tourism motivation has received considerable attention. Active and passive sport tourists were identified by Gibson (1998, 2006), while Robinson and Gammon (2004) examined primary and secondary motives for sports-related travel. Nostalgia as a motivator has been examined by Fairley and Gammon (2006), and this ties in with the notion of community of interests or sub-cultures (Green, 2008; Green & Chalip, 1998; Pitts, 1999). Petrick, Bennett, and Yosuke (2013) examined satisfaction and loyalty. Runners and triathletes have been studied repeatedly in the event-tourism context, including papers by Miller (2012), Shipway and Jones (2007; 2008). Motives, satisfaction and behaviour intentions of youth sport-event tourists were examined by Prayag and Grivel (2014).

According to Shipway and Jones (2007) amateur distance running is often serious leisure. Applying social identity theory and employing a quasi-ethnographic methodology, greater explanation of the running careers of participants was achieved. Berridge (2014) also employed ethnographic research to examine the event experiences of cyclists in a Gran Fondo event. Chen (2006) provided a review of the literature on sport fans behaviour, experiences and values, concluding that most studies suggest that personally relevant values (from needs and the benefits sought), and "identifications" (such as social identity) explain why fans become highly involved and committed to teams. Theoretical perspectives on the sport fan include the following: Wann (1995) and Wann, Schrader, and Wilson (1999) who developed the most frequently-cited Sports Fan Motivation Scale; Wann, Grieve, Zapalac, and Pease (2008) compared motivations across different sports. Related work has been completed by Milne and McDonald (1999) on the motivation of sport consumers, Trail and James (2001) who developed a Motivation Scale for Sport Consumption, Funk, Mahony, Nakazawa, and Hirakawa (2001), Funk, Ridinger, and Moorman (2003) and their Sport Interest Inventory, a motivational comparison across sports by James and Ross (2004), Mehus (2005) with an Entertainment Sport Motivation Scale, and Koo and Hardin (2008) on emotional attachment.

Funk (2008; 2012) and Funk and James (2001; 2006) employ self-concept in their approach to studying consumer behaviour for sports and events, namely as an integral part of the "psychological continuum model". Awareness, attraction, attachment or allegiances are the progressive steps open to consumers and participants. Self-concept connects specifically to identifying with a sport, event or team. Funk, Toohey, and Bruun (2007) employed structural equation modelling to demonstrate that international participation was motivated by a combination of factors including prior running involvement and a favourable image of the host destination. Weed and Bull (2009) elaborated upon and revised a Sports Tourism Participation Model (its origins being with the English Sports Council) for different products, including both spectator and participation sports tourism. A number of studies of sport events suggest that this market is quite different from cultural tourism. Leibold and van Zyl (1994) noted that sport enthusiasts attending the Los Angeles Olympics in 1984 came primarily to see the Games but generated very little revenue in dining and sightseeing. They concluded that sport tourists might be less affluent and spend less on entertainment than average travellers.

The connections between sport, events, venues and urban development or renewal have become a major theme. For example, Rozin (2000) described Indianapolis as a 'classic case' of how sports can generate a civic turnaround. Sports Business Market Research Inc. (2000, p. 167) observed that in the 1980s and 1990s American cities "put heavy emphasis on sports, entertainment and

tourism as a source of revenue for the cities.” Gratton and Kokolakis (1997) believed that UK sports events had become the main platform for economic regeneration in many cities, with a wide ranging reviews apparent in Smith (2012). Carlsen and Taylor (2003) examined how Manchester used the Commonwealth Games to heighten the city's profile, giving impetus to urban renewal through sport and commercial developments, creating a social legacy through cultural and educational programming. Legacy is a major theme in Shipway and Fyall (2012).

Venues for sport events are often a controversial topic. While all communities want facilities for their own residents, there are substantial additional costs involved to be able to compete for major sport events, to subsidize professional teams, and to employ sport tourism as a tool in urban re-development. Rosentraub (2009) and Rosentraub and Joo (2009) have argued for sports as a tool is inner-city redevelopment (as opposed to locating arenas and stadia in the suburbs) and for public-private partnerships to finance them. Cities can be ranked according to their sport venues (i.e., their variety, size and quality) and their success in hosting major events, leading to competitions for titles such as Ultimate Sport City. Dolles, quoted in Getz (2013a: pp.239) observed that: “Today's modern stadia and large-scale events usually have an extraordinary positive impact on the host region in terms of one or more of the following dimensions: tourist volumes, visitor expenditures, publicity, and related infrastructural and administrative developments which substantially increase the destination's capacity and attractiveness.” Cities might want to be renowned as a sport capital or win an accolade like “SportBusiness Ultimate Sport Cities” (www.sportbusiness.com). SportBusiness provides internationally recognized rankings of the world's top sports hosts, as initiated by independent industry consultant Rachael Church-Sanders in 2006, and such rankings reward cities possessing the best infrastructure and track records in bidding and hosting major events.

Economic impacts of sport events is a major research theme and the subject of a growing discourse on costs and benefits as illustrated in Table 2.

Researchers have been attracted to the subject of resident perceptions of impacts and support for, or opposition to sport events (see Backman, Hsu, & Backman, 2011). Lee and Krohn (2013) studied Indianapolis residents prior to hosting the Super Bowl, and this and other studies point out how perceptions of positive impacts dominate in the pre-event stage. A considerable and disproportionate amount of research has been directed at mega sport events, given their global prominence and infrastructure costs, but is somewhat irrelevant when it comes to providing useful lessons for developing an event-tourism portfolio in most cities and destinations. Historically, a great deal of attention has been paid by researchers and theorists to the Olympics. Their magnitude, political and economic importance, prominence in the media and frequent controversies make them popular subjects. Although mega-sporting events have never been more sought after, the discourse has increasingly featured scepticism over claimed benefits and legacies (see for example, reviews by Coates and Humphreys (2008) and Mills and Rosentraub (2013)). Exaggeration of expected benefits seems to be the norm, and there are few legitimate attempts made to demonstrate achievement of forecasts; costs are often hidden, and distributional effects (i.e., who gains and who pays) and externalities are typically ignored.

Legacy planned as non-economic benefits is a relatively new emphasis. Harris (2014) was able to demonstrate how the Olympics in Sydney was leveraged for education on sustainability. Gibson et al. (2014) examined the legacy of the World Cup on South Africans in terms of psychic income finding significant increases in pride and euphoria post-event, while there were

Table 2
Key studies on the economic impacts of event tourism.

Reviews on sport-event impacts include:

- Andersson, T., Armbrecht, J., & Lundberg, E. (2012). Estimating use and non-use values of a music festival. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 12 (3), 215–231.
- Crompton, J. (1999). Measuring the economic impact of visitors to sports tournaments and special events. Ashburn, Virginia: Division of Professional Services, National Recreation and Park Association.
- Turco, D., Riley, R., & Swart, K. (2002). Sport tourism. Morgantown, WV: Fitness Information Technology Inc.
- Gratton, C., Dobson, N., & Shibli, S. (2000). The economic importance of major sports events: A case study of six events. *Managing Leisure*, 5, 14–28.
- Daniels, M. & Norman, W. (2003). Estimating the economic impacts of seven regular sport tourism events. *Journal of Sport Tourism*, 8(4), 214–222.
- Preuss, H. (2004). The economics of staging the Olympics: a comparison of the Games 1972–2008. Edward Elgar Publishing.
- Preuss, H. (2005). The economic impact of visitors at major multi-sport events. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 5(3), 281–301.
- Preuss, H. (ed.) (2007). *The Impact and Evaluation of Major Sporting Events*. London: Routledge.
- Preuss, H. (2009). Opportunity costs and efficiency of investments in mega sport events. *Journal of Policy Research in Tourism, Leisure and Events*, 1 (2), 131–140.
- Higham, J. (1999). Commentary: Sport as an avenue of tourism development: An analysis of the positive and negative impacts of sport tourism. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 2(1), 82–90.
- Gibson, H. (Ed.) (2006). *Sport tourism: Concepts and theories*. London: Routledge.
- Weed, M. (2006). Sports tourism research 2000–2004: A systematic review of knowledge and a meta-evaluation of methods. *Journal of Sport and Tourism*, 11(1), 5–30.
- Weed, M. (2009). *Sport and Tourism: A Reader*. London: Routledge.
- Dwyer, L. (2002). Economic contribution of convention tourism: Conceptual and empirical issues. In K. Weber, & K. Chon (Eds.), *Convention tourism: International research and industry perspectives* (pp. 21–35). New York: Haworth.
- Dwyer, L., Forsyth, P., & Spurr, R. (2005). Estimating the impacts of special events on an economy. *Journal of Travel Research*, 43(4), 351–359.
- Dwyer, L., Forsyth, P., & Spurr, R. (2006). Assessing the economic impacts of events: A computable general equilibrium approach. *Journal of Travel Research*, 45(1), 59–66.
- Dwyer, L., & Forsyth, P. (2009). Public sector support for special events. *Eastern Economic Journal*, 35(4), 481–499.
- Dwyer, L., Mellor, R., Mistillis, N., & Mules, T. (2000a). A framework for assessing ‘tangible’ and ‘intangible’ impacts of events and conventions. *Event Management*, 6(3), 175–189.
- Dwyer, L., Mellor, R., Mistillis, N., & Mules, T. (2000b). Forecasting the economic impacts of events and conventions. *Event Management*, 6(3), 191–204.
- Masterman, G. (2009). *Strategic sports event management*. Abingdon: Routledge/Abingdon: Routledge.
- Hinch, T., & Higham, J. (2011, 2nd. ed.). *Sport tourism development*. Bristol: Channel View.
- More methodological chapters are contained in Page and Connell (2012).
- Kennelly and Toohey (2014) focused on how strategic alliances between events, sports and tour operators could enhance financial outcomes and benefits to sport tourists.
- Lee et al. (2015) have examined how repeat attendance and travel distance link to event-related expenditure.

mixed results regarding social capital formation (also see Jamieson 2014). Less optimistically, the much-claimed benefit of increasing sport participation through the demonstration effects of sport events has yet to be proven.

The Olympics-related literature is huge, fuelled in part by Olympic research centres around the world. Numerous themes are covered as documented in Table 3.

Hosting the Olympics and other mega events has become controversial. Gursoy and Kendall (2006) found that resident support depends most on perceived benefits, not negative impacts. Prayag, Hosany, Nunkoo, and Alders (2013) addressed the issue of resident attitudes towards the London Olympics, determining that perceived economic and socio-cultural impacts (positive and

Table 3
Key studies on the Olympics and Event Tourism.

- Economic costs and impacts (e.g., Cicarelli & Kowarsky, 1973; Glos, 2005; Kasimati, 2003; Taylor & Gratton, 1988).
- Tourism markets for Olympics have been explored by Pyo et al. (1988)
- Tourism and urban regeneration issues (Hughes, 1993)
- Tourism impacts of the Olympics (Faulkner et al. 2000; Kang and Perdue 1994; Teigland, 1996)
- Sociological perspectives (e.g. Hiller, 2012 adopted an interactionist approach to the study of Olympic host cities); Poynter and MacRury (2009) examined London as an Olympic host.
- Gold and Gold (2010) adopted an historical approach to Olympic cities, covering the period 1896 through 2016.
- Tourism marketing and Olympics was reviewed by Leibold and van Zyl (1994).
- Other topics include Olympic bids, politics, and urban boosterism (Hiller, 2000a); the Olympic legacy (Ritchie, 2000); host population perceptions of Olympics (Hiller & Wanner, 2011; Mihalik, 2001; Ritchie & Smith, 1991); sponsorship and Olympic impacts (Brown, 2002) and business leveraging surrounding the Olympics (O'Brien, 2006). Toohey and Veal (2007) took a general social science perspective to Olympic studies, and a critical evaluation of the Olympics has been provided by Waitt (2003; 2004). Dansero and Puttilli (2010) considered the Turin Olympic legacy, while Ziakas and Boukas (2012) similarly focused on Athens. Sant, Mason, and Hinch (2013) considered leveraging and the legacy of the Vancouver winter games. A special issue of the *Journal of Tourism and Cultural Change* has been devoted to the Olympics and tourism (see Ploner & Robinson, 2012).

negative) influence overall attitude, but perceived environmental impacts were not. Without doubt the Olympics are a fertile ground for research, but this has tended to overshadow other mega events like world's fairs and international sport championships. Mega-events, as discussed earlier, were the subject of an Aiest conference in 1987, and a conference with subsequent book edited by Andersson, Persson, Sahlberg, and Strom (1999). Roche (2000, 2006) widely cited papers on both the Olympics and mega events in general have been situated in an analysis of globalization. Hiller (2000b) adopted an urban sociological perspective on mega events, while Carlsen and Taylor (2003) focused on mega events and urban renewal. A special issue of *Asian Business and Management*, edited by Dolles and Söderman (2008), summarized the history of mega-sporting events in Asia. Maennig and Zimbalist's (2012) edited handbook on the economics of mega sporting events, featured articles on bidding, costs, benefits and methods.

3.3.3. Festivals and other cultural celebrations

Festivals in society and culture, pertaining to their roles, meanings and impacts, is the best developed discourse, rooted firmly in sociology and anthropology. Festivals and tourism has been reviewed in depth by Getz (2011) in a study that identified the following classical themes pertaining to festivity: myth, ritual and symbolism; ceremony and celebration; spectacle; communitas; host-guest interactions (and the role of the stranger); liminality; the carnivalesque; authenticity and commodification; pilgrimage; and a considerable amount of political debate over impacts and meanings. Festival tourism is a mainstream subject of research (e.g., Anwar & Sohail, 2004; Donovan & Debres, 2006; Formica & Uysal, 1998; McKercher, Mei, & Tse, 2006; Nurse, 2004; Robinson, Picard, & Long, 2004; Saleh & Ryan, 1993). Occasionally art exhibitions and tourism have been examined (e.g., Mihalik & Wing-Vogelbacher, 1992). Much of the discourse has been subsumed in the literature on cultural tourism (e.g., McKercher & du Cros, 2002; Richards, 1996, 2007). Festivals have been examined in the context of place marketing, urban development, tourism and more recently social change (e.g., Picard & Robinson, 2006a). Some of the growth in festival numbers and variety has been attributed to diaspora (Basu, 2005; Laing & Frost, 2013), that is the mass-migration of people who carry traditions with them.

A special issue of *Tourist Studies* on music and tourism (see Lashua, Spracklen, & Long, 2014) points to the rapid growth of music festivals and concerts as cultural and touristic phenomena. Topics covered by contributors include the festival experience, fandom, authenticity versus commercialisation, self-identity and place marketing. Gibson and Connell's (2012:16) *Music Festivals and Regional Development in Australia* observed that "Since the 1980s, in Australia and elsewhere, some music festivals have been linked to local tourism strategies, their growth nothing short of dramatic and their economic potential considerable." Pegg and Patterson (2010) conducted visitor research on one such festival that has become the hallmark event of a country town. Gelder and Robinson (2009) compared motivations at two popular UK music festivals. The vital importance of festivals in other forms of special-purpose tourism has been examined in the context of fashion (Williams, Laing, & Frost, 2013), foodies and food tourism (Getz, Robinson, Andersson, & Vujicic, 2014), and food and wine (Cavicchi & Santini, 2014).

Critical discourse is expanding illustrated by the chapters in Merkel (2013). Themes discussed by contributors include contested mega events, power and politics, events as propaganda, discourses, ideology, protests, and festival impacts. Festival tourism and 'festivalization' has become an issue in cultural studies (Quinn, 2006; Richards, 2007). Generally framed in a negative sense, festivalization has no precise meaning, but generally authors refer to the festivalization of urban policy and spaces and resultant authenticity loss, and an overemphasis on tourist demand versus resident needs and benefits. Concern over commodification and loss of authenticity through festival tourism was an early theme, and often-cited is Greenwood's (1972) study of a Basque festival from an anthropological perspective which lamented the negative influence of tourism on authentic cultural celebrations. MacCannell (1976) is almost always cited in discussions of tourism authenticity. In another early study, Buck (1977) advocated staged tourist attractions, such as festivals, for protecting vulnerable cultural groups.

Cohen (1988) addressed commodification and staged authenticity in the context of tourism, and whether tourists could have authentic experiences, arguing that authenticity is negotiable and depends on the visitor's desires. Emergent authenticity occurs when new cultural developments (like festivals) acquire the "patina of authenticity over time". Although Cohen (1988) is not explicitly about festivals it is highly relevant, as is Cohen (2007) as it addressed the authenticity of a mythical event in Thailand. A limited number of authors have examined the authenticity of ethnic festivals, including Hinch and Delamere (1993) on Canadian native festivals that served as tourist attractions. Xie (2003) studied traditional ethnic performances in Hainan, China in terms of the relationship between commodification and authenticity. Chhabra, Healy, and Sills (2003) and Chhabra (2005) addressed authenticity issues by reference to goods sold at a festival and the perceptions of visitors. Muller and Pettersson (2006) focused on a Sami festival in Sweden, while Neuenfeldt (1995) adopted a sociological approach to the study of an aboriginal festival in Australia, viewing the performance as social text. Aboriginal Corroborees were also examined by Cahir and Clark (2010).

On the positive side are links to the preservation of traditions, group identity building and legitimation, communitas among sub-cultural groups, generation of social and cultural capital, and the value of celebrations in establishing place identity and civic pride. De Bres and Davis (2001) determined that events held as part of the Rollin' Down the River festival led to positive self-identification for local communities. Derrett (2003) argued that community-based festivals in New South Wales, Australia, demonstrate a community's sense of community and place. Costa (2002) described "festive sociability" at the Fire Festival in Valencia, Spain, as being central to

the transmission of tradition. Matheson (2005) discussed festivals and sociability in the context of a Celtic music festival; the backstage space is the realm of authentic experiences and *communitas*. Hannam and Halewood (2006) determined that Viking themed festivals gave participants a sense of identity and reflected an authentic way of life. Other studies (e.g. the Travel Industry Association of America and *Smithsonian Magazine* (2003) and *The National Endowment for the Arts* (USA) profile events as part of traveller experience). Some festivals attract pilgrims, and others are an essential part of pilgrimage (in a religious or spiritual sense) to holy places. Ahmed (1992) studied the Hajj in terms of its tourism importance and organizational challenges. Díaz-Barriga (2003) studied a pilgrimage festival in Bolivia which has become a point for political controversy and contested meaning. Nolan and Nolan (1992) studied religious sites in Europe that act both as festival-pilgrimage and secular tourist attractions, stressing management implications. Ruback, Pandey, and Kohli (2008) compared the differences between religious pilgrims to a festival in India and non-religious visitors on their perception of the Mela. Hindu festivals at sacred sites were the subject of Shinde (2010), and Buzinde, Kalavar, Kohli, and Manuel-Navarrete (2014) interrogated pilgrims' motivations, activities and experiences of the 2013 Kumbh Mela. Matheson et al. (2014) sought to determine if spirituality motivated visitors to a Celtic-themed fire festival in Edinburgh.

Several researchers have sought to determine the marketing orientation of festivals (Mayfield & Crompton, 1995; Mehmetoglu & Ellingsen, 2005; Tomljenovic & Weber, 2004). Carlsen and Getz (2006) provided a strategic planning approach for enhancing the tourism orientation of a regional wine festival. Why people attend festivals was quickly established as an enduring research theme (e.g., Backman, Backman, Uysal, & Sunshine, 1995; Baker & Draper, 2013; Brown, 2010; Chang & Yuan, 2011; Crompton & McKay, 1997; Formica & Murrmann, 1998; Getz & Cheyne, 2002; Lee, I., Arcodia, & Lee, 2012; Lee, S., Arcodia, & Lee, 2012; Lee, Kim, & Parrish, 2012; Lee, Kyle, & Scott, 2012; Mohr, Backman, Gahan, & Backman, 1993; Scott, 1996; Thrane, 2002). Review articles on festival motivation have been published by Lee, Lee, and Wicks (2004), Li and Petrick (2006), and Wooten and Norman (2008). Quinn (2010) examined festival tourism growth in the context of cultural policy and urban studies. Savinovic, Kim, and Long (2012) reviewed audience motivation, satisfaction, and intention to re-visit an ethnic minority cultural festival. The links between motivation, satisfaction and behaviour remain a popular topic, including a segmentation of festival-goers on the basis of psychological commitment by Lee and Kyle (2014).

Cross-cultural festival motivation research has been conducted by Kay (2004), Schneider and Backman (1996), and Dewar, Meyer, and Li (2001) who collectively found that there are generic motivations. Seeking and escaping theory (Iso-Ahola, 1980, 1983) has largely been confirmed as explaining festival tourism motivation in many studies. Researchers have demonstrated that escapism leads people to events for the generic benefits of entertainment and diversion, socializing, learning and doing something new (i.e., novelty seeking). Nicholson and Pearce (2001) studied motivations to attend four quite different events in New Zealand: an air show, award ceremony, wild food festival, and a wine, food and music festival and concluded that multiple motivations were the norm. While socialization was common to them all, it varied in its nature. Event-specific reasons (or targeted benefits) were tied to the novelty or uniqueness of each event.

Serious leisure (as used by Mackellar (2009, 2013) based on the theories of Stebbins (1982, 2006) and involvement theory (e.g., as employed by Kim, Scott, & Crompton, 1997) offer great potential for exploring event-specific motives, connecting directly to the event-tourist career trajectory. A number of specific motivational issues

have been researched. Junge (2008) looked the motivations explaining heterosexual attendance at Gay events, while Kim, Borges, and Chon (2006) employed the New Environmental Paradigm Scale to examine motivations of people attending a film festival in Brazil that was created to foster awareness of environmental issues. Yuan, Cai, Morrison, and Linton (2005, 2008) and Dodd, Yuan, Adams, and Kolyesnikova (2006) studied wine festival attendees on their motivations, while Yuan and Jang (2008) explored the wine festival attendee's satisfaction and behavioural intentions. With regard to host-guest encounters during a festival, Giovanardi, Lucarelli, and Decosta, (2014) studied an Italian event in a mass tourism destination, and this is a neglected line of research.

Despite their enduring popularity and institutional status in many cities across North America (they are called shows in Australia and New Zealand), the tourism appeal and roles of state fairs and similar exhibitions has been an under-researched topic. Mihalik and Ferguson (1995) indicated that hundreds of millions of visitors have attended a state fair in the past 12 months making it one of the largest leisure spectator activities in the United States. State Fairs seem to capture the essence of agricultural shows, festivals, and exhibitions rolled into one. In the case of the Calgary Exhibition and Stampede (see Getz, 1993, 2005 for cases on its marketing) it also includes a rodeo, parade and community events. In a 2013 article Lillywhite et al. provided a "portrait" of the US fair sector.

3.3.4. Entertainment

Stein and Evans (2009) defined the entertainment industry as including media (TV, radio), recorded music, video games, film, publishing, theatre, sports, theme parks, casinos and gambling, travel and tourism, museums, shopping, and special events. This is so inclusive that it defies measurement, but there is no doubt that theatre, concerts, shows and spectacles are a big part of event tourism. Certainly any aspect of sport or celebration has entertainment value, as does the spectacle associated with fireworks or parades. Anything can be entertaining that is found to be pleasurable, diverting or fun, although Hughes (2000), made the case that the "arts" are usually associated with refinement and "high culture" while entertainment performances are more mainstream, or popular. Entertainment is usually provided by the private sector, for profit, but distinctions between arts and entertainment are mostly a matter of judgement (Du Cros & Jolliffe, 2014). Research on entertainment events has lagged, perhaps because of the fact that so many events contain or feature entertainment, and many so-called festivals are really packages of concerts.

The classic study by Easto and Truzzi (1973) examined the nature of carnivals in the USA 'as an entertainment with side shows, rides, games and refreshments, usually operated by a commercial enterprise' that were travelling shows. Easto and Marcello tracked the historiography of research to reviews dating to 1881 and 1932, which were differentiated from circuses. These carnivals ranged in scale from small events to those employing up to 800 staff, with 45 railroad cars to transport the event around the USA. Easto and Marcello estimated that in the 1950s these events attracted 85 million visitors a year each time they visited towns and cities. In contrast, Reid (2006) studied the politics of city imaging in the context of the MTV Europe Music Awards in Edinburgh and Kruger and Saayman (2012a, 2012b) researched motivation and segmentation for music tourism in South Africa. Conversely, Che (2008) examined the case of Detroit to illustrate how entertainment districts are being employed to re-position cities.

The term "destination music" was used in a UK study of music festivals and concerts – *The Contribution of Music Festivals and Major Concerts to Tourism in the UK* by UK Music (available online at:

www.ukmusic.org). From analysis of 2.5 million ticket purchases, the study conservatively estimated that 7.7 million visits were made to over 5000 festivals and concerts; music tourists made up 41% of audiences at large concerts and 48% at music festivals. Research has also been conducted in North America in the form of Attending Rock Concerts and Recreational Dancing, from the Travel Attitudes and Motivation Study (TAMS) by Tourism Canada (Lang Research, 2007). That large-scale study concluded that over the previous two years 11.8% (26,005,373) of adult Americans went to rock or pop music concerts or went recreational dancing while on an out-of-town, overnight trip of one or more nights. In some cities, notably London, Las Vegas, Toronto and New York, theatrical performances and a permanent theatre district are huge tourism attractions. Special events are a part of the attraction, ranging from touring shows to film festivals (Gilbert & Lizotte, 1998). Touring art exhibitions are associated with museums and galleries and have been studied by Mihalik and Wing-Vogelbacker (1992), Carmichael (2002), and Bracalente et al. (2011). Small towns that feature theatre tourism have also been researched (Mitchell & Wall, 1986, 1989). Historical re-enactments straddle the boundaries of cultural celebrations and entertainment. Carnegie and McCabe (2008) focused on how re-enactments as presentation of cultural heritage create interactions between landscapes, local communities, tourists and heritage organisations. Other studies have been undertaken by Ray, McCain, Davis, and Melin (2006) on re-enactment tourists and Wallace (2007) on war weekends.

4. A framework for knowledge creation and theory development in event tourism

Fig. 5 provides a framework for systematically studying and creating knowledge about event tourism. The discussion begins with the core phenomenon which defines event tourism as a sub field. Figure 6 through 10 summarize the discussion by listing major themes, concepts and terms associated with each element in the framework, including future research directions at the intersection of each section of the review.

4.1. The core phenomenon: event tourism experiences and meanings

Pine and Gilmore's (1999) *The Experience Economy* ushered in an era of research on tourism and event experience dimensions, epitomised in marketing with the move to service dominant logic approaches (Vargo & Lusch, 2004, 2008). Both the event and the travel experience have to be understood in parallel. Attending an event in one's own home community is experientially different from travelling to an event, both where travel is a necessary condition (i.e., the event motivates travel, and the costs/risks of travel might deter attendance) and where travel to an event is an integral part of a pleasurable experience. Application of theory and methods from psychology and anthropology are particularly helpful in this regard. Theorists, relying heavily on social psychology, have provided many of the insights we need, at least with regard to intrinsically motivated event tourism behaviour. Much less is known about extrinsically motivated event and travel experiences. The range of potential event experiences is quite broad, from the fun and revelry of entertainment, carnival and party, to the solemn spirituality of religious pilgrimage and celebratory rituals. Many events are about learning or aesthetic appreciation, while others foster competitiveness and commerce. For example, sport participation is about challenge, yet sport events encompass sub-cultural identity as well as nostalgia on the part of fans. Pilgrimage is a journey by definition, and generally entails a visit to a sacred site plus a special event. Other forms of event tourism can take on the

form of secular pilgrimages, with events or places of high symbolic value and personal meaning becoming destinations. For example, cities that host mega events have, like Barcelona and the Olympics, turned event venues into places of pilgrimage. In the discourse pertaining to pilgrimage and event tourism, so-called secular pilgrimages (e.g., Gammon, 2004) are sometimes contrasted with religious and spiritual pilgrimages (e.g., Singh, 2006; Timothy & Olsen, 2006), raising the issue of authenticity.

Experiences should be conceptualized and studied in terms of three inter-related dimensions (Mannell & Iso-Ahola, 1987): what people are doing, or behaviour (the 'conative' dimension), their emotions, moods, or attitudes (the 'affective' dimension), and cognition (awareness, perception, understanding). And we want to understand the event tourism experience holistically, from the needs, motivations, attitudes and expectations brought to the event, through the actual living experience (the 'doing', or 'being there') all the way to reflections on the event, including meanings attached to it and influences on future behaviour. A starting point can be the classical work of anthropologists Van Gennep (1909) and Turner (1969, 1974, 1982) who advanced the concept of 'liminality'. This has been found to be relevant to both travel and event experiences (Ryan, 2002). In terms of one's involvement in rituals this state is characterized by humility, seclusion, tests, sexual ambiguity and 'communitas' (everyone becoming the same). 'Liminoid' described the same state but in profane rather than sacred terms, so that it might apply to carnivals and festivals, emphasizing the notion of separation, loss of identity and social status, and role reversals. In this state people are more relaxed, uninhibited, and open to new ideas. Jafari's (1987) 'tourist culture' is based on socio-anthropological theory concerning liminality and Falassi's (1987) notion of festivity as a time that is 'out of ordinary time'. Essentially, people willingly travel to, or enter into an event-specific place for defined periods of time, to engage in activities that are out of the ordinary and to have experiences that transcend the ordinary—experiences only available to the traveller or the event-goer. Csikszentmihalyi (1990) and Csikszentmihalyi and Csikszentmihalyi's (1988) concept of 'flow' or peak experiences, from leisure studies fits into this model. Facilitating 'flow' might be something the event designer wants to achieve, for maximum engagement, and something the highly involved might be more inclined to experience because of their predispositions.

Research supports the existence and importance of communitas at events. Pitts (1999) studied lesbian and gay sports tourism niche markets, and Fairley and Gammon (2006) identified the importance of sport fan communities, while Hannam and Halewood (2006) in a study of participants in Viking festivals, concluded that group identity was fostered, even to the point of establishing a 'neo-tribal' community. Green and Chalip (1998) study of women athletes determined that the event was a celebration of sub-cultural values. In a continuation of that line of research, Xing, Chalip, and Green (2014) validated a model in which social motivation is influenced by identification with the women's football subculture, which predicted the sense of community; sense of community significantly predicted spending in the destination.

The meanings attached to planned events and event tourism experiences are both an integral part of the experience and are antecedents to future event tourism behaviour. To the extent that event tourism experiences are transforming, that is they change beliefs, values or attitudes, then individuals will likely adopt new behaviours in the future. It may be that multiple event experiences are required for transformation, or it might occur as part of a social bonding. Meanings are given to events by social groups, communities and society as a whole, and are often contested. Individuals are affected by these meanings, but are also able to make their own interpretations of events. Event types are to a large extent social

constructs, with collectively assigned and generally recognized meanings. Roche (2000, p. 7, see also 2006) saw events, like the global Millennium celebrations, acting as “important elements in the orientation of national societies to international or global society.” Indeed, many countries have used mega events to gain legitimacy and prestige, draw attention to their accomplishments, foster trade and tourism, or to help open their countries to global influences. This is much more than place marketing—it is more like national identity building. Whitson and Macintosh (1996, p. 279) argued that countries and cities compete for mega sport events to demonstrate their ‘modernity and economic dynamism. The ongoing discourse on the cultural ‘authenticity’ of events, started with the particular concern that tourism commodifies events and corrupts their authenticity, but now also reflects the fact that many events are created for commercial and exploitive reasons (see, for example, Boorstin, 1961; Getz (2000a, 2000b); Greenwood, 1972; Picard & Robinson, 2006a, 2006b; Ray et al., 2006; Sofield, 1991; Xie, 2003, 2004). However, an alternative view is that tourism helps preserve traditions and meanings, with festivals and other cultural celebrations being prime examples. In the context of foodies seeking authentic experiences, research by Getz et al. (2014) determined that festivals and other food-related events must employ interpretation to ensure that tourists understand their experiences from a local, cultural perspective.

While the event experience is a well-established theme, new theoretical perspectives and methods are being employed. Traditional consumer research is still relevant, but there is clearly a need to look deeper into the experiential realm through anthropological methods like participant observation (as employed by Getz, O’Neill, & Carlsen, 2001, at a surfing event), phenomenology (Chen, 2006) and to use experiential sampling as employed in leisure studies (Hektner & Csikszentmihalyi, 2002; Larson & Csikszentmihalyi, 1983). Coughlan and Filo (2013) employed ethnological and autoethnological research to understand participants’ experiences at tourism, sport and charity events. Berridge (2014) has employed observational techniques to apply experience theory to event design and management, including an examination of the cultural experiences of cyclists. Emerging themes include the emotional aspects of event experiences (Lee and Kyle, 2012; Robinson & Clifford, 2012), events designed to facilitate social experiences and outcomes (Nordvall, Pettersson, Svensson, & Brown, 2014), the roles of social media in marketing and shaping the event experience (Bolan, 2014; Hudson, Roth, Madden, & Hudson, 2015), and the potential influences of technology (Sadd, 2014). Scholars have been looking at how engagement affects experience, and this is fruitful ground for theory development. For example, how do volunteering, officiating, organizing or performing in an event differ in shaping the experience? Designers are increasingly interested in how they can deliberately shape program, setting and management to heighten or lessen emotional responses and thereby affect both satisfaction and behaviour. Biometrics can be employed to test design and monitor experiences at events. These and other research challenges are outlined in Table 4.

4.2. Antecedents to event tourism

Planned events have been integral to, and endured in all societies, and it is therefore reasonable to conclude the people need events. This position is supported by the continued growth in numbers, diversity, size and ascribed significance of events and event tourism around the world. Theoretical support comes first from economic exchange theory, in which events facilitate direct exchange of goods (i.e., markets, exhibitions and fairs) plus networking, marketing, and professional-development (i.e., meetings and conventions). Hedonism and personal development

occurs through different modes of participation and engagement in events, including event-tourism careers. Anthropological or symbolic exchange theory (Marshall, 1998) embodies the symbolic meanings held by events in different cultures, sub cultures, and social worlds. Social exchange theory is often used to explain attitude towards events, and perceptions of impacts, but also includes the need for socializing and group experiences. In Maslow’s (1954) well-known hierarchy of needs, planned events can be viewed as mechanisms for need fulfilment at all levels: physiological (health; earning a living); safety and security (stability, order in society) love and belonging (socializing, family time, *communitas*, group identity building); esteem (gaining recognition and advancing one’s status), and self-actualisation (through realizing one’s potential, meeting challenges and gaining mastery, aesthetic appreciation, learning). Although the ability to meet needs does not in itself justify the claim that events of all types are fundamental human needs, it is obvious that events are so well embedded that doing without them is simply impossible. While it is normal to talk about push and pull factors in tourism (e.g., Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1977, 1981), seeking and escaping theory (Iso-Ahola, 1980; 1983; Mannell & Iso-Ahola, 1987) offers greater explanatory power. The main proposition is that people are both seeking to find personal and interpersonal rewards and hoping to escape aspects of personal and interpersonal environments that bother or bore them.

Many personal, social and cultural factors will affect event tourism behaviour, and although there is a substantial body of literature on leisure and travel in general, the various factors specifically affecting event tourism have not been well explored. Both leisure and work-related factors have to be examined. Benckendorff and Pearce (2012) discussed the psychology of events and developed a very useful framework for applying theory to event participation, applicable to both fans and athletes. They consider pre, on-site and post-event experiences, for spectators, attendees, performers and elite participants. Psychological theory on personality, motivation and involvement are important when looking at antecedents, while role theory, identity, liminality, flow, mindfulness, emotional and performative labour, and experience analysis can be applied to the event experience itself. Satisfaction, loyalty, self-actualization and personal development apply after an event experience. Personal values have been viewed as antecedents to event tourism (Hede, Jago, & Deery, 2004), and this line of theory building connects to ego-involvement and social worlds or sub-cultures. Researchers have only recently turned their attention from general motivational studies to the issue of special-interest benefits. Mackellar’s (2006a, 2006b) research specifically addressed the differences between special-interest and generic motivations in attracting people to travel to events. Progress will follow from established lines of leisure and lifestyle research, and of necessity will utilize and adapt their theoretical constructs and methodologies.

Demand for events is notoriously difficult to predict (Mules & McDonald, 1994; Pyo, Cook, & Howell, 1988; Spilling, 1998; Teigland, 1996). Major events use long-term tracking studies and market penetration estimates to forecast attendance, but there have been notable failures including the New Orleans World Fair (Dimanche, 1996). An interesting study by Lee et al. (2014) examining intention-behaviour found that only 50% of those intending to visit actually did, which highlights the importance of in-depth understanding of this issue. Lee and Kim (1998) examined event forecasting, and Xiao and Smith’s (2004b) study of world’s fair attendance forecasting concluded with an improved approach. Boo and Busser (2006) looked at how image enhancement from events can induce tourist demand to destinations.

Motivational research in the events sector is very well established. Li and Petrick (2006) reviewed the literature pertaining to

Table 4
Future research directions on the experience and meaning of event tourism.

Major themes, concepts, terms: experiences and meanings:	Future directions
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1: Events + travel creates a unique experience; the destination plays an important role; travel in groups is often part of the attraction (i.e., socializing, identity building, and nostalgia) 2: Events attract tourists both for generic benefits and those appealing to special interests; destination events attract people to places they would not otherwise travel 3: All events are unique owing to combinations of setting, people and management; 'being there' for a special, time-limited experience is part of the allure 4: Iconic events hold symbolic value in attracting special-interest tourists (from subcultures and social worlds); both religious and secular pilgrimage are dependent upon the symbolic meaning of places and events 5: Events can offer authentic cultural experiences, especially when hosts and guests share experiences on common ground; the widespread creation of "pseudo-events" and "staged authenticity" can confound people seeking authenticity 6: Tourism poses a threat to authenticity by commodifying culture, but can also be the mechanism for preserving traditions; emergent authenticity occurs as events become traditions 7: The ritualistic, symbolic and celebratory meanings of events are important; individuals, groups, and whole societies value events and enjoy sharing them with visitors; events offer potential for legitimation and pride in one's place or identity 8: Stakeholders perceive events differently in terms of meanings and value 9: One can view events as texts revealing much about host society and culture 10: Communitas, the belonging and sharing among participants or attendees, is a powerful experience and a motive for event travel 11: Types and levels of engagement shape the event-tourism experience: events have separate appeal for fans, active participants, volunteers, officials, media, sponsors 12: Anything can be entertaining; entertainment and spectacle can threaten the cultural significance of events 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Limited research has been undertaken on the actual travel component of event tourism (with an event as the goal, is the trip different? consider arousal and flow within different event-travel situations) - Continued theoretical work is needed on the nature of experience (e.g., exploring emotions through phenomenology; what makes event-tourism experiences memorable and transforming? consider each dimension of experience: conative (behaviour); affective (emotional) and cognitive) - Examine types of engagement (e.g., volunteering vs. organising) and ego-involvement as factors shaping, and influenced by event-tourism experiences; use ethnological and auto-ethnological research methods; use netnography to learn how people describe, explain and assign meaning to event-tourism experiences - Examine how design can influence experience and behaviour and to attract tourists - Can we describe and explain the formation of personal and social constructs regarding event tourism experiences? - How does communitas form and evolve at and after events? can it be facilitated? - Systematically compare different event experiences (for all stakeholders, from paying customers and guests to the general public, and between types of event, from sport to carnival) - other under-utilized methods: hermeneutics (analysis of texts; self-reporting); direct and participant observation; experiential sampling (diary or time-sampling with standard questions) - Biometrics offer great scope for testing reactions to design and understanding behaviour at events (e.g., monitoring the pulse, temperature, sweating)

festival and event motivations and concluded from many studies that the seeking and escaping theory (Iso-Ahola, 1980, 1983) is largely confirmed. These are 'intrinsic motivators', with the event being a desired leisure pursuit. Researchers have demonstrated that escapism leads people to events for the generic benefits of entertainment and diversion, socializing, learning and doing something new, and just plain getting away from it all. Motivational studies are often combined with, or lead to event-consumer segmentation. The event segmentation literature has been reviewed by Tkaczynski and Rundle-Thiele (2011), with an unusual approach being taken by Tkaczynski (2013) who took into account stakeholder perceptions of their clients. The pull or seeking factors apply more to those with special interests who want a specific set of benefits offered by the event. For example, highly involved runners need events to compete in (McGehee, Yoon, & Cardenas, 2003) and professionals have to attend certain conferences because of their educational content or the unique networking possibilities (Severt et al., 2007). The exact balance between generic and specific desired benefits obtained at any given event will depend on many personal factors with special considerations including family decision-making (Foster & Robinson, 2010).

A combination of an event's image and the destinations can influence the decision to travel (Kim, Kang, & Kim, 2014; Lai & Li, 2014). Pechlaner et al. (2013) analysed differences in perceived destination image and event satisfaction, concluding that destination image, quality of event, and customer satisfaction are highly related. Interrelationships between resident participation in events, event images and destination image in Portugal were explored by do Valle, Mendes, and Guerreiro (2012). When examining why people attend particular events for targeted benefits, it is essential to consult several underlying theoretical constructs. Recreation specialization (Bryan, 1977; 2000) has been examined in the context of birders attending festivals (Burr & Scott, 2004), while

Lamont and Jenkins (2013) employed this construct in segmenting cyclists in a participation event. Serious leisure (Stebbins, 1982; 2006) helps to explain the nature of involvement and commitment to various leisure pursuits, and it has been increasingly employed in an event-tourism context (e.g., Jones & Green, 2006; Mackellar, 2009; 2013). Closely linked is social-world theory (Unruh, 1980) which has applications to event-tourist careers (Getz & Patterson, 2013). Ego-involvement theory, has been well-examined in leisure studies (see: Havitz & Dimanche, 1999; Kyle & Chick, 2002; Kyle et al. 2007) and has been applied to event-tourism (e.g., Kim et al., 1997; Ryan & Lockyer, 2002). Involvement is essential to the development of event-travel career theory but is also employed when examining levels of involvement with particular products, events or destinations (Filo, Chen, & Funk, 2013).

One additional area of research of significance is leisure constraints theory (Hinch, Jackson, Hudson, & Walker, 2006; Jackson, 2005; Jackson, Crawford, & Godbey, 1992) which examines generic categories of constraints including the intrapersonal (one's perceptions and attitudes), interpersonal (such as a lack of leisure partners), and structural (time, money, supply and accessibility). Constraints are increasingly being addressed in the context of event tourism, with contributions being made by Van Zyl and Botha (2004) who considered the needs and motivational factors influencing decisions of residents to attend an arts festival, including "situational inhibitors". Milner, Jago, and Deery (2004) conducted a study of why people did not attend festivals and events. Perceived constraints on attending the Olympics were researched by Funk, Alexandris, and Ping (2009). Lamont and Kennelly (2011) and Lamont, Kennelly, and Wilson (2012) explicitly examined constraints within triathlon event careers, and Santos-Lewis and Moital (2013) focused on constraints to attend events across specialization levels.

Pearce's (2005) "Travel Career Trajectory" is the starting point for the hypothetical 'event travel career'. For example, there is reason to believe that business and professional practice leads to a career of necessary and/or desirable meetings and conventions, eventually resulting in a community of interest shared with others following similar career paths. The concepts of serious leisure, recreation specialization and ego-involvement suggest that many people will find intrinsic motivation to travel to events, such as amateur athletes and competitive events, or art lovers pursuing a career of volunteer experiences at music festivals. An event travel career should be evident first in terms of motivations (i.e., the underlying drive to attend events), and precise motives (for specific event experiences and events). There should be a progression through time such as participation in more and different events, looking for higher-order benefits. Geographic preferences and patterns should emerge, and this is where destinations can directly influence the process, through bidding and developing iconic and hallmark events. Hypothetically the event travel career will also be manifested in a progression from local to national and ultimately an international scale of travel. Evolving preferences for event characteristics and travel arrangements, and ultimately modified behaviour are to be expected from the dedicated and experienced event tourist (e.g., higher-level competition; travel with family and friends versus alone; combining holidays with events; behaving differently during events). Evidence supporting the concept and elements of the event travel career has been accruing, stemming from research on runners (Getz & Andersson, 2010), mountain bikers (Getz & McConnell, 2011, 2014) and triathletes (Lamont & Kennelly, 2012; Lamont et al. 2012). Future research direction are outlined in Table 5.

4.3. Planning and managing event tourism

Published studies exist on event tourism planning, development and marketing (e.g., Bramwell, 1997a; Getz, 2003a, 2003b; Gnoth & Anwar, 2000; Higham, 2005), and this line of inquiry encompasses the organizations involved, stakeholder networks, policy making, goals and strategies, impacts and evaluations. Attention to event stakeholder management, partnerships and collaboration is a strong area of interest (e.g., Phi, Dredge and Whitford, 2014; Getz et al., 2007; Larson, 2002; Larson & Wikstrom, 2001; Long, 2000; Pappas, 2014; Parent & Sequin, 2007; Tkaczynski, 2013; Ziakas, 2013), with research by Whitford (2004a, 2004b) specifically taking a stakeholder perspective on event tourism policy making in Australia. Yagmour and Scott (2011) also identified inter-organizational collaboration as a key success factor in the context of the Jeddah Festival in Saudi Arabia. Weed (2003) studied sport tourism policy in the context of stakeholder relationships, while the book by Weed and Bull (2009) further addresses these issues in sport tourism policy. Parent and Sequin (2007) used stakeholder theory in their study of major event failure. Irrational event planning is a topic seldom addressed (see Armstrong, 1985; Bramwell, 1997b). It relates to the notion of civic or tourism 'boosterism' and the exercise of power.

Strategy for event tourism is a relatively new topic for scholars. Stokes (2004, 2006, 2008) and Stokes and Jago (2007) have examined this theme in Australia in relation to event-tourism strategy environment and processes. Baumann, Matheson, and Muroi (2009) addressed the effectiveness of sports-based tourism strategies in the Hawaiian context. Ford, Peeper, and Gresock (2009) examined stakeholder management in strategy-making. Pacione (2012) reviewed culture and event-led strategies being employed by cities looking for post-industrial prosperity, connected to the theme of long-term legacy building. Ziakas' (2013) analysis of event portfolios is of direct relevance, as many event

development agencies and DMOs find themselves managing and marketing numerous events. Increasing attention has been given to the image-enhancement potential of events and their media coverage, including how this might generate induced demand for the destination. Within a place-marketing and urban repositioning context, the role of events in creating or changing image now seems to be equal in importance to tourist attractiveness. Pertinent research has been mostly on how events might change destination image (e.g., Chalip, Green, & Hill, 2003; Ferreira & Donaldson, 2013; Hede, 2005; Kim, Ao, Lee, & Pan, 2012; Kim, Kang, et al., 2014; Li & Vogelsong, 2005; Mossberg, 2000a, 2000b; Ritchie, Sanders, & Mules, 2006; Shibli & the Sport Industry Research Centre, 2002; Smith, 2005). Although it can be concluded from the evidence that events have an image-change effect, the measurement of media effects remains a difficult problem for evaluators. Advertising-equivalence measures are predominant, with the major shortcoming of only considering quantity and content, not impact. More attention will have to be given to the evaluation of media management as discussed by Getz and Fairley (2004). In this vein, Jutbring (2014) analysed exactly how brand values of the destination can be encoded in media coverage of events.

Co-branding events and destinations is a related topic (Chalip & Costa, 2006; Jago, Chalip, Brown, Mules, & Shameem, 2003). Arellano (2011) examined how the staging of the New France Festival related to branding of the Province of Quebec. The leveraging of events for additional benefits is a growing concern (Chalip & Leyns, 2002; Chalip & McGuirty, 2004; Gratton, Dobson, & Shibli, 2000; Karadakis, Kaplanidou, & Karlis, 2010; Morse, 2001; O'Brien, 2006). These topics also connect to the goal of generating a lasting event legacy (Dimanche, 1996; Hall, 1994; Mihalik, 1994; Ritchie, 2000) and key research themes on planning and managing event tourism are outlined in Table 6.

4.4. Patterns and processes

The key themes are reviewed in Table 7.

4.4.1. Spatial

The geography of events is fertile ground for both researchers and marketers. Getz (2004a) reviewed the pertinent literature, while Higham and Hinch (2006) provided an overview of the geography of sport and tourism. Janiskee's (1994, 1996) groundbreaking contributions to event geography have to be acknowledged although his papers mostly examine the spatial and temporal distribution of festivals and what caused these patterns, not travel to events. Janiskee demonstrated the connection to resources, as in agricultural products that gave rise to festival themes. He also addressed the question of whether or not a region or a time-spot could reach its capacity in terms of event numbers. More theoretical research on the notion of event spaces and how they are transforming the everyday to something special remain a fertile area for research developing the interconnections of anthropology, sociology, urban studies and behavioural geography. Supply-demand interactions are fertile ground for event geographers (e.g. see Hall & Page, 2012). Analysis and forecasting of demand for a particular event or a region's events will in part depend on population distribution, competition, and intervening opportunities. Along these lines, Bohlin (2000) used a traditional tool of geographers, the distance-decay function, to exam festival-related travel in Sweden. He found that attendance decreased with distance, although recurring and well-established events have greater drawing power. Market potential for events was examined geographically by Wicks and Fesenmaier (1995). The market areas and tourist attractiveness of events have also been studied by Verhoven, Wall, and Cottrell (1998) employing demand

Table 5
Research themes associated with the antecedents on event tourism.

Major themes, concepts and terms: antecedents	Future directions
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1: There are major propelling forces shaping continued growth in the events sector, both from supply and demand perspectives: globalisation; diaspora; mass and social media; rising disposable incomes; the experience economy; destination competitiveness; the legitimization and mainstreaming of all forms of entertainment and celebration events 2: Planned events meet fundamental human needs for social, symbolic and economic exchange, plus personal development 3: Cultural differences and personal values affect perceived benefits and desired types of event experiences 4: Motivation to attend and travel to events involves both intrinsic (leisure) and extrinsic motivators; both seeking and escaping affect motives; there are typically a range of generic (e.g., entertainment, novelty-seeking, escapism, socializing) and event-specific motives attracting people to the same events 5: Segmentation studies of event attendees are frequent, based on socio-demographic variables, resident versus tourist, expenditures, first-time versus repeat visitor, loyalty; (recently popular is the modelling of linked aspects of consumer behaviour (i.e., motivation, experience, satisfaction, as influences on future behaviour including loyalty) 6: Event-tourism behaviour is shaped in part by involvement and commitment (i.e., serious leisure, recreation specialization, sub-cultures and social worlds) and by event-tourist experience (e.g., higher levels of involvement generate event-tourist careers); personal and group constraints have to be overcome to pursue an event travel career 7: The decision-making and choices of convention and exhibition attendees and participants reflect a blend of extrinsic and intrinsic motivators; place is an important factor, alongside potential return on personal investment 8: Professional event planners influence travel through their decisions on venues and locations, all designed to maximise attendance and return on corporate/association investment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Needs: do people believe they 'need' events? to travel to events? - Culture: more is needed on cross-cultural comparisons of the antecedents to event tourism as rooted in culture, sub-cultures, or social worlds and the roles of events in different lifestyle pursuits and hobbies; what is considered entertaining or socially acceptable is in part culturally determined and therefore highly variable - Economic demand for event tourism: how is it shaped by price, competition, substitution, policy and other factors? - Constraints on attendance or participation in various events is an emerging research theme - Event-tourist career theory needs considerable testing and refinement, including comparisons of the ways in which people get involved in leisure and work pursuits - Loyalty versus novelty seeking is important to marketers and is insufficiently understood - Gender perspectives on events and tourism are an emerging theme - Post-event evaluations of experiences and effects on future intentions should be developed - how do different segments use the internet and social media to make decisions? - Longitudinal studies of event careers and constraint negotiation are absent - Both religious and secular pilgrimages appear to be on the rise – is this an important trend? - Although a well-established research topic, venue and location choice by professional event planners requires constant monitoring on light of changing economic and technological conditions

Table 6
Research themes on planning and managing event tourism.

Major themes, concepts and terms: planning and managing event tourism	Future directions
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1: The typical goals of event tourism are derived from a set of core propositions: attract tourists and stimulate new spending; combat seasonality; spread tourism spatially; generate positive images and co-brand with destinations; be catalysts for development and enhanced marketing; generate a long-term, positive legacy; 2: Demonstrating the public good arising from intervention is essential to the justification of event tourism 3: Civic/national boosterism and irrational decision-making are frequent explanations for bidding on or creating new events 4: Events can be classified on the basis of tourism-related functionality: destination event; mega, hallmark and iconic; regional and media events 5: Events are often favoured because they offer a quicker and cheaper form of attraction development, however major events are dependent upon venues, especially purpose-built convention and exhibition centres and sport arenas and stadia; cities and large resorts consequently hold competitive advantages 6: While it is desirable to sustain a comprehensive portfolio of permanent events, gaps can be filled through bidding within a specialized marketplace; these are called biddable, winnable, or one-time events 7: Planning for a long-term or permanent legacy is overtaking short-term measures of economic impact in justifying event tourism; halo effects relate to the short-term image boost; quantum leap means using events to accelerate growth; capacity building requires consideration of cumulative, sustainable benefits; repositioning stems from the exploitation of events in re-branding a destination; leveraging applies to a variety of methods intended to increase visitor spending and longer-term trade or development gains 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Conduct more case studies and cross-case analysis of event planning and destination strategies; encourage benchmarking among destinations - The dynamics and health of populations and portfolios of events (managed or not) is largely unknown; how is a sustainable niche defined and achieved for events and event-tourism destinations? - A key question is how to increase rationality and professionalism in event development, bidding and hosting? - There is a need for measures and methods to evaluate long-term, cumulative and synergistic impacts of event tourism - Determine how iconic events form and evolve (they must be symbolically important within social worlds and sub-cultures) - Assess how mass and social media influence perceptions of, and attitudes toward the costs and benefits of event tourism - Both practical and theoretical work is needed on event populations and the planning and managing of portfolios: what is a healthy population? (requires application of various theories from organizational ecology); success and sustainability measures are required; interactions of stakeholders in overlapping portfolios have not been studied - For DMOs and other organizations examine stakeholder relations and power; how to foster bottom-up strategies and development is a key question (incorporating community development) - Measure the effectiveness of destination event-tourism strategies including co-branding and leveraging efforts - Study innovation processes and measures of success (achieving, defining and sustaining competitive advantages)

mapping, and by [Lee and Crompton \(2003\)](#). Travel cost analysis as a measure of an event's economic value was addressed by [Prabha, Rolfe, and Sinden \(2006\)](#). [Lee, Jee, Funk, and Jordan \(2015\)](#) determined that a significant difference in expenditure patterns existed between first time and repeat attendees, as well as between long haul and short haul travellers at an annual event in Miami, USA.

[Getz \(1991\)](#) illustrated several models of potential event tourism patterns in a region. One option is clustering events in service centres, as opposed to dispersing them over a large, rural area. These are related to the concept of attractiveness and also have implications for the distribution of benefits and costs. Analysis of the zones of influence of events has been undertaken by [Teigland \(1996\)](#) specific to the Lillehammer (Norway) Winter Olympics,

and this method has implications for event planning, especially regarding mega events with multiple venues. The elements of these zones of influence are the gateways, venue locations, tourist flows, transport management, and displacement of other activities. Daniels (2007) applied central-place theory to a sport event, finding that the economic benefits were quite different in the two adjacent counties that were co-hosts. The larger population centre received most of the economic benefits because it was able to accommodate the service requirements of visitors. Major events also motivate people to travel to one place as opposed to another, so that during the World's Fair (Expo) in Vancouver, Canada (1986) normal travel patterns were disrupted – Vancouver and British Columbia gained, but the rest of Canada lost traffic (Lee, 1987). The spatial distribution of costs and benefits is of particular interest in event geography, and so too are issues of social equity. Two very specific geographic questions are those of defining the region for which economic benefits are to be estimated, and measuring the spatial distribution of spending by visitors as examined by Connell and Page (2005). Sherwood (2007) obtained data for mapping travel to events in order to assess an event's 'energy footprint'. Recent geographic segmentation studies include those by Warnick, Bojanic, Mathur, and Ninan (2011) and Bojanic and Warnick (2012). Smith (2009) pointed out the need for conscious leveraging to spread benefits of event tourism from core to peripheral areas.

More recent emphasis on rural and regional development through tourism and event strategies has been of particular interest to scholars in Australia. Moscardo (2008) examined the roles of festivals and events in regional (i.e., rural) development. Her content analysis identified themes associated with the effectiveness of festivals and events in supporting regional development, including building social capital, enhancing community capacity, and supporting non-tourism-related products and services. A landmark book edited by Gibson and Connell (2011) documents the spread and nature of festivals and their roles in revitalising rural economies and towns, together with analysis of related issues. Gibson and Connell (2012) then focused on music festivals in a separate book, including profiles of towns that had employed them as branding and development tools. Population-level analysis of festivals in three Norwegian counties revealed interesting processes of legitimation and growth of the sector, as well as spatial patterns (Andersson, Getz, & Mykletun, 2013). Andersson et al. (2013) found that large events are small in number compared to numerous small events, reflecting a clear hierarchy, and that there were more small events spread over remote, rural areas (on a per capita basis) compared to the density of events in cities.

Ecological-impact issues of event tourism can benefit from geographical analysis, such as how to tip the balance between private and transit-based event travel. Capacity to absorb tourism is a well-established theme, but capacity to absorb events is not. A starting point is population ecology and the inter-related issues of competition for resources, finding a market niche, and relationships with the host community and other stakeholders. This requires more complex analysis of an area's capacity for venues and other infrastructure, and how event tourism alters the landscape and ecological systems. Events help shape and define spaces, both private and public. Higham and Hinch (2006) considered how sport relates to place identity, attachment and dependence. Place identity and attachment linked to events have also been examined by De Bres and Davis (2001), Derrett (2003), Robertson and Wardrop (2012) and Laing and Frost (2013). Further research is needed in the area of place dependence, as in the context of or the permanence of hallmark events and why some places foster them while others do not to challenge the assumption that an event tourism strategy will automatically lead to a growth in visitors.

Technological advances have made it possible to track movements at the micro level, adding a new dimension to spatial studies. For example, Pettersson and Getz (2009) and Pettersson and Zillinger (2011) reported on how global positioning has been combined with other methods to gain insights on event-goer movements and the identification of experiential hot spots (also see Nilbe, Ahas and Silm, 2014 on the travel distances of visitors). Event tourists are now aided by a considerable number of social-media channels, formal and informal information sources, and fan-zone entertainment. Drawing upon the concepts of landscape, servicescape and experiencescape (see O'Dell and Billing, 2005) a relatively new line of research and theory-building is forming around the concept of festivalscape (or eventscape). In this context, Nelson (2009) considered how the event experience can be enhanced through design, and Yang, Gu, and Cen (2011) brought together emotion and perceived value in testing the moderating effect of festivalscape on behavioural intentions. Mason and Paggiaro (2012) applied the concept to food and wine events. As the event experience is shaped by interactions of place, setting, people and management, the implications for design and marketing are substantial.

4.4.2. Temporal issues

Seasonality of demand is the main temporal theme in event tourism, starting with the classic Ritchie and Beliveau (1974) research paper through to the detailed analysis by Connell et al. (2015). Events are one important way in which destinations can combat low tourist demand, yet as revealed by Janiskee (1996), Ryan, Smee, Murphy, and Getz (1998), and others there is in most destinations a pronounced peaking of events in the high summer season, thereby presenting a challenge to the DMO. Yoon, Spencer, Holecek, and Kim (2000) undertook one of the few studies of the seasonality of the event tourism market, in Michigan. Higham and Hinch (2002) looked at sport events as an answer to seasonal tourist demand. Displacement of residents and other tourists is an occasionally researched temporal/spatial issue in event tourism (e.g., Brannas & Nordstrom, 2006; Hultkrantz, 1998). This occurs when an event fills up available accommodation, or when publicity leads to the perception of crowding or high expense and this causes people to leave town or stay away. Obviously it is a major reason for bidding on or creating events in the off-peak tourist season. Displacement is also a critical consideration in estimating economic impacts of events.

The event life cycle, both in terms of changing market appeal and long-term sustainability or institutionalization, is an important temporal theme that has received attention by researchers (see Beverland, Hoffman, & Rasmussen, 2001; Frisby & Getz, 1989, Getz, 1993, 2000a, 2000b; Getz & Frisby, 1988; Richards & Ryan, 2004; Sofield & Li, 1998; Sofield & Sivan, 2003; Walle, 1994). Within a portfolio approach some thought has to be given to the image and freshness of events appealing to specific market segments, and the attractiveness of the overall mix of events. This relates to population ecology theory in the sense that the health of the portfolio is probably more important than the sustainability or appeal of individual events—but only in a strategic marketing sense, and not necessarily in terms of social and cultural factors. Why events fail (Carlsen, Andersson, Ali-Knight, Jaeger, & Taylor, 2010; Getz, 2003a) is a related line of research that is in need of progress, partially addressed by Connell et al. (2015). Time switching is an important issue in event tourism, being the propensity of people to alter the timing of their travel plans to take in an event. They are not necessarily attracted to travel because of the event and therefore their spending cannot be considered a benefit of the event (this is part of the general 'attribution problem' in event impact assessment; see for example Dwyer, Mellor, Mistillis, & Mules, 2000a, 2000b).

4.4.3. Policy for event tourism

Hall and Rusher (2004, p. 229) concluded that “there still remains relatively little analysis of the political context of events and the means by which events come to be developed and hosted within communities.” However, interest in the policy dimension has grown rapidly, no doubt reflecting both the magnitude of the event sector and related controversy. Foley, McGillivray, and McPherson (2011) provide considerable insights to event-tourism policy, notably in the Scottish context where EventScotland and Creative Scotland both pursue development strategies, in effect generating overlapping festival and event portfolios. Getz (2009) argued for a new events policy paradigm combining sustainability and social responsibility, to which Dredge and Whitford (2010) responded and argued for a more nuanced approach. Dredge and Whitford (2011) subsequently examined governance issues, or how stakeholders participate, arguing for public-private decision-making in which stakeholders deliberate on and take action to achieve common goals. Policy and strategy is often formulated at the level of local authorities or municipalities, and Whitford (2004a, 2004b, 2009) examined local authority policy towards events in Queensland, Australia, where it was mostly a top-down process. Pugh and Wood (2004) focused on the strategic use of events in UK local authorities, while Reid (2006) looked at the politics of city imaging surrounding an event, and Thomas and Wood (2004) discussed event-based tourism and local government in the UK. O’Sullivan, Pickernell, and Senyard (2009) discovered a gap between the expressed socio-cultural reasons for supporting festivals and events in Wales and the reliance on economic outcome performance measures.

The urban studies and policy literature has generated interesting perspectives such as Gotham (2002), examining Mardi Gras in New Orleans from the perspective of place marketing, commodification, spectacle, globalization and political economy. Gladstone (2012) referred to New Orleans events in discussing policy “regimes” and how they determine tourism strategies. Merkel (2013) indicates that the emergence of new lines of critical theory are now apparent. Weed’s (2003) research in the UK revealed tensions between the two communities of sport and tourism including funding and resources, top-down policy-making, organization and professionalization, internal focus, and project-based liaison. Results showed how development of this policy network (i.e., sport plus tourism) can be made sustainable. Devine, Boyd, and Boyle (2010) also examined the sports tourism policy arena, highlighting the need for collaboration. Stakeholder analysis, networking and power relationships have been conceptualized as a political market square by Larson and Wikstrom (2001) and Larson (2002), while Larson (2009) employed the metaphors of the jungle, the park and the garden to highlight the varying dynamics of event networks. Robertson and Wardrop (2012) developed a conceptual model called the “spatial domain of politics and policy relating to festivals and other events” which notes the many interrelated policy aims connected to six dimensions: quality of life; place identity; culture; tourism; economy, and social capital. Scotland is used as a case in point, and EventScotland has also been profiled in Getz (2013a) as an exemplar of event-tourism strategy, organisation and development at the national level.

Research on social-cultural impacts and resident perceptions and attitudes has been evolving into research on resident support or opposition (e.g., Boo, Wang, & Yu, 2011; Richards, de Brito, & Wilks, 2013). Open, public discourse on the costs and benefits of events and event tourism is rare, and generally ill-informed. The proponents of mega events in particular either shut down dissent or cynically manipulate debate through emphasis on intangibles like national pride. Tourism is often appropriated by the proponents as a major beneficiary, allegedly leading to jobs and

prosperity, yet opportunity costs are ignored. Full accounting is absent after the event. Overall, the most crucial public-policy issue facing event tourism is that of justifying intervention, whether in the form of direct provision of events, building and subsidizing event venues, bidding on one-time events, or managing sustainable event portfolios. Unless ‘public good’ can be demonstrated through complete transparency and accountability on the part of all the agents, event tourism is likely to garner increasing opposition for its more obvious costs and perceived problems.

4.4.4. Knowledge creation

Knowledge creation in this field has largely been ad hoc and fragmented among diverse interest groups. Review articles like this one have as one of their main purposes the integration of pertinent literature, as do the growing number of textbooks. However, research on the process and actors in knowledge creation for event tourism is largely absent. Stokes (2004) examined knowledge networks in the Australian events sector. In advancing knowledge a number of important actors have to be involved, and perhaps some new collaborative processes developed. Event and tourism studies, like other immature fields of inquiry, are mostly multi-disciplinary in nature, drawing theory, knowledge, methodologies and methods from many established disciplines. It is also accomplished indirectly, by drawing on closely related professional fields like leisure studies. When two or more disciplinary foundations are applied to the problem we enter the realm of interdisciplinary research, with the long-term goal being to establish unique, interdisciplinary theory and knowledge. Anyone undertaking research on events should view the established disciplinary perspectives as a legitimate starting point. Even if the research problem is rooted in a policy or management need, it is highly possible that geography, economics, or another discipline already provides a solid foundation for conducting the research. However, within these disciplines the study of events and tourism is often incidental to a broader issue or theoretical problem and Table 7 outlines some of the future research themes that need to be addressed in terms of dynamic processes.

4.5. Outcomes and the impacted

Event tourism is primarily driven by the goal of economic benefits, but we need to examine outcomes and impacts at the personal and societal levels, and also in terms of cultural and environmental change. Event tourism should be viewed in an open-system perspective, identifying ‘inputs’ (what it takes to make events happen, including the costs of bidding, facility development and marketing), ‘transforming processes’ (events as agents of change), and ‘outcomes’ (desired and undesired impacts, including externalities). Depending on one’s perspective, outcomes and change processes might be interpreted as a positive or negative impact. As so much research and applied work has been devoted to economic impacts, other outcomes were neglected for many years, along with development of suitable and convincing measures of intangible impacts and event value or worth. However, social and cultural outcomes are now fairly-well understood and a range of indicators are available. And although the environmental effects of events and tourism are also being addressed by researchers, incommensurability is hampering the utilization of a triple-bottom-line approach to event-tourism evaluation. In short, it is generally easier and often more politically effective to put outcomes into monetary terms.

Carlsen, Getz, and Soutar (2001) sought to establish broader measures of event impacts, and Sherwood, Jago, and Deery (2004, 2005) and Sherwood (2007) advanced a triple bottom line

Table 7
Future research themes associated with dynamic processes in event tourism.

Major themes, concepts and terms: dynamic processes	Future directions
<i>Spatial:</i>	
1: The distribution of festivals as linked to human–resource interactions such as agriculture and other resource exploitation	- Population dynamics and the health of event populations is a new area for researchers (start by conducting a census of events in a given area and looking for resource dependencies)
2: Central-place theory applies (i.e., the concentration of events and event tourism in larger centres with venues and tourism infrastructure); core-periphery economics is a related construct as it is difficult to spread positive benefits away from main event venues	- Future studies should be applied to event tourism, resulting in scenarios for strategy and theory-building purposes
3: Hierarchies of events appear to develop naturally, ranging from numerous local events through fewer regional events and a relatively small number with global attractiveness (i.e., the size pyramid)	- For the life cycle, determine factors which factors most shape their evolution?
4: Distance-decay: travel distance, time and cost affects event-tourist demand and shapes market areas	- Capacity or saturation: do communities or destinations inevitably reach event and event tourism saturation? can populations be managed to ensure growth?
5: Events have zones of influence measured in newly generated travel, displacement effects, and short-term and long-term impacts	- Adaptation strategies: how do events adapt to changes in their environment? (connect to niche theory in population ecology);
6: Capacity (there are limits to event numbers or size in peak time periods and particular areas)	- Why events fail is a largely unexplored issue
7: Events play a role in fostering place identity; Hallmark events are dependent upon their place of origin – they are 'attached' or 'anchored'	
<i>Temporal:</i>	
1: Festivals tend to concentrate in good-weather and holiday periods (as in the peak festival season)	
2: Iconic events have the power to attract dedicated event tourists in the off-peak	
3: Event life cycles have been explored, raising concern for renewal or planned obsolescence	
4: The sustainability of events and event-tourism portfolios is of increasing importance	
5: Time switching is an essential consideration when attributing tourism demand and expenditure to events	
<i>Policy:</i>	
1: Events and event tourism have been legitimized as policy instruments across economic, social, cultural and environmental domains; this has led to criticism of the 'festivalization' of urban policy and spaces and the generation of sameness (or loss of authenticity)	- What are the ways in which stakeholders exercise power, and negotiate, to develop event tourism and related policy? who gets excluded or marginalised?
2: Justification of event tourism usually rests on purported tourism and economic benefits; longer-term legacy effects are of increasing significance	- How can an open, public discourse on costs and benefits of event tourism be fostered?
3: Events focus attention on how power, the interests of elite groups, and irrational decision-making shape policy and underscore decisions	- Governance: how can public-private policymaking be made to work?
	- Evaluation: how do we know when event tourism policies are effective and efficiently administered?
	- Which justifications for public involvement in event tourism are supported, and why?
	- What are the ideological foundations of event tourism policy?
	- Each of the core propositions of event tourism should lead to interdisciplinary theory development
	- Ontology: continued assessment of claims to knowledge, concepts and terms will help develop the field
	- Epistemology: advances are required in adapting methodology from foundation disciplines and closely-related fields
<i>Knowledge creation:</i>	
1: Many well-established lines of research support the core propositions of event tourism	
2: There has been an over-emphasis of knowledge creation in the realm of economic impacts, although the discourse has been broadening quickly	
3: Although fashionable, a consumerist perspective on event demand and decision making (i.e., modelling simple expressed motives with measures of satisfaction and future intentions), overlooks fundamental needs, event meanings, and complex antecedents	
4: Interest in events continues to expand within all closely-related fields and many foundation disciplines, giving rise to new theoretical perspectives and useful methodologies	

approach to event sustainability. Fredline, Raybould, Jago, and Deery (2005) recommended use of the 'event footprint' as a concept of triple-bottom-line accounting. This graphical technique plots scores from key indicators on three dimensions. To make progress in both impact assessment and evaluation of worth, a more comprehensive system will be needed, one that allows comparison of multiple dimensions without resorting to purely monetary measurement. This could be accomplished by a goal-attainment approach in which progress towards attaining specific outcomes, and broader sustainability and management goals is periodically undertaken.

The notion of event legacy planning has become firmly established, particularly with regard to mega events that cannot easily be justified in terms of tourist expenditure, project finances, or by

reference to any short-term measures. Thomson, Schlenker, and Schulenkorf (2013, 111) stated the concept "has attracted limited critical analysis", and identified five key considerations: define the period of time early on, with a clear vision; plan the legacy from the concept stage; consider outcomes at all stages of the event life cycle; consider different perspectives on what is positive or negative; engage all stakeholders to ensure maximum reach for the desired outcomes. Clifton, O'Sullivan, and Pickernell (2012) took a different approach by linking a theme year to capacity building. Veitch (2013) explored mythology as a hallmark-event legacy, with reference to the lasting influence of the America's Cup on Fremantle, Western Australia. Many observers, and critics of mega events in particular, point to the credibility gap between what is promised and is actually delivered. For example, Minnaert (2012)

argued the Olympics generally bring few benefits for socially excluded groups, although these supposed benefits are often important justifications.

4.5.1. Economic outcomes

As discussed earlier in the paper, the earliest journal articles were by Della Bitta et al. (1978), and Davidson and Schaffer (1980). The first truly comprehensive event impact research was conducted on the Adelaide Grand Prix (see Burns, Hatch, & Mules, 1986). Since then, a number of scholars have lamented the lack of consistency used in event impact studies (Dwyer, Forsyth, & Spurr, 2005; Sherwood, 2007; Uysal & Gitelson, 1994), but there is now so much literature available that practitioners should be able to avoid the main pitfalls. Several noteworthy articles were published at the turn of the century, including state-of-the-art commentary and methodology for conducting economic impact assessments by Dwyer et al. (2000a, 2000b). These more or less laid to rest any debate on what needed to be done, and how to do it validly.

Projects funded through the Cooperative Research Centre for Sustainable Tourism in Australia resulted in the ENCORE toolkit, which in its final version adopted a triple-bottom-line approach. Jago and Dwyer (2006) documented all the basic methods and issues, but economists have subsequently debated the validity of using input–output as a foundation for estimating secondary and induced income. Dwyer et al. (2010) include state-of-the-art thinking on event tourism impacts and their assessment, within the broader tourism context. Although income and value-added multipliers are typically used when converting direct (in-scope) event tourism spending into gross economic impacts, others have used econometric modelling and most recently economists have been recommending use of General Equilibrium Models (Dwyer & Forsyth, 2009; Dwyer, Forsyth, & Spurr, 2006).

Research concerning the economic impacts of single events dominates the literature (e.g., Peeters, Matheson and Szymanski, 2014; Saayman & Saayman, 2012) but various types of events are well studied. Grado et al. (1998) examined conferences and

conventions, and Dwyer (2002) provided an overview of convention tourism impacts. Solberg, Andersson, & Shibli, 2002 examined ‘business’ travellers to events, notably the media and officials. Impacts of events on the public sector have been studied (Andersson and Samuelson, 2000) and it is especially noteworthy that tax benefits for all levels of government constitute one of the biggest benefits of event tourism (Turco, 1995). Fundamental to event impact assessment is detailed analysis of visitor spending, with appropriate methods reviewed by Case, Dey, Hobbs, Hoolachan, and Wilcox (2010), Case, Dey, Lu, Phang, and Schwanz (2013). Wicker and Hallmann (2013) continued this line of research by employing willingness to pay measures for marathon runners. Davies, Coleman, and Ramchandani (2013) argue for the Direct Expenditure Approach to event impact assessment, which is simply a calculation of direct tourist expenditure attributable to an event, minus first-round leakages and taking into account organizational spend and surplus or deficit.

A number of authors have called for more comprehensive cost and benefit evaluations (Burgan & Mules, 2001; Mules & Dwyer, 2006; Whitson & Horne, 2006). As early as 1973 Cicarelli and Kowarsky conducted a cost-benefit evaluation of the Olympics. These are, very regrettably, seldom conducted, perhaps owing to the broad scope and the difficulty of comparing tangibles with intangibles. But there is also good reason to believe that full accounting of mega-project costs is not desired by proponents, and that after the event it is easier and more politically safe to let people believe that initial forecasts of costs and benefits were realized rather than to prove that they were. As the discourse broadens from economic to more comprehensive impact assessments, the more fundamental question has arisen of how society, politicians, and various other stakeholders value, or determine the worth of events and event-tourism portfolios. Within this debate are considerations of opportunity costs, gigantism (in terms of costs and incurred debt) and questionable sustainability (Hall, 2012; Preuss, 2007, 2009).

In order to avoid “black-box” models based on different assumptions and multipliers, and to achieve standardization in forecasts and post-event impact assessments, there is a move

Table 8
Future research issues associated with the economic effects of events.

Established concepts and terms: economic outcomes	Future directions
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1: Numerous economic-impact studies of single events, and a few on multiple events have established how event-tourism changes consumption patterns, generates income/wealth, has a minor role in creating employment, and contributes to other forms of economic and urban/rural development 2: Analysis frequently reveals the dedicated event tourist to be a high-yield visitor with distinct consumption patterns; this varies, depending on the event and the target markets 3: Taxation makes governments at all levels the primary beneficiaries of new event-tourism demand 4: The traditional reliance on multipliers (income, value, employment) to estimate total direct, indirect and induced economic impacts has received a lot of criticism for exaggerating benefits; furthermore, studies have revealed that direct event-tourist spending accounts for the vast majority of income benefits; multipliers are sometimes misused on purpose; their basis in Input-Output tables has been challenged owing to a propensity to exaggerate benefits 5: Cost/benefit evaluation methods are rarely applied; many event supporters do not want a full accounting of costs; many costs are hidden (e.g., security, transport infrastructure) or are falsely claimed as benefits; externalities such as pollution or social problems are typically ignored 6: The attribution of new or incremental spending to dedicated event tourists (who travel because of the event) is the key to calculating tourism benefits; in-scope expenditure refers to both the specific event(s) and the geographical area for which costs and benefits are to be calculated; casual event tourists (those already in the area) must be discounted, unless they stay longer or spend more because of an event 7: Displacement effects (by types of visitor, by economic sector, and spatially) can be substantial and must be deducted from gross tourist income 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Generalized Equilibrium Models are becoming preferred over multipliers, but more applications are needed - The distribution of costs and benefits among persons and groups and between cities and regions/countries remains a key issue - Full triple-bottom-line impact assessments are still in their infancy; commensurability remains a problem - Destinations and events always need fresh market intelligence on who are the high-yield event tourists, and how they should be attracted – this has theoretical implications in the context of event-tourist careers - In micro-economic terms, how does sustainability apply to the financial viability of the event and the event organization? of portfolios of events? - Long-term, cumulative economic impacts and legacy effects require study - Opportunity costs are seldom built into feasibility and impact studies; the same goes for externalities such as amenity loss

towards adopting a set of key performance indicators. Is it necessary for an event to forecast and account for every new dollar brought into the destination, or is it more important to know if local suppliers were used and their businesses enhanced? Do we need to prove that every event puts money into local government coffers, or is it better to measure the distributional effects of event-related expenditures? As the field matures, politicians demanding validity and standardization will increasingly pinpoint the economic and other outcomes they want measured and future research issues are outlined in [Table 8](#).

4.5.2. Personal, social, cultural, and political outcomes

There are difficulties involved in distinguishing between personal, social, and cultural outcomes, all of which can have political repercussions. It is often impossible to prove cause and effect in these areas, moreover the impacts felt by people might be attributable to the holding of events, participation in them, or the tourism dimension. Media reports can greatly influence perceptions and attitudes. Tourism-related outcomes can be complex and hard to assess, starting with the travel dimension (e.g., it can impose congestion, pollution, noise, accidents), to host-guest interactions (such as servitude or expansion of social networks), or

more intangible effects stemming from resident perceptions of their place in the world (e.g., their identity, place meanings and civic or national pride). [Sharpley and Stone \(2012\)](#) considered “social-cultural impacts” to be the simplest way of labelling this broad category, although they pointed out that social pertains to effects on people’s day-to-day life and cultural impacts relate to beliefs, values, norms and traditions of groups. Research on social and cultural impacts of event tourism has its roots in anthropological studies (e.g. [Greenwood, 1972](#)), who raised the enduring issue of commodification of cultural traditions, and a consequent loss of authenticity. A conceptual overview was provided by [Ritchie \(1984\)](#), and a noteworthy piece of sociological research was conducted by [Cunneen and Lynch \(1988\)](#) who studied ritualized rioting at a sport event. The literature on resident perceptions has also grown substantially as [Table 9](#) illustrates.

Social capital is a relatively new theme in the events literature (e.g., [Arcodia and Whitford, 2007](#); [Finkel, 2010](#); [Schulenkorf, Thomson, and Schlenker \(2011\)](#); [Sharpley & Stone, 2012](#)), and features prominently [Richards et al. \(2013\)](#). However it is sometimes unclear if it is an input necessary for establishing and sustaining events, or – if it is an outcome – whether it accrues from engagement with an event (as volunteer, organizer or participant) or can be a general effect of the networking and relationship building inherent in producing events. And where tourism exactly figures into the social-capital equation is somewhat of a mystery. Cultural change is usually less evident than social impacts, and therefore has been less subject to empirical research. Examples include [Garcia \(2005\)](#) on the cultural effects of Glasgow’s City of Culture year. [Stevenson \(2012\)](#) focused on the cultural legacy of the Olympics. More specific links between event tourism and culture can be found in the context of religious pilgrimage ([Singh, 2006](#); [Timothy and Olsen, 2006](#)), the events held by social worlds and sub cultures ([Getz & Patterson, 2013](#)), and of course arts events and their legacies ([Quinn, 2009, 2010](#)).

While the list of potential outcomes and positive or negative impacts felt by people and groups is long, there cannot be any certainty that event-tourism generates any one in particular. That is why it is necessary to understand the mechanisms by which change is initiated, and how people perceive the results ([Kim, Jun, Walker, & Drane 2015](#)). A number of theoretical perspectives are being taken to explain the socio-cultural impact processes and resident reactions to events or event-tourism. Exchange theory is the most widely cited. For example, [Jackson \(2008\)](#) found that residents are generally in favour of events that contribute socially and economically to the destination; residents are willing to cope with negatives as long as the perceived benefits are greater. Social representations, such as those communicated by media coverage, affect perceptions and attitudes. This has been explored in the event context by [Fredline and Faulkner \(2002b\)](#) and [Cheng and Jarvis \(2010\)](#). Other theoretical perspectives including personal and group identity and legitimation, place meanings, attachment and identity have been developed ([Boyko, 2008](#); [De Bres & Davis, 2001](#)). A feminist, critical-theory approach is rarely taken, but examples include studies by [Eder, Staggenborg, and Sudderth \(1995\)](#), [Coughlin \(2010\)](#) and [Fullagar and Pavlidis \(2012\)](#), while [Evans \(2007\)](#) employed post-colonial theory in examining a film festival. There is a clear gap in the research on political outcomes of event tourism. These could include corruption, changes in government, the evolution of governance (i.e., new models involving stakeholders), or the politicization of decision-making about events and tourism. [Henderson \(2007\)](#) discussed the dilemma of how to deal with the question of demonstrations that are affected by prevailing political cultures, and it can be asked if growing opposition to mega-events (e.g., in Rio de Janeiro) will have any impact on praxis or politics and future research themes are outlined in [Table 10](#).

Table 9

Resident and social impact studies on event tourism.

Residents’ perceptions of, and attitudes towards events emerged as a major research and theoretical theme, although the tourism-specific dimensions have not been fully examined in this context. Key studies include:

- [Soutar and McLeod \(1993\)](#)
- [Delamere \(1997, 2001\)](#)
- [Delamere, Wankel, and Hinch \(2001\)](#)
- [Fredline and Faulkner \(1998, 2000, 2002a, 2002b\)](#)
- [Mihalik \(2001\)](#)
- [Fredline, 2006](#); [Fredline, Jago, and Deery \(2003, 2005\)](#)
- [Cegielski and Mules \(2002\)](#)
- [Small et al. \(2005\)](#)
- [Wood \(2005\)](#)
- [Ohmann, Jones, and Wilkes \(2006\)](#)
- [Xiao and Smith \(2004a\)](#)
- [Gursoy and Kendall \(2006\)](#)
- [Lim and Lee \(2006\)](#)
- [Rollins and Delamare \(2007\)](#)
- [Bull and Lovell \(2007\)](#)
- [Reid \(2007\)](#)
- [Jackson \(2008\)](#)
- [Small \(2007\)](#)
- [Wang and Pfister \(2008\)](#)
- [Zhou and Ap \(2009\)](#)
- [Zhou \(2010\)](#)
- [Chen \(2011\)](#)
- [Lorde, Greenidge, and Devonish \(2011\)](#)
- [Balduck, Maes, and Buelens \(2011\)](#)
- [Pranic, Petric, and Cetinic \(2012\)](#)
- [Prayag et al. \(2013\)](#).

A number of specific social impact studies have been conducted including:

- [Barker, Page, and Meyer’s \(2002a, 2002b, 2003\)](#) papers on event-related crime and perceptions of safety during an event. Even so [Schroeder and Pennington-Grey \(2014\)](#) argued that perceptions of crime at the Olympics lacked research despite the major security exercises surrounding such events.
- [Woosnam, Van Winkle, and An \(2013\)](#) sought to confirm their festival social impact attitude scale in Texas.
- [Di Giovine \(2009\)](#) considered how a destination event facilitates resident *communitas* and urban regeneration.
- [Robertson, Rogers, and Leask \(2009\)](#) sought to develop a set of indicators for socio-cultural festival impact assessments.
- [Deery and Jago \(2010\)](#) dealt with anti-social behaviour at events.
- [Kaplanidou et al. \(2013\)](#) tested perceived satisfaction with quality of life by residents in South Africa before and after the World Cup.
- Focussing on how publicity in advance of the Olympics shaped resident support, [Chien, Ritchie, Shipway, and Henderson \(2012\)](#) concluded that attitudes were shaped by perceived fairness of the coverage, taking into account imputed benefits and forecast costs or negative impacts.

Table 10
Future research themes on the personal, social and cultural outcomes of event tourism.

Major themes, concepts and terms: personal, social, and cultural outcomes	Future directions
1: Many resident-perceived impacts (both positive and negative) have been identified at the personal and community levels	- More is needed on personal development through event engagement and participation (e.g., how do people describe and explain why event tourism experiences are satisfying, memorable or transforming? what are the personal and social consequences of negative event tourism experiences?)
2: Exchange theory helps explain why many people are supportive of event-tourism, or not (because they perceive benefits or costs accrue to them)	- Evaluation tools and measures are needed for intangible effects and long-term, cumulative social/cultural legacies
3: Proximity effects: being close to events and venues is potentially an important explanatory factor	- Establishing cause and effect in social and cultural change is always problematic (e.g., does commodification of an event cause loss of tradition or authenticity? does gigantism and mega-event costs/debt generate social discontent?)
4: Social representation through media coverage affects perceptions and attitudes	- Compare discourses on costs and benefits (e.g., post-colonial, feminist, power and politics, stakeholder interactions)
5: Commodification through event tourism is a threat to cultural authenticity	- How are social representations of events formed and communicated?
6: Events can help preserve traditions, foster civic and national pride, develop participation in and support for the arts	- How does the nature and extent of community involvement influence event tourism success and outcomes?
7: Events are sometimes platforms for protests, demonstrations, anti-social behaviour; these effects are often connected to the extent of media coverage	- What strategies work best for maximizing community benefits?
8: Legitimation and identity building for groups occurs through organizing or participating in events	- The politics of event tourism and response to perceived impacts requires study
9: Voluntarism and other forms of engagement fosters personal development and group identity	- Explore the process of how events contribute to place identity and attachment
10: Production of, and engagement with events can create social and cultural capital – especially through increased personal and institutional networking	

4.5.3. Environmental

The environmental impacts of events and tourism have remained a largely neglected area of academic research. For example, [Sherwood \(2007\)](#) examined 85 event economic impact studies prepared in Australia, and while the economic impact assessment was inconsistent but well established, social and cultural event impacts were being given more and more attention, but there was still a great need for advancing environmental impact assessment. According to [Sherwood](#), only two published papers by [May \(1995\)](#) and [Harris and Huyskens \(2002\)](#) had dealt explicit with the environmental impacts of events, and only one of 85 event impact studies actually employed a triple bottom line approach. The research literature on environmental outcomes has been expanding slowly. [Ahmed, Moodley, and Sookrajh \(2008\)](#) looked at the environmental impacts of beach sport tourism in South Africa surrounding a surfing event, including the potential for environmental education. [Collins and Flynn \(2008\)](#) and [Collins, Jones, and Munday \(2009\)](#), [Collins, Munday, and Roberts \(2012\)](#) have tested different ways of measuring the environmental sustainability of a major sporting event. Recent additions to the literature on green and sustainable events include books by [Raj and Musgrave \(2009\)](#), [Jones \(2010\)](#) and [Goldblatt and Goldblatt \(2012\)](#). [Case \(2013\)](#) covers relationships between events and the environment comprehensively, while [Pernecky and Luck \(2012\)](#) examine event sustainability in its many dimensions, including case studies. [Case \(2012\)](#) chronicled the Olympic movement and environmental issues and profiled the 2012 London Olympics in the context of sustainability. [Theodoraki \(2009\)](#) studied official communications on the impacts of the Athens 2004 Olympic Games, finding that at the bid stage the efforts were directed at building a positive image for the games, while accounts of post-game economic benefits were unsophisticated and unverifiable. In an effort to overcome the problem of incommensurability in triple-bottom-line approaches to impact assessment, festival-related research by [Andersson, Armbrecht and Lundberg \(2012\)](#) and [Andersson and Lundberg \(2013\)](#) placed a monetary value on the use and non-use values expressed through willingness to pay by event tourists and residents, and on the ecological footprint of the event. Footprint analysis, which focuses on consumption and waste, including carbon, offers the prospect of making it possible to compare events systematically and to monitor their sustainability efforts.

In terms of standards and certification, the main development is that of [ISO, 2012](#) which “provides the framework for identifying the potentially negative social, economic and environmental impacts of

events by removing or reducing them, and capitalizing on more positive impacts through improved planning and processes.” Standards like these impose management and reporting systems but do not answer the question “what is a sustainable event?” Standards and practices for green events and venues are now widely implemented, but the literature does not provide any comparative evidence of results. As argued by [Case \(2013\)](#), who considered the entire set of relationships between planned events and the environment, it is necessary to consider resources consumed, and the micro and macro environmental outcomes. To focus on tourism we need to question the additional resources consumed, and outcomes generated by tourists, as well as any modifications introduced by the tourism dimension. In particular, this systems approach leads to the critical issue of transportation and energy consumption, but might also focus attention on the peculiar eating and purchasing habits of event tourists, different patterns of destination activities, and preferences for particular forms of accommodation. It might also be the case that event tourists bring different values and attitudes to a place, resulting in conflicts with residents.

As [Table 11](#) demonstrates on concepts and future research issues, there are few established concepts and terms specific to event tourism and the environment. The location and setting of events certainly has an effect, with purpose-built venues permanently changing the landscape and generating on-going costs and resource demands. More attention should be given to achieving positive environmental outcomes, including the role of event tourism in nature conservation through education and interpretation. In this context the notion of ecotourism events is relevant; that is events that are designed to attract ecotourists who expect to make a positive contribution and a model for ecotourism events has been developed by [Getz \(2013b\)](#). However, more generically the literature on future studies and events has remained a largely undeveloped area and so it is pertinent to briefly review this area and its contribution to the long-term development of event tourism research.

4.5.4. Future studies and event tourism: a neglected area for further research?

There is a growing body of knowledge emerging within tourism management on the value of future studies and their contribution to understanding the future changes to demand and supply issues and how they may impact tourism. The extant literature in event studies is still in its infancy with much of the tourism and broader

Table 11
Future research issues on environmental outcomes and event tourism.

Major themes, concepts and terms: environmental outcomes	Future directions
1: Event-tourism is a major consumer of energy and other resources, generating high ecological and carbon footprints	- There is an on-going need to advance environmental impact evaluation methods (e.g. ecological footprint; carbon footprint)
2: Event types and settings influence environmental impacts (e.g., indoor versus outdoor, festival versus sport); reliance on private automobile access is a major issue; some events drastically alter consumption patterns, such as spending on travel, food, accommodation	- Cumulative, long-term impacts and ecological sustainability of event populations are unexplored - Compare event types, formats and locations in terms of propensity to harm or benefit the environment
3: Practices and standards have been established for the “greening” of events and sustainable venues	- Evaluate the effects of green and sustainability certification and standards - Are ecotourism events suitable for sensitive environments? - Advance interpretation and environmental education at, and through events

management literature providing the foundations for the analysis of event futures. As Page, Yeoman, Munro, Connell, and Walker (2006) outlined, the UK Cabinet Office Performance and Innovation Unit (2001) suggested that when examining futures issues there are three principal questions we need to pose: what may happen (possible futures), what is the most likely to happen (probable futures) and what would we prefer to happen (preferable futures). For this reason, a number of distinct approaches exist which can be employed in futures research as outlined by Page et al. (2006) based on the growth in this area within management science from softer (often qualitative techniques) through to much harder techniques. In fact Cornish's (2004) overview of futures techniques illustrates the breadth of futures research highlighted which comprise environmental scanning, trend analysis, trend monitoring, trend projection, scenarios, polling, brainstorming, modelling, gaming, historical analysis and visioning (i.e. looking more than 10 years ahead). This underlines the importance of the type of futures research question one wishes to ask – and whether you are looking for certainty and ambiguity, with the much harder techniques lending themselves to a greater element of certainty. In terms of the harder techniques that principally focus on forecasting, they were grouped by Calentone, Benedetto, and Bojanic (1987) into four types: exploratory forecasting based on extrapolating past trends using regression and similar techniques; normative, integrative and speculative forecasting (see Song & Li, 2008 for a review of their use in tourism). In terms of the qualitative area, Lin and Song (2014) examined the comparative neglect of the use of Delphi techniques as a way of understanding futures using more qualitative tools while several uses of scenario planning have been employed in the tourism literature (see Page et al. 2006; Page, Yeoman, Connell, and Greenwood, 2010) for a detailed review) which document the emergence and use to understand possible futures to pose the ‘what if’ question to managers.

Within the field of event tourism, there are a wide range of challenges facing managers which futures research will help in a greater understanding of what are the key trends and factors affecting those trends (e.g. drivers of change) and the main issues which might occur in an event setting (e.g. the occurrence of random events such an extreme event such as a heatwave through to more atypical events such as terrorism through to more commonplace safety and security risks). Recent studies such as Yeoman, Robertson, McMahon-Beattie, Smith, and Backer (2014) map out some of the issues which future event tourism research will have to face and a useful summary of the key drivers of consumer behaviour in event tourism are outlined in Table 12 based on Yeoman (2013).

What Table 12 illustrates is the scope of probable drivers of change that managers will need to understand in terms of demand although from a supply perspective a number of other challenges

exist as outlined by Adema and Roehl (2010), Mair (2011) and Yeoman et al. (2014) where the following drivers of event tourism may include (as also highlighted in Tables 2–11):

- Environmental and green issues
- The impact of climate change and the need for venues and event stagers to consider the capacity to adapt to and mitigate the impacts
- Security and safety issues
- Globalization and the global audiences for event tourism.

5. Conclusions

Event tourism is a sub-field at the nexus of tourism and event studies as demonstrated in Figures 1 and 2, and its growing importance as an economic activity with various development

Table 12
A summary of consumer trends shaping future events and festivals.

Trend term	Summary
Everyday exceptional	An increase in celebration and the transformation of the everyday experience into some more extraordinary and exceptional events
Magic nostalgia	A greater focus on reminiscence and celebration of the past in events and festivals
Leisure upgrade	The aspiration for leisure participation increases with affluence and events offer a new form of social capital where participation is celebrated as an experience
Mobile living	We are living in more connected societies and living more connected lives which also transcends our leisure lives in which events (and non-leisure events) occur
Performative leisure	We are increasingly witnessing people celebrating their involvement in events and enjoyment through sharing the experiences via social media and mobile technology
Authentic experience	Consumers are seeking to accumulate more authentic leisure experiences and events and festivals offer one way to do this, increasingly through co-creation
Affluence	Consumers are becoming more demanding in terms of their needs and consumption within the experience economy
Ageless society	The rising age of the population in the developed world, due to greater life expectancy, has transformed the participation in events and festivals
Consuming with ethics	Consumers are starting to recognise the challenge of green issues and their own carbon footprint in everyday life and this may start to shape leisure consumption in the future around participation in event tourism
Accumulation of social capital	Consumers want to celebrate their achievements and participation in key events and festivals and this is part of the desire to accumulate experiences as part of their social capital repertoire

Source: Developed from Yeoman (2013).

roles has resulted in substantial global competition. It is instrumentalist in nature, meaning that events and tourism are valued for many purposes, both in the public and private sectors. A set of core propositions have been identified (see Section 1.2), and these collectively explain why event tourism is considered to be important, as well as generating goals for its development. The pertinent literature is vast. Indeed it is too big and diverse to thoroughly cover, but in this systematic summary we have attempted to signpost key developments and areas of research that have evolved and areas for further development. One of the central challenges is that many other disciplines and fields have taken an interest in event-related phenomena, contributing to many discourses and research topics that link events and tourism in an interdisciplinary manner. The review process has been shaped by a framework (see Fig. 5) that can also be used by managers and policy makers to shape their overall understanding and approach to event tourism. The tables in the paper summarize knowledge in this field by identifying major themes, concepts and terms being employed in each of the elements of the framework: the core phenomenon (experience and meanings), antecedents, outcomes, planning and management, and dynamic patterns and processes.

While a complete ontological mapping of event tourism remains to be attempted, this review has identified major claims to knowledge that delimit event tourism, with insights on how this knowledge has been determined through various research methods. This process has also provided a research agenda by suggesting new and emerging topics and specific methods that can prove useful. To make progress ontologically will require a systematic analysis of all the pertinent literature, both from the research journals and from praxis, with the aim of pinpointing all claims to knowledge (including all concepts being employed), and an effort made to codify and standardize terminology.

5.1. Trends

By focussing on changes in the literature a number of hot topics and trends can be identified. First, strategy for event tourism is attracting more attention from researchers and theorists, and in particular a new emphasis has emerged on developing and managing portfolios of events. Most of the literature pertains to single events, their planning, management and impact; but growth in the events sector combined with global competitiveness means that most cities and destinations possess numerous events with long-term and synergistic effects. Application of portfolio concepts from the investment field, and testing of various propositions from population and organizational ecology will advance praxis and foster interdisciplinary theory for event tourism. There is a need to study the ever-expanding roles of events as they have become legitimized as instruments of varied government policies, corporate marketing, and industry strategy. While the impetus for event tourism in most cases was that of tourist attractiveness, related to overcoming seasonality and generating economic impacts. The image enhancement and co-branding roles of events have become equally or more valued. A major source of concern for events and destinations is how to measure real effects of media coverage and whether or not image enhancement translates into future demand or growth. Greater attention to media management is warranted, specifically how images and brand values can be conveyed to target audiences through the planned-event medium.

The roles of events in urban regeneration and re-positioning go well beyond place marketing and image effects. Links between events, travel and health are under-researched and this should become a priority research topic – especially directed at youth. How do events, and the development of event travel careers,

engage youth and keep people active throughout their lives? Do owners and organizers of events establish health goals and evaluate outcome? The oft-claimed effects of sport-events that they generate increased participation have been challenged and longitudinal research is therefore required. Who exactly participates more as a consequence of events, and can we distinguish between the effects of publicity (e.g., merely watching an event on TV) actual participation as a volunteer or athlete, and other forms of engagement such as educational programmes attached to events? Among key themes for future development are the following.

Special-Interest Event Tourism: The range of special interests generating events and tourism continues to expand, from yoga and food to ever-diversifying participation sports. How involvement is established and leads to event-tourist careers is of direct relevance to both understanding this trend and to taking advantage of it for competitive reasons. While traditions and the institutionalization process give rise to permanent hallmark events, special interests generate numerous targeted events and a number of iconic events that hold special meaning for the highly involved.

Understanding the travel experience has always been a theme, advanced most recently through ethnographic accounts, but now experience design is the very popular topic.

Increasingly it will be necessary to ‘custom-design’ highly targeted event experiences, and this has to be based on greater knowledge of the planned event experience in all its dimensions (by type of event, setting and management systems). A variety of research approaches and many comparisons will be required, from evaluations of those attending events to qualitative studies of what people are looking for, meanings they attach to their experiences, and influences on future attitudes and behaviour. In this demand-side approach, market intelligence equates with more and better research and theory development on the roles of event tourism in social worlds connected to leisure, sport and lifestyle.

Evaluation and Impact Assessment: Inevitably the rise of event tourism is generating a greater need for accountability, transparency, and comprehensiveness in evaluation of policies, strategies, investments and interventions. This applies to bidding, developing a comprehensive portfolio, and construction or replacement of venues. Researchers have made great strides in developing theory and methods for non-economic impact topics, most recently by stressing social capital, use and non-use values, footprint calculations and taking a multistakeholder approach. But full cost and benefit evaluations are rare and it is exceptional to see proper consideration of opportunity costs or key externalities like security and infrastructure costs for mega events. Long-term evaluation of leveraging and legacy effects is needed. Key indicators are being developed to both reflect triple-bottom-line thinking and encourage standardization of impact assessments and forecasts.

A primary need is to focus attention on the bigger evaluation questions of what an event is worth, how to value events within a portfolio, and the relative value of permanent versus one-time events.

Running in parallel to developments in evaluation and impact assessment has been a rise in critical discourse related to events and event tourism (e.g. see Merkel, 2013). This reflects the growing scholarly interest in contested meanings and the worth of events, how ideology, power and politics shape event tourism, events as propaganda, protests, and the distribution of costs and benefits.

Sustainability: Certainly this is not a new theme, but its relevance will not diminish. While there is no single definition or approach to achieving sustainability that is accepted by all, there has been recognition that it is much more than a “greening of events” and in this sense the discourse is closely related to

evaluation of worth, justifications for public-sector intervention, portfolios and populations, and to various lines of argument within critical discourse. Many critics flatly reject the notion that mega events can ever be green or sustainable.

Futurism. Tourism forecasting is a well-established theme, but we are now seeing more interest in future studies applied to the events sector (e.g. Yeoman et al. (2014) highlighting the significance of trend analysis).

Finally it is pertinent to conclude with a focus on education for event tourism. Event management education is now well established in many countries, but it is inevitable that event tourism will find a place of its own. This is in part a function of the increasing number of jobs specific to event tourism indicative of the potential drop in student demand for tourism and value in combining tourism and closely related studies like events more closely. The synergistic effects of these new (or perhaps re-invented) mergers offer students more choices and bring applied management fields closer together as advocated by Getz (2014).

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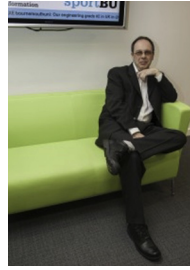
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