A tale of two cities: Local government, community events and social capital building

A thesis presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Business Studies (Communication)

at Massey University, Wellington, New Zealand

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2016

Abstract

This research project investigates the approaches to investment in the staging of community events, supporting strategies and availability of event management resources by two neighbouring local council authorities in the North Island of New Zealand. The perceived impacts of events on the host community and capacity of events to build social capital is also explored, primarily through data collected from interviews with council event organisers, councillors and non-council event organisers.

The findings of this study indicate that both council authorities are supportive of the delivery of events by council and non-council event organisers, providing human, financial and physical capital to enable the output of events despite their being no explicit legal obligation for local government authorities to do so. Event impacts were considered to be positive in nature, falling into the areas of promotional, social and economic impacts. Social impacts were of primary interest, including community engagement and participation, celebrating community, building and fostering community spirit, giving back to the community and attracting new people to the area.

For both councils, there is scope for greater strategic planning around event delivery both as individual authorities and collaboratively, including the establishment of formal monitoring and evaluation to assess the effectiveness of their events investments in meeting set objectives. There are opportunities to capture meaningful data on the impacts of events in the host communities, as well as the building and maintenance of social capital. Event organisers are primarily interested in providing a community asset through their events; motivated by how their events can enhance

local well-being and contribute to social capital building. Understanding how and if social capital building occurs and is maintained as a result of community events can be further explored together by council and non-council event organisers.

Acknowledgements

The journey to completing this research project has been enriched by the encouragement and assistance of colleagues at Wellington Institute of Technology (WelTec) and Massey University, academics generously sharing resources and the enthusiasm of its participants. Special thanks to Dr Mimi Hodis, thesis supervisor, for walking alongside me, to WelTec for its ongoing support in nurturing my academic capability, and to those organising the community events peppering our lives with moments of joy that otherwise may not have been.

Table of contents

Introduction

Background to research project

Community events are frequently staged in cities and towns across New Zealand. Town halls, local libraries, recreation facilities, outdoor areas, schools, clubrooms and churches host attendees as they gather to partake in events ranging in scope and scale, including festivals, meetings, fairs and sporting events. Local government authorities play a key role in ensuring community events are organised, supported and facilitated, be it through providing venues, funding, skilled labour or access to resources, or by taking on event management responsibilities to deliver a public event. Local governments are known to develop event strategies that include a portfolio of events (O'Toole, 2011).

The Local Government Act (2002) states that the purpose of local government is: to enable democratic decision-making and action by, and on behalf of, communities, and to meet the current and future needs of communities for good-quality local infrastructure, local public services, and performance of regulatory functions in a way that is most cost-effective for households and businesses (Local Government New Zealand, 2013). Despite the suggestion in 2012 by then local government minister, Nick Smith, that councils should focus solely on providing core services such as waste, water and roads (Torrie, 2012), local government authorities in New Zealand have embedded community events in their day-to-day operations, continuing to invest in enabling such events to be delivered.

While events may appear to be non-essential areas of a council's services, events play a role in community cohesiveness, town branding and economic returns (New Zealand Association of Events Professionals, 2012). Cities worldwide have successfully used events to promote and brand themselves as desirable destinations

amidst changing political, economic and social climates. A strategic use of events can return long term benefits to a city or town, including urban regeneration, resident attraction and retention, community well-being and place promotion (Wood, 2009a).

Events have the capacity to transform cities and communities, bringing people together in expressive ways to celebrate, collaborate and share. Events make cities better places to live by promoting diversity, bringing neighbours into dialogue and increasing creativity (Binder, 2012). Events help create and strengthen a sense of community, build social capital and improve the health and well-being of its members (Allen, O'Toole, Harris, & McDonnell, 2010).

Local governments' investment in major events can too provide a boost to the local economy and attract inward investment. Sporting and other events can help regions, towns and cities move forward with improving infrastructure and facilities and leave a legacy that benefits the whole community (Rhodes & Kaul, 2014). A strategic approach to events and community engagement is becoming commonplace as local governments use events to achieve a varied range of objectives. There are variations between councils in New Zealand and the input and investment each makes in community events, regardless of the documented benefits of doing so.

The local landscape for local government in New Zealand is changing, with amendments made to the Local Government Act (2002) "to encourage and enable local authorities to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of their operations and processes" (Department of Internal Affairs, 2014). Amendments to the Act also allow for the reorganisation and amalgamation of local council authorities, similar to that which occurred in Auckland, when eight authorities were instructed to merge into one "super-city" from November 2010. Wellington was recently in the spotlight for potential local government restructure, with proposals for full and partial

amalgamation of eight local councils submitted to the Local Government Commission for consideration. The amalgamation proposal generated a mixed community response, with local residents and community organisations largely not in favour of any change; arguing local government works most effectively when it is genuinely local, governed by a council in touch with and connected to its community (Kedgley, 2015). Of the over 9,500 public submissions received on the proposal, 89% were opposed to any restructure (Chipp, 2015).

Local government reform is rationalised by the claim it will "build a more productive, competitive economy and better public services" (Department of Internal Affairs, 2014). The concept of "localism", where local people working with local government are considered best-placed to know and understand community issues is gaining popularity internationally (Mexted, 2014). Local governments allow the general public to be consulted and engaged in the governance of their communities. In June 2015, the Local Government Commission rejected the proposed change in local government structure for Wellington (Nichol, 2015). Despite this rejection, councils have been informed by the current minister of local government, Paula Bennett that councils cannot "all continue as you have"; encouraging councils to share resources, cooperate more closely and aim for growth and long term sustainability (Edwards, 2015).

Research questions and objectives

The research questions that this research project addressed were:

RQ1: What investment do two neighbouring councils make in the staging of community events?

RQ2: What are the strategic objectives behind two neighbouring councils' investment in community events?

RQ3: What are the impacts of events staged on the communities of two neighbouring councils?

RQ4: How do two neighbouring councils' investments in community events build social capital?

RQ5: How do two neighbouring councils' approaches to community events compare to one another?

The objectives for this research project were:

RO1: To determine the investment made in community events by neighbouring councils. I.e.: Resources, staging of events, funding, venues, council funded people/dedicated roles, marketing platforms, strategic planning.

RO2: To determine why neighbouring councils invest in community events. I.e.: Strategic plan, pride of place, community building and well-being, economic growth, visitor attraction, collaboration opportunities with other councils, attracting new residents.

RO3: To determine the impacts of events staged on the communities of the neighbouring councils.

RO4: To determine if council's investments in community events contributes to building social capital.

RO5: To determine how neighbouring councils compare in their approach to community events.

Local government in New Zealand

Local government in New Zealand is made up of 78 local, regional and unitary councils, with the average population per local council approximately 65,000 residents. Every three years, voters within a local government authority elect a mayor and members of the council (councillors) to represent their community. While

4

the mayor and councillors are publicly elected officials, a chief executive is employed to run the day to day operations of the council. In New Zealand, local authorities employ approximately 30,000 staff in diverse roles ranging from administrators and dog control to events managers and librarians. Councils provide the local public services and infrastructure required for the community's need to be sustained. Primarily, council operations are funded through the provision of property tax – known as "rates" – payable by property owners. Local councils in New Zealand differ significantly from one another in terms of the activities they undertake, particularly where communities have been consulted in decision making and council outputs reflect the different circumstances of communities (Local Government New Zealand, 2014a). Likewise, property tax differs, and is set and collected by individual authorities.

Local Government New Zealand (LGNZ) represents the national interests of all local councils in New Zealand. LGNZ leads on and advocates for best practice in local government, provides training and gives policy development advice. The vision for local government in New Zealand is "local democracy powering community and national success" (Local Government New Zealand, 2014a). In 2014/15, LGNZ has seven strategic policy priorities: governance and performance excellence; a shared national approach to addressing regional development and growth across all of New Zealand; developing a sustainable funding model for local government; leading effective infrastructure development and funding policies; setting an agenda of regulatory reform and development of more effective policy-setting in areas impacting local government; sector-led policy on important environmental issues for effective management of natural capital; and strengthening local democracy and the value of local government (Local Government New Zealand, 2014b).

The research setting

Councils A and B are neighbouring authorities in the North Island of New Zealand. Council B has the larger population and number of dwellings of the two councils, while council A possesses greater land mass, featuring large areas zoned as rural. Major ethnic groups residing within both councils include European, Maori, Pacific peoples and Asian. The median income for both councils is almost identical and just above the national average at $32,500 for council A and $31,500 for council B (Statistics New Zealand, 2013). Both councils A and B represent areas defined as cities.

Council A is overseen by a mayor and 10 councillors. Councillors are members of a number of council committees, however there are no committees specific to events apart from one relating to temporary road closures for events. At the commencement of this research project, Council A employed a retail and events coordinator within its marketing and communications department under the business development services department, and also funds the salary of an events administrator based at a majority council funded venue. It is noteworthy that this venue has been the recent recipient of a three-year, $1.5M council grant to enable the development its events infrastructure. The retail and events coordinator role subsequently changed to become retail coordinator and a new marketing and events coordinator role was established. Council A's community services department includes teams also responsible for community event and recreation outputs, however these are targeted at specific geographic or minority groups, therefore not considered community events in terms of being available for the entire community to engage with.

Council B is overseen by a mayor and 12 councillors who also sit on community boards and community committees. There are many council committees, working groups, special committees and sub-committees, none of which are specific to events activity. Council B is a shareholder in a number of council controlled organisations. Council B employs an events manager and an events coordinator within its community services group. The two events roles have existed within council B for a number of years, despite some restructuring having occurred. Council B also employs a CBD development manager as part of its city development group, a role which was established in 2012 with the aim to create a more vibrant and active central business district. This role includes event planning and delivery, and finding creative uses for vacant shop spaces in collaboration with landlords and rental agents. Main street decline is a concern for both councils A and B, with many shop sites on their respective main streets presently vacant. Faced with competition from malls and online shopping, many small retailers simply cease operating.

Key guiding documents

Council A is guided by key documents typical of all local government authorities in New Zealand. These key documents include a district plan, which councils are required to produce under the Resource Management Act (1991) (New Zealand Legislation, 2015). District plans outline the management of the built and natural environment and regulates the way land can be used or developed. A long term plan (2012-2022) is also a key document, as is the annual plan (2014-15). Council A also follows an urban growth strategy (2007), which is currently under review. Parallel to this process, a new rural strategy is being drafted, which will likely be incorporated into the updated urban growth strategy. Events are mentioned 23

times in the long term plan; however council A has no specific event management strategy, vision or related document.

Like council A, council B is guided by a similar portfolio of key documents, supported by an additional integrated vision for the city. Key documents include the annual plan, district plan and long term plan (2015-2025). Events are mentioned 37 times in the long term plan. Unlike council A, council B also has a formal events strategy (2013-2023), which aims to provide a framework for the council's events decision making process and role in delivering events. The existence of the strategy is rationalised by the community profile, social and economic benefits that can be gained through events. The strategy states "events enable people to have a sense of pride in the city, a connection with their community…events transform the negative into positive, prejudice to acceptance, isolation to connection" (City Events Strategy, 2013, p. 5). While opportunities for social capital are not explicitly stated in the events strategy, references such as the aforementioned identify with social capital building. The events strategy also makes reference to working alongside neighbouring councils to co-host multi venue events. Council B's long term plan indicates a commitment to construct an events centre capable of hosting single and multi-day community and commercial events. The events centre is scheduled to open in 2017.

Events portfolio

Events feature prominently on both council websites. Council A's website lists "festivals and events" among the core services delivered, and highlights 11 key annual events taking place in the city. Just one of the 11 events listed – a retail-based fair coinciding with the end of financial year – is entirely owned and delivered by council. Other events such as a summer festival, street fair and cycling events are

organised by non-council event managers though supported in some way by council. These events are mostly not-for-profit, though several are commercial.

Council B's events output significantly outweighs that of council A, with council B initiating, planning and delivering a number of regular "showcase" and "premier" events as defined in its events strategy. Council B regularly updates and reviews its events portfolio and strives to avoid duplicating similar events simultaneously offered by other councils.

Both councils attract a wide range of events organised from outside council, particularly outdoor sporting events such as mountain biking, road biking and triathlon events. Each hosts a local i-SITE facility in a council property; staffed and managed by council employees or employees funded by council. I-SITEs support local events through promotion and coordinating accommodation and transport bookings for visitors.

Events resources for event organisers

Information for event organisers delivering events within each city varies. Council A provides detailed online information and resources on how to run an event. This includes event promotion, booking council venues and noticeboards, road closures, food and liquor licencing, permits and waste management. New event organisers are referred to guidelines for event organisers created by a larger council authority within the region as no guidelines specific to council A are available.

Council B sees its role in events in a number of ways: as an owner and provider of venues and public spaces; as a direct supplier that initiates, plans and delivers events; as a facilitator, supporting events by playing a regulatory and advisory role; as a funder and champion of events; and as a promoter of events. Online information for event organisers by council B is available in regards to

booking venues, applying for relevant permits and seeking council advice. Nothing specific to running an event is on the website, though a toolkit is in development, as are plans to train community groups in event management best practice.

Both councils provide a contestable pool of funds for event organisers to apply for, funded through the respective event operating budgets. Council A has a total annual events fund of $50,000 for council and non-council events, while council B has an annual events support fund solely for non-council events of $100,000 and a contestable fund of $150,000.

To assess the merit of applications to the fund, council A asks applicants for comprehensive event details, including event scope, budget, marketing plan, community impact, contingency, health and safety, traffic, audience and waste management plans. Council A also provides a $93,000 community grants fund annually for community groups delivering community services in the city. One of the priority areas for funding is to assist community driven initiatives for events or programmes which promote a sense of community or contribute to community well-being.

Council B provides a framework for funding assessment in its events strategy, breaking events into four categories: showcase, premier, city/local and economic/strategic. Each category has defined characteristics typical of events falling into each one. Event organisers applying for funding under $10,000 must submit a detailed budget supported by quotations and a brief event overview. Applications for funding over $10,000 must include more detailed event plans, such as objectives, risks, resources required and a marketing plan. No monitoring or evaluation systems are in place by either council to undertake a post-event analysis

of funding recipients' actual outputs compared to what was outlined in their applications.

Both councils A and B make a wide variety of resources available to events, such as venues, equipment, signage, promotion and informal advice enabling organisers to navigate council processes and meet regulatory obligations. Both councils dedicate space on their respective websites for events calendars highlighting local activities. Events organisers are able to submit event details to these calendars for inclusion at no cost. As well as a range of council venues, non-council venues such as maraes, meeting facilities and sporting arenas are also available within the cities. Neither council is situated within close proximity of significant hotel accommodation or modern convention style facilities.

Literature review

Background

Festivals and special events are common occurrences in cities and communities across New Zealand. Organised, hosted and supported by a range of stakeholders for varying purposes, festivals and special events are known to bring with them a wide range of impacts to the host community. Events play an important role in society, breaking up the routine of daily life (Shone & Parry, 2013) through celebrations, commemorations and special occasions.

The events industry in New Zealand continues to grow. Not only has the number of major events being delivered on an annual basis in New Zealand increased, there have also been increases in events industry employment, membership to New Zealand's sole association for events professionals, and programmes being offered at tertiary institutions with a focus on event management as a discipline. New venues enabling the expansion of the events industry are being constructed across the country, complemented by strategic plans looking to take full advantage of the benefits events can provide.

Events are delivered in specific social, political, economic and environmental contexts with the ability to impact both positively and negatively (Holmes, Hughes, Mair, & Carlsen, 2015). Since the early 2000's, a large body of event management research has trended towards the investigation of the social impacts of events, rather than focusing for the most part on economic impacts as was previously the case (Buch, Milne, & Dickson, 2011). The impacts of events, both positive and negative, is becoming more detailed and better known as the body of knowledge expands.

Definition: Event

Getz's (2005, p 16) two-pronged definition of a special event is frequently cited in the literature: "a special event is a one-time or infrequently occurring event outside the normal program or activities of the sponsoring or organising body"; and "to the customer or guest, a special event is an opportunity for an experience outside the normal range of choices or beyond everyday experience". Festivals and special events mean life is not always the same (Harcup, 2000). Getz also provides an analysis of common dictionary definitions of 'event', which emphasises three key points on what an event is: an occurrence at a given place and time; a special set of circumstances; a noteworthy occurrence (2012, p. 37). Shone and Parry define events as "non-routine occasions set apart from the normal activity of daily life of a group of people" (2013, p. 8). Events are celebrations and catalysts for urban improvement opportunities (Sadd, 2010), gatherings of people for a purpose (Jones, 2014), and "a live occurrence with an audience" (Wood, 2009b, p 248).

According to differences in their purpose and programme, special events fall into diverse categories (Bagiran & Kurgun, 2013), and the term "event" describes a wide range of event categories and characteristics (Fredline, Jago, & Deery 2003). Mega-events, hallmark events, major events and community events are terms used to describe events based on their size (Allen et al., 2011), though events can cross boundaries in terms of how they are categorised, depending on the perspective of the participant or spectator (Brewster, Connell, & Page, 2009).

Mega and major events

Mega-events such as the Olympic Games or Rugby World Cup have the capacity to impact considerably on the economic and social fabric of the host city. They are 'mega' in size in terms of attendance, financial commitment, media

coverage and facilities required (Hall, 1992). The Organisation for Economic

Cooperation and Development (OECD) refers to 'mega-events' as 'global' events,

grouping them into four categories: trade fairs and exhibition events; cultural events;

sports events; and political summits and conference events (Clark, 2008). Examples

of mega-events staged in New Zealand in recent years include the Rugby World Cup

2011 and Cricket World Cup 2015, which was co-hosted with Australia.

More frequently occurring than mega-events, major events can attract media

coverage, local and international visitors as well as economic benefits (Allen et al.,

2011). The New Zealand government defines major events as an event with the

capacity to: "generate significant immediate and long-term economic, social and

cultural benefits to New Zealand; attracts significant numbers of international

participants and spectators; has a national profile outside of the region in which it is

being run; and generates significant international media coverage in markets of

interest for tourism and business opportunities" (New Zealand Major Events, 2013a).

Local examples of major events include the biennial New Zealand Festival and

World Masters Games being hosted by New Zealand in 2017.

Where mega and major events are international and relocatable rather than

being home grown, fixed location events, cities are relied upon to provide a stage on

which such events can be hosted. A bidding process is generally involved, where the

prospective host city competes with others interested in securing the right to stage

the event according to bidding guidelines provided by the event owner. The logistics

concerned with hosting mega and major events are complex (Mackeller, 2013). The

process of bidding for and then hosting major events has become increasingly

complex, with prospective host cities needing to establish that the return on

investment can be justified (Church, 2014). Some events have no official bidding

process, instead employing a series of negotiations between the event owners and government agencies (Mackeller, 2013), while other events, like the Olympic Games follow a structured bidding format. Despite its mega-event status, just two countries went ahead with their bids for the 2022 Winter Olympic Games hosting rights; Beijing, China and Almaty, Kazakhstan. Oslo, Norway, withdrew its bid, citing concerns with escalating costs, lack of public support and unreasonable demands from the International Olympic Committee. Stockholm, Sweden; Krakow, Poland and Lviv, Ukraine also withdrew bids (Zinser, 2014). The inaugural European Games 2015 attracted just one bid from Baku, Azerbaijan, and has not secured a host city for to stage a follow-up event in 2019 (Lee, 2012). For the host city, raising its international profile through the successful hosting of the event is a prime motivator to host (Brown, 2014). This was similarly the case for Sri Lanka when rationalising its hosting of the 2013 Commonwealth Heads of Government Meeting, with the head of state describing the event as an opportunity to showcase the country internationally (Grima, 2014a).

There is a growing awareness of the need for mega and major events to "create more than just good memories" (Olympic.org, 2013, p. 1) and leave a positive legacy. For example, the International Olympic Committee (IOC) has in recent times reviewed the obligations of Olympic host cities, making the event less expensive to stage and taking into consideration the culture and values of the host community (Wilson, 2014). For Glasgow, Scotland, hosting the 2014 Commonwealth Games was a unique opportunity to promote the country's cities, landscapes, history, culture, venues and people to the world (McArdle, 2014). Among the benefits listed for bidding and hosting its football tournaments, FIFA cites increased civic pride and

community empowerment, and increased cooperation between stakeholders (FIFA, 2015).

In its publication *Local development benefits from staging global events* (Clark, 2008), the OECD Local Economic and Employment Development (LEED) programme highlights five primary benefits associated with staging major events based on the experiences of over 30 major event hosts, being: alignment of the event with sector and business growth strategies; private-public investment partnerships; image and identity impacts attracting increased population, investment, or trade; structural expansion of visitor economy and supply chain development and expansion; and environmental impacts, both built and natural.

Mega and major events are most successful when delivered alongside a long term plan, becoming a catalyst for urban development and global attention (Olympic.org, 2013; Clark, 2008), however burdening small or undeveloped communities with mega and major events could do more harm than good (Shone & Parry, 2013). Despite this, cities bidding for and hosting major international sporting events are evolving to include more non-democratic and developing nations than ever before (Church, 2014). Hosting a mega or major event is a significant and expensive undertaking for the host community. The benefit of a mega-event is questionable if investment is limited to constructing new purpose-built venues and associated transport links (The Economist, 2010). Of all the event types, mega and major events tend to attract the most criticism, with observers challenging the rationale of hosting events such as the 2014 Winter Olympic Games in Sochi, Russia (Chowdhury, 2014; Wilson, 2014); 2014 FIFA World Cup in Brazil (Gibson, 2014; Hilton, 2013); 2013 Commonwealth Heads of Government Meeting in Sri Lanka (Grima, 2014a); and 2010 Commonwealth Games in Delhi, India (Siegel, 2010).

Cashman (2002) describes the impact of an Olympic Games on a host city as being limited in their consultation with both the host community and local government, impossible to know the true cost of and with stated benefits that are vague and inflated in value.

In Greece, hosting the 2004 Athens Olympics saw the event portrayed as "an unmitigated public relations disaster" (Rawling, 2004). Years after the Athens Games, the host city was still yet to feel the full weight of benefits promised in return for hosting the event. Venues specially built for the Games and described as "needlessly grandiose" remain unused or have been demolished and the cost of the Games is said to have contributed to Greece's debt crisis (Dale, 2012). As well as being associated with financial and infrastructural issues, major events can also find themselves the target of domestic or international politically motivated terrorist activity. The attack on the Israeli Olympic team at the 1972 Munich Games is a well-known example of such terrorist activity on a major event (Reeve, 2006). At the 2006 Atlanta Olympics, a pipe bomb injured over 100 people (Sack, 2006). Likewise, bombs were detonated near the finish line of the 2013 Boston Marathon, killing three and injuring 264 people (Levs & Plott, 2013).

Festivals

As well as by size, events are also classified by their form or content, such as festivals and sports events. Festivals evolve from and mirror, the values of the communities which create them (Getz & Frisby, 1988). Belghazi (2006) describes festivals as temporary public displays or ephemera, distinguishable by those festivals that have official governmental support and those that are private endeavours, as well as those that have combined support of both. Festivals vary considerably, and generally are about people—those producing and those attending them (Buch et al.,

2011). Festivals are important for their social and cultural roles, with public and not-for-profit sectors being the most frequent hosts of festivals (Andersson & Getz, 2008). Festivals in New Zealand have become multimillion-dollar businesses, with significant economic, socio-cultural and political impacts on the host community (Arcodia & Whitford, 2006). While some festivals stagnate or fail, others achieve longevity and go on to become hallmark events (Andersson & Getz, 2008).

Festivals are often considered hallmark events for their strong association with a place (Allen et al., 2011); are usually held annually or biennially and enjoy the on-going support of the local authority they operate within. Local examples of hallmark events include the Hokitika Wildfoods Festival, WOMAD Taranaki and Warbirds over Wanaka. Like mega and major events, hallmark events can bring both positive and negative impacts to the host community. The Edinburgh Fringe and International Festivals are examples of hallmark events that have contributed to the reputation and attraction of the host city (Dibdin, 2014). Like a city, events too may have a reputation that can subsequently be associated with the place it is held. The annual Notting Hill Carnival, for example, a two-day celebration of Caribbean culture in West London, has a history of conflict and violence while simultaneously being a well-attended event. Police describe the carnival as an event with two extremes, attracting people with the intention to have a good time or for the opportunity to commit crime (BBC News, 2014). There is local opposition to the event, with some residents claiming it brings more harm than good (Blundy, 2014). In 2014, 261 people were arrested at the event (Morgan, 2014).

Festivals, by their communal nature, help to build and strengthen community ties, develop local infrastructure and provide spending channels for residents and visitors (Pegg & Patterson, 2010). It has been suggested that community festivals

have the potential to raise social capital and facilitate community engagement (Finkel, 2010), collecting people together in order to experience a range of events (Wilks, 2011). Festivals have the ability to shape a community's image (Delamere, 2001), and play an important networking role, rather than just contributing to the community through direct economic returns (Pickernell, O'Sullivan, Senyard, & Keast, 2007). Festivals allow host communities to express themselves (Binder 2012), showing us a map of the world, a map of the city and a map of ourselves (Gardiner, cited in b-side multimedia arts festival, 2013). Festivals can provide a centre of orientation for a community (Yuen & Glover, 2005) and place or keep towns on the map (Brennan-Horley, Connell, & Gibson, 2007). Festivals are often seen as high points in the community calendar, building on and adding to a community's sense of place (Delamere, 1999).

Public agencies with responsibilities for well-being outcomes are increasingly realising that festivals are a powerful tool for engaging effectively with communities (Phipps & Slater, 2010). Australian-based reports (Phipps & Slater, 2010; Gibson & Stewart, 2009; Mulligan, Humphery, James, Scanlon, Smith & Welch, 2006) investigating the impact and effectiveness of festivals, special events and cultural activities have positively and enthusiastically endorsed the use of local events to enable community building, community well-being, the building of social capital and re-invention of regions affected by urban decline and rural issues, such as internal migration and drought. Festivals can also be unique travel attractions without requiring substantial or semi-permanent infrastructure (Gursoy, Kim, & Uysal, 2003).

Community events

Community events provide an avenue for communities to host visitors and share activities representative of community values, interests and aspirations, while

outwardly manifesting community identity (Derrett, 2005). Community events primarily target local audiences, encompassing a wide range of themes such as food and wine and multicultural festivals (Small, Edwards, & Sheridan, 2005). Community events are generally organised by volunteers with support from local organisations, the local business community and local government authority (Allen et al., 2011), and commonly observe a free entrance policy, which some argue reduces the value of events (Capriello & Rotherham, 2011). Public scrutiny of community events can be high, and they are usually dependent on access to external funding and other resources (Getz, 2002).

In their study of community run festivals in Ontario, Canada, Getz and Frisby (1998) found few participants mentioned profit making as a goal. Community events are occasions for people to celebrate their heritage, way of life, and the collective community memory (Finkel, 2010) and are representative of the locality in which they are hosted (Arcodia & Whitford, 2006). Community events are generally locally controlled, making use of existing infrastructure to stage (Gursoy et al., 2003).

Community events can also come in the form of sports and recreation based events, which bring large numbers of people together and involve the local populace (Misener & Mason, 2006). Local sports events in New Zealand are predominately organised and run by volunteers, spanning a wide range of sports and activities (Grima, 2014b). Both spectating and participation at sports events can be as important to the community as the event itself (Jamieson, 2014) and contribute to community well-being. Community events provide a forum for community action, while potentially planting a seed for events that may grow to reach national status (Ryan, 1998) as a "hallmark" event.

Event objectives & strategic planning

The objectives and strategic planning behind staging events are varied, depending on the stakeholders involved and the outcomes they wish to achieve. The strategic management processes involved in event management differs from other organisations due to an event's defined time span (Reid & Arcodia, 2002). Event strategy refers to developing a long-term plan of action to achieve organisation-wide goals through the design, implementation and evaluation of events (O'Toole, 2011). Governments at all levels play a leading role in employing and developing event strategies, consciously using events in tandem with other policies and strategies to achieve short and long-term goals (Allen et al., 2011). Governments also generously fund mega and major events and invest expenditure to upgrade and build the facilities required (Dwyer, Forsyth, & Spurr, 2005). For an organisation or city, events should be considered as assets, strategically organised and managed as other projects are developed and assessed (O'Toole, 2011). Due to the growth being experienced by the events industry, it is necessary for owners and organisers of events to develop strategies in order to optimise competitive advantages, provide value for the audience and are distinctive while mitigating vulnerability to external competitors (Pegg & Patterson, 2010). Strategic event planners should not be cautious in terminating events that do not meet their objectives. An event's life cycle is not a paramount concern; rather, an effective portfolio of events is of most importance (Getz, 2002).

Internationally, local governments have used sports and major events to boost the local economy and attract investors (Rhodes & Kaul, 2014). Though events can help raise the profile of a city, opportunities for local authorities to accomplish strategic objectives through events has often been overlooked. In their research into

the strategic use of events by London Borough councils, Pugh and Wood (2004) found that event strategies developed by local authorities should feature clear objectives that complement broader strategies for the area, and are allowed time to develop and produce long-term results. Governments now recognise that events can be part of the sociocultural glue binds communities and nations, therefore investing public money towards building portfolios of events can be rationalised (Jamieson, 2014). Including festivals and events into city planning has become a strategy to further local urban and economic development, provide consumer experiences and positively promote the image of the city (Jakob, 2013). Ideally, event objectives should be measurable. Promoting or showcasing a place, building community, educating, and generating income are examples of event objectives in a regional context (Gibson & Stewart, 2009).

In New Zealand, a hierarchy of strategies exists around tourism and events. The national tourism strategy feeds into the New Zealand major events strategy which is drafted and managed by New Zealand Major Events (NZME), a publicly funded department based within the Ministry of Business, Innovation and Employment (MBIE). NZME works in partnership with the event sector to support New Zealand's growing reputation as an attractive destination for major events of global significance, providing access to central government actors as required to secure a nationally beneficial event through a bidding process. The major events strategy is supported by the major events development fund, a contestable fund investing in events which can demonstrate significant and measurable impact in areas such as tourism revenue, New Zealand brand promotion, business and trade opportunities and increased employment opportunities in the immediate and long-term (New Zealand Major Events, 2014). The overall purpose of the national events

strategy is to support events with national outcomes (New Zealand Major Events, 2013b). Regional and city event strategies managed by local government authorities are further down the hierarchy, supporting events with local outcomes.

Local government authorities in New Zealand, too, are increasingly involved with events, basing their approach on strategic plans aligned with long-term and district plans. The roles of government in events commonly include venue owner and/or manager, consent authority/regulatory body, service provider, funding, event organising and event/destination marketing (Allen et al., 2011). Local governments develop event strategies that include a portfolio of events, in order to coordinate and facilitate their involvement with events and the effective use of required resources (O'Toole, 2011). Event portfolios may include both existing events known to the host community as well as the sourcing of new events, while an event strategy may include resources such as checklists and toolkits for event organisers to assist with event planning and delivery (Allen et al., 2011), as such resources for event organisers may reduce barriers to delivering events. Wood (2006) suggests that non-strategic use of events by local government is a missed opportunity to gather information on the effectiveness of their events, making it difficult to justify delivering a portfolio of events. In their research investigating the role festivals and events play in regional development, comparing two Finnish cities, Luonila and Johansson (2015) found that festivals and events occupied a significant role in the strategic development discourse of both cities. The study identified five overall themes defining the role of festivals and events, being: economic development, education, attractiveness and image building; and comfort and well-being (Luonila & Johansson, 2015). Local government authorities in New Zealand have been known to use events to stimulate retail activity, particularly in main streets experiencing a decline in foot

traffic and increased vacant shop sites. Small retailers such as those found in many New Zealand localities are most affected by reduction in consumption (Nueno, 2013)

Developed by Auckland Tourism, Events and Economic Development (ATEED), an Auckland Council organisation, the Auckland Major Events Strategy is arguably the most sophisticated strategic plan of its kind among local authorities in New Zealand. Major events are considered an enabler of the local and national economies and Auckland's development culturally and socially (Auckland Tourism, Events & Economic Development, 2013). The Auckland strategy aims to compete with comparable, like-minded international cities for major events, recognising the importance of hosting major events and the opportunities to achieve a balance of social and economic objectives; while striving to ensure the city is globally competitive with the view to transforming Auckland into the world's most liveable city. The four key outcomes of the strategy are to expand Auckland's economy; to grow visitor nights; to enhance the city's liveability and increase international exposure (Auckland Tourism, Events & Economic Development, 2013).

Wellington City Council also employs an events strategy, describing its vision for the city as "Wellington – the events capital of New Zealand" (2012, p. 4). Wellington's objectives are more numerous and less ambitious than the Auckland strategy, and includes making Wellington a great place to live, to encourage participation, to offer a diverse range of events and to deliver events that showcase Wellington. The strategy focuses in part on building on existing events and to introduce one new iconic event to the portfolio; aligning council operations to effectively support events and establishing and maintaining a volunteer base for events (Wellington City Council, 2012).

Nelson City Council, a significantly smaller local government authority than Auckland and Wellington, employs an Events Strategy supported by an Events Marketing and Development Programme. The events strategy aims to stimulate the city's economy through new spending by visitors to the area attending distinct events during the shoulder and low season (Nelson City Council, 2014). While it does not have a specific events strategy, Venture Southland, the economic development agency for Southland funded by Invercargill City, Southland District and Gore District Councils has instead developed an event planning guide to be used as a free resource by local events organisers (Devlin, 2014).

Bidding to host major events can form part of an event strategy, combined with staging locally produced events (Church, 2014). Auckland has an agenda to bid for major international events while producing home grown events (Auckland Tourism, Events & Economic Development, 2013) such as the National Rugby League Nines Tournament, first staged in 2014 (Deane, 2014). Likewise, the Wellington strategy aims to grow the portfolio of events to include regular international events in tandem with developing new, iconic local events (Wellington City Council, 2012). Hosting sporting events in particular is a means for cities to promote themselves in a competitive global market (Misener & Mason, 2006). Auckland Council use events with the aim of building its image as a vibrant and dynamic city (Buch et al., 2011).

Public sector investment in events is widely accepted, given local, regional and national governments have utilised events as a key part of community development strategies (O'Sullivan, Pickernell, & Senyard, 2009). Internationally, the City of Edinburgh Council's Inspiring Events Strategy (2006), places importance on events as they benefit the city's economy, create life and interest in the city and

reflect the kind of city Edinburgh is. Far from resting on its laurels as a world-leading event destination, Edinburgh continues to plan for the future sustainability, success and development of its festivals (Dibdin, 2014). In the City of Sydney's Creative city cultural policy and action plan 2014-2024 (2014), events feature prominently in the vision, policies and strategic priorities for the city. In a review of seven comparable cities and their event strategy approach – Toronto, Sydney, Melbourne, Cape Town, Barcelona, Glasgow and Torino, the Auckland major events strategy highlights six common emerging themes: strategically planning and investing in major events is recognised; balancing social objectives with economic outcomes is important; mega-events are opportunities to transform a city socially and economically; major events are used to promote and enhance the city brand; a range of diverse events is hosted; and event portfolios are built around a number of 'anchor events' (Auckland Tourism, Events & Economic Development, 2013).

Each event developed by a local authority or event producer will have its own set of objectives, which may be related to achieving economic, social, cultural or other outcomes (Lade & Jackson, 2004). Not all local authorities have documented strategic event plans. In her study on impact evaluation frameworks for local government community festivals, Wood (2009) found that limited time and money and a lax approach to the setting and evaluation of event objectives were obstacles to creating event strategies. O'Sullivan et al., (2009) explored 22 local government authorities in Wales to investigate their involvement with festivals and special events, and to understand how the value of events related activity is assessed. They found that while a high level of festival and special event activity occurred in Wales, detail on understanding whether and how objectives were achieved was not widely known (O'Sullivan et al., 2009).

Investing in infrastructure suited to local and global events by local authorities is rationalised by the potential to retain and increase market share of events (Ryan, 1998). New Zealand is presently experiencing a boom of sorts in the planning, approval and construction of convention and conference centre type venues, with plans for purpose-built facilities currently underway for Auckland, Wellington, Christchurch and Queenstown. Auckland is leading the charge with the $402M New Zealand International Convention Centre expected to open in 2018. In Wellington, the city council is a key stakeholder in a new $125M convention centre and hotel project, committed to providing financial support on an on-going basis (Gibson, 2014). As part of the earthquake recovery projects in Christchurch, a $284M convention centre is expected to be completed in 2017 (O'Connor & Stylianou, 2014). In Queenstown, the local council is behind the proposal for a $53M conference centre, anticipating construction to commence in 2016 (Williams, 2014).

The long-term returns planners envision for staging major events do not often reach fruition, with host cities facing post-event issues regardless of any public relations success or otherwise (Siegel, 2010). When strategically approached, staging major events can deliver benefits to the host community, such as increasing investment and innovation, media coverage to a global audience and provide compelling reasons to simultaneously achieve other goals (Clark, 2008). Ahmed (1991) advocates the use of mega-events and bidding to host convention-type events as methods for offsetting the bad image or poor reputation of a city, as events can contribute to positive positioning and branding (Getz & Fairley, 2004). Events may also be used to draw domestic and international tourists to cities not in possession of iconic natural attractions (Lade & Jackson, 2004). Ultimately, local

communities are the end customers of any event strategy, whose needs should be identified and met (Pugh & Wood, 2004).

If an event is to be deemed successful, it should leave the host location better off than it was prior (Clark, 2008). Only by completing purposeful and strategic evaluation can this be known. Evaluation is closely linked with event objectives, undertaken in order to measure the success or otherwise of an event (Allen et al., 2011) and any wider event strategy that is in place. Evaluation strives to improve event management processes, and to ascertain how the event objectives might be being achieved from the outset (O'Sullivan et al., 2009). Event evaluation is generally broken down into three areas: pre-event, event and post event. Post-event evaluation is most commonly undertaken, via methods such as visitor questionnaires or debriefing with management (Williams & Bowdin, 2007).

In their study on public sector evaluation of events in Wales, O'Sullivan et al., (2009) found that evaluation work undertaken was not entirely fit for purpose; often occurring during or within one month of the event with little evaluation being completed before the event or in the longer term. Understanding audience needs and utilising feedback to further improve events is of prime importance (Lade & Jackson, 2004). Evaluation of events also plays a role in reporting on the impacts, both positive and negative and the importance placed on those impacts by the host community, thus enabling event organisers to develop strategies for future events to maximise positive impacts and minimise the negative impacts (Small et al., 2005).

Event objectives are not always well-thought out and often not assessed via an evaluation process (Wood, 2009a). In his study on the publicly funded Year of Visual Arts event held in Northern England in 1996, Long (2000) found objectives for the event were broad and intangible, therefore difficult to evaluate with accuracy.

While some respondents agreed that, though difficult to quantify, the event had fulfilled its objectives; others felt the attempt to meet broad objectives had been the event's biggest failing. For local government to demonstrate a return on the use of public funding, event portfolios should be reviewed regularly with input from stakeholders in order to ensure that the objectives for the event strategy are being met (Pugh & Wood, 2004). The benefits of events to a community need to be proven and quantified in order to rationalise a continuation of or increase in a local government events budget (Wood, 2006). To ensure the long-term survival of an event, processes like evaluation that can renew the event product are of great importance (Larson & Wikstrom, 2001).

Stakeholders

Events are generally delivered by a combination of stakeholders made up of public, private and voluntary associations (Larson, 2002), and can be planned and organised by government agencies, non-profit organisations or commercial entities (Manning, 2012). Cooperation and commitment among stakeholders involved with delivering events is vital to ensure the successful implementation of an event strategy. Event managers must be capable of effectively managing stakeholders in order to acquire the ongoing support of the community (Getz, Andersson, & Larson, 2007). Engaging stakeholders from the commencement of the event planning process will result in the host community be more supportive of the event (Reid & Arcodia, 2002). Managing the expectations and separate agendas of stakeholders can be challenging, and different strategies in liaising with stakeholders may be required (Andersson & Getz, 2008) to balance conflicting claims (Reid & Arcodia, 2002). Hartley (2009) suggests stakeholders can be a champion, advocate, liaison, subject matter expert, team member or sponsor. Each stakeholder's influence and

impact can vary, from low to high impact and low to high influence. This may influence how an events organiser will manage particular stakeholders in order to successfully deliver their event (Hartley, 2009).

Governments are a key stakeholder in the delivery of events, and depending on the governance structure of the country, there are normally three levels of government involved in events projects: local authorities, regional or state governments and national governments (Smith, 2012). For mega and major events, coordination between the host city, regional or state and national governments is necessary to keep planning on schedule and stakeholders satisfied (Gibson, 2014). Legal support from central government is commonplace, coming in the form of amendments to existing legislation, or the introduction of new, event specific legislation. In New Zealand, the Major Events Management Act (2007) was enacted for the purpose of providing protection for major events, primarily to prevent unauthorised commercial exploitation of the event and to protect the event's sponsors, income streams and branding (New Zealand Legislation, 2013). Internationally, examples of changes in legislation passed to facilitate mega and major events delivery are commonplace. In South Korea, legislation was amended to allow logging of primeval forest to facilitate construction of facilities for the Pyeongchang 2018 Winter Olympics (Kim, 2014). In New South Wales (Australia), the state government enacted the Motor Sports (World Rally Championship) Bill 2009 in order to ensure the rally event would proceed (Mackeller, 2013). This Bill allowed the rally event organisers to conduct usually unauthorised activities to deliver the event, such as constructing temporary works in national parks.

It has been suggested that political vanity is generally a primary motivating factor for countries to host major or mega events (The Economist, 2010); with

politicians and planners struggling to remember why hosting was attractive when preparations go awry (Siegel, 2010). In his research paper exploring the festivalisation of urban spaces in Morocco, Belghazi (2006) explored the growing importance of festivals, including the use of festivals to uphold dominant political values. He argued that festivals may be utilised as a mechanism of social control and to undermine traditional Islamic values (Belghazi, 2006).

An issue with public sector led event projects is that elections and changes in government leadership can disrupt plans (Smith, 2012). Changes in government occurred in New Zealand in 2008 after it was awarded hosting rights to the 2011 Rugby World Cup. Helen Clark, the prime minister at the time of the successful hosting bid, played a key role in New Zealand securing the rights to host the event (Snedden, 2012). Clark was subsequently defeated at the 2008 election by John Key (Chapman, 2008). Similarly, Ken Livingstone was mayor of London when the city was awarded the rights to host the 2012 Summer Olympics in 2005 (Oliver, 2005). Livingstone later lost the mayoralty to Boris Johnson in 2008 (Prince, 2008). Likewise, Tony Blair was Prime Minister of the United Kingdom in 2005 (Oliver, 2005) before resigning in 2007 (Tempest, 2007) and succeeded by Gordon Brown. Gordon Brown subsequently lost the national election in 2010 to David Cameron.

Local government is a particularly important player in the delivery of events, as consent from the local authority is usually a prerequisite for a festival or special event to be staged (Larson, 2002). Local governments strategically support events for four broad reasons: strengthening the community, event sustainability, economic development and to increase tourism to the area (O'Toole, 2011). The local authority is a regulator, and sometimes also a facilitator and partner (Getz et al., 2007), with a role to play in supporting the sustainable operation of local events (Jones, 2014). For

event managers, positive relationships with local authorities are especially important where financial support is sought (Andersson & Getz, 2007). Derrett (2005) outlines the stakeholder role of local government to include policy and planning frameworks, events officers and project management personnel, infrastructure support and in-kind and financial investment. In their study on the annual Auckland Pasifika Festival, Buch et al., (2011) note the involvement of paid staff provided by Auckland City Council, thereby cementing the local authority's role as a major stakeholder.

It can be difficult to accurately map all stakeholders claiming to be impacted by an event (Larson & Wikstrom, 2001). In her study of the Storsjoyran Festival in Sweden, Larson (2002) found that many stakeholders were part of producing and marketing the festival, categorising them into eight groups: the festival organiser, the artist industry, the media industry, the local trade industry, sponsors, public authorities, association and clubs; and 'free-riders' . In Reid's study on the social impacts of events in three communities within the Southern Downs region of Queensland, Australia, stakeholders were classified as people who have an interest in the event; were involved in the actual planning and organisation of the event; were financially involved with the event; derived benefit from the event taking place; and the community (2007). Organisers and staff directly involved with an event are often temporary, freelance or transient labour (Thomas & Wood, 2015).

In her study into the longevity of regional community festivals in the Northern Rivers region of New South Wales (Australia), Derrett (2005) found that stakeholders included local government, regional and state government agencies, the local business community, special interest groups, regional and local media, individual community champions, festival organisers, residents and visitors. In their 2007 study of festival stakeholders in Canada and Sweden, Getz et al. categorised stakeholders

into seven groups: festival organisation, allies and collaborators, regulators, the audience and the impacted, suppliers and venues, facilitators, and co-producers. Andersson & Getz (2008) identified 15 likely stakeholders in their research into festivals' perceived dependence on stakeholders, which included paying customers, the local authority, the police and other public services, and artists being paid to perform.

There is an expectation that local government will support local events, despite finite budgets. For example, in their study on the Foca Rock Festival in Turkey, Bagiran and Kurgan (2013) recommended that the local authority should invest more heavily in many aspects of the event by contributing additional resources towards promotion, management of the event site, and improving the relationship between the event audience and the local community. Given the scope of responsibility of local authorities combined with budgetary and resource restrictions (Wood, 2009a), this may not always be feasible. If a local government authority invests in an event, it may forgo investing in something else (Shone & Parry, 2013). In their report investigating the role of rural and regional festivals in Australia, Gibson and Stewart (2009) found that almost three-quarters of festivals surveyed were supported by their local authority. The authors recommended that to better ensure the ongoing viability of festivals in particular, addressing increasing public liability insurance costs could be considered (2009).

Without an audience, it is difficult to rationalise the staging of events, therefore audiences are considered a key event stakeholder. An experience, such as an event is as real an offering as goods, services or commodities (Pegg & Patterson, 2010). Audiences attend events to participate and be entertained and to have a social experience beyond their daily routine (Allen et al., 2011). For event organisers,

attendance is usually accepted as the best measure of demand (Getz, 2002) with audience size the primary method by which the success of events is evaluated (Williams & Bowdin, 2007), however the success of an event should not solely be judged by the number of attendees (Ryan, 1998).

The motivation to attend an event varies. In their study on the annual Auckland Pasifika Festival attendees, Buch et al., (2011) found the audience attended the Festival to experience diverse cultures; experience Pacific Island food; view performances and music; have a family day out to catch up with friends and relatives; and experience the enjoyable atmosphere. In their study on the audience motivations of attendees to the Tamworth Country Music Festival, Pegg & Patterson (2010) found that their love of country music was the principal reason for attending the festival. The study also found that it was the "atmosphere" that was considered by visitors as being the most important overall aspect of the festival (Pegg & Patterson, 2010). In her preliminary research into the future of arts festivals in New Zealand, Goh (unpublished, 2014) found that festival directors had concerns regarding the sustainability of audiences.

Nicholson and Pearce (2001) conducted a study examining audience motivations to attend four New Zealand events: the Marlborough Wine, Food and Music Festival, Hokitika Wildfoods Festival, Warbirds over Wanaka and the New Zealand Gold Guitar Awards. The study found that the dominant reason for attending the events related directly to the theme and to specific activities or attractions being offered. A novelty or curiosity element also emerged strongly across the four events as being a motivator to attend (Nicholson & Pearce, 2001). With the number of events on offer for audiences to choose from, other events or leisure activities can easily attract the audience if the event loses its appeal (Getz,

2002). A local example of this occurring is the Big Day Out music festival, an annual feature on the Auckland summer events calendar for 18 years. In 2013, the Big Day Out was cancelled (New Zealand Herald, 2012), returned in 2014 and cancelled again for 2015 due to low ticket sales (Shulz, 2014).

Event organisers & the host community

Festivals and special events may have both positive and negative impacts on the host community. In order to constructively manage such impacts, event organisers should continually be aware of community interests and concerns (Delamere, 1999, Small, 2007). Often, the positive social impact on the host community is why event organisers become involved to begin with (Finkel, 2010). Event organisers need to know what impacts their events will have on a host community, recognise the importance of host community support, and realise that any dissatisfaction may threaten long-term viability (Small et al., 2005). There is often room for improvement in how events are organised, particularly in regards to host communities (Jamieson, 2014). Both residents of a host community and event organisers have a stake in maximising social benefits and minimising social costs of an event (Delamere, 2001).

Event organisers must interact with the local businesses and the general community to plan the event; interaction which can lead to new social links and identification of valuable community-based resources (Arcodia & Whitford, 2006). In their research into event organiser's perceptions of the impacts of festivals and special events on host communities completed by Gursoy et al. (2003), results indicated that event organisers felt that events contributed positively to community cohesiveness.

Employing a dedicated event organiser is seen by some as being crucial to the logistical success of an event (Hilbers, 2005), although large numbers of events are managed by volunteers (Gibson & Stewart, 2009; Grima, 2014b) which can hamper professional event management practice (Brennan-Horley et al., 2007). In Getz's (2002) study on why festivals fail, incompetent event organiser or staff and volunteer burnout were considered problems respondents indicated to be "very important right now". In their research into the Highland Games' role as a community event in Scotland, Brewster, Connell and Page note that professional event organisers may pose a danger to the cultural heritage of events accustomed to being convened by community volunteers (2009). Community-run events may resist growth or sophisticated event management in order to keep their events small and uncomplicated, maintaining community control and benefits (Getz & Frisby, 1988). Overwhelmingly, attendees at most events are local community members, therefore ensuring events are in alignment with community needs is crucial (Fredline et al., 2003). In a study on the event consumption experience, Jakob (2013) found that at events in Berlin and New York City, the local population was largely excluded in favour of attracting a wealthier, middle-class audience. Discrepancies between event organisers understanding of the benefits and purpose of an event and the views of the local community could be problematic (Gursoy et al., 2003). Festivals and special events harbour valuable potential for community engagement (Finkel, 2010). Harris defines community engagement in an event management context as "interactions of a formal or informal nature between an event and its host community that span a range of activities from information sharing and consultation, to active participation and involvement" (2005, p. 291). Public events are generally community events or major events that take place within a host community, therefore the community is a

major stakeholder in events and the community perspective should be considered in the event planning process to avoid a backlash (Allen et al., 2011).

In his study on the event management of the Tour Down Under event and its effect on community building in South Australia, Jamieson (2014) found that there was a greater need for host communities to be engaged by event organisers in order to feel more valued. Interacting with local producers to highlight the region, providing volunteer training, using local suppliers and providing work experience were ways Jamieson (2014) recommends event organisers can give back to the community. Harris' (2005) exploratory study on how event organisers strategize engagement with host event communities identified community engagement strategies utilised by 21 organisers of Australian events, which he classified into six categories: participation facilitation; community input and feedback facilitation; inclusive programming; incentives; outreach; community development and capacity building; and local business engagement. The ultimate aim for event organisers in regards to community engagement should be to encourage a sense of local ownership, or 'buy-in'. This means removing constraints to community participation in the event (Smith, 2012), which may have a positive community building affect.

Social capital

Capital is defined as an investment of resources with expected returns in the marketplace (Lin, 2001). Various conventional forms of capital exist in society. Economic capital and physical capital considered stocks of resources controllable by an actor or owner of that capital, which may have been acquired or inherited. Cultural capital, institutional capital and political capital come from belonging to a specific culture, institution or political party (Esser, 2008). Intellectual capital refers to the knowledge embedded in human capital, structural capital and relational capital in

an organisational context (Veltri & Bronzetti, 2015). Relational capital is the value of relationships with stakeholders within an organisation. Relational capital shares characteristics similar to social capital, and is considered a valuable resource (Mom, van Neerijnen, Reinmoeller, & Verwaal, 2015). Structural capital is defined by the Cambridge Business English Dictionary as *the value of all of a company's or organisation's intellectual property including software, patents, etc.* (Cambridge Dictionaries Online, 2016). The qualities, capabilities and well-being of a person are regarded as personal capital (Belton, 2014). Natural capital is defined by the World Natural Capital Forum as "the world's stocks of natural assets which include geology, soil, air, water and all living things" (2015, par. 1).

The term 'social capital' has been in use for almost a century, while the ideas behind the concept go back even further (Keeley, 2008). Social capital describes intangible community resources, shared values and trust (Field, 2008). People easily grasp the meaning of social capital and generally positively interpret it, as the concept suggests that collective actions via collaborative efforts are facilitated by trust, reciprocity and cooperation of the individuals involved (Kreuter & Lezin, 2009). Social capital refers to an individual's ability to leverage advantage from their relationships (Pickernell et al., 2007), the "core idea of social capital theory is that social networks have value" (Putnam, 2000, p. 19).

In Te Reo Maori, the term *whanaungatanga* can be connected to Western definitions of social capital. *Whanaungatanga* is defined as "a relationship through shared experiences and working together which provides people with a sense of belonging. It develops as a result of kinship rights and obligations, which also serve to strengthen each member of the kin group. It also extends to others to whom one

develops a close familial, friendship or reciprocal relationship" (Maori Dictionary, 2011).

Kreuter & Lezin (2009) summarise the central themes emerging from definitions of social capital offered by theorists' James Coleman, Pierre Bourdieu, Alejandro Portes, Robert Putnam, and Francis Fukuyama; concluding that social capital: is defined by its function; is a property of the individual's network of relationships; facilitates certain actions of the individuals within the relationship network to pursue shared objectives; is enabled by the networks, norms, and trust on the individuals in the network; and is able to provide access to potentially scarce resources simply by being a member of certain networks. Literature on social capital emphasises how social relationships can accumulate resources for an individual and community (Castiglione, Van Deth, & Wolleb, 2008), with social capital being used to describe elements related to social embeddedness (Esser, 2008).

Social capital enables communities to more readily resolve collective problems, smoothing the way to allow community advancement and development, however the external impact of social capital beyond a network is not always positive (Putnam, 2000). Social capital may be unhelpful or even harmful for some (Coleman, 1990); while it can be used to access resources, it can prevent others trying to access the same resources (Field, 2008). When industry closes down, communities not only experience unemployment, but also a potential decline in social capital that was built around the workplace (Fine, 2010). Warren (2008) cautions that social capital enables a disproportionate return on investment in excess of what might have been achieved by an individual acting alone; and can be used to further terrorism, organised crime, ethnic rivalries and inequitable distribution of resources.

Coleman (1990) describes social capital as being defined by its function. Social capital is a variety of entities with two common characteristics: firstly, they are all part of some aspect of a social structure; secondly, they facilitate individuals' actions that are within the structure. Lin describes the foundation of social capital as being straightforward: "investment in social relations with expected returns in the marketplace. Capital is seen as a social asset by virtue of actors' connections and access to resources in the network or group of which they are members" (Lin, 2001, p. 19). Lin offers four explanations as to *why* social capital works: firstly, the flow of information is facilitated; secondly, social ties may exert influence; thirdly, social ties may be interpreted as social credentials held by an individual; and lastly, these three factors combined are necessary for mental well-being and access to resources (2001).

Putnam can claim credit for popularising the concept of social capital (Field, 2008). Putnam offers four explanations of *how* social capital works: firstly, it allows people to more easily resolve collective problems, secondly, social capital lubricates the path for community advancement; thirdly, it makes us more aware of our intertwined fates; and fourthly, social capital improves lives through the psychological and biological processes involved (2000, p. 289). As most individuals have limited human and economic capital resources, accessing additional resources through social ties makes it possible to achieve objectives that may not have otherwise been possible (Yuen & Glover, 2005).

Arneil defines social capital as "an investment made by individuals today that will create a quantifiable benefit tomorrow" (2006, p. 224). Social capital, as a concept, represents a "shift in focus within, Western political theory from either the state or citizen to the civic space in between" (Arneil, 2006, p. 1). Social capital

increases productivity, well-being, proclivity to volunteer, makes government agencies more responsive, efficient and innovative (The Saguaro Seminar, 2001). Communities are stronger when reliant their own resources, including individual assets (Diers, 2004), or capital, with individuals recruiting one another for 'good deeds' through social networks (Putnam, 2000).

The OECD defines social capital as "networks together with shared norms, values and understandings that facilitate co-operation within or among groups" (Keeley, 2008). Indicators of social capital include levels of giving, civic engagement, voluntary activity, participation, meeting obligations, community reciprocity and trust; including trust towards public institutions such as local government (Spellerberg, 2001). Community participation is a commonly used measure of social capital stock (Grimes, McCann, Poot, & Roskruge, 2011). Local governments can engage with community organisations in ways that encourage social capital formation by providing opportunities for citizens to provide feedback on decision making, giving voice and legitimacy to community concerns and collaborating to provide community services (Dollery & Wallis, 2002).

Field summarises the findings of a wide variety of social capital research, concluding that "people who are able to draw on others for support are healthier than those who cannot; they are also happier and wealthier; their children do better at school and their communities suffer less from antisocial behaviour" (2008, p. 49). Social capital is a resource born from our relationships; enabled and embodied in social networks. Spellerberg describes social capital as 'capital' "because it can be accumulated over time and then drawn on for future use in achieving certain goals" (2001, p. 10). Existing relationships spanning organisations and networks can be utilised to get things happening (Hilbers, 2005), and formal systems and protocols

for getting things done can be bypassed where social capital is present; making who you know not what you know what counts (Field, 2008).

Social capital occurs in two forms: bridging and bonding. Bonding social capital exists within and further strengthens the ties between individuals or collective groups, such as families and ethnic groups. Bridging social capital creates a connection between individuals or groups where one did not already exist (Jamieson, 2014). Bonding social capital reinforces alliances between people who are more alike than not (The Saguaro Seminar, 2001). Keeley divides social capital into three categories, being bonds: which are links to people based on common ground; bridges: being links that go beyond common ground; and linkages: connections to people or networks further up or down the social ladder (2008). Bridging social capital fosters new relations in a community (Kreuter & Lezin, 2009). Many event strategies feature objectives toward achieving building bridging social capital for greater community cohesion (Smith, 2012).

In his bestselling book, *Bowling Alone*, Putnam (2000) investigated the alleged decline of social capital in the USA based on participation rates in organisations, associations, volunteering and voting. Suggested reasons for disengagement in these sorts of activities are: time pressure, economic hard times, television, disruption of family ties and growth of welfare dependence. Putnam provides evidence that schools and communities are less effective when social bonds slacken, and that the economy, health, democracy and happiness also depend on adequate reserves of social capital. Social capital will only develop in a positive social environment (Arcodia & Whitford, 2006) and depends on trust, without which, community networks and relationships are diminished (Reid, 2007). Theoretically, cities striving to ensure active community involvement should be more

abundant in social capital than those that do not (Misener & Mason, 2006). Drawing on the work of Coleman and Putnam, Statistics New Zealand developed a framework for the measurement of social capital (2001), defining social capital as "relationships among actors that create a capacity to act for mutual benefit or a common purpose" (Spellerberg, 2001, p. 9).

Despite the popularity of Putnam's *Bowling Alone* (2000), Diers (2004) dismisses Putnam's analysis, maintaining that the data Putnam used to make his argument was based on many organisations and activities that are losing their relevance. Like Diers (2004), Arneil (2006) challenges Putnam's social capital theories, arguing that decreased community organisation participation is better understood as change rather than decline. Fine (2010), a critic of social capital theory, claims that social capital is chaotic in definition and theory and is "self-help" elevated from an individual to community level (Fine, 2010).

Social capital & events

When managed correctly, events have a role to play in building social capital (Jamieson, 2014). Prior knowledge of the social capital existing within a community, and working within established social networks are recommended in order to guide the requirements and considerations required to make the event a social capital success (Crump, 2005). Events can provide opportunities for bridging and bonding social capital; such as when local residents work with stakeholders perceived as 'outsiders' to achieve a common goal (Reid, 2007). The personal networks of event stakeholders can positively contribute to the successful delivery of an event (Capriello & Rotherham, 2011; Getz et al., 2007). In the 2001 Saguaro Seminar report *Better Together*, a list of "150 things you can do to build social capital" suggests 29 event-based actions with the capacity to build connections to people

43

and, thus, social capital. Organising social gatherings to welcome new neighbours, hosting and attending events and going to local events, such as festivals, feature prominently in the list (The Saguaro Seminar, 2001). In New Zealand, Aotearoa Neighbours Day is an event supported by local government to connect neighbours and communities; thus strengthening connections and relationships in social networks (Colidcott, 2014). Christakis (2010) argues social networks are a kind of social capital fundamentally related to goodness.

In his 2014 study, Jamieson found that organising and delivering events is an enjoyable way a community can draw on and build social capital. The Tour Down Under event contributed to the building of bonding social capital, as it provided a setting for community groups to work together (Jamieson, 2014). Rural Australian towns, such as Tamworth, New South Wales and Port Fairy, Victoria credit successful annual festivals for improvements in social capital (Gibson & Davidson, 2004 cited in Brennan-Horley et al., 2007). Events can enhance social capital, which in turn creates a productive and lively community (Sadd, 2010). Strong communities already experiencing high levels of social capital are more likely to benefit from the staging of major events (Smith, 2012). In her study exploring linkages between community events and a rise in community social capital, Finkel (2010) found that without the annual Up Helly Aa festival, the host community of Lerwick, Scotland, would feel a void in their community and in their lives.

In their 2005 study into the Festival of Neighbourhoods in the City of Kitchener, Canada, a festival supported by the local authority, Yuen and Glover found that festivals were used intentionally to create a vehicle through which relationships could be fostered or renewed, thus facilitating the creation of social capital. Yuen and Glover (2005) highlight six guidelines for public agencies to

44

consider should they intend to address social capital development: have a common purpose for people to gather around; focus on people relationship development; recognise people's efforts and successes; be a facilitator; be flexible; and be responsive. The Victorian government funded health promotion foundation, VicHealth, commissioned a multisite evaluation of 20 festivals; finding evidence that community events positively contribute to the mental health and well-being of communities. The study found that there were positive opportunities for community collaboration and engagement; create new networks and groups and the building of bonding social capital building (Hilbers, 2005).

Events with negative impacts on the host community can potentially destroy the development of social capital (Arcodia & Whitford, 2006); however where there is collective opposition to an event, such as the Toronto based 'Bread Not Circuses' movement protesting Toronto's 2008 Olympic Games bid, bonding social capital can be built (Misener & Mason, 2006). Though the 2009 World Rally Championship event experienced issues of concern to the host community, it provided unique opportunities for interaction and development of the social capital, strengthening social networks and enhancing trust (Mackeller, 2013). Cities work most effectively when local government and the community work in tandem as partners, benefiting from the resources, skills and relationships a community can mobilise (Diers, 2004). Capriello & Rotherham (2011) proposed a preliminary model illustrating event problem solving processes and stakeholder relationships, placing importance on building a sense of belonging and event ownership in host communities. Events supported by local government can encourage a positive attitude to the local authority by its constituents (Wood, 2009a).

Misener and Mason (2006) propose four ways in which host communities can be engaged with event planning: make community values central to decision-making processes; involve community stakeholders, such as interest groups; empower local communities to become agents of change and maintain open communication. They argue that host cities of major events that have tried to ensure active community involvement should theoretically be richer in social capital than those that do not engage with the community (Misener & Mason, 2006). In their study on celebrations, the arts and community well-being, Mulligan et al., (2006) make recommendations for community building, which include the support and delivery of community based events and projects. Community events can increase community capacity at an individual, organisational and community level (Hilbers, 2005).

In their conceptual model of festivals and the development of social capital, Arcodia and Whitford (2009) illustrate that while there are positive and negative impacts associated with festivals for the host community, relationships, engagement, values, trust and networks can result from the festival experience, thus contributing to the building of social capital. In their study on building social capital through festivals and events in Wales, Pickernell et al., (2007) found that local authorities in rural areas committed fewer resources to festivals and events than authorities in metropolitan areas. This is despite the economic importance of festivals to rural areas and the potential for festivals to "be a vehicle for vital social capital building which underpins the economic health of localities" (Pickernell et al., 2007, p. 15).

Wilks (2011) selected three publicly-funded UK-based festivals in order to explore the role of social capital in the music festival experience. Wilks found that demographically, attendees of each festival were socio-demographically similar. Contrary to Arcodia and Whitford's (2009) suggestion that community events can

contribute to the development of social capital, Wilks (2011) found that while festivals provided opportunities for social interactions, the majority of attendees did so with existing groups of friends and acquaintances rather than building new social relationships or bridging social barriers, suggesting that social exclusion rather than inclusion was a music festival feature. In their 2010 study on the role of social capital in ritual community events such as the annual Danjiri Matsuri festival and building disaster resilient communities in Osaka, Japan; Bhandari, Okada, Yokomatsu and Ikeo found that bridging and bonding social capital enhanced self-reliance and disaster awareness. The authors argue there exists a tripartite relationship between event based rituals, social capital and disaster risk reduction; and suggest that events organisers could be sources through which disaster risk information could be communicated to the public (Bhandari, Okada, Yokomatsu, & Ikeo, 2010). "What is clear, however, is that the form of the event, the type of participation and the way in which events are managed can all have a significant impact on social capital growth" (Richards & de Brito in G. Richards, de Brito, & Wilk 2013, p. 224).

Impacts

The political, environmental, social and economic context in which events take place varies, creating impacts both positive and negative (Holmes et al., 2015). The literature on event impacts covers a broad range of potential impacts events can have on a host community, both positive and negative. Unlike other industries, the events sector is not always for-profit driven, and many events have little or no economic or other impacts at all (Shone & Parry, 2013). For a host city of a major or mega event, events can increase investor confidence, provide a global audience, increase visitation and foster engagement between stakeholders (Clark, 2008). Major and mega events can bring a bitter-sweet mix of costs and benefits. Positive

benefits and subsequent long-term legacies for cities hosting the Olympic Games include participation in sport, transport, construction, environment and volunteering (London 2012); education, public health, accessibility and cultural preservation projects (Beijing 2008); and improved image worldwide (Barcelona 1992) (Olympic.org, 2013). Event impacts are outcomes from the planning and delivery of the event – some of which are beyond the control of event organisers – whether or not they were expected to occur (Wood, 2009a). Seigel (2010) warns against the allure of "shiny new stadiums" for developing countries looking to prove itself on the international stage. Seigel cites New Delhi's hosting of the 2010 Commonwealth Games, which cast light on disorganised planning and corruption (Siegel, 2010). Contrary to New Delhi's Commonwealth Games experience, Glasgow City Council announced the city will "never be the same again" after hosting the same event in 2014, emerging as the Games' "biggest winner" and leaving its mark on the world (McArdle, 2014).

There is a broad spectrum of benefits events can have for a council, a region, the host community and visitors to the community (Pugh & Wood, 2004). Fredline et al., (2003) classify potential event impacts into six areas: economic, tourism/commercial, physical, sociocultural, psychological and political. Event Impacts UK measures the impacts of events according to five broad categories: attendance, economic, environmental, social, media (Event Impacts, 2014). Social impacts are defined as anything potentially having an impact on the quality of life for the host community (Fredline et al., 2003). Event impacts can be both direct and indirect, with the potential to permeate the host community; therefore the study of social impacts in particular is an important aspect of event management (Mackeller,

2013). Even when divided on their support for hosting an event; a community can still gain substantially (Brennan-Horley et al., 2007).

Many events have left places worse off, constructing facilities with no plan for future usage and large debts post-event (Clark, 2008). Most literature written regarding the organisation and management of festivals and special events highlights the importance of their social and economic impacts (Bagiran & Kurgun, 2013). The closer a resident lives to site of an event, the greater the impact will be on them, both positively and negatively (Small et al., 2005). Awareness of social impacts and of host community attitudes toward those impacts may enable event organisers to mitigate the impact on the community (Delamere, 2001). The impacts of many community events can be diverse, far reaching and long term (Wood, 2009a). Some impacts may be experienced on a personal level, while others have a more widespread effect on the entire host community (Small, 2007). Event impact assessments solely focusing on economic impacts is too narrow in scope (Dwyer & Forsyth, 2009).

Social impacts

As well as the potential to grow and develop social capital, the social impacts of events are broad. Social implications of events include positive social interaction, community cohesion development and improving the community's identity and confidence (Shone & Parry, 2013). Community events foster education and involvement among local populations, encouraging participation and strengthening community connections (Finkel, 2010). Events have the capacity to mobilise large numbers of people and create meaningful social impacts in numerous ways, which can be quantified and qualified by event organisers (Event Impacts, 2014). Measuring social impacts is connected to event objectives of stakeholders involved.

49

Event Impacts UK identifies five areas of social impacts: satisfaction; identity, image and place; participation; and volunteering and skills (Event Impacts, 2014). The host community and event organisers have an interest in maximising the social benefits and minimising the social costs that result from events (Delamere, 2001). Host community support is gained for events that have perceived positive socio-cultural impacts for residents (Small et al., 2005).

Small and Edwards (2003, cited in Small et al., 2005) found that prior to the 2002 Australian Festival of the Book, respondents reported that traffic and crowding would be perceived as negative impacts during the event. After the event, respondents reported that they would have in fact liked to have seen more traffic and crowding; an indicator many people had attended the festival. In their research on the social impacts of the Foca Festival, Bagiran & Kurgun, (2013) found that the festival was well received by the host community; credited with increasing community spirit and pride and as an opportunity for locals to experience new activities. Findings relating to the social costs of the festival were increased traffic congestion, ecological damage, litter and overcrowding; however the study concluded that the festival's social benefits were more important than the social costs (Bagiran & Kurgun, 2013). In their study on the social impacts of the Kolache festival in Texas, Woosnam, Van Winkle and An (2013) found that long-time community members were more positive about the festival than those who had not lived in the community as long. Residents with higher incomes were more agreeable regarding the festival's benefits, whereby those with lower incomes were more concerned with social costs (Woosnam et al., 2013). Event organisers should understand the impacts and effects of their events on a host community (Delamere, 1999). Awareness of potential social impacts and how they are perceived by

residents may enable a response leading to a reduction in the unwanted impacts on the host community (Delamere, 2001).

In her study on the social consequences of rural events, Reid (2007) found that event host communities identified social consequences on both an individual and community level. Reid grouped social consequences into five domains: networks and interactions (relationships); affective (emotive and intrinsic characteristics); learning and developing (education, skill development); socioeconomic (economic, quality of life) and physical (living environment). These social consequences included lesser explored themes in the literature such as trust and respect, the breaking down of social barriers, releasing stress and tension – particularly in relation to forgetting hard times, affiliation with success, resistance to change, the cost of attending an event, expectation of government support and greed (Reid, 2007). In their report evaluating the impact of indigenous festivals in Australia on community health and well-being, Phipps and Slater (2010) found that festivals support community cultural identity and have the capacity to enhance the lives of marginalised or isolated communities in areas as diverse as health, education, employment, small business and regional development.

Community events can be used as a proactive and positive recovery tool in response to a traumatic or tragic event (Arneil, 2006). Likewise, public spaces can be occupied by community events in unique ways to bring a community together. Examples of community events that have transformed local spaces include Methley Green in Leeds, United Kingdom, where residents closed the road to traffic and grassed a length of Methley Terrace with 800 square metres of artificial turf. This community driven event captured the imagination of residents and generated positive media (Harcup, 2000). In his talk on the arts festival revolution, Binder

(2012) recalls a Sydney Festival event called Minto: Live, where the streets of the suburb of Minto became the stage for performances created by international artists in collaboration with the community. The residents were the performers, performing on their lawns and in their driveways while the audience walked around the neighbourhood from house to house (Binder, 2012). In 2005, Rebar, a San Francisco-based collective of artists built a temporary park within the white lines of a car parking space on a city street. For the two hours allowed by the parking meter, the small space became a location for unplanned community socialising. The project became known as *Park(ing)* and has expanded in size and scale to different cities around the world (Hou, 2010). In Seville, Spain, rooftops of residential buildings are being transformed into community spaces for concerts and theatre performances promoted by Redetejas, a not-for-profit group (Kassam, 2014). Rooftop event hosts are encouraged to invite neighbours to the event and charge a small fee to cover event costs.

In her study into the costs and benefits of the World Rally Championship 2009, Mackeller (2013) found that personal and community impacts had occurred as a result of the event. Personal impacts related to how the event affected everyday lives and the social interactions residents experienced between each other and between visitors to the event. Community impacts included the image, well-being and social cohesion of the community. Despite the social costs, some residents indicated they would like to see the event return to the area, and were willing to waive personal, negative experiences in the best interests of the community (Mackeller, 2013).

Social impact measures

A number of researchers have proposed various scales to measure the social impacts of events, particularly on host communities (Small, 2007; Wood, 2006; Fredline et al., 2003; Small & Edwards, 2003; Delamere, Wankel, & Hinch, 2001; Delamere, 2001) and while other researchers have gone on to test and improve scales developed (Bagiran & Kurgun, 2013; Woosnam et al., 2013). Research projects that set out to examine the social impacts of events traditionally conclude with a list of impacts reported by the participants, who are generally members of the host community. Each application of sound impact evaluation gives researchers and event organisers a greater awareness and understanding of what events and festivals can and cannot achieve (Wood, Thomas, & Smith, 2009).

Delamere et al. (2001) developed a Festival Social Impact Attitude Scale (FSIAS) to facilitate the study of local resident perceptions of social impacts of community festivals in Alberta, Canada, as an individual and as a community. Starting with 47 items, each item in the FSIAS was presented to respondents in a way that they could relate to provide data on whether or not the impact would occur and the value placed on the impact. The FSIAS was reduced to 25 item pairs and broken into social benefits and social costs. From this, Delamere et al., (2001) were able to conclude that participants felt the social benefits arising from community festivals outweighed social costs; with social benefits including enhanced community image and identity; sense of community well-being and improved quality of life in the community. The verification of the FSIAS by Delamere (2001), based on an analysis of data collected via participants in the host community of the Edmonton Folk Music Festival, Canada, found that the community was able to determine which social impacts they anticipated occurring due to the festival, and also which of those

impacts were most important. Festival organisers were able to identify what they were doing well according to the host community, and where they could dedicate more resources to alleviate community concerns (Delamere, 2001).

Bagiran & Kurgun, (2013) examined the validity of the FSIAS proposed by Delamere et al., (2001) by testing the instrument on residents' in Foca, Turkey; host community of the annual Foca Rock Festival. The Foca festival is organised by the local authority in collaboration with a contracted event organiser. The study found that the number of items used to measure the social benefits and social costs dimensions can be reduced from 47 to 35; and considered the instrument a valuable tool for future researchers (Bagiran & Kurgun, 2013). Like Bagiran and Kurgun (2013), Woosnam et al., (2013) also examined the validity of the FSIAS on residents in Caldwell, Texas, host community of the annual Kolache festival celebrating Czech culture. Their findings expressed support for the use of the scale and its potential to be used internationally by event organisers in order to gauge how their events are perceived and the resulting community impacts (Woosnam et al., 2013).

Like Delamere et al. (2001), Fredline et al., (2003) aimed to develop a generic scale to assess the social impacts of events by investigating how residents in the same community perceived the impacts of different types of events, and by comparing the reactions of residents living in a small, regional community with those of a larger, urban community. A case study approach was taken which included three events; two metropolitan and one rural. The study instrument listed 42 specific event impacts, from "appearance of area around the event" to "turnover for local businesses" to "social and moral values". Of the 42 impacts, eight were highlighted by participants as being of significance, which included the upkeep of public facilities, noise pollution, employment, littering, substance and alcohol abuse, the

rights of local residents, daily life disruption and promotion of good values. These areas were compressed into six factors associated with events: social and economic development; concerns about injustice and inconvenience; impact on facilities; bad behaviour and environmental impacts; and impact on the price of some goods and services. Overall, Fredline et al., (2003) found that each of these events was seen as being similarly beneficial, providing quality of life outcomes to the whole.

Another social impact measurement tool, the Social Impact Perception (SIP) scale was reported on by Small et al., (2005) in their research project investigating the socio-cultural impacts on a host community after its pilot during the 2002 Australian Festival of the Book. The SIP scale was built upon a Social Impact Evaluation framework incorporating six stages: describe, profile, identify, project, evaluate and feedback and grouping socio-cultural impacts into five categories: community impacts; leisure/recreation impacts; infrastructure impacts; health and safety impacts; and cultural impacts. In her research using the SIP scale to measure the social impacts of community festivals on residents in Western Australia and Victoria, Australia, Small (2007) broke 41 social impact items down into six factors: inconvenience; community identity and cohesion; personal frustration; entertainment and socialization opportunities; community growth and development; and behavioural consequences. The six dimensions were deliberately not labelled as being either positive or negative in order to allow for the prospect that social impacts can have both positive and negative qualities (Small, 2007).

Wood (2006) piloted an attitude measurement scale applied before and after two community events hosted in the Blackburn region, North-West England. The study aimed to provide quantitative data on the intangible effects of the event programme implemented by the local authority. Through a survey of locally residing

attendees and non-attendees of events in the region, Wood concluded that from the local authority's perspective, the research successfully provided quantitative data linking a sustained programme of events with levels of civic pride in the area (Wood, 2006).

In their research project on rethinking social impacts of tourism research, Deery, Jago and Fredline (2012) highlight and argue against "the predominance of quantitative methods and lack of qualitative enquiry that has led to the evolution of social impact 'lists'" (p. 64). This emerged after the research team themselves had earlier advocated the use of a generic scale (Fredline et al., 2003), suggesting that similar impacts are associated with a range of events, thus supporting the use of a generic rather than tailor made instrument.

In addition to social impact measures designed specifically for events, legislation to measure social value could potentially be of benefit to event stakeholders when attempting to measure social impact. In the United Kingdom, the Public Services (Social Value) Act 2012 requires commissioners of public services to regard how wider social, economic and environmental benefits can be secured for stakeholders through the procurement process (Legislation.gov.uk, 2012). Instead of simply procuring goods or services, the Act encourages the expenditure of public funds in ways that not only meet the need being met through the procurement, but also extends the value of the contract between the commissioner and supplier to bring greater benefits to the taxpayer. The legislation is especially relevant to local government authorities and is being successfully applied by only a minority of councils (Ebanks, 2015). Instances where the Act is being applied by local authorities include negotiating apprenticeships for disadvantaged youth when committing to building projects, and making greater use of voluntary, charity and

social enterprises to achieve council objectives (Young, 2015). Councils commissioning event management goods and services could apply principles of the Social Value Act to their procurement process, thus further providing opportunities for social capital creation through local events.

Economic impacts

Most commonly, the rationale put forward by cities for hosting major and mega events are the associated economic benefits (Misener & Mason, 2006), with much of the public justification of events funding being based on the expectation there will be positive economic impacts (Abelson, 2011). Economic impact measurement is a powerful and persuasive tool for event organisers seeking to present evidence to government funding bodies on the financial benefits that can result from hosting a particular event (Event Impacts, 2014).

Dwyer et al., (2005) argue that depending on how economic forecasts for events are made and reported, event organisers could be misrepresenting the likely economic outcomes and public funds misallocated. Although they are assumed to be the same by some event organisers, economic impacts are not the same thing as the net economic benefits from an event (Dwyer et al., 2005). Abelson (2011) compares economic impact assessment models used to rationalise public investment in events, outlining the four main assessment methods in use: cost-benefit analysis (CBA), input–output analysis (I–O), computable general equilibrium modelling (CGE) and direct injected expenditure method. Abelson argues the CBA approach is the preferred and most accurate method for estimating the economic benefits of events (Abelson, 2011).

In their study into the economic impact of rural events in Australia, Brennan-Horley et al., (2007) highlight how remote locations with dwindling economic

prospects can create and reinvent themselves through staging festivals. Lade and Jackson (2004) identified community involvement and support as being critical to the success of regional festivals, as well as management and marketing strategies. In his study on the economic impact of events in Palmerston North, Ryan (1998) counted expenditure by attendees at events resident in Palmerston North as "displaced expenditure", or money that would have been spent in the city, regardless of the events. Ryan felt it was important that economic impact estimates being calculated was based on an estimate of the extra spending that might have been accrued to the city because of the event and not on total visitor spending (Ryan, 1998). Only the amount of expenditure by visitors at an event represents an injection of new money into an economy (Dwyer et al., 2005), with most of the economic benefits from events said to be generated from increased visitor expenditure (Abelson, 2011). In their study estimating the economic impact of the 2000 Qantas Australian Grand Prix using two different economic impact techniques, Dwyer et al., (2005) found substantial differences in the estimates between the techniques.

Economic impact estimates of an event are a flawed basis on which for decision makers should allocate resources (Dwyer & Forsyth, 2009). Manning (2012) argues that the calculation of economic event generated benefits should occur in two ways: a scenario in which the event is held and a scenario in which the event does not take place. The impact of the event can then be estimated in the difference between the scenarios. He recommends that events should be funded in a "user-pays" way, except where there are non-economic reasons for allocating public money for events (Manning, 2012).

Events play a crucial role in Tourism 2025, a key document outlining how New Zealand will achieve $41 billion total tourism revenue by 2025 (Tourism 2025, 2014).

In New Zealand, tourism promotion occurs at a national, regional and local level. Nationally, Tourism New Zealand is the organisation responsible for marketing New Zealand internationally as a desirable tourist destination (Tourism New Zealand, 2014). Regionally, regional tourism organisations (RTOs) are responsible for promoting their regions to domestic and international visitors. There are 30 RTOs in New Zealand; some are funded in part or in full by local council and all act as a liaison between tourism operators, national tourism bodies, and local and central government (Regional tourism organisations, 2014). Locally, i-SITE official visitor information centres act as the front-line, first point of contact for visitors to New Zealand (100% Pure New Zealand, 2014).

This research project will draw on the literature behind the rationalisation and impacts of organising and delivering events in a local government context in New Zealand. It will seek to add to the body of knowledge investigating the use of event strategies, community event impacts and social capital building.

Methodology

Geographical proximity and access to an established event management network were factors influencing the rationale for the two councils selected for this study. The researcher is resident in council A and is employed by an organisation with a close working relationship to council B. The researcher has strong connections to event stakeholders within both councils' borders.

Participants

Participants sought for this project fell into three categories: key personnel involved in events at each council; local councillors with a strong interest in council events; and local event organisers collaborating with council in some way to deliver events. For the purpose of this project and to preserve anonymity, participants are referred to as Council A or B event organiser; council A or B councillor; and council A or B non-council event organiser.

Council event organisers are employed in roles funded by council to deliver council events, while also supporting non-council event organisers to plan and execute events within council boundaries. Council event organisers have direct access to council resources, to other council personnel involved with enabling event delivery and manage budgets allocated to staging events. The numbers of key personnel involved with events at councils A and B were minimal and known to the researcher.

Councillors' involvement with council and non-council events is often a case of individual councillors having an interest in community events, or being a member of a committee, working group or such with a responsibility to enabling and implementing events. Councillors may have been involved with events prior to being elected to council, either in a paid or voluntary capacity. Mayors may nominate

councillors to represent council on committees to either actively participate or to observe.

Non-council event organisers tend to fall into one of three categories. They are employed by a business or organisation to manage events; work voluntarily to deliver community events generated by community organisations; or initiate an event they plan and execute with minimal funding, aiming to either break-even or return a small profit that can be invested in the next event. Non-council organised events far outweigh the number of events funded and delivered exclusively by councils. These events are generally targeted at the wider community, draw on resources and support services available via council, rely heavily on volunteers and are free to attend (Allen et al., 2010). Four participants were female and two, male. All respondents lived and worked within the council boundaries they were selected to be questioned on.

Selection & recruitment

Participants were identified through the researcher's existing network, recommendations made from within the network and council websites. Participants were contacted by email with an initial inquiry as to whether or not they were interested in participating. Positive responders were then sent an information sheet (refer Appendix A) and consent form. Participants were generally enthusiastic to participate or able to nominate someone in their place where they were unavailable.

The roles of the council event organisers participating in this project have a number of similarities and differences. Both event organisers worked closely with community stakeholders, including non-council event organisers, to deliver a range of community events. The portfolio of council events being delivered by council B event organiser was considerably larger than council A, however the scope of the

role of the council A event organiser also included general administration and other responsibilities not expected from council B, including management of the i-SITE facility hosted by the venue. The council A event organiser focussed on the event outputs of a council funded and owned, multi-purpose venue, as opposed to events output by council as a whole. The events are mainly designed around public programming in alignment with the venue and promoting the venue as a community hub. While the majority of the expenditure required to run the facility is provided by the rate-payer, income is derived through venue hire, sponsorship, grants and ticketing commission.

The roles of both council event organisers demand more than just the planning of council events. The council B event organiser describe the role as having two different facets: the first to create and deliver events for the community, and the second to help the community to run their own events. Events delivered for the council include core events such as a major festival; its "signature event", Christmas and summer themed events and a long weekend recreation event. Community engagement with non-council event organisers includes being able to offer advice and suggestions and facilitate the distribution and allocation of resources. There are also plans to offer basic event management training in the future.

The councillors participating in this project both had previously been employed in some capacity by their respective councils to support the events output of non-council event organisers in their area, as well as producing and delivering council specific events. They are passionate about events, with both councillors remaining actively involved with community events through non-council associated voluntary positions. Councillor A is serving a first term with council. Councillor A was "elected at large", whereby residents of the whole city placed votes for councillors in

general, rather than those representing specific wards or communities. Councillor B is serving a second term of a specific ward within the city. While neither councillor plays a hands-on events role as part of their council involvement, councillors are at times asked for event feedback or invited to attend community events. Councillor B also represents council on a committee tasked with delivering an annual event, however this is not a hands-on role. Councillors can act as a conduit for non-council event managers, introducing them to council staff and by showing support for community events.

The council A non-council event organiser owns and manages an historically themed event that has been part of the local landscape since 2000. The event was originally included as a feature of another well-known, annual community event, however has since evolved to become a stand-alone event delivered annually at first, then biennially since 2007. The event is funded through ticket sales and grants, with costs offset in part by council support. The event generally breaks-even or makes a small profit invested into the following event. The council B non-council event organiser has been employed by a local non-government organisation to deliver a minimum of three events annually since 2012. The events are wide ranging, including conferences, a fundraiser and outdoor sports events which are funded through registration fees, donations, sponsorship and grants; operating on a not-for-profit basis.

Data collection

To achieve a triangular overview of how councils A and B support and approach the delivery of events, six semi-structured, face-to-face interviews were undertaken with the three categories of participants over a two month period. Nine questions were pre-prepared, varying slightly for each participant category (refer

Appendix B, C & D). The questions were designed to collect data on the support for

events available by each council, such as funding, venues, human resources and

marketing platforms; the strategic objectives rationalising council support for events,

such as pride of place, community building and well-being, economic growth and

visitor attraction; and the consideration of event impacts and building social capital

via events. Interviews were audio recorded. A qualitative approach to data collection

was chosen as it would likely allow for more comprehensive and robust responses

than otherwise collected from a quantitative based study. Also, the investigation of

research questions in two or more places using a common method lends itself to the

comparative research (Nicholson & Pearce, 2001).

Data analysis

The average interview time was 40 minutes, and a total of 240 minutes of

interviews were transcribed and analysed as per the constant comparative method

(Frey, Botan, & Kreps, 2000, p. 281). Data was manually searched to find

commonalities in responses. From the commonalities identified, categories and

themes were determined to establish the findings. "Categorisation" is the process of

giving meaning to a unit of data based on generic properties (Lindlof & Taylor, 2011).

Connections between emerging themes were made with the literature review.

The methodology was inspired by that employed by Pugh and Wood (2004) in

the research project titled *The strategic use of events with local government: A study

of London Borough councils.* Pugh and Wood's research builds on work previously

undertaken by Bennett and Koudelova (2001) into the image creation of downtown

areas in London and New York, which recommended a more strategic approach by

councils in regards to marketing. Pugh and Wood attempted to ascertain whether or

not events are being used strategically or operationally by London Borough councils,

using face-to-face interviews supplemented by the analysis of relevant council documentation (Pugh & Wood, 2004). Prior to data collection occurring, the authors were contacted and indicated their willingness to assist this proposed project. A copy of interview questions used in the data collection stage of their study was subsequently shared with the researcher and used as a guide (refer Appendix E).

Ethically, this research project was deemed low risk and awarded a low risk notification from Massey University (refer Appendix F). The research project proposal was subsequently peer-reviewed and approved by the research committee of Wellington Institute of Technology (WelTec). WelTec is the researcher's place of work, and this was a requirement of the institution. All data collected has been treated anonymously with no names of participants, councils or specific event names identified.

Findings

The findings are presented in sections in alignment with the interview question

themes. The data analysed revealed a number of emerging themes of importance

among the participants. A common denominator among all the participants was the

strength with which their commitment to delivering quality community events came

through during each interview; as well as a personal belief in the positive impact of

community events. Each participant had dedicated a significant amount of their work

history to event management, as well as volunteering free-time to "give back" to the

community through the staging of events.

Strategic events objectives

A range of responses was given by respondents when asked to discuss what

they thought the strategic objectives behind the staging of council events were.

Councillor A described strategic event objectives as being connected to creating a

vibrant central business district and generating some economic benefits to local

retailers, particularly in the face of main street decline. Engagement with youth and

providing a place of activity were also cited as objectives, as well as staging events

to act as a destination attraction for people from within and outside of the city. In

regards to strategic events objectives, councillor B felt that council run events is very

much about creating community involvement and connectedness. *"You need to have*

your community involved and feeling connected with the area they're at so that you

can actually run a city. If everybody doesn't care about where they live, you don't get

very far." Councillor B believed that events helped foster community feeling, and

creating events that involve and engage family groups to *"get some sort of impetus*

and input is very important." While councils have a responsibility to provide basic

services such as rubbish collection, councillor B explained that councils also played

a role in nurturing the welfare of the community, a part of which was filled by community events.

Councillor A was aware that some councils have adopted event strategies and policies, however council A had not opted to do so. Instead, councillor A understood that the council portfolio of events and events it offered support to was driven largely by the existing infrastructure in the city, specifically its venues and the natural environment. Councillor A discussed the lack of hotel and motel accommodation available in the city as being an obstacle in attracting more events to the area, despite the variety of venues available. *"If we had more accommodation then we* [council A] *would go for more events and probably have a more sophisticated or robust events budget because it would be worth doing more of that."* Councillor A noted that a lack of funding forthcoming by council A to be invested in event delivery meant that any potential benefits to the community to be accrued from events was limited.

Councillor B felt that the council events strategy tried *"very hard to cover most of the bases",* with an emphasis on youth engagement with events. Although council B was in possession of an events strategy, councillor B felt that an *"instant gratification"* approach to events often worked counter to the long term success of events. Council B was inclined to no longer run events that were not drawing large crowds after two or three years rather than progressively growing the event. *"They're prepared to put up the money to have an event go on, and they might do it twice maybe three times. But unless they feel it's getting 50,000 people or something they have a tendency to drop things, whereas as an events organiser I know that to get any large event to get an impetus of its own account, you need at least six years for that event. Lack of long-term support for something is very much driven by money."*

Councillor B was frustrated by this approach to events, feeling that allowing events to develop over time represented better value for money than replacing them with new, untried event concepts. Councillor B felt strongly that council *"underestimates the worth of events",* with events being *"totally underfunded";* although funding had increased somewhat over the years. Councillor B also felt that when events personnel within council changed, so too did the events portfolio without a rationale to justify doing so. Despite this, councillor B considered the events staff *"undervalued and underfunded".* Neither councillor was involved with developing council event strategy, though both had an interest in how events council supported were decided upon.

Council event organisers were more thorough in their responses, describing strategic event objectives in more detail. Council A event organiser animatedly summarised the range of events delivered, designed to appeal to different groups of people within the community, stating *"we do kind of everything."* A change in management in 2013 influenced the community oriented direction of the events, in particular to engage youth. *"We're very conscious of our community and engaging them* [youth]. *We want to be accessible…to be a place in the community that the community want to come to, and* [that] *people are talking about. Here, the community comes to you* [for events] *rather than us going out going out to the community."* It was important for the venue to balance hosting private events with community events. Council A event organiser commenced event planning for the following calendar year during the last quarter of the current year. This planning is informal and internal and not a strategic council requirement as such. Council A event organiser also takes non-council events into consideration when planning the events calendar. *"We are very conscious when we are programming that we are*

catering for everybody and we're not clashing with other…community events that are going on."

Council B has a strategic events policy with an expectation that events will fit into certain categories. Council B event organiser described the events strategy as aiming to achieve a portfolio of events crossing different event types. The events strategy also sets the expectation that events will generate a return on investment in financial terms. *"If we're spending money on it, what are we getting back or what is the city getting back in return for that money that is being spent? That is all listed amongst the strategic document."* While there is an events strategy, council B suffers from being reactive and ad-hoc at times in regards to its portfolio of council delivered events. *"We do* [core events] *around different areas of community and then we just try and fill in the rest of the year with as much as we can."* Council B aims to fill perceived gaps in its events portfolio *"which are culturally based, geographically based, or demographically based. We try and get a spread; it's a bit like trying to please everybody all at the same time."* Council B's events strategy fits with its overarching objective to make the area an attractively packaged place to work, live and play, with events falling into the "play" category. *"People want to stay here and live here because there are fun things happening for them to participate in and enjoy."*

In an effort to deliver more strategic council events across the region, council B event organiser participates in a region-wide forum with other local council event organisers. The forum is still gaining traction and building trust, with the core idea being that events complement rather than clash or compete with one another in different cities within the region. The aim is for councils planning events to look outwardly *"as opposed to each individual city only looking at themselves."*

69

When non-council event organisers were asked to discuss what the objectives behind the staging of their own events were, respondents were broad in stating them. Non-council event organiser A described the objectives as "*giving something back to the community*" and "*giving people a unique experience*". Non-council event organiser B cited two main objectives: encouraging participation in sport and recreation; and building the brand of the organisation. These objectives are largely intangible and difficult to measure the success of.

As expected, non-council event organisers were the least familiar with council event strategic objectives. Non-council event organiser A was not aware of any council strategic objectives and was aware that their council did not employ a formal events strategy. This was largely due to the fact that local event organisers were not consulted at any level in regards to event output. "*I don't think it's a strategic proper sit down planning thing, because if they did that they'd have the major events* [meeting] *together and saying "listen, how do we maximise potential of all these events working together as a common plan for the city?""* Although there was a suspicion some informal planning occurred in regards to which events to deliver and/or support, non-council event organiser A said "*I don't think there's a grand strategic vision of where they're going with events*". Non-council event organiser B felt that engaging with low-socio-economic groups, ethnic minorities and women were part of council's strategic objectives in relation to events; as well as providing recreation opportunities and meaningful engagement with youth. Non-council event organiser B had no knowledge of whether or not their respective council followed a formalised events strategy, despite this being a publicly available document. Non-council event organiser B suggested that council B focussed disproportionately on

the larger events it delivered, aiming to compete with bigger neighbouring local authorities.

Local government support & resources for non-council events

All respondents agreed that their respective councils provide support and resources for non-council events. Overall there was a feeling that councils could be doing more and was limited mainly by funding and council staff interest.

Non-council event organiser A secures the complimentary use of a council operated park in order to deliver their biennial event, however felt that while council staff are supportive of events, *"they're not passionate about the city or about events"* and was disappointed to not have *"seen a council person at any of our events"*. The support of council was considered a strong factor in the sustainability and long term delivery of the event, particularly in the wake of staff changes within council liaising with non-council event organisers. *"It's definitely harder to run an event now than it was."* A lack of interest from council in assisting with resolving events issues made event delivery more difficult. *"We don't need them holding our hands…just access to the right people at the right time. It's not council's job to run events, but they should support events, and as a rule,* [council A] *is supporting events here pretty well."*

Non-council event organiser A suggested council could facilitate a biannual meeting of local event organisers in order to network, coordinate an events calendar, coordinate use of council infrastructure and share resources, knowledge and skills with one another. Council assistance within such a forum with risk management compliance, health and safety and traffic management would also be well received. Council provided a valuable event promotion tool via the website, and also have arrangements with broadcasters and advertisers available to non-council event organisers. *"In terms of promotion* [for events]*, they're really good."*

71

Non-council event organiser B acknowledged that council provided advice and opportunities for funding, promotional support, venues and other resources to non-council event organisers, though was disappointed by conditions applied to a small amount of funding secured for the delivery of an event. The funding process was considered *"quite time consuming; not very user friendly and wasn't really helping me much."* Like their counterpart in council A, it was felt that event promotion was something done quite effectively and simply via the council website. It's *"easy to post an item on the website and it is promoted to all who subscribe. The website features a large number of events happening in the city so I think that is a great service for those trying to promote their events."*

Council A event organiser felt council staff in general were approachable and easy to connect with. Council venues were offered free of charge or at discounted rates for community events *"to make things more accessible."* Staff will work closely with event organisers, and *"if it's something that I'm really passionate about, I'll work for free."* Council A event organiser was mindful of the need to cover costs and continue to be a viable council operation, though *"nothing's ever a no, we will always try and make something happen."*

Council B event organiser believed contact with non-council event organisers could be increased. Apart from delivering the council events portfolio, council B event organiser spent the majority of their work time managing a contestable fund for event organisers. *"I will work as an intermediary between an organisation and council,"* providing advice and contacts to event organisers making enquiries via the council office. *"There are plenty of community groups out there that are doing amazing things and do not need my fingers poking at what they do, so I will stay well clear of them. My philosophy is very much**,** if they would like help, I am here and they*

can come ask for it. But if they don't need help, they don't need my interference."
Event organisers seeking council assistance vary from frequent organisers of events
to first time event organisers. Council B planned to create event management
guidelines for event organisers, as well as running networking sessions and training
workshops on best practice event management in the near future, as identified in
council B's events strategy.

Funding from council B for larger non-council events that continued to take
place after a number of years tended *"to be more of a sponsorship arrangement"* as
opposed to a funding arrangement. A sponsorship style arrangement was distinct
from a funding arrangement, enabling council *"to be seen to be helping these events
to take place."* Where funding is provided, council B appreciates being
acknowledged as an event supporter, however this is not mandatory.

Councillors were positive about council support for non-council events.
Councillor A felt that council had a good approach to venues and that most were
provided either free of charge or at very low cost for events. This is despite the
possibility that use of the venue may incur out of pocket maintenance expenses for
council prior to or after the event, such as re-sowing grass seeds at an outdoor site
post event. A potential for events to have an economic impact in the area was part of
the rationale for this support. Council A also provided low cost loans to community
groups for work such as amenity upgrades, which could be of benefit to non-council
event organisers improving facilities where events are delivered. Council event
organisers were an intermediary to help community events be delivered, connecting
event organisers with the people required to enable their events and were able to
"give good advice and try to be a one-stop-shop." Resources were being developed
on how to organise and promote events. *"I think they're pretty helpful in pointing an*

event organiser on how they can put together a traffic management plan [and other documentation] which frightens a lot of people off. They would help liaise to make sure they're spreading the dates out on these things so they're not all on one weekend and telling them what might be the best location for them." Some sponsorship was available, as was access to advertising on a local radio network. Council had also updated its website to include a link to *Event Finder*, a free events calendar useful to promote events locally and throughout the region.

Councillor B felt that council *"provide quite a lot of support,"* despite the demanding workload and lack of financial capacity. *"I know that they assist with things like helping event organisers to do things like road closures. I'm quite convinced that if a group wanted to put something on and they needed assistance in knowing how to project manage or plan…the council officers would probably be quite supportive."*

Social capital & events

When asked for their perspective on events supported by local council and their influence on creating social capital within the community, participants agreed that events played a significant role. Non-council event organiser A said *"there's probably several hundred people involved at various levels in helping me put the event together"*, with each making a valuable contribution to the development of the social capital pool. *"You form networks with these people, you form connections with them, and you do keep in touch with each other. Social capital does strengthen ties."* Council authorities remaining autonomous rather than amalgamating was seen as a way of ensuring social capital stores remain in the local community. Non-council event organiser B felt that events provided *"structure for people to come together"*

and *"an opportunity both for people to give to the community and the community to get back."*

Non-council event organiser B thought that *"council could probably do a bit more as they do focus on the large events"* which many locals avoid attending, so while a large event may attract thousands of people, *"how many are really from the local area?"* Also, *"people can get a bit tired of events, if there's something on all the time, and they do have to choose where their dollar goes."*

The inclusion of the i-SITE into the council A operated venue discussed with council A event organiser was considered a step in the right direction for social capital building, as it had *"made us more of a community centre and definitely broadened our audience."* Council event organiser A felt strongly that *"a community that invests in events in their community definitely builds social capital,"* and that this was applicable for events put on not just by council, but by anyone for the community to attend. Events can build a *"comradeship within the community, strengthening ties and sending a message that the community is worth investing in. We're really lucky to have a council who are very community focused and into supporting the community and strengthening it",* which events were considered part of.

Council A event organiser pointed out that although events were capable of building social capital, *"people don't always take advantage of the opportunities that are given to them by their communities"* by participating in public events that could expand or strengthen their social network. *"While we've really tried to break down the barriers, you can still do all this work and people don't realise you're there."*

Council B event organiser felt that *"local government have a need to be seen in a positive light regardless of how they achieve* [social capital] *through events".* Events were, at times, used as a knee-jerk response to fulfilling a perceived lack of

council event involvement in certain areas, taking a top down approach rather than working together with the community to determine their interest or otherwise in events. *"So they go: "We're not doing enough events therefore we need to do an event, so you're going to do an event, you're going to do this event in this place, this time". It is very reactive, and it has no thought to the area that they're doing it in. Is this event appropriate for the people that live in the area and is it something they even want? You can go in and you can run an event and it can be a complete disaster because what you've been told to do doesn't meet your target audience."*

Council B event organiser felt this approach to community events worked contrary to social capital building, as it was not conducive to trust building between communities and their council. *"I think that creates quite a wedge between council and everybody else, because council is seen as not actually understanding what's needed in their community, you're not looking at what's needed and you're supposed to be representing us."* There was concern that council *"are trying to force things onto communities. In our strategic planning, we look at what suburbs don't have events happening in them...but more research needs to be done into it, as opposed to going, "there's not an event here, we need to do it" and just doing it. There's a longer process* [of consultation] *that doesn't seem to be happening. A lot of communities have their own networks, so there's a central hub where there are active people who want to get involved in doing stuff for their community.*

"I think that there is quite a possibility that local government is still seen as a bit standoffish and they're [the community] *not necessarily prepared to come to us themselves, but if we initiated a conversation with them, we went to the community hub, and we held a meeting and we said "do you want an event here, do you have any of your own ideas, do you want to do this yourself or do you want to see council*

do that". And having a discussion about it would probably help close the gap between [central] *government, local government and community. "I think what needs to happen in council is rather than the top going "you need to do more events to cover everybody" and us going "yes", we need to turn around and we need to push more for a long term strategic goal. We have a lot of yes men and not enough "hold on have you thought about this".* For council B event organiser, communicating with local residents about events accessible to them and providing information on how they can participate and be part of the event was seen as crucial to both audience building and social capital building, and a way of *"keeping council and community together."*

Councillor A thought that although the term "social capital" was probably not employed by council A, it was *"actually happening"* within the community, particularly among non-council event organisers who have *"built really good relationships all around the community and with various parties, the council, other venues, other groups have worked with them,* [and] *built relationships with people who started to trust one another and have built their confidence to take on larger events."* Councillor B felt it was *"absolutely imperative"* that councils used their investment in community events to develop social capital in the community.

Impacts

The general impacts of events discussed by participants were most closely aligned to economic and social impacts. Non-council A event organiser discussed the place promotion advantages events can provide, particularly in relation to their event being promoted on an international travel channel. Providing a stage to display skills of community members, as well as *"giving back to the community"* were considered impacts. Events provide an outlet to give *"people an experience, get*

them out of the house and away from television. I get a lot of satisfaction out of putting on a good event. The thing with a society is you've got to put in more than you take out, to make the society function and whether you're a taxpayer or not it doesn't matter."

Non-council event organiser A spoke about events being something *"to look forward to"* that give families an outlet to attend something different as a family unit. Events also have the capacity to inspire the community by *seeing "something they might not normally see, might get them interested in getting involved in a hobby or physical activity."* While events have some obvious, tangible benefits, they could also deliver *"wider community benefits, like just getting people outside and meeting other people."*

Non-council event organiser B said events provided *"people an opportunity to participate in something"* while also attracting new people into the area. Events were a way for the community to engage with one another; to connect and celebrate the community they are a part of. Community events were thought to be *"a bit more personal"* and many were about the participants *"personally achieving"* something from having partaken in a particular event, such as completing a fun run. A positive impact is *that "people feel like they've done something either good for themselves or good for others."*

Both non-council event organisers mentioned they expected that events brought a positive economic impact on the community. Non-council event organiser A had commissioned a report into the economic impact of their event to the area, which concluded a noticeable impact was made.

Council A event organiser discussed a recent exhibition held at the venue targeting young people that unexpectedly *"went viral on social media. What*

happened is all the youth started coming in and taking selfies…it was incredible." The resulting promotion saw a higher than expected number of visitors to the exhibition. Like non-council event organiser A, council B event organiser cited positive media coverage as an event impact that was a *"bonus".* People can feel a *"sense of belonging"* by attending a community event, part of the action rather than an outside observer.

Council B event organiser was very conscious of the social impacts that events could have in the community. *"Events need to be accessible, you have to tailor them to a target audience, so there are going to be some target audiences where they will be able to afford more, and therefore they can, they can do certain things. But the community is very diverse so you need a diverse range of events for that society to function properly because it is that balance between working and play. I think that if we can all work together it could be amazing,* [we'd] *have all sorts of things happening and everybody is capable of doing it. It takes a very organised brain to do events, but it's not rocket science."* A big focus for council B has been to stage affordable events so that those otherwise unable to afford such an experience are not excluded. *"There are several larger community events which we put on everything free. It's important that council is providing experiences for under-privileged…if you can't experience life, how can you get out of the depravation you're in, how can you see the path out if you don't have any other experience other than the very small area that you've come from? I'm hoping that by doing these events that are free or are very cheap that it is providing new experiences* [event if] *in a very limited capacity."* Community events can foster community spirit and generate excitement for future event experiences, particularly when some sort of achievement

has been accomplished. Council B event organiser questioned the motives of event organisers being *"in it for profit"*.

Councillor A felt that the primary impact of events was the *"feel good factor"* they could generate among the people coming into the area to attend the events; among the people living in the area that attend the events and the people who live in or outside of the area who *"see that they're happening and get that impression of vibrancy."* People participating in events either as audience members or actual event organisers was an impact, as was getting people out into the outdoor spaces available in council A which often host events was also considered an impact. Economic benefits to local retailers were also mentioned, including opportunities for community group fundraising.

Council B event organiser felt *"society works better if you have that play aspect to it and events fall into that. I'm very pro-events...I think that you get spinoffs that you don't normally,"* a sentiment echoed by Councillor B and non-council event organiser A.

On the downside, half the participants felt that changes in staff at council leading on events potentially created an adverse impact on events; as was the weather and limited finance available for events. *"It is important for people to realise that events take a bit of time to actually bed in and grow and you've really got to have a plan for them."*

Discussion

The discussion is presented in sections in alignment with the research

questions set out to explore at the commencement of this research project.

Council investment in staging community events

There was agreement among respondents that councils A and B are

approachable, helpful and supportive of event organisers, giving the impression of

positive stakeholder relations. These positive relationships with local authorities are

important for events organisers, particularly where financial support is being sought

(Andersson & Getz, 2007). Council event staff will generally do as much as they are

capable of to ensure events are successfully delivered. Concerning was non-council

A event organiser who felt spurned by the council's non-attendance at their event,

and the claim that council events staff were "*not passionate about the city or about*

events". This claim could be counter-productive to further developing events in the

area, therefore councils need to therefore be mindful about the benefits of being

seen at community events and the impression this can give. While access to event

staff by non-council event organisers has the capacity to further build the local

events network, and, thereby social capital within that group of peers; a perceived

snub from council by event organisers may be counter to social capital building and

sustaining positive relationships.

Where event organisers require support in terms of advice and guidance

pertaining to event management, council staff is able to direct event organisers to

appropriate, freely accessible resources, as well as providing informal expertise and

being a "one-stop-shop". Despite these resources, non-council event organiser A

expressed a concern that *"it's definitely harder to run an event now than it was."*

There was agreement from non-council event organisers and councillors that both

councils were very good at providing access to promotional tools useful to community events. Most of these promotional tools are free (e.g.: Event Finder, Facebook) or already owned and/or maintained by the councils and funded separately to events (website, radio advertising agreements). Councils' willingness to aid with promotion may be related to the zero additional costs involved for both councils in this area.

Although neither council A or B is well resourced enough in terms of the events infrastructure required to bid for and host major events, such as those supported by New Zealand Major Events, each council makes a financial investment in delivering community events as has come to be expected by its ratepayers. This is despite the fact that there is no obligation to do so under the defined purpose of local government as per the Local Government Act (2002), which is to enable democratic decision-making and action, meet current and future needs for local infrastructure, and public services, and performing regulatory functions (Local Government New Zealand, 2013). The tangible investment made by both councils A and B toward the staging of community events can be divided into three parts: money, resources and expertise. This can further be defined as financial capital, physical capital and human capital (Esser, 2008). Derrett (2005) outlines the role of local government in relation to events to include policy and planning frameworks, events officers and project management personnel, infrastructure support and in-kind and financial investment. Of these, councils A and B appear to fulfil the more practical aspects described by Derrett (2005); namely events officers, infrastructure support and in-kind and financial investment.

Despite concerns raised by some respondents regarding the funding available and conditions associated with funding, each council dedicates money to non-council

events supplemented by access to in-kind resources, such as venues. This funding is additional to the internal budgets allocated for council staged events. Council event organiser B gave the impression that applications for the fund is highly competitive, while non-council B event organiser felt the funding could be considered redundant where conditions are attached. The literature reminds us that if a local government authority invests in an event, it may forgo investing in something else (Shone & Parry, 2013).

Community events make use of existing infrastructure (Gursoy et al., 2003), such as the venues, promotional avenues and equipment referred to by event organisers in this study. As many indoor and outdoor venues are generally council owned and managed, non-council event organisers must often liaise with council in the early stages of event planning. Both councils employ event staff who, as per the literature, consider themselves facilitators and partners of events (Getz et al., 2007). *"Nothing's ever a no"* said council A event organiser, *"if it's something I'm really passionate about, I'll work for free"*. Council B event organiser also expressed availability and support: *"if they need my help, I am here"*.

Council A provides online event management guidelines, while council B has no similar resources available. This could be indicative of council A's smaller events portfolio, and therefore reliance on non-council event organisers to produce events for community consumption. While council B intends to produce guidelines for events organisers and, in time, deliver training workshops and host networking events such as those suggested by non-council organiser A to bring event organisers together in a regular forum, these initiatives are still in a planning stage. A combined council A and council B annual forum of local event organisers could be a long term goal of these networking opportunities. These fora could address matters like compliance

and risk management, and other topics suggested by members of the network. Social capital building among network members would be a likely outcome of convening this group of people, adding to the social capital community pool.

Strategic objectives & investment in community events

Implementing a strategy effectively requires access to sufficient funding and resources. All respondents made reference to funding for events being challenging or insufficient, however exactly *how* the councils allocated, monitored and evaluated funding for events on an annual basis was not discussed in the interviews.

While the literature states that local governments strategically support events for four broad reasons: strengthening the community, event sustainability, economic development and to increase tourism to the area (O'Toole, 2011), the results of this study connect most strongly to events being used to strengthen the community. One could therefore question the extent to which councils A and B are being as strategic as possible in order to utilise events to achieve objectives beyond the boundaries of social outcomes. It is possible that neither council fully understands or appreciates the multitude of impacts and benefits a strategically implemented portfolio of events can brings to their cities, which the literature has also identified (O'Sullivan et al., 2009).

Council A does not work to a strategic events document of any description, which concurs with literature stating that non-strategic use of events by local government is a missed opportunity to gather information on the effectiveness of their events, making it difficult to justify delivering a portfolio of events (Wood, 2006). A failure to adopt an events strategy or set objectives to underpin events outputs can be interpreted as a failure of council A to measure the success of the events in question and value of the associated ratepayer investment. Council A event

organiser discussed strategic planning, however this is not aligned to any council A issued instruction or guidelines.

As described by O'Toole (2011), event strategy refers to developing a long term plan of action through the design, implementation and evaluation of events. Although council B event outputs are guided by a broad events strategy, the document spans a ten year period to 2023 and will be dated by the time it is due for renewal. Absent from the strategy are plans to regularly review, monitor or evaluate the strategy or the events it supports during its life-span. It is noteworthy that the strategic events policy has been criticised by council B event staff, whose work is guided and informed, in part, by the strategy. Despite being in possession of a strategy, council was still reactive and ad hoc in its approach to events output. There is an opportunity for council B to consider reviewing its events strategy earlier than its 2023 expiry. It is also noteworthy that two of the three participants in this project from council B were not aware of the strategy's existence. The one participant who was aware of the strategy was critical of the document, saying that more strategic public consultation around events output "*would probably help close the gap between* [central] *government, local government and community";* and that *"we need to push more for a long term strategic goal."*

The comment from councillor B that councils nurtured the welfare of the community, which they did in part through community events, indicated that events were just one element of the wider welfare role. Consideration could be given to aligning any event strategies with other council strategy documents concerning community welfare projects funded and undertaken by council. The literature has found that public agencies with responsibilities for welfare and well-being outcomes are increasingly realising that festivals in particular are a powerful tool for engaging

effectively with communities (Phipps & Slater, 2010). Engagement with youth was suggested by almost all respondents as being important to both councils as an events outcome, interestingly, however, council B's event strategy makes no mention of youth. Why this perception of prioritising youth where events are concerned exists is interesting given there is no policy or strategy documentation to support the view. It is possible that youth are a priority target audience in other council outputs and the assumption has been made that this also applies to events.

Half the respondents raised the issue of council discontinuing with, or replacing events before they have had time to fully be established in the local event landscape. This gave the impression that councils do not fully appreciate the time it takes an event to grow and develop into something recognised by the community as being of value to their social calendar, and also lack of strategic event planning. Funding was difficult to secure for an on-going period and events were expected to demonstrate an economic impact or large audiences within a year or two. The literature suggests that an event's life cycle is not a paramount concern; rather, an effective portfolio of events is of most importance (Getz, 2002); however also mentioned in the literature is the need for councils to allow events time to develop and produce long term results (Pugh & Wood, 2004). It is important to be mindful that while social capital repercussions can occur when local industry closes down (Fine, 2010), the same can perhaps be said to occur when events are no longer being held (Finkel, 2010).

In the instance of councils A and B, the effectiveness of the portfolio of events is not being measured in a structured and meaningful way; therefore one could argue that council make decisions to alter events based less on strategy or evidence and more on emotion or instinct. Regardless of how strategic or not either council's

approach to events are, they are both supportive of the delivery of a range of non-council events. As council resources are limited, one could conclude that councils are in fact being strategic by supporting these community events, without which there would be a large gap in each council's events calendar. More events could help create more attractive cities to live in, work in and visit. It is worth recalling that the vision for local government in New Zealand is "local democracy powering community and national success" (Local Government New Zealand, 2014a); which events make a contribution to.

Events & host community impacts

The literature identifies many known event impacts, focusing mostly on economic and social impacts. Both positive and negative impacts are generally created, depending on the political, environmental, social and economic context in which events take place (Holmes et al., 2015). The closer a resident lives to site of an event, the greater the impact will be on them (Small et al., 2005), which applies to events regardless of the type or size.

Participants in this project identified event impacts as being only positive in nature. These event impacts fell into three categories: promotional impacts, social impacts and economic impact. Promotional impacts included place promotion opportunities, social media exposure and media interest. Social impacts included community engagement and participation, celebrating community, building and fostering community spirit, giving back to the community and attracting new people to the area, which can also be considered an economic impact.

Economic impacts were considered as being the impact economically on local retailers and business owners benefiting from events taking place through audience spending. Given both councils are experiencing issues in maintaining viable main

street businesses, these impacts could be regarded as positive. Social impacts are defined as anything potentially having an impact on the quality of life for the host community (Fredline et al., 2003). The social impacts identified by participants concur with those described in the literature, such as positive social interaction, community cohesion development and improving the community's identity and confidence (Shone & Parry, 2013); and involvement among local populations, encouraging participation and strengthening community connections (Finkel, 2010).

All participants in this study gave the impression of being very socially aware of the event environment they operated within, as well as being socially active in their community. This is in alignment with the literature, which states that the positive social impact on the host community is often why event organisers become involved to begin with (Finkel, 2010). Each was interested in the social returns that events could provide that helped balance the way society functioned, with comments such as *"the thing with a society is you've got to put in more than you take out", "society works better if you have that play aspect to it"* and *"you need a diverse range of events for…society to function properly because it is that balance between working and play".* While social impacts were considered paramount, no social impact measures appear to be in place to fully assess social impacts from the event organiser, event user or host community perspectives. The literature states the importance of ensuring events are in alignment with community needs given that attendees are likely to be mostly local to the area (Fredline et al., 2003; Gursoy et al., 2003).

Part of council B's rationale for events as per the event strategy is to increase community profile, economic benefits and social benefits. The results of this project indicate that these three areas are being addressed in part as a result of events

within the council's boundaries. Non-council event organiser B warned that audiences have an abundance of events and had to make choices about how they spent leisure money. The literature cautions that an inability to afford to participate can have a negative social impact on some community members (Jakob, 2013). Although many council and community events are free to attend, there are still costs associated with transport, time, koha (donation), purchasing food and beverages and other event related items which are not free, such as amusements (Allen et al., 2011).

Community events & social capital

Respondents gave the impression they were not familiar with the concept of social capital, however when explained to them in brief, enthusiastically connected their events experience with social capital. Collectively and individually, respondents appeared to be in possession of high social capital built over years of involvement with community events, both within and outside of their councils. While events supported by council were generally credited with helping social capital to be built within the community, more could be done to enable this to take place. As well as the more tangible benefits of events, such as economic impacts, events can also deliver *"wider community benefits, like just getting people outside and meeting other people",* which connects to social capital building. Contrary to this, and as described by council A event organiser, some community members choose not to participate even when local events were accessible to them. *"People don't always take advantage of the opportunities that are given to them by their communities",* thereby limiting opportunities for social capital building and accumulation.

As per the literature, both bridging and bonding social capital have the capacity to be built in councils A and B as a result of community events (Jamieson,

89

2014; Mackeller, 2013; Reid, 2007; Yuen & Glover, 2005). Audience development, inclusivity and participation have the potential to build trust and therefore social capital, as was seen to be the case by Council A event organiser, particularly with the inclusion of the i-SITE facility and programming decisions intended to appeal broadly to the community. Council B event organiser also aimed for the portfolio of council events to generate wide community interest and therefore, attendance.

Councillor A discussed the benefits to non-council event organisers who have built good networks of relationships with a variety of stakeholders connected to event delivery, such as suppliers, council and other event organisers. The trust generated from these connections was seen to be directly linked to building confidence to grow events in the local community, which could then go on to have a positive social capital effect for the attendees of the events.

The proposed event organiser's biannual meeting suggestion with local event managers and council counterparts by non-council event organiser A could further strengthen existing networks and build new connections between like-minded peers. This could also be the case for council B, which intends to commence holding regular networking opportunities for event organisers, including training. The literature advises that existing relationships spanning organisations and networks can be utilised to get things happening (Hilbers, 2005), also something that the regular meeting of council event organisers within the region also has the capacity to achieve. There is realistic potential to build social capital within these networks, however the resistance by stakeholders to either network, as has been suggested by participants, could be considered counter to social capital.

As with strengthening networks, collaboration on new or existing events has the capacity to build social capital. In a climate of local government reform, greater

collaboration between councils has already been encouraged by the minister of local government; and council B's events strategy expressly mentions working alongside neighbouring councils to co-host multi venue events. Council B also prefers to avoid duplicating similar events simultaneously offered by other councils, such as Christmas parades, therefore collaboration could also extend to strategic planning well ahead of event delivery. Councils A and B are especially well-placed to collaborate on the staging of events, not just for their shared boundary, but for the investment of economic, human, physical, intellectual and social capital collaboration involves, which both councils are in a position to contribute.

Trust is the basis of social capital building and maintenance, an issue highlighted by council B event organiser, who was concerned that the relationship between council and some parts of the community was counter to trust building and therefore, social capital building. The "top down" approach taken by council B in regards to developing and implementing a portfolio of events without community consultation is not conducive to social capital building between council and the community. The literature supports the concern that council *"trying to force things onto communities"* is contrary to social capital building (Yuen & Glover, 2005; Diers, 2004), mindful that effective stakeholder management is necessary to acquire the ongoing support of the community (Getz et al., 2007). Council B event organiser raised further concerns that events can be *"a complete disaster because what you've been told to do doesn't meet your target audience."* Again, the literature supports this concern as event organisers must be aware that any dissatisfaction from the local community to events may threaten long term viability (Small et al., 2005), including social capital potential, which will only develop in a positive social environment (Arcodia & Whitford, 2006). The literature further suggests that by providing

opportunities for citizens to provide feedback on decision making, local governments can engage with community organisations in ways that encourage social capital formation (Dollery & Wallis, 2002).

The concerns outlined by council B event organiser could also be counter to council's desire to been seen in *"a positive light".* Furthermore, there was concern that a lack of trust between council and the community could extend to non-council event organisers seeking council assistance, thereby reducing the potential event management capacity building and support opportunities between council B event organiser and non-council event organisers. Council B event organiser appears to be laying the foundation for social capital building in terms of liaising with the community, being approachable, having access to useful physical and economic resources and planning towards greater networking with local event organisers, however this can be hindered by decision making further up the local government hierarchy. Events supported by local government can encourage a positive attitude to the local authority by its constituents (Wood, 2009a), which both councils would benefit from.

Changes in staff leading on events at councils was cited as having an adverse impact on event delivery in the community. Staff changes are also connected to changes occurring in council events portfolios. This, unfortunately, is difficult to counter given that employees in any organisation frequently change roles. The upside is the fresh perspective new event staff can bring to a council, however building community networks and trust takes time, as social capital is not transferable (Putnam, 2000). Council staff non-attendance at community events was raised by one respondent as being disappointing. This concern hinders trust building and creates a perception of disinterest from the council by the event organiser,

regardless of whether or not this is the case. This could easily be addressed by council by encouraging staff attendance at events as part of their roles, or by event organisers specifically inviting council staff to attend. As indicated in the literature, cities work most effectively when local government and the community work in tandem as partners (Diers, 2004).

Comparison of councils' approach to community events

When broken down and compared, overall, councils A and B provide similar physical and human capital in order to plan, deliver and support community events; with the main difference being the amount of dedicated funding for events. Council B leads on event strategy, funding availability, developing new resources for event organisers and its plans to coordinate specific networking and training opportunities for them. It lacks online event management resources such as those available through council A.

Council A dedicates less financial capital to events than council B; however this may change with the appointment of new events personnel. This recent development would indicate that council A has injected new funds into its events team, the expansion of which could enable council to dedicate more time to existing events. There is also the potential to include new council events to its portfolio, which is presently minimal. New human resources may also allow council to address some of the issues raised by this research project, such as the lack of strategic planning, networking opportunities for event organisers, and council staff attendance at events.

While the scope of event impacts on host communities is widely covered by the literature (Holmes et al., 2015; Bagiran & Kurgun, 2013; Clark, 2008; Pugh & Wood, 2004; Fredline et al., 2003; Delamere, 2001), both councils' awareness of impacts of events is limited by the perception of social impacts and the failure to fully

evaluate or measure impacts on the community. Like event impacts, awareness of social capital building is limited by both councils, although both councils appear to be delivering and supporting events in ways that are generally agreeable to social capital building. Neither event impacts nor social capital appeared to be fully understood by either council. Appendix G features a comparison of the two neighbouring councils' approach to community events in table form.

Limitations

This research project is limited by the small number of participants interviewed. A fuller picture of how council supports events could be gained from conducting focus groups with a larger number of non-council event organisers from each council. The project is also limited by restricting the comparison to two neighbouring authorities. This project could be extended to include a greater number of local authorities across New Zealand, making comparisons between a range of more diverse communities. Further research could also include connections to not just social capital theory, but also to theory relating to a broader range of capital outlined in the literature, such as economic, physical, human, cultural, institutional, political, intellectual, structural, relational, personal and natural capital.

Conclusion

This research project has investigated the approaches to investing in the staging of community events, supporting strategies and availability of event management resources by two neighbouring local council authorities. The perceived impacts of events on the host community and capacity of events to build social capital has also been explored. The literature review highlighted a number of themes relating to this research project, including event objectives and strategies for staging events, stakeholder relationships, social and economic impacts, social impact measures, and the role of events in social capital building.

The findings of this study indicate that both councils A and B are supportive of the delivery of events by council and non-council event organisers, despite their being no explicit legal obligation for local government authorities to do so. While only council B has produced a specific events strategy, both councils acknowledge events in their long term plans, employ event management staff, provide and maintain resources to enable events, such as venues, and are accessible as a "one-stop-shop" for event advice and guidance. Modest amounts of funding can be applied for by event organisers, and various resources are publicly available online. Council A outputs less council initiated events than council B, however this may change with the recent addition of a marketing and events coordinator role on staff. Council B is more ambitious in its event outputs, investing more financial capital into event delivery and infrastructure.

For both councils, there is scope for greater strategic planning around event delivery, including the establishment of formal monitoring and evaluation to assess the effectiveness of their events investments in meeting set objectives. While council B is guided by an events strategy, its renewal date of 2023 could be reconsidered

and a review carried out sooner. With changes in the local government landscape seeming inevitable, and expectations set by central government for greater cross-council collaboration, event strategies and resources could be shared rather than duplicated or competed with.

Opportunities to capture meaningful data on the impacts of events in the host communities does not appear to be occurring, therefore limiting the knowledge gained by event organisers on the positive and negative effects of their events. Respondents gave the impressions that events in both councils were primarily delivered for their favourable social outcomes, therefore measuring exactly what these outcomes are can help to develop the events portfolios to further maximise such benefits. There are many examples in the literature of social impact measures to help guide councils in this regard.

An increase in available funding for events would be welcome by non-council event organisers, as would access to greater networking opportunities, training, access to best practice resources and consultation on any formal or informal event strategies in development. Non-council event organisers are primarily interested in providing a community asset through their events, and are motivated by how their event contribution can enhance local well-being. The attraction to the social benefits of events is shared by council event organisers, therefore there is synergy between the two parties. Understanding how and if social capital building occurs and is maintained as a result of community events can be further explored together by council and non-council event organisers.

"If everybody doesn't care about where they live, you don't get very far". Overall this study has found that respondents cared about delivering quality events in the locality in which they worked and lived; were driven by the social benefits of

events in the community, welcomed greater collaboration, and showed no signs of ceasing to be involved with events, despite the challenges. Both councils are fortunate to have the combined human, intellectual and social capital event organisers share with their community; resources that should be nurtured and valued.

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Information sheet

Information sheet for participants

A tale of two cities: Local government, community events and social capital building

Thank you for your interest in the abovementioned research project. This information is provided so that you can make an informed decision about participating in this study.

This project is being undertaken by Joany Grima, Senior Lecturer in Event Management at Wellington Institute of Technology. Joany is also a Master's student at Massey University. This project has been peer-reviewed and approved by the WelTec Ethics Committee and Massey University Human Ethics Committee has deemed the project low risk.

Purpose of the project

Community events are frequently staged in cities and towns across New Zealand. Local government authorities play a key role in ensuring community events are organised, supported and facilitated, be it through providing venues, funding, skilled labour or access to resources, or by taking on event management responsibilities to deliver a public event. This project aims to determine the strategic objectives behind local council support of events; determine how events supported by local council impact the community and build social capital; and compare the approach to the staging of events of two local councils.

Type of participants required

The participants required for this project are:

- Key personnel involved in events at each council (to provide a government perspective)
- Local councillors (elected officials) with an interest in council's events portfolio
- Local event organisers collaborating with council to deliver events (to provide an event management / community sector perspective)
- Representatives from the local Chamber of Commerce (to provide a private sector perspective)

One participant from each area above from two separate local councils is being sought.

Benefits of participation

This study could be a valuable reference for local government authorities looking to establish event strategies of benefit to ratepayers. Participation in this project will provide a balanced insight from the public, private and community sectors into:

- The support for events available by each council, such as resources, the staging of events organised by council, funding, venues, human resources, marketing platforms, etc.
- The strategic objectives rationalising council support for events, such as pride of place, community building and well-being, economic growth, visitor attraction, collaboration opportunities (with other councils, private sector, local business, community groups), attracting new residents, identity, brand building, etc.
- The consideration of event impacts and building social capital via events.

What the participants will be asked to do. How information will be collected and used

Participants will be asked to be available for a face-to-face interview with the researcher for approximately 45 minutes. The interview will be audio-recorded. Audio recordings may be transcribed using Nvivo software.

If participants change their mind and withdraw from the project

You may withdraw from the project at any time up until the data is collated for analysis. No reason is needed if you choose to withdraw. There will be no disadvantages or any consequences to you of any kind. You will not be able to withdraw if you complete an anonymous questionnaire.

How confidentiality and anonymity will be maintained

All data collected by will be treated anonymously with no names of participants requested or recorded. Councils will be referred to as Council A/B, with other participants also as councillor A/B, event organiser A/B and private sector A/B. Names of events or other potentially identifying factors will also be generic.

Information will remain strictly confidential within the research team. When the results are published you will not be personally identified. Any information you provide can be viewed at any time. Personal information, questionnaires and any other data collected in this study will be coded to maintain your anonymity. It will be securely stored in a restricted area at a WelTec campus with access only to the researchers. At the end of the project any personal information will be destroyed immediately, except raw data on which the results depend will be kept for 5 years, and then destroyed.

Dissemination of findings

When the study is complete findings will be presented at research forum in NZ and/or overseas, and published in NZ or international journals. You can request a summary of the project findings.

Cost of participating

There will be no cost to participate in this study.

More information

If you have any questions about this project, you may contact: Joany Grima

Joany.Grima@weltec.ac.nz / 04 830 3028. Thank you ☺

Appendix B

Councillor interview questions

1. Please describe your role with council and the connection it has to local/community events.
2. Are there specific council or non-council events you are involved with?
3. What are the main objectives behind council staging local events?
4. Does council undertake a strategic planning process in regards to determining its events portfolio, including which non-council events to support? (i.e.: frequency, alignment with other council plans, etc.)
5. Does council model or compare its event output on other councils / cities?
6. What do you think are the biggest impacts local events supported by council have on the community?
7. Does your role have any engagement with local event organisers delivering non-council events?
8. To your knowledge, what sort of support is council able to provide to local event organisers staging events outside of the council events portfolio? (financial, venue, mentoring, guidelines, promotion, resources, training, etc.)
9. "Social capital" is a term which describes networks of relationships among people who live and work together that enable society to function effectively. Communities with high levels of social capital are said to be happier, healthier, wealthier and more engaged with local government. Local events are advocated as a way communities can build and nurture social capital. With this in mind, what's your perspective on events supported by council and their influence on creating social capital for the local community?
10. Could you give some examples of how this might be achieved?

Appendix C

Council event organiser interview questions

1. Please describe your role at council and the connection it has to local/community events.
2. Please describe the council events portfolio - the events both funded and delivered by council.
3. What are the main objectives behind council staging local events?
4. Does council undertake a strategic planning process in regards to determining its events portfolio, including which non-council events to support? (i.e.: frequency, alignment with other council plans, etc.)
5. Does council model or compare its event output on other councils / cities?
6. What do you think are the biggest impacts local events supported by council have on the community?
7. How closely is your role connected to local event organisers delivering non-council events?
8. What sort of support is council able to provide to local event organisers staging events outside of the council events portfolio? (financial, venue, mentoring, guidelines, promotion, resources, training, etc.)
9. "Social capital" is a term which describes networks of relationships among people who live and work together that enable society to function effectively. Communities with high levels of social capital are said to be happier, healthier, wealthier and more engaged with local government. Local events are advocated as a way communities can build and nurture social capital. With this in mind, what's your perspective on events supported by council and their influence on creating social capital for the local community?
10. Could you give some examples of how this might be achieved?

Appendix D

Non-council event organiser interview questions

1. Please describe your role at [event organisation] and the connection to local/community events.
2. Please describe the [event organisation] events portfolio - the events both funded and delivered by your organisation
3. What are the main objectives behind [event organisation] staging events?
4. Does your role engage with council in order to deliver your events? Please describe.
5. Are you aware of any support council is able to provide to local event organisers staging events outside of the council events portfolio? (financial, venue, mentoring, guidelines, promotion, resources, training, etc.)
6. Are you aware if your local council undertakes a strategic planning process in regards to determining its events portfolio and which non-council events to support?
7. Are you aware if council sets objectives it aims to fulfil through staging and supporting local events?
8. What do you think are the biggest impacts local events (council and non-council) have on the community?
9. "Social capital" is a term which describes networks of relationships among people who live and work together that enable society to function effectively. Communities with high levels of social capital are said to be happier, healthier, wealthier and more engaged with local government. Local events are advocated as a way communities can build and nurture social capital. With this in mind, what's your perspective on events supported by council and their influence on creating social capital for the local community?
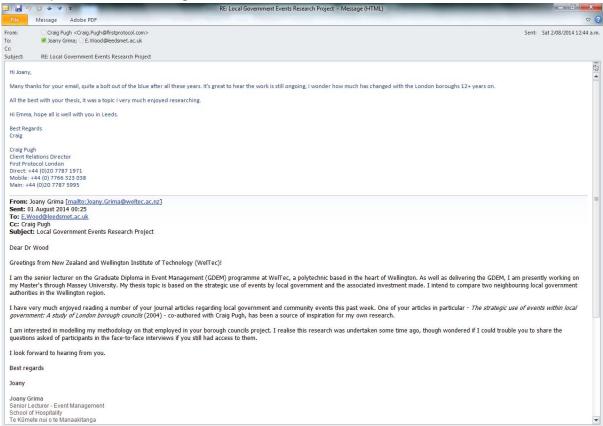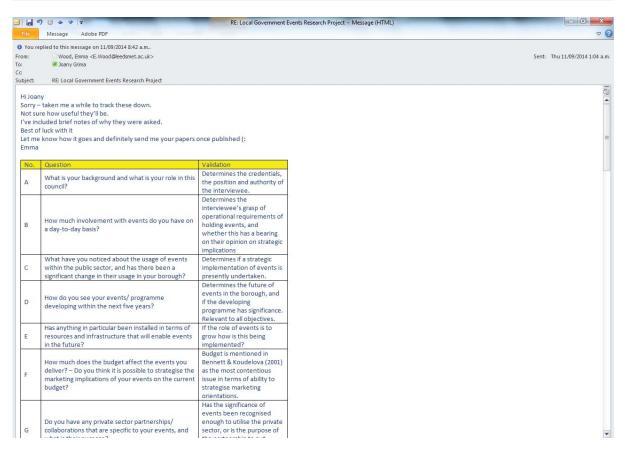10. Could you give some examples of how this might be achieved?

Appendix E

Correspondence from Pugh & Wood

RE: Local Government Events Research Project - Message (HTML)

File   Message   Adobe PDF

From: Craig Pugh <Craig.Pugh@firstprotocol.com>   Sent: Sat 2/08/2014 12:44 a.m.
To: Joany Grima; E.Wood@leedsmet.ac.uk
Cc:
Subject: RE: Local Government Events Research Project

Hi Joany,

Many thanks for your email, quite a bolt out of the blue after all these years. It's great to hear the work is still ongoing, I wonder how much has changed with the London boroughs 12+ years on.

All the best with your thesis, it was a topic I very much enjoyed researching.

Hi Emma, hope all is well with you in Leeds.

Best Regards
Craig

Craig Pugh
Client Relations Director
First Protocol London
Direct: +44 (0)20 7787 1971
Mobile: +44 (0) 7766 323 038
Main: +44 (0)20 7787 5995

From: Joany Grima [mailto:Joany.Grima@weltec.ac.nz]
Sent: 01 August 2014 00:25
To: E.Wood@leedsmet.ac.uk
Cc: Craig Pugh
Subject: Local Government Events Research Project

Dear Dr Wood

Greetings from New Zealand and Wellington Institute of Technology (WelTec)!

I am the senior lecturer on the Graduate Diploma in Event Management (GDEM) programme at WelTec, a polytechnic based in the heart of Wellington. As well as delivering the GDEM, I am presently working on my Master's through Massey University. My thesis topic is based on the strategic use of events by local government and the associated investment made. I intend to compare two neighbouring local government authorities in the Wellington region.

I have very much enjoyed reading a number of your journal articles regarding local government and community events this past week. One of your articles in particular - *The strategic use of events within local government: A study of London borough councils* (2004) - co-authored with Craig Pugh, has been a source of inspiration for my own research.

I am interested in modelling my methodology on that employed in your borough councils project. I realise this research was undertaken some time ago, though wondered if I could trouble you to share the questions asked of participants in the face-to-face interviews if you still had access to them.

I look forward to hearing from you.

Best regards

Joany

Joany Grima
Senior Lecturer - Event Management
School of Hospitality
Te Kūmete nui o te Manaakitanga

RE: Local Government Events Research Project - Message (HTML)

File   Message   Adobe PDF

You replied to this message on 11/09/2014 8:42 a.m..

From: Wood, Emma <E.Wood@leedsmet.ac.uk>   Sent: Thu 11/09/2014 1:04 a.m.
To: Joany Grima
Cc:
Subject: RE: Local Government Events Research Project

Hi Joany
Sorry – taken me a while to track these down.
Not sure how useful they'll be.
I've included brief notes of why they were asked.
Best of luck with it
Let me know how it goes and definitely send me your papers once published (:
Emma

No.	Question	Validation
A	What is your background and what is your role in this council?	Determines the credentials, the position and authority of the interviewee.
B	How much involvement with events do you have on a day-to-day basis?	Determines the interviewee's grasp of operational requirements of holding events, and whether this has a bearing on their opinion on strategic implications
C	What have you noticed about the usage of events within the public sector, and has there been a significant change in their usage in your borough?	Determines if a strategic implementation of events is presently undertaken.
D	How do you see your events/ programme developing within the next five years?	Determines the future of events in the borough, and if the developing programme has significance. Relevant to all objectives.
E	Has anything in particular been installed in terms of resources and infrastructure that will enable events in the future?	If the role of events is to grow how is this being implemented?
F	How much does the budget affect the events you deliver? – Do you think it is possible to strategise the marketing implications of your events on the current budget?	Budget is mentioned in Bennett & Koudelova (2001) as the most contentious issue in terms of ability to strategise marketing orientations.
G	Do you have any private sector partnerships/ collaborations that are specific to your events, and what is their purpose?	Has the significance of events been recognised enough to utilise the private sector, or is the purpose of the partnership to cut...

		function?
H	Have you ascertained whether the council is in a better position to provide event services than an external private contractor?	Has a Best Value Review been produced to distinguish how events would be best produced? The motivation will be addressed, i.e. budget saving 'vs.' commitment to producing quality events.
I	What research is conducted to ascertain customer orientation?	An established marketing strategy device *Matson, (1994).*
J	Do you research post events to ascertain their impact? – How do you achieve this?	An established marketing strategy device *Matson, (1994).*
K	Do you have objectives for your current events and if so who sets these?	If the events have set objectives this would suggest a strategy has been implemented.
L	Is it evaluated if the events successfully communicate the brand of the event and the borough?	An established marketing strategy device *Matson, (1994).*
M	How does the range of cultures of the community affect the events programme?	Establish whether customer orientation has really been researched and implemented?
N	What is the emphasis for the events produced, mainly for the community or tourism provision?	Ascertain whether events have more than one function.
O	Do you look to put events in locations that are in need or in the process of regeneration?	How much emphasis is placed on events ability to enhance the regeneration process.
P	Have you noticed an increase in surrounding boroughs and privately organised events that are in competition with your own?	Ascertaining competition is an established marketing strategy device *Matson, (1994).*
Q	How do you feel about the public sectors ability to produce events that have strategised agendas?	Is the new Corporate Management public sector able to produce events that

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From: Joany Grima [mailto:Joany.Grima@weltec.ac.nz]
Sent: 03 September 2014 22:30
To: Wood, Emma
Subject: RE: Local Government Events Research Project

Hi Emma

Hope you had a great holiday!

Just a quick reminder re this request.

Happy Thursday

Joany

From: Wood, Emma [E.Wood@leedsmet.ac.uk]
Sent: Friday, 1 August 2014 11:05 PM
To: Joany Grima
Subject: RE: Local Government Events Research Project

Can you remind me in September please Joany. In holiday mode now!

Emma

From: Joany Grima [Joany.Grima@weltec.ac.nz]
Sent: 01 August 2014 12:02
To: Wood, Emma
Subject: RE: Local Government Events Research Project

Hi Emma

September's fine. Thanks very much!

Joany

To: Joany Grima
Subject: RE: Local Government Events Research Project

Hi Joany
I'll try and dig them out for you although it may be September when I'm back in my office. Will that be too late?
Kind regards

Emma

Dr E H Wood
Reader
International Centre for Events, Tourism and Hospitality Research
Carnegie Faculty
Leeds Metropolitan University
Headingley
Leeds LS6 3QS
Tel: 0113 8123963

From: Joany Grima [Joany.Grima@weltec.ac.nz]
Sent: 01 August 2014 00:25
To: Wood, Emma
Cc: craig.pugh@firstprotocol.com
Subject: Local Government Events Research Project

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I look forward to hearing from you.

Best regards

Joany

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School of Hospitality
Te Kūmete nui o te Manaakitanga

123

Appendix F

Low risk notification

MASSEY UNIVERSITY
TE KUNENGA KI PŪREHUROA

19 February 2015

Joany Grima
1483 Akatarawa Road
RD 2
UPPER HUTT 5372

Dear Joany

Re: A Tale of Two Cities: Local Government, Community Events and Social Capital Building

Thank you for your Low Risk Notification which was received on 9 February 2015.

Your project has been recorded on the Low Risk Database which is reported in the Annual Report of the Massey University Human Ethics Committees.

You are reminded that staff researchers and supervisors are fully responsible for ensuring that the information in the low risk notification has met the requirements and guidelines for submission of a low risk notification.

The low risk notification for this project is valid for a maximum of three years.

Please notify me if situations subsequently occur which cause you to reconsider your initial ethical analysis that it is safe to proceed without approval by one of the University's Human Ethics Committees.

Please note that travel undertaken by students must be approved by the supervisor and the relevant Pro Vice-Chancellor and be in accordance with the Policy and Procedures for Course-Related Student Travel Overseas. In addition, the supervisor must advise the University's Insurance Officer.

A reminder to include the following statement on all public documents:

"This project has been evaluated by peer review and judged to be low risk. Consequently, it has not been reviewed by one of the University's Human Ethics Committees. The researcher(s) named above are responsible for the ethical conduct of this research.

If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research that you wish to raise with someone other than the researcher(s), please contact Dr Brian Finch, Director (Research Ethics), telephone 06 356 9099, extn 84459, e-mail humanethics@massey.ac.nz".

Please note that if a sponsoring organisation, funding authority or a journal in which you wish to publish requires evidence of committee approval (with an approval number), you will have to provide a full application to one of the University's Human Ethics Committees. You should also note that such an approval can only be provided prior to the commencement of the research.

Yours sincerely

Brian T Finch (Dr)
**Chair, Human Ethics Chairs' Committee and
Director (Research Ethics)**

cc   Dr Mimi Hodis   Prof Shiv Ganesh, HoS
        School of Communication, Journalism and   School of Communication, Journalism and
        Marketing   Marketing
        Wellington   **Albany**

**Massey University Human Ethics Committee
Accredited by the Health Research Council**

Research Ethics Office, Research and Enterprise

Massey University, Private Bag 11222, Palmerston North 4442, New Zealand T 06 3505573; 06 3505575 F 06 350 5622
E humanethics@massey.ac.nz; animalethics@massey.ac.nz; gtc@massey.ac.nz www.massey.ac.nz

Appendix G

Table 1

Comparison of two neighbouring councils' approach to community events

Aspect / element	Council A	Council B
Inclusion of events in long term plan	√	√
Strategic events plan (current)	X	√
Event management guidelines	X*	√**
Contestable events fund	√	√
Council employed dedicated event staff	√	√
Online event management resources	X	√
Online event promotion tools	√	√
Event management advice	√	√
Core annual events portfolio (council staged)	√	√
Resources available for event organisers:		
Venues	√	√
Equipment	√	√
Road closure advice	√	√
Networking events for event organisers	X	X***
Training sessions for event organisers	X	X***
Awareness of social capital building	√	√
Awareness of event impacts	√	√
Regional council event networking forum participation	Unknown	√
Developing new or existing event infrastructure	√	√
Annual portfolio of events	√	√

Note. *Refers queries to guidelines from another council authority
**Drafted, not public ***Plans to commence in 2016