

Abstract

As tourism is one of the fastest growing industries today, thus within the tourism industry events are getting more and more important. People have become more interested in events of all kinds, and will travel far away to participate in events that they find interesting. Events can offer various economical and social benefits for destinations, and therefore destination managers can and should employ events effectively in a tourism role.

It has become widely accepted that every community and destination needs to adopt a long-term, strategic approach to event tourism thereby planning and development in order to realise the full tourism potential of events. This study was launched as a response to the lack of studies on how event tourism strategies are actually used in destinations. The study was directed to four Nordic tourism organisations, and the aim was to explore how these organisations work strategically with events.

The main findings of the study indicate that although tourism organisations have increasingly realised the potential and importance of events, the extent to which events are used strategically in tourism organisations varies. Some tourism organisations have integrated events deep into their overall tourism strategies, and events form their own business area and have their own business strategy. In other cases events are included in the overall tourism strategies, however, the work with events is rather haphazard and other business areas are prioritised.

At the end of the study a model that describes how event tourism strategy development in tourism organisations can be seen to follow certain stages is developed. In relation to the model, the study suggests that the stage to which tourism organisations have come in relation to strategic event tourism management depends on factors such as the ownership structure and resource base of tourism organisations, city involvement in relation to events, and the capacity and events infrastructure of destinations.

Keywords: Events, Strategy, Tourism Organisations, Event Tourism Strategy

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1 INTRODUCTION

This introductory chapter will provide the background for the rest of the thesis. First, a general background for the study is discussed, followed by three sections that present the problem area of the study. Thereafter the problem and purpose of the study will be defined as well as the scope and limitations discussed. To conclude the chapter a definition of an important concept that will be used through out the thesis will be presented.

1.1 GENERAL BACKGROUND

Competition between places for economic development is fierce, and during recent years globalisation has greatly intensified the pace (Kotler et al., 1993). At the same time tourism, the world's fastest growing industry, has become a vital strategy for urban regeneration, and today forms a significant component of cities' economic base (Fainstein & Gladstone, 1999). Cities have many economic and societal benefits to be gained from tourism. According to Roche (1992, in Ooi, 2001) tourism can rejuvenate a physical area, help improve infrastructure and environmental quality as well as enhance leisure facilities for residents. Furthermore, tourism also employs a large numbers of workers thereby creating high tax revenues. Most importantly, however, tourism is a significant revenue generator due to its strong multiplier effects. It is argued that cities that do not compete for tourist expenditure stand a good chance of loosing out in the increasingly competitive global environment (Fainstein & Gladstone, 1999).

Today cities are seen as major tourist destinations or at least as having the potential to becoming one. In order to attract tourists and their expenditure cities compete with each other regionally, nationally and internationally. (Holcomb, 1999) Moreover, new tourism destinations are constantly emerging and marketing themselves as uniquely wonderful places to visit. As a result today's tourists have an ever-greater range of possible destination choices to choose between and to be able to draw people; cities must convey something seemingly out of the ordinary. According to Costa (2001) in the end only a small number of properly managed and developed tourism destinations will be able to compete and prosper.

1.2 DESTINATION TOURISM STRATEGY

As tourism has become a major source of employment, revenue, international awareness and opportunity for cities, the efficiency of tourism management in cities becomes increasingly important (Wöber et al., 2003). In other words, every city wanting to become a tourist destination needs a strategy that seeks to optimize the benefits to be gained from tourism. According to Laws et al. (2002) destination tourism management has during past years developed from early *ad hoc*, opportunistic and entrepreneurial responses into a more proactive decision-making. Destination managers have become more and more interested in their product and market portfolios and more strategic approaches have become increasingly common.

Cities that want to stay competitive need to adopt strategic planning in relation to their tourism planning. Van den Berg et al. (1995) point out how the conquering of a position on the tourist consumer market is a long-term process, and therefore a long-term strategy is needed. According to Getz (1997) strategic planning in destinations is:

“...a future oriented process that seeks to attain the set goals through the formulation and implementation of broad, long term strategies.” (p. 93)

A strategy, in turn, is the integrated set of policies intended to achieve the vision and goals of the destination (Getz, 1997). In destination tourism management strategic decisions include regarding the type of business to be in, segments to be attracted and the type of products to be developed for the market (Moutinho, 2000). Nevertheless, once the city attraction to tourists is achieved it should never be taken for granted. Van den Berg et al. (1995) stress that the destination tourism strategies need continuous monitoring and adjustment. Innovativeness should play a key role, especially in relation to the quality of the cities' tourist product.

According to Dieke and Karamustafa (2000) the overall competitiveness of a destination is related to many factors, not least being the tourist product. Moutinho (2000) similarly stresses that in order to stay ahead of the

competition proactive destination marketing managers need to be constantly involved in tourist product innovation. Van der Berg et al. (1995) in turn point out how tourism development contributes to the social and economic health of a city only if the city has a range of easily accessible and highly competitive tourist products to attract enough visitors. According to Dieke and Karamustafa (2000) the destinations' tourist product can be seen to consist of three components, usually of 3As: *access*, which is the mode of transport to the destination chosen by the tourist, and determined by the time and the cost to reach the destination; *attractions*, which underpin the choice of the tourist to visit one destination rather than another; and *amenities*, which are the facilities available at the destination visited. This study will focus on the second A, namely attractions, and more closely on how destinations use events as tourist products.

1.3 EVENT TOURISM

People have become more and more interested in events of all kinds and will travel far away to participate in events that they find interesting. According to Getz (1997) these people form their own tourism market segment - event tourism. Event tourism as a market segment consists of those people who travel to attend events, or who can be motivated to attend events while away from home.

As tourism is one of the fastest growing industries today, within the tourism industry events are getting more and more important (Erfurt & Johnsen, 2003). According to Getz (1997) events have during the last decade become an important means for communities and tourist regions to gain advantage and meet a variety of economic, social and environmental goals. Due to the increased competitiveness among tourist destinations, the pursuit and development of events has become big business (Getz, 2004b).

Another definition of event tourism by Getz (2004a) is:

“a destination and marketing strategy to realize all the potential economic benefits of events.” (p. 11)

These benefits are various, and perhaps the most obvious economic impact stems from the roles events play in attracting visitors to an area to which they would not otherwise travel (Getz, 2004a). According to Bohlin (1996, in Mossberg, 2000) events can also generate travel to a destination afterwards, and in this sense create value in selling other products that a destination has on offer. Moreover, many destinations suffer from seasonality problems meaning that tourist flows are very concentrated into relatively short periods of the year (Moutinho, 2000). Events can play an important role in overcoming these problems and drawing tourists into destinations during off-season periods.

Furthermore, events can have the effect of shaping the image of the host community leading to a more favourable perception as a potential travel destination. A more positive image is believed to have an effect, e.g., on industrial investment, and can ultimately improve the well-being of the local population in many different ways. (Mossberg, 2000) Moreover, events, and especially mega events, have important roles as catalysts in stimulating infrastructure, business and trade, and urban renewal (Getz, 1997). For many destinations events can also provide extensive public attention through extensive media coverage (Erfurt & Johsen, 2003).

Finally, the social and cultural effects that events bring along should not be underestimated. Events serve a very important social purpose and provide both the local people and tourists experiences out of ordinary life (Getz, 1997). According to Richie (1984, in Getz, 1997) the socio-cultural benefits of events for host communities include a possible increase in activities associated with the event (e.g. arts) and strengthening of regional values and traditions.

Putting all the benefits of events together it becomes evident that destinations have a great potential in events. Accordingly, destination managers can and should employ events effectively in a tourism role (Getz, 1997).

1.4 EVENT TOURISM STRATEGY

Getz (1997) points out how every community and destination should formulate and implement event tourism strategies in order to reach their full tourism potential. The author continues to describe how event tourism strategies should always be integrated with the overall tourism strategies of destinations.

Event tourism strategies help destinations plan how to use events in a tourism role, set event tourism goals and find out the possible ways to achieve the goals in a long-term perspective. Event tourism strategies would further lead to continuity in the development of the event industry and help maximise the possible positive benefits that events can bring to destinations. Getz (1997) describes how destination specific event tourism strategies should be developed for capitalising on the destination's strengths, and correcting the weaknesses, as well as for realising opportunities and avoiding or minimising threats. Moreover, according to Getz individual events and event organisations in destinations would benefit greatly from the assistance and cooperation achieved by overall destination strategies and policies.

Moutinho (2000) describes how the tourism industry mainly consists of private firms and small businesses across a broad spectrum of sectors including accommodation, transport and attractions. At the same time it is widely acknowledged that the public sector plays a major role in the successful development of tourism in a particular destination. According to Moutinho public sector intervention is needed to guarantee that all the associated tourism benefits, both economic and social, are maximised and any potential problems minimised. (Moutinho, 2000) This is also very true in the case of events. When an event is held in a destination many different types of businesses and organisations, both private and public, are involved. The private sector (e.g. event organisers, hotels and restaurants) is more interested in short-term gains, and how much each individual event can contribute to their businesses. Public sector, on the other hand, has an important role in ensuring that a strategic and long-term approach to event tourism is taken. In other words, in order to maximise the benefits and minimise the problems related to event tourism public intervention is

needed. Important public actors in relation to destination tourism and event tourism strategies are tourism organisations.

1.4.1 Tourism Organisations

Tourism organisations are established at different spatial levels from local to international forming a hierarchy of networks that are influenced by broader environmental factors like the socio-political context and the characteristics of tourism in the country in question (Pearce, 1996). Wöber et al. (2003) point out how decision-making in tourism development and planning is most critical at the local level, especially in relation to urban areas. Urban areas have become increasingly aware of the potential of tourism in creating employment and stimulating economy and wealth, and as a result the authors point out how the efficiency of management in cities' tourism organisations has become more and more important.

According to Getz et al. (1998) city tourism organisations are usually formed to promote or manage a whole destination, which makes their task much more challenging than any one sector, or business can handle. These organisations can take many different forms ranging from entirely private or public to partnerships between the two, and according to Pearce (1996) there is no single best type of tourist organisation rather each country, region or city must evolve a system that best reflects its local, regional and national conditions.

City tourism organisations are known to play diverse roles and take different responsibilities in the field of tourism. According to Wöber et al. (2003) city tourism organisations perform a variety of different tasks that include managing and providing destinations with attractions, managing and planning infrastructure which tourism depends on, coordinating between tourist products and facilitating tourism promotion and marketing research. Morrison et al. (1998) in turn point out how city tourism organisations offer various and different functions in response to diverse demands from tourists and the tourism industry, thereby representing both buyers and sellers. Other main functions for city tourism organisations include the development of an

image to position the city in the market place as an attractive destination, coordination of the work of private and public sector, and providing leadership for the whole tourism industry (Gartnell, 1994, in Getz et al., 1998).

Based on the above described responsibilities and roles of the city tourism organisations it seems only natural that the responsibility of the formulation of an event tourism strategy belongs to these organisations. This study will focus on the event tourism strategies of destinations and more closely on how destination tourism organisations work with events strategically.

1.5 PROBLEM DEFINITION AND PURPOSE

Despite a widespread acceptance of event-based strategies as an approach to destination development and marketing (Mossberg, 2000) and the various benefits that events can contribute to destinations, event tourism strategies have received little attention within the tourism literature and research. Although the number of studies of events has increased in recent years, few studies have focused on destination event tourism strategies *per se*. When events have been studied the focus of research has often been on the impacts of events on the host destination. An exception of this is, however, the work of Professor Donald Getz. Getz has successfully investigated the value that events have from a tourism perspective, and his research on events and event tourism has worked as a great inspiration source for the authors.

Thus, despite a growing importance of events in the marketing efforts of destinations, there is little understanding of how destinations form and take advantage of event tourism strategies. Although many destinations today have realised that they can use events as a means for achieving different kinds of economic and tourism goals, the use of events often lacks a strategic approach. The authors believe it is clearly important to understand and learn in more detail how strategically destinations actually work with events.

As was described in the previous section, tourism organisations have a significant role in the formulation of both general tourism strategies, and event tourism strategies, and the authors have therefore chosen to focus their study on these organisations. In more detail, the authors are interested to explore how tourism organisations use events strategically in a tourism role

Hence, the main problem for this study is:

How do tourism organisations work strategically with events?

In order to solve the main problem three research questions have been formulated:

Research question 1:

What is the role of events in the overall strategies of tourism organisations?

Research question 2:

To what extent, and how, are event tourism strategies used in tourism organisations?

Research question 3:

How do tourism organisations work with events in practise?

The purpose of this study is simply to get an understanding of how tourism organisations work strategically with events. Given the lack of previous studies on event tourism strategies, the study is both appropriate and timely,

as the authors focus on describing and analysing the event tourism strategies of tourism organisations. By investigating these strategies the authors hope to contribute to a better understanding of how events are utilised in event tourism, and destination marketing purposes, as well as increase the knowledge and professionalism of event tourism management.

1.6 SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS

Event tourism strategies can be studied from different perspectives. Although the theories on event tourism and event tourism strategies usually take the perspective of the destination in this study, the authors have chosen to study event tourism strategies only from the point of view of the tourism organisations, i.e., how do the chosen tourism organisations work strategically with events. To instead study event tourism strategies from the perspective of the destination rather than that of tourism organisations, would have multiplied the number of organisations needed to study, and therefore been out of the time limit of this study.

In order to fulfil our purpose, and answer the research questions this study will concentrate on four case destinations, Helsinki, Stockholm, Copenhagen, and Göteborg, and their tourism organisations. The chosen tourism organisations all operate in Nordic countries, since the authors are generally interested in finding out how events are used strategically in a tourism role in the neighbouring countries. The intention is, however, not to make any conclusions based on the fact that the destinations are Nordic.

Moreover, the range of events is enormous, and this study deliberately excludes meetings and conventions and other events that have to do with business tourism. In other words, the focus of this study will be on leisure tourism and events that attract leisure tourists into destinations. Furthermore, private events will be excluded from the study.

1.7 DEFINITIONS

The concept of destination will be frequently used in this study. A *destination* can denote many different things ranging from countries to regions and cities. In this study, however, the concept of destination will be applied to the city in which the tourism organisation operates. As the authors see it, the chosen tourism organisations work to promote their cities as tourism destinations. Therefore also the authors find it natural to call these cities destinations.

2 METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this methodology chapter is to describe and explain how the authors have proceeded in order to fulfil the purpose and solve the research problems of the study. In each section a theoretical definition and explanation is given, followed by the authors' own choice of methodology and justification for it. Firstly, the research approach for the study is discussed as it forms the basis for the rest of the decisions concerning the research method. Thereafter follows a discussion of research design, data gathering and research evaluation.

2.1 RESEARCH APPROACH

Explorative studies are used to generate basic knowledge and understanding of a problem area. An explorative study is often used as a prestudy in order to chart the factors that underlie a later research or to give ideas and guidance to different courses of action. In explorative studies the researcher's aim is to learn as much as possible of the problem area so that a fruitful analysis can be conducted. (Lekvall & Wahlbin, 2001)

In this study the aim is to get an understanding of how tourism organisations work strategically with events. In other words, the authors seek to explore the ways in which these organisations work with events to be able to analyse and draw conclusions. The authors find an explorative approach most appropriate for the study, since event tourism strategies are a new area of research and not much has been written about the topic. Hence, the purpose of this study is to generate knowledge and a better understanding of the strategic work of tourism organisations in relation to event tourism. After charting the most interesting factors in relation to the event tourism strategies of tourism organisations, the results of this study can then be used as a basis for future research on the subject.

Although the main research approach of the study is explorative, also descriptive and explanatory approaches are apparent along the way.

Descriptive research aims at describing the investigated phenomenon (Kinnear & Taylor, 1996) and this approach characterises the empirical part of the study in which the authors describe the findings of the fieldwork. Explanatory studies in turn explain and aim to find correlations between different factors (Lekvall & Wahlbin, 2001). In this study an explanatory approach is partly used in the analysis part where the authors try to find reasons for, and draw conclusions about, why the chosen tourism organisations work with events as they do.

2.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

According to Christensen et al. (2001) the research design of a study is defined by the research problems at hand. Yin (1994) in turn describes how a research design is the plan that the researcher has to guide the whole process of collecting, analysing and interpreting observations.

According to Lekvall and Wahlbin (2001) case studies are directed to detailed and often deep going descriptions of individual cases, and the goal is to find the underlying patterns and reasons for a certain phenomena. Furthermore, case study design is appropriate for certain exploratory studies in which the aim to get a detailed understanding of different processes, and in which it is hard to know beforehand what is important and less important to study. Therefore, in exploratory case studies the researcher tries to establish a close relation to the cases so that he or she can go back to complement the collected data and go deeper into the most interesting topics. (Lekvall & Wahlbin, 1999) According to Yin (1994) case studies are preferred when research searches for answers to questions like how and why a phenomenon occurs. Yin continues to describe how case studies provide an in-depth exploration of an organisation and its context thereby giving an explanatory and interpretative perspective to the situation of the organisation in question.

This study is an explorative case study in which the authors, with the help of four cases, try to get an understanding of how tourism

organisations use events strategically in a tourism role. With the help of a case study design the authors get an opportunity to explore the chosen cases in-depth and get a detailed understanding of the problem area. In this study the case study design is actually a prerequisite for conducting successful research. Since event tourism strategies are a rather new area of research, and it is hard to find theories on the subject, it is difficult to know beforehand what to study. An exploratory case design gives the authors the opportunity to go back to the cases after the first contact and gather more information about the most important topics.

When conducting a case study the researcher can choose between a single and multiple case design. The difference between the two is the number of cases used when trying to solve the research problems. The advantage of multiple case designs is that the results of them are more robust and compelling. Single case study design in turn is most useful when the case represents the critical test of an existing and well-formulated theory or when the case represents a rare or unique event. (Yin, 1994)

Since the focus is on studying how tourism organisations work strategically with events it is not enough for the authors to study only one tourism organisation. Moreover, single case study design is not appropriate since the aim is not to test any theories, neither do the chosen tourism organisations represent rare or unique cases. Hence, the research design for this study is an explorative case study with multiple case design.

2.2.1 Research Procedure

When conducting a case study, the researcher can choose between different types of research procedures. The research literature usually makes a distinction between three different research procedures: induction, deduction and abduction. The choice between the approaches depends on the reasoning of the research.

In inductive approach the researcher formulates a theory directly from the reality. In other words, after finding a relation between a number of individual cases the researcher claims that the relation can be generalised and theories based on the empirical findings can be build. In deductive approach, on the other hand, the researcher has to prove and come up with conclusions from existing theories. The researcher normally studies literature and theories on a specific subject and then applies them into the research problem. The abductive conclusion method is a combination of inductive and deductive approach. In this approach the researcher has the empirical data as a starting point, however, he or she does not leave out theoretical idea. The theoretical conceptions are not mechanically applied to all the cases but work more as an inspiration source in order to detect patterns that generate understanding. The abductive approach implies that the researcher tries to extend the existing theory and alters between the empirical and theoretical level. (Alvesson & Sköldbberg, 1994)

This study started with a deductive approach as the authors first studied the existing theories on events and strategy in general, and based on them, developed the research questions and the theoretical framework for the study. The reasoning from the beginning was that the first research questions and theoretical framework was only to work as a guideline to what would be taken up in the interviews. Based on results of the interviews, the authors then returned to the research questions and theoretical framework and revised them according to the empirical findings. This was done due to the fact that event tourism strategies are not a very common area of study, and there are only a few general theories. The fairly open-structured interviews helped the authors gain more information, better understanding and new perspectives on how tourism organisations actually work with events. This phase of the research can be characterised as inductive as the empirical findings helped redefine the theoretical framework and precise the research questions. In other words, this study is based on the abductive method as the authors went back and forth between the theoretical and empirical level and used both deductive and inductive approaches.

2.3 RESEARCH METHOD

When conducting a research study, the researcher can choose between a quantitative and qualitative research method. The quantitative data collection method relies on data that are quantifiable, and a prerequisite for this method is that the studied phenomenon is fairly well-known (Kinnear & Taylor, 1996). The logic behind qualitative data collection method, on the other hand, is to describe and develop a deeper understanding of a phenomenon. The method goes in-depth and is also characterised by words and text. The qualitative data research method is always influenced by the respondent's motivation, beliefs and attitudes as well as by the researcher's subjective ability to understand and interpret the qualitative data material. (Christensen et al., 2001) According to Silverman (2001) the four major methods used by qualitative researchers are observation, textual analysis, interviews and transcripts. Qualitative interview studies usually have a small number of samples.

Since the studied phenomenon is not very well-known and the goal is to develop a better understanding of how tourism organisations strategically work with events, the qualitative research method was found most appropriate. Furthermore, the qualitative method that was considered most suitable for the research was interviews. The authors were convinced that interviewing would be the best method to get reliable and up-to-date information needed to develop an understanding of the studied phenomenon. In addition, in order to compliment the data collected from the interviews a lot of written material received directly from the tourism organisations, or their homepages was studied and analysed.

2.4 DATA GATHERING

The data collection process is a very important step in the research process not least due to the large proportion of error possibilities in the research results and the time and money spent (Kinnear & Taylor, 1996). The data collection process for this study includes the aspects of data

source, case selection procedure, interview method and measuring instrument.

2.4.1 Data Sources

When conducting a research study there are two main sources of data: primary and secondary. Primary data are collected specifically for the research at hand and the most common data collection methods are surveys and interviews. The greatest advance of primary data is its relevance, while negative aspects include time and monetary costs connected to the data collection process. Secondary data, on the other hand, are already published data that has been originally collected for other purposes. The greatest benefits of secondary data are the savings in costs and time, while disadvantages include to what extent the information is relevant, current, accurate and impartially collected. Secondary data is divided into two categories. Internal data originates within the organisation, while external data come from outside the organisation. (Kinnear & Taylor, 1996)

This research is based on both primary and secondary data. The primary data for this study consist of the findings of the interviews that were conducted with the representatives of the chosen four tourism organisations. Additional primary data consist of the telephone discussions and e-mail inquiries that were made after the interviews in order to get more information to the most important problem areas. The internal secondary data that has been used during the study consists of annual reports, presentation material received from the tourism organisations and information retrieved from the home pages of the organisations. The external secondary data that has been used includes an extensive amount of literature that was used to build up the theoretical framework. The reason for why primary data was to a great extent combined with different forms of secondary data, especially internal, was to increase the accuracy of the final conclusions.

2.4.2 Case Selection Procedure

Although the subject for the study was quite clear from the early phases of the research, the selection of cases proved to be a more challenging task. When selecting the cases for this study the authors thought more in terms of destinations than tourism organisations. In other words, the tourism organisations to be studied were selected more based on the destinations in which they operate rather than the characteristics of the organisations. After a lot of discussions the authors decided upon a Nordic approach. The next step was to decide, which Nordic destinations to include in the study.

Originally the ambition was to choose five Nordic destinations and their tourism organisations. This goal in mind the authors contacted the tourism organisations of Helsinki, Stockholm, Copenhagen, Göteborg and Oslo of which the first four agreed to help us in our study. Unfortunately, Oslo Promotion did not show an interest in the research, and therefore the authors had to leave out the organisation. Hence, the following case tourism organisations are part of the study (abbreviations used in empirical and analysis parts in parenthesis):

- Helsinki Tourism and Convention Bureau (HTCB)
- Stockholm Visitors Board (SVB)
- Wonderful Copenhagen (WoCo)
- Göteborg & Co (Gbg&Co)

2.4.3 Interview Method

The four most common ways of interviewing people are mail interview, telephone interview, personal interview, and interview via the Internet. Each one of the interview methods has its own strengths and weaknesses and which one or ones to choose depends on the specific needs of the research. (Lekvall & Wahlbin, 2001) In this study both personal and e-mail interviews were used depending on the wishes of the person to be interviewed. The personal interviews were conducted at the

offices of the interviewees, and a tape recorder was used to make sure that no information would go missing. To complete the taped material, notes were also taken during the interviews. Some days before the interviews an interview guide was sent out to all the respondents so that they got an opportunity to become familiar with the nature and framework of the study.

When choosing which persons to interview the authors had as criteria that the person in question should have a good insight into the subject of the study and also possess the most factual data possible. Hence, the goal was to interview persons who would have a lot of information about the tourism organisation in general and the work with events in particular. The intention from the beginning was to get two interviews from each tourism organisation. During the first contact with three of the chosen tourism organisations the authors were promised interviews with two different persons. Unfortunately, in two of the cases, due to different reasons that will be discussed in Section 2.5.1, the authors only ended up getting one interview. In total five interviews were conducted. The following persons have been interviewed:

Personal interviews:

- Becker Tuulikki, Deputy Tourist Director, Helsinki Tourist & Convention Bureau
- Bender Martin, Director, Wonderful Copenhagen/Copenhagen Eventures
- Vallentin Christensen Lars, Project Manager, Wonderful Copenhagen/Copenhagen Eventures
- Limnefelt Mats, Marketing Director, Stockholm Visitors Board

E-mail interview:

- Brusberg Therese, Coordinator, Göteborg & Co/Events Collaboration

After the interviews in many of the cases the authors felt that they needed to complement the already collected information. Therefore, some the interviewees were contacted again via e-mail or telephone. In addition, in the case of Wonderful Copenhagen the authors contacted one more person, Peter Hansen (the Senior Director of the Centre of Strategy and Communication unit at WoCo) via e-mail and sent him some parts of the interview guide. He was able to provide the authors with more information about WoCo in general, which the authors felt that they lacked.

2.4.4 Measuring Instrument

When studying a phenomenon the researcher has the possibility to conduct either a structured or an unstructured interview. A structured interview has beforehand-formulated questions, exact defined answering alternatives and detailed instructions for coding. An unstructured interview, on the other hand, is about the researcher and respondent together discussing a subject, making earlier planning difficult. Often in an unstructured interview the researcher follows an interview guide that takes up wide problem areas and more precise questions. (Lekvall & Wahlbin, 2001) Denzer (1970, in Silverman, 1993) points out how using open-ended questions instead of pre-scheduled standardised interviews allows respondents to use their own, unique ways of defining the world. Furthermore, open-ended questions give the respondents an opportunity to take up important issues that were not part of the measuring instrument, and to change the sequence of question if needed.

In this study fairly unstructured interviews were used. The interview guide (see Appendix 1) that was prepared for the interviews is fairly unstructured, and the purpose of it was to work as a guide taking up a

wide set of topics that would then be discussed further. In general the interviews were designed in a way that the interviewees were free to bring up other issues they felt interesting for the study, and the authors had an opportunity to ask additional and follow-up questions. Hence, the measuring instrument for this study is characterised by a relatively unstructured interview guide with open-ended questions.

2.5 RESEARCH EVALUATION

For a study to be valuable, and of high quality, it has to be evaluated. In this section the possible sources of errors are discussed as well as the concepts of validity and reliability.

2.5.1 Possible Sources of Errors

There is always a risk for errors in the different phases of a research. Because these errors can have a significant impact on the results of the study, it is of great importance to identify and try to eliminate them. Although the aim has been to keep the error sources at a minimum level in this study, the research is not free from error sources.

The authors feel that in the research the main source of error is the number of interviews that were conducted. Although the aim was to get two interviews from each tourism organisation, this only happened in one of the cases (WoCo). This problem, as the authors see it, has to do with the types of persons (busy professionals in important positions) that the authors wanted to interview. In Stockholm the plan was also to talk to the Director of Stockholm Visitors Board, and in Helsinki to the Marketing Manager of Helsinki Tourism and Convention Bureau. However, when arriving at the place the authors were told that these persons were busy with other more important matters, and therefore could not give interviews. Furthermore, in the case of Göteborg & Co the ambition was to get an interview from the Director of the Event Unit of the organisation. The authors were, however, informed that he

does not have time to give any interviews, but that he could help us through Therese Brusberg, who the authors then got to interview via e-mail. The fact that the authors did not get a chance to talk with the above mentioned persons naturally lowers the quality of the empirical data. Nevertheless, the authors have tried to overcome this problem by conducting an extensive secondary data research in order to compliment the primary data collected.

An additional error source in relation to the persons that were interviewed is, the fact, that in one of the cases the interviewed person did not possess the kind of in-depth information in relation to the use of events the authors were searching for. In Stockholm the Director of the Leisure Tourism Unit was interviewed, and originally his work has little to do with events. However, since there were no persons working with events more closely in the organisation at the time of the interview, the authors feel that he was able to provide all the information that was available in the organisation at that moment. Moreover, this error source is also minimised by the fact that during the interview the authors were also informed about the thoughts of the Director of the organisation in relation to the subject of our study. After conducting the interview the authors also sent the information they gathered from this interview back to the organisation for proofreading in order to correct any misunderstandings.

Furthermore, the goal was to tape all the interviews in order not to miss out on any valuable information. Unfortunately, during one interview the quality of the tape was very bad and this influenced the amount of information that could be retrieved from the interview. However, the fact that all three of the authors had taken notes during the interview significantly reduced the source of error in this case.

2.5.2 Research Validity

Validity can be defined as the ability of the measuring instrument to measure what is meant to be measured. Firstly, validity is all about

trustworthiness, i.e. how well the research and its results are in accordance with the reality. This dimension of validity is often called the inner validity. Secondly, validity concerns the grade of generalisation, which is often defined as the outer validity of a research. In qualitative researches the inner validity is to a high degree dependent on how systematic the data collection and analysis have been in addition to how openly the progress of the research is presented. (Christensen et al., 2001) According to Yin (1994) internal validity is all about having the right focus when conducting a research.

The inner validity is a prerequisite for outer validity. In qualitative research the degree of generalisation does not mean statistical representativeness, but rather to what degree the results are transmittable to other cases. The outer validity increases if the researcher can appoint to which degree and within what boundaries the results are applicable to non-researched units. (Christensen et al., 2001) In addition to the two above-described forms of validity, Yin (1994) talks about construct validity. Construct validity indicates how well the researchers have developed the correct operational measures for the concept that is studied.

Starting from the construct validity of this study, the authors believe that the set of operational measures this case study uses are well in place. When forming the operational measures for the study a great amount of time was spent on conducting an extensive literature research. The findings of the literature were then compared and contrasted and the most relevant theories for the study chosen and developed. Therefore, the authors argue that the construct validity for this study is fulfilled.

Pertaining to the inner validity of this study, the theoretical framework of this research is based on secondary data that have been carefully chosen and applied. The measuring instrument for the study (the interview guide) is based on the theoretical framework, and therefore the authors argue that the study has a right focus and that the inner validity from this aspect is high. The facts that the authors only conducted five interviews, and the interviewed persons in some cases could not provide,

the authors with complete answers decreases the inner validity of this research. The authors have, however, tried to overcome these problems by using an extensive amount of internal secondary data. Moreover, the trustworthiness of the study further increases as the authors have very openly presented the progress of the research.

Concerning the outer validity of this study, the results are not statistically representative and neither was that the purpose. The aim has been to explore how tourism organisations work with events strategically, and not to draw general conclusions about how tourism organisations work. However, the authors believe that the results are to some extent transmittable to other tourism organisations, since this research gives indications of important and interesting aspects concerning how tourism organisations work with events. The authors, however, feel that due to the explorative nature of this study it would be necessary to conduct other, more extensive studies testing the conclusions of this research.

2.5.3 Research Reliability

Reliability is all about to what degree the research result is the same if the research is conducted in an identical way. If the same or almost the same results are gotten every time, the measuring instrument has high reliability. (Lekvall & Wahlbin, 2001) With qualitative data the concept of reliability becomes problematic, since reliability is closely connected to the consistency or the ability of the measuring instrument to lead to same result if the research is repeated. Qualitative data is generated through interaction between people in a specific context and due to changing reality it is impossible to collect identical data. (Christensen et al., 2001) According to Silverman (2001) in qualitative studies authenticity rather than reliability should be at the focus. In qualitative studies the goal is to get an authentic understanding of people's experiences, and this is best achieved by asking open-ended questions.

Since this research is based on qualitative data the concept of reliability becomes problematic. The ways in which the case tourism organisations

work with event are constantly evolving. Consequently, if this research was to be repeated using the same measuring instrument, the authors would not get identical results due to changing reality. Nevertheless, the authors feel that the authenticity of the research increases as open-ended questions were asked during the interviews.

3 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

The third and fourth chapter will discuss the theories and concepts that form the theoretical framework of the study. The aim of this third chapter is to give the reader an overview to events and strategy; the two subjects that form the heart of the study. After the reader has got a general understanding of events and their characteristics as well as strategic thinking at different levels, the fourth chapter will proceed into event tourism strategies and practical ways in which tourism organisations can work with events.

3.1 INTRODUCTION TO EVENTS

If one starts to think about it, our lives are full of events. According to Getz (2004a) all kinds of planned events have been an essential part of civilisation for thousands of years. Shone and Barry (2004) similarly describe how in Europe routine activities have been regularly enlightened by different kinds of carnivals and festivals throughout the history. Hence, events have a vast history, and Getz (2004a) even argues that events are a fundamental and essential human experience that are both rooted in culture and at the same time help define civilisation. Hall (1992) similarly describes how events are things out of the everyday life that punctuate, mark, and identify collective and social realities.

Events have achieved an important role in society's daily life (Shone & Parry, 2004) and according to Getz (1997) events today form one of the most exciting and fastest growing forms of leisure, business, and tourism related phenomena. Getz points out how events have a special appeal to people that stems from the limited duration and uniqueness of each event, making events very different to permanent institutions and attractions. The special appeal of events also originates from the celebratory and festive atmosphere of many events that offer people experiences out of the ordinary life.

The event industry is very diverse (Shone & Parry, 2004) and has in recent years surged ahead in terms of the number and size of events,

their economic, cultural and social significance, and media coverage (Getz, 2004a). Just the range of events is enormous covering everything from big internationally organised sport spectacles to smaller family ceremonies such as weddings (Shone & Parry, 2004).

3.1.1 Definition of an Event

When conducting a study about events a definition of an event is in place. Encyclopaedia Britannica gives several definitions for an event and according to it an event can denote something that happens, a noteworthy happening or a social occasion or activity. Furthermore, an event can also stand for any of the contests in a program of sports. (www.britannica.com, 041019)

Many definitions for an event can also be found in the literature on events and they all seem to revolve around two basic characteristics, i.e. the uniqueness and limited duration of events. According to Mossberg (2000) an event is a special activity out of the ordinary daily life. Mossberg describes how events are held regularly, or only once, and how they range from small to big ones with either a strong or weak image. Furthermore, events are usually attended as audience or participants with others, often together with family or friends. Getz (1997), on the other hand, defines events as either planned or unplanned temporary occurrences. According to Getz events are limited in time and planned, and the length is usually fixed and publicised. Getz defines an event as:

“...a unique blending of its duration, setting, management, and people.”
(1997, p. 4)

The definitions of events by the two authors above are both appropriate. However, in this study a more specific definition of events is preferable. Since this study is concerned about event tourism strategies of tourism organisations, criteria such as public access, formal organisational arrangements, frequency and tourism significance have to be taken into account in the definition.

Hence, an event in this study is:

- An one time or recurring event of limited duration that is held no more often than once a year,
- has a program, an organising body, a number of participants and is open to public,
- apart from inherent objectives (for example sport, culture, religion) is created primarily to increase the attractiveness, appeal and profitability of the host destination as a tourist destination (Mossberg, 2000),
- and draws national and international leisure tourists

The above definition, and thereby this study, excludes gatherings like board meetings and conferences, theatre performances and concerts in the ordinary program as well as recurring competitions like football and ice hockey matches in the national league. Furthermore, only public events are included.

3.1.2 Categorising Events

It is not enough to just give a definition for events, but the ways in which events can be categorised is also important. When categorising events a distinction is often made between special events, mega events, media events and hallmark events.

It is hard to come up with a standardised definition for a *special event*, since it is always a matter of perspective if an event is exceptional or special (Getz, 1997). According to Getz (2004a) the term special event has two meanings. Firstly, a special event is one time or frequently occurring event outside the normal program or activities of the sponsoring or organising body. Secondly, to the customer or guest a special event is an opportunity for leisure, social or cultural experience outside the normal activity of daily life. Shone and Parry (2004) similarly define special events as non-routine occasions apart from the normal activity of daily life, having leisure, cultural, personal or organisational

objectives, with the purpose of celebration, entertainment or challenge the experience of a group of people.

According to Jago and Shaw (1998) special events used in tourism sense can be divided into three categories: minor events, festivals and major events. Minor special events are annual or one-off events, including historical, musical and cultural events as well as dance performances (Van der Wagen, 2001). Festivals, in turn, are special events that are public, themed celebrations and related to the celebration of social values (Jago & Shaw, 1998). Major special events, on the other hand, are according to Jago and Shaw large scale special events with high status that attract a large crowd and wide media attention. In the categorization of events by Jago and Shaw major events are further divided into two categories: mega events and hallmark events.

Getz (1997) defines *mega events* as events that yield enormous amounts of tourists, media coverage, prestige, or economic impact for the host community or destination. According to Jago and Shaw (1998) mega events are one-time major events that are generally on an international scale. Hall (1992), on the other hand, describes mega events as events that are targeted at the international tourism market and are mega by the virtue of their size in terms of for example attendance, target market, level of public financial involvement, political effects, extent of media coverage and construction of facilities. Although some events do not necessarily attract a large number of visitors, they can still gain massive media coverage. An event that is created mainly for broadcast audiences rather than spectators is called a *media event*. Such media events can have a positive influence on destination image-making. (Getz, 2004a).

According to the definition by Ritchie (1984, in Getz, 1997) a *hallmark event* is a major one-time or recurring event within a limited period of time. Hallmark events are created mainly to increase the awareness, appeal and profitability of tourism destinations in the short or/and long term. The success of a hallmark event relies on its uniqueness, status or timely importance to enhance interest or attract attention. Jago and Shaw (1998) similarly define a hallmark event as a seldom occurring major

event that is connected to a specific place whereby the destination and the event become synonymous. Getz (1997) points out how increasingly every destination needs one or more hallmark events to create high levels of media exposure and positive images that help create competitive advantage.

Typology of Events

The variety of events is amazing, and therefore any event classification is bound to be incomplete (Getz, 2004a). However, Getz (1997) has made an attempt to sort out all different types of planned events into categories, making a difference between those that are in the public domain and those that are of private interest.

In the typology by Getz (2004a) (see below Figure 3.1) planned events are divided into seven different categories and these categories can be found in almost every culture and community. *Cultural celebrations* include festivals, carnivals, parades, religious events and heritage commemorations. *Arts and entertainment* events are usually concerts, exhibits and award ceremonies. *Business and trade* covers a broad range of events from meetings, conferences, publicity events to fairs and tradeshows. *Sport competitions* are divided according to amateur and professional participants. *Educational and scientific events* consist of, for example, seminars and workshops, while *recreational events* include such as sport games (rather than formal competitions) and non-profit amusements. *Political and state occasions* cover visits by important people, political rallies and conventions, and finally, *private events* denote all the events that are held for individuals, families and social groups.

CULTURAL CELEBRATIONS - Festivals - Carnivals - Religious events - Parades - Heritage Commemorations	SPORT COMPETITIONS - Professional - Amateur	PRIVATE EVENTS Personal Celebrations - Anniversaries - Family holidays - Rites de passage Social events - Parties, galas - Reunions
	EDUCATIONAL AND SCIENTIFIC - Seminars, Workshops, Clinics - Congresses - Interpretive events	
	RECREATIONAL - Games and Sports for fun - Amusement events	
ART / ENTERTAINMENT - Concerts - Other performances - Exhibitions - Award ceremonies	POLITICAL / STATE - Inaugurations - Investitures - VIP visits - Rallies	
BUSINESS / TRADE - Fairs, Markets, Sales - Consumer and Trade Shows - Expositions - Meetings and Conferences - Publicity events - Fund-raiser events		

Figure 3.1 A Typology of Planned Events (Getz, 1997, p. 7)

Any of the above described events can be considered as special events, however, hallmark and mega events can only be applied to public events. For this study only the events in the public domain will be of interest. Moreover, according to the earlier event definition only those events in the other six categories that have a leisure tourism value will be of interest.

Event Classification for Tourism

Events can also be categorised according to their tourism appeal. Getz (2004b) divides events into three different groups in relation to their tourism attractiveness. *Community festivals and events* are produced primary for local residents and often produced and managed by volunteers.

Although these events are often small, and have limited tourism appeal, they still can function as valuable activity opportunities for visitors in the area. *Events of regional and provincial significance* have existing tourist drawing power. These events may not possess the goal or capacity to grow bigger, however, with assistance some might do so. Usually events in this group will have a professional staff. *Events of national and international significance* are the most appealing events from a tourism point of view and also likely to be the largest. These events have both national and international tourist drawing power and with some help they may be able to further improve their reputation and tourist appeal.

3.2 INTRODUCTION TO STRATEGY

Some of the big successful companies of today will not be around in 20 or 30 year's time, and this is mainly due to the increasingly turbulent environment in which the companies operate today. The rate of change in the environment is high and many companies fail to adapt to the challenges brought by these changes. (Luffman et al., 1996)

The success or failure for a company very often dates back to the strategy or the lack of it. In today's dynamically complex world decision-making in companies based only on intuitive judgement is more likely to be wrong than right and the result is often a tragic record of business failure (Warren, 2002). According to Phillips and Moutinho (1998) companies can secure themselves a healthy competitive position only if formulating appropriate strategies that can be implemented in the marketplace.

3.2.1 The Concept of Strategy

After five decades of intensive strategy research there still is no singular definition of the concept of strategy. There are number of schools and movements related to the topic and they all have their own view on what strategy is and how it should be formulated. (Phillips & Moutinho, 1998)

Mintzberg and Lampel (1999) have studied the evolution of strategy and come up to ten different schools of strategy formation. In their article the authors conclude that instead of studying more closely how all these schools see strategy and developing new theories on strategy formation, the focus of research should be directed more to how strategy formation really works in practise. Although it makes sense to look at the strategy formation in practise, a definition of strategy is still needed in order to understand the background of this study.

As was already described there are a number of different definitions for *strategy*. According to an early definition by Learned et al. (1965, in Luffman et al., 1996) strategy is:

“...*the pattern of objectives, purposes, or goals, stated in such a way as to define what business the company is in or is to be in and the kind of company it is or is to be.*” (p. 6)

Quinn (1980, in Teare et al., 1998), on the other hand, defines strategy as a pattern or plan that integrates an organisation’s major goals, policies and action sequences into a cohesive whole. Cleland (1999) similarly defines a strategy as a plan of action with accompanying policies providing general direction of how resources will be used to accomplish goals and objectives. Mintzberg (1994) describes strategy as a plan, as a direction, guide and course of action into the future, while according to Porter (1995) strategy is not just a broad vision, but a specific composition of activities that a company adopts compared to its competitors.

Strategies are also apparent at different levels in organisations. Botten and McManus (1999) make a distinction between corporate strategy, business strategy and functional strategy. A *corporate strategy* comprises the whole portfolio of business units and defines in which industries the multi business organisation competes. A *business strategy* in turn specifies the strategy for a singly business unit and how the business units should compete in the given industry. Finally, a *functional strategy* is a strategy to

maximise resource productivity within the limits of the two other strategies.

3.2.2 Strategic Planning

Strategic planning is at the heart of a company's performance. According to Botten and McManus (1999) strategic planning aims at the formulation of a company's strategy, and it should involve decisions about the company's desired future scope, classification of the company's competitive advantage, a declaration of the purpose, mission, goals and objectives, and a statement of how to allocate the resources needed to implement and accomplish the chosen program. Moutinho (2000) argues that companies that do not practise strategic planning are basically saying that they are not interested in their business and what it is, where it is going and what could be done. According to Moutinho these companies spend most of their time reacting to changes not having time to think about different possibilities and opportunities and how to make them happen.

It is widely assumed that strategic planning provides results in the sense that it assists organisations to perform better (Teare et al., 1998). Atkinson (2004) has listed some benefits of strategic planning. According to the author strategic planning, for example, helps to align with investors, and gives confidence to the market and principal shareholders, creating positive support from financial backers and other financial institutions. Furthermore, according to Atkinson strategic planning ensures that different stakeholders are aware that the business is focused specifically on key areas at the same time giving confidence to customers that the company is further looking to add to customer satisfaction, and is committed to customer needs. In addition, the author points out that strategic planning provides powerful PR for potential partners and customers as well as opens up the analysis of the business, market, competitors and suppliers, and technology. Finally, strategic planning also creates confidence among the staff that the company is committed to development, improvement and continuance.

According to Atkinson (2004) there have always been two opposing views on strategic planning initiated between the two giant thinkers on the subject, Henry Mintzberg and Michael Porter. According to Mintzberg strategy is an evolving process, in which strategies are formulated as a result of learning over a period of time. Porter, on the hand, sees that strategy can be planned with analytical detail following a sequenced set of steps or processes. (Atkinson, 2004) In relation to this Mintzberg and Waters (1985) describe how strategy formation can be seen as two ends of a continuum along which real-world strategies lie. The authors make a difference between deliberate and emergent strategies. *Deliberate strategies* are the intended strategies that are first formulated and then implemented. *Emergent strategies*, on the other hand, are strategies that are realised despite, or in the absence of, intentions. According to Atkinson (2004) the truth for most organisations lies somewhere between these two extremes. Factors such as the specific organisation, its history and politics, its relatively control of market, its relationships with customers, suppliers, staff and pressure groups, and its existing competitors and the actions of potential new entrants all determine what kind of strategic planning is most appropriate.

3.2.3 Strategic Planning for Tourism Organisations

Tourism managers practise in a constantly changing environment, creating a need for effective strategic planning (Phillips & Moutinho, 1998). In other words, before a tourism organisation can do business, and market and plan its tourism products, it needs to first plan its strategy (Moutinho, 2000). Unfortunately, many practitioners within the tourism and hospitality industry see strategic planning as a mysterious and complex process (Phillips & Moutinho, 1998).

According to Moutinho (2000) strategic planning in tourism is complex and new consumer trends, political changes, new technology, environmental concerns and economic integration are just a few of the things that add to its complexity. The author continues to describe how many tourism organisations have plans, but the implementation of these

plans often fails in practise. The author describes how some tourism organisations merely review the previous year's plan and continue with the same plan the coming year, whereas some tourism organisations do not even have a plan. The tourism organisations that are lacking plans or have failed in their planning tend to adopt a reactive approach to tourism strategies only responding to competition and changing environment and thereby never forging their identity with their customers. Haywood (2000), on the other hand, points out how, like in any industry, strategic planning in tourism is meaningless if it is not accepted and implemented at an operational level. Gunn (1994) similarly points out that in order to make the plans of tourism organisations most effective, they should not only be seen as documents but should be integrated with action on a regular basis.

Every destination should make detailed plans for its tourism development. These plans should give focus and direct action to specific project and program development. (Gunn, 1994) According to Moutinho (2000) strategic planning is the development of a long-term plan that best utilises the resources of an organisation according to its mission. The author describes how in tourism organisations strategic planning process consists of a detailed analysis of the organisation and the opportunities and threats that competitors and environmental factors may bring. Strategic decisions, in turn, depend on the focus of the tourism company, the market in which it operates and the tourism product that the company sells. Strategy, in other words, provides direction and generates momentum for the tourism organisation.

4 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

After the introduction to events and strategic thinking this fourth chapter will proceed into theories on event tourism. The first section discusses event tourism strategy and includes the aspects of strategic planning in event tourism, general event tourism strategies and event tourism policy. The following five sections will introduce the reader to five different topics that are all related to how tourism organisations can work strategically with event tourism in practise. The topics are portfolio of events, coordination of events, event stakeholder management, marketing of events and events as destination image makers. There are a number of different ways in which tourism organisations can work with events, and the five topics will help us understand how tourism organisations use events strategically in a tourism role.

4.1 EVENT TOURISM STRATEGY

Individual events and their managers may get by without formulating detailed strategies, however, in the event tourism context the situation is different. According to Getz (1997) every community and destination needs to adopt a long-term, strategic approach to event tourism planning and development if they are to realise the full tourism potential of events. Events held at destinations must be systematically planned, developed and marketed as tourist attractions, catalysts for other development, image builders and animators of attractions and destinations (Getz, 2004b).

4.1.1 Strategic Planning in Event Tourism

According to Getz (1997) strategic planning in event tourism involves many different steps, and the first task is to formulate an event tourism vision to give direction to event tourism strategies. Next, a destination or tourism organisation needs to set up comprehensive event tourism goals that should address several different issues. Event tourism goals should cover, for example, decisions about to what extent existing events are developed and promoted as tourist attractions, and to what extent

support will be given to develop or assist the creation of new events and bidding for events. Furthermore, the goals should address the roles events are to play in creating and enhancing images and the need for organisational development at the level of interest groups, communities, destination areas, and government agencies to support event tourism. After defining the event tourism goals each destination should according to Getz develop specific, measurable objectives for each goal that state how the goal is to be implemented.

After the formulation of event tourism vision, goals and objectives the destination should undertake a resource and supply appraisal. Resources are the potential that a destination possesses, while supply defines the existing infrastructure of the tourism industry. A resource analysis includes the assessment of all the human, financial, physical, political and technological factors that can be used in developing and marketing event tourism in the destination. Supply analysis, on the other hand, is an inventory about the nature and size of the event industry in the destination. In addition to resource and supply appraisal, destinations should also conduct a SWOT analysis consisting of a summary of the destination's strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats in relation to event tourism. (Getz, 1997)

The above described resource, supply and SWOT analysis should help a destination identify what it does best in the events sector. Event tourism strategies should stress the core competencies of the destinations, "what do we do best"? Furthermore, each destination has restrictions to what kind of events it can host in relation to for example its venues and accommodation capacity. The capacity is also related to the concept of fit. Even if a destination might be able to host a particular event, it also has to consider if the event fits the destination's capabilities, strengths and weaknesses and the needs of the events or the potential impacts of the events. (Getz, 1997)

The above described strategic planning process for event tourism should lead to more specific event tourism strategies for a destination.

4.1.2 Generic Event Tourism Strategies

Getz (1997) has defined some generic event tourism strategies with the help of literature on strategy. A destination can use elements of these strategies as they find appropriate.

Firstly, events can be used as *core attractions* around which a destination can develop theming, image building and packaging. This type of strategy is appropriate for towns and cities as well as rural areas lacking major tourism infrastructure. Accordingly, the way in which a destination positions itself is the result of one or more events and the theming that surrounds them. In this strategy it is desirable that a destination possesses one or more hallmark events so that the images of these events and the destination become inseparable and mutually reinforcing. (Getz, 1997)

Using *mega events* as a generic tourism strategy is a suitable strategy for destinations that are striving for awareness and large-scale tourism growth. Hosting a number of mega events during the same year can be effective in attracting attention and increasing visitor numbers. Events such as the Olympics and other major sports events are popular for achieving these goals. Using mega events as a generic tourism strategy is very expensive and governmental involvement is vital. Therefore, the decision to adopt this kind of strategy is likely made at the highest level of government. (Getz, 1997)

Events are also more and more used to feature *theme years* in destinations. In this strategy events are either used as the main focus of the promotion or as added value to the theme year. (Getz, 1997)

Having *a variety in community events* can also be seen as a generic event tourism strategy. Instead of trying to attract and create new and big events this strategy is based on existing and new community events. Furthermore, the strategy builds on authenticity, variety and strong community support to attract and satisfy tourists. The costs of this strategy are minor, however, extra effort will be needed to generate

publicity and involve the tourist industry and to mobilise and facilitate the communities and interest groups to pursue tourism marketing. (Getz, 1997)

Even if events do not form the centre of a destination's portfolio, events can still play an important role as *animators to resorts and attractions*. The added value in this case derives from packaging events within tours, adding events to meetings and conventions, and from enlivening public places. The advantage of this strategy is that it might incidentally generate events with tourism appeal. (Getz, 1997)

Finally, *bidding on events* can also be seen as generic event tourism strategy. Some destinations prefer to attract new and often one-time events with both media appeal and tourism value. A prerequisite for this type of strategy is a large budget and sophisticated marketing activities. The high costs, negative impacts from tourism-oriented events and the perception that residents are not valued as much as tourist may carry the risk of alienating residents. (Getz, 1997)

After a destination has decided upon event tourism strategies and created an appropriate mix or portfolio, the next step is to develop a policy to implement them.

4.1.3 Event Tourism Policy

Once strategies are in place, destinations need a policy formation process to put the strategies into action. It is usually the destinations' tourism organisations that carry the main responsibility of formulating the event-supportive policies. (Getz, 1997)

Getz (1997) has developed a model (see Figure 4.1) that summarizes the functions that a tourism organisation can have in the process of developing the event sector within a destination. According to the model there are four different tangible roles that tourism organisations can adopt and a combination of these roles is likely to be implemented.

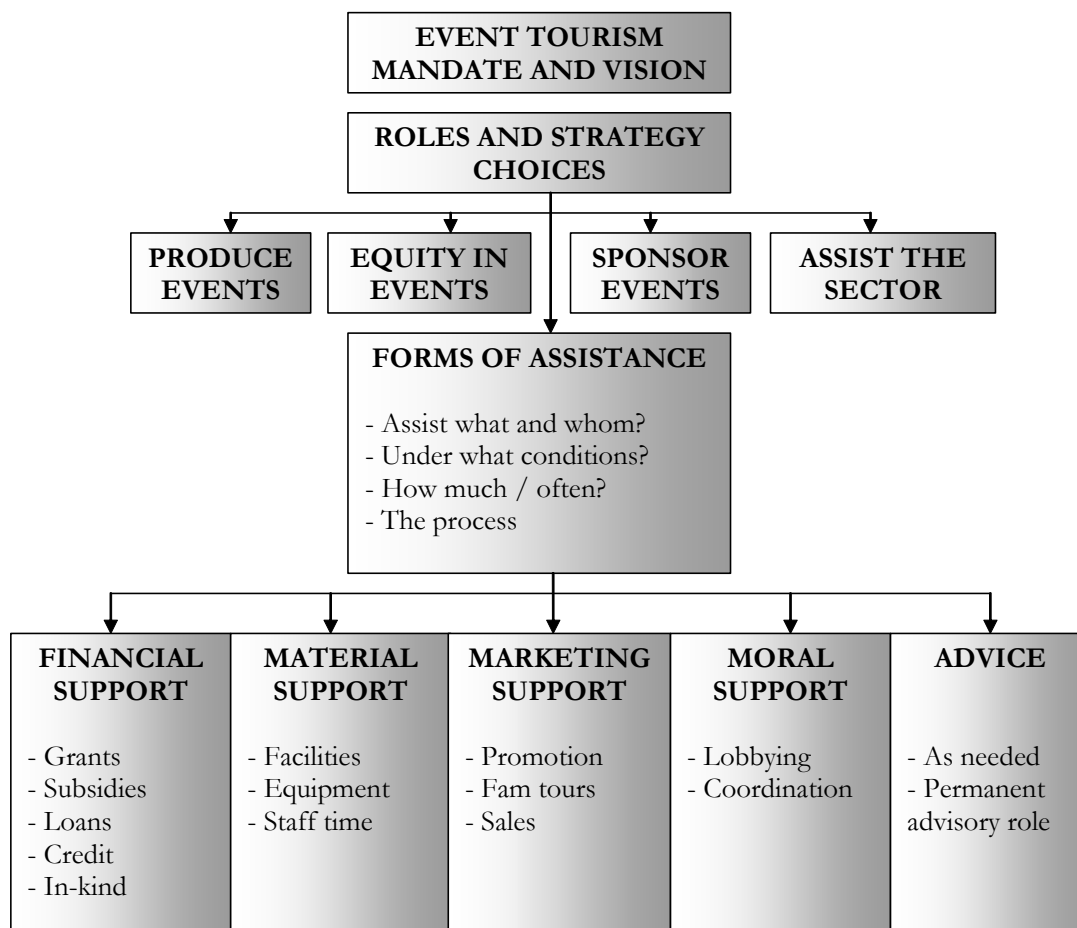


Figure 4.1 Event Tourism Policy Process (Getz, 1997, p. 116)

Firstly, in some destinations municipal agencies and tourism organisations are directly involved in *producing* events. Secondly, a tourism organisation can choose to leave the production and management mostly or entirely to a partner, and still be part of the event as an *equity holder*. This kind of joint venture is common when the tourism organisation or event organisers lack the resources to produce the event on their own. This also demands that the tourism organisation believes that its own goals can still be met without total control. The third way in which a tourism organisation can support events is to choose to act as a *sponsor* and give financial support for the event. Through sponsoring tourism organisations can promote themselves and boost their profile. The fourth role of tourism organisations is to *give*

direct and indirect assistance for the event sector. The assistance can be financial, material, marketing, moral, and advice. (Getz, 1997)

4.2 PORTFOLIO OF EVENTS

Although more and more destinations have come to understand the potential of events in achieving different kinds of economical and tourism goals this is not to say that destinations and tourism organisations use events strategically. Every year a great number of different types of events that attract tourists take place in destinations and many new events are being planned or already on the way. This portfolio of events can be carefully thought out and has a strategy behind. The event offering of a destination can also be an outcome of random and unrelated decisions having little strategic meaning.

4.2.1 Introduction to Portfolio Thinking

A portfolio is a concept that can be used in many different contexts and disciplines. Usually, however, portfolios are connected to investment analysis and the collection of different assets. In its basics portfolio theory analyses how people choose to manage their assets, i.e. what kind of combination of stocks, forwards/bonds, cash and other assets they choose to have in their portfolio (Eklund, 2001). According to Elton et al. (2003) portfolio analysis is about finding the most desirable group of assets, given the properties of each one the assets. According to the authors an important consideration in relation to the properties is the risk of each asset and also how risky the whole combination of different assets is. Nevertheless, the way in which the portfolio is combined may not always be the result of deliberate planning but can also be the result of series of independent and unrelated decisions (Elton et al., 2003).

Although the portfolio theory has its origins in investment analysis, its basic thoughts can be used in many other more or less related fields, for

example in relation to the combination of events that a destination possesses.

4.2.2 Event Tourism Portfolio

The basic idea behind the event tourism portfolio approach is that destinations and tourism organisations should use more strategic thinking in relation to events and their management from a tourism perspective. The content of the portfolio, meaning the types of events that a destination has and their tourism value and demand, should be the result of deliberate and strategic planning rather than haphazard and unrelated decisions. (Getz, 1997)

Getz (1997) defines an event tourism portfolio as a variety of events that a destination offers, each with their own value, cost, market share and profitability. Each type of event forms an asset for a destination and should help meet different event tourism goals. The different types of events also require different resources and planning approaches.

The products that form the basis for business portfolios are usually evaluated based on their market share, demand trends, profitability and costs. However, in relation to event tourism portfolios other goals than profitability are more crucial and somewhat different type of portfolio evaluation is needed. (Getz, 1997) According to Getz (2004b) destinations should develop a portfolio of events by type, season and market appeal yielding specific tourism benefits for the destination. Getz stresses that from a tourism perspective central in the event tourism portfolio is its ability to attract new tourists for the events.

4.2.3 The Triangle Model of Portfolio of Destination Events

According to Getz (1997) events within a destination can be grouped according to two criteria: *demand*, which is measured by trends in the number of tourists attracted, and *value* in meeting other tourism goals

such as media coverage, image enhancement, theme development and sustainability. The author has developed a model to describe the portfolio of destination events and the model (see below Figure 4.2) illustrates how different types of events can have different tourism demand and value.

At the bottom of the triangle are local events with low tourist demand and value. These events are usually small and arranged either periodically or only once. The second group of events in the model are regional events with medium tourist demand and/or value. Like local events regional events can be either periodic or one-time. The third group of events consists of periodic hallmark events with high tourism demand and value. On the top of the triangle are occasional mega events with high tourist demand and value. (Getz, 1997)

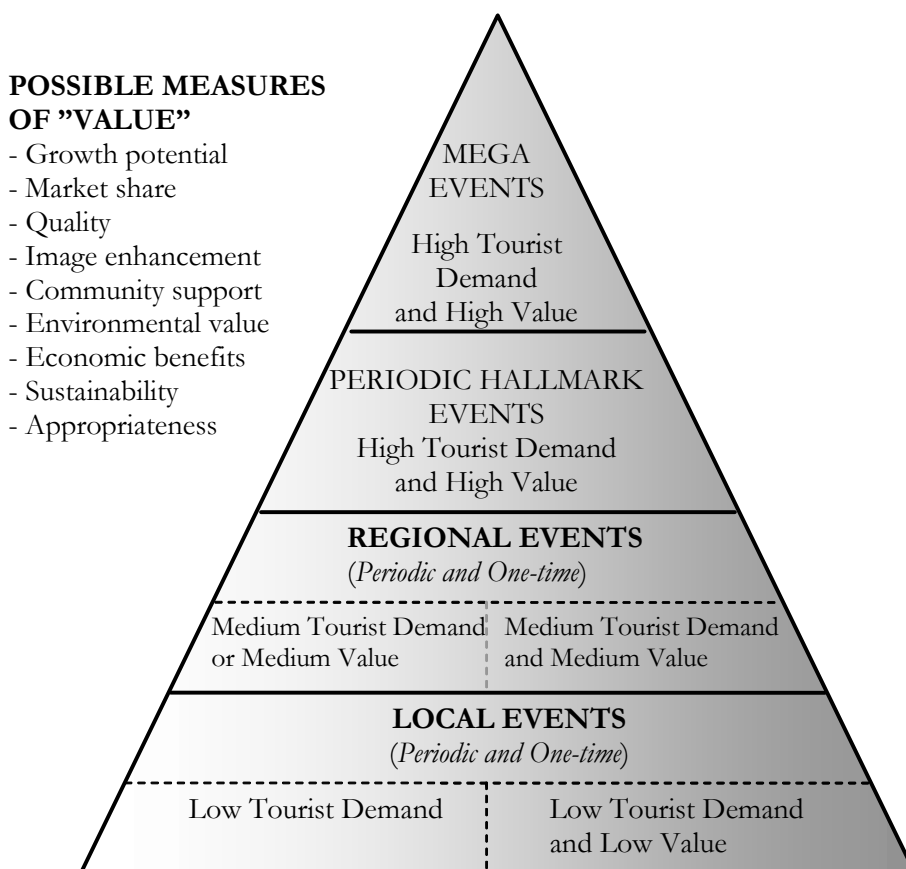


Figure 4.2 Portfolio of Destination Events (Getz, 1997, p. 113)

The event tourism portfolio approach and the model above are shaped by one underlying principle. Almost all events have tourism and community value, but only some of them are capable of generating major tourism demand. Therefore, within any destination a hierarchy of events will be present, with the majority of events having little or no direct tourist attractiveness regardless the type. Hence, the local and regional events on the bottom may not have very significant meaning to the image of a destination, while mega events on the top may attract a lot of tourists and have a great impact on the destination image and attractiveness. (Getz, 1997)

According to Getz (1997) the event tourism portfolio model can be used as both an evaluation and a planning tool. With the help of the model destinations and tourism organisations can evaluate their present event tourism offering and its tourism value. The portfolio model also assists destinations and tourism organisations in planning how to build or improve their portfolio of events in order to maximise its tourism value. Mossberg (2000) points out how there is a risk that tourism organisations, above all, think only of mega events and that smaller events are regarded as having only local or regional significance. Getz (1997) in turn points out how also smaller events are important as they provide authentic, cultural experiences for both the local people and tourists.

Important decisions in relation to event tourism portfolio planning are, for example, what kind of events the destination and tourism organisations should bid on and what kind of criteria should be used as a ground for decisions on what to bid.

4.2.4 Bidding

Tourism organisations are constantly on the lookout for events to bid (Getz, 1997). For a tourism organisation bidding on events is a strategy for attracting new and often one-time events with high media value and tourist draw, and already the bidding process in itself can give a lot of

media attention and thereby increased awareness of the bidding destination. Usually, biddable events tend to be larger events that are offered at a national or international level and it is unlikely that the destination will host the bid event frequently (Getz, 2004b).

According to Getz (2004b) event bidding takes place within a specialized marketplace in which owners control the rights to host an event and bidders compete for the rights. In general bidding is a complex process which involves a great deal of uncertainty about the outcome of the bid (Westerbeek et al., 2002), and many bidders find that they have to try to bid two or three times before succeeding (Getz, 1997). The limited supply of quality events and the increased competition dictate that the majority of potential hosts will be unsuccessful (Emery, 2002). Furthermore, in some cases the bidding process and the actual event have an extensive time gap between them. There may be years between the first bid and the start of the event. (Catherwood & van Kirk, 1992)

Bidding requires a large budget and intelligent marketing, and therefore the decision whether to bid or not for an event should be carefully made (Getz, 1997). When a destination is to bid on an event there are several matters to determine. According to Westerbeek et al. (2002) an event can be operationalised in four different ways. Firstly, the involvement of national and regional government authorities is essential, since they provide the development of policies and infrastructure as well as make resources available. Secondly, the support of domestic and/or international media guarantees exposure and raises awareness of the event and host destination. Thirdly, technical competencies are required, such as technologically advanced facilities, suitable event location and skilled personnel. Finally, a destination needs a broad support from both direct and indirect stakeholders. Overall approval must come from the general public, government, target markets and other business sectors. Strong community support is essential to the bidding process, because so much is invested from the public purse in bidding for and getting an event. (Westerbeek et al., 2002)

4.3 COORDINATION OF EVENTS

As was described in the section above, every destination has a combination or a portfolio of different kinds of events available for tourists. These events produce significant benefits to destinations and often several events are under planning and implementation simultaneously. In such a setting the coordination of all the different events becomes extremely important.

4.3.1 Events as Projects

There is a clear link between the definition of a project and the definition of an event (Getz, 1997; Larson, 2003). Lundin and Söderholm (1995) describe projects as temporary organisations and explain them with the help of four central concepts: time, task, team and transition. Hence, what characterises a temporary organisation or a project is that it has a time constraint, one or limited number of defined tasks and that it is dependent on people and teamwork. Similarly, events are characterised by a specific task that is carried out by a group of people within a limited time frame, where some kind of transformation takes place (Larson, 2003). Hence, an event can be considered as a project.

An extensive amount of similarities exist in the management of events and projects. In fact, the similarities are so many that many of the techniques developed for project management can also be used in the management of events. (Morris, 1994, in Shone & Parry, 2004)

4.3.2 Multiprojects

Today many organisations consist of a continuously changing mix of large and small projects, which create new challenges to the organisational management especially in relation to resource planning, prioritisation and monitoring (Elonen & Artto, 2003). Engwall (1997) calls this context management of the project management, which can

also be described as multiproject management. Elonen and Artto (2003) describe how in a multiproject setting a set of different projects are going on in the organisation at the same time, and they are all competing for the same resources. According to the authors multiproject management then emphasises choosing the right projects, developing shared strategies between them and the organisation, and implementing a long-term view. The objectives of multiproject management are according to Elonen and Artto to maximise the value and balance the project portfolio and link it to the organisation's strategy. Several authors point out how a multiproject setting and management can be the result of a specific strategy (Turner, 2001, Ferns, 1991, Payne, 1995, in Engwall & Jerbrant, 2003). However, Anell (2000, in Engwall & Jerbrant, 2003) stresses that a multiproject setting can also be an unintended result of many different and independent projects with separate goals that are run at the same time.

The multiproject setting and management can be applied to the events taking place in destinations. There is a saying that "no project is an island" (Engwall, 1997) and the same applies to events in a destination. No event takes place in isolation, but each destination and tourism organisation has a combination of different events that are planned and implemented side by side. The different types of events often compete for the same resources or funding and use the same venues and areas and in such a setting the coordination of the events becomes extremely important. According to Watt (1998) coordination is crucial to any successful organisation and management. All organisations need coordinating mechanisms and in general terms coordination comes from having a shared goal and common objectives within an appropriate culture and structure. Everyone within an organisation has to work hard and continually to preserve a unity of purpose.

The unity of purpose and coordination is extremely vital in relation to event tourism strategies of tourism organisations. Without clear and shared event tourism goals and objectives a tourism organisation can never achieve coordination and the synergies between the various events.

4.3.3 Problems and Challenges Related to Multiprojects

There are many problems related to multiproject settings. All these problems can also be related to the management of events for tourism organisations. Payne (1995) has divided the challenges and problems in relation to multiprojects into five categories, the 5 C's.

Capacity in a multiproject management concerns the organisation's ability to provide sufficient and appropriate resources in a multiproject context. The capacity implies that an organisation has to find a balance between requirements of each project and availability of resources. (Payne, 1995)

Conflicts tend to arise in the unbalanced relationships in multiproject environments (Payne, 1995). Conflicts may arise from different interests between different parties (Elonen & Arto, 2003) or because of the competition between different projects (Engwall & Jerbrant 2003). According to Payne (1995) conflicts may involve people issues, systems issues, and organisational issues.

Commitment implies to the commitment of the parties working on, or providing resources to the projects. Normally, the size of the project determines the commitment level of the mother organisation. (Payne, 1995) Engwall and Jerbrant (2003) also discuss project prioritisation implying that projects are prioritised according to their importance for the organisation.

Payne (1995) points out that a major problem related to multiprojects is also their *context*. The various projects within one organisation tend to have a totally independent existence with separate goals and problems. According to Payne the problem is that the various projects still may get some of their resources from a common pool. The independence of different projects also causes overlapping, which means that the same work is done many times in one or several projects (Elonen & Arto, 2003). According to Cooper et al. (2000, in Elonen & Arto, 2003) the decision-making in a multiproject setting may also become a too long

political process. Moreover, Engwall and Jerbrant (2003) point out the inadequate flow of information as a problem in multiproject settings.

Complexity involves the multiple interfaces within the projects and between the different projects, the organisation and other related parties. Complexity also relates to the degree of control in the management of each project, and to how deep integration of the projects is desirable or practical. (Payne, 1995)

The above described problems and challenges are difficult to overcome when managing many different projects within one organisation. The management of the problems and challenges and coordination are also complex when transferred into destinations and their “multievent” setting. Already the huge number of stakeholders that are involved in events and their identification is a major challenge in itself.

4.4 MANAGING EVENT TOURISM STAKEHOLDERS

All events in a destination are embedded in a complex web of people, organisations, resources, partnerships and market conditions. A prerequisite for effective event tourism strategies is that tourism organisations have an understanding of all the different stakeholders and their roles, and that tourism organisations learn to deal with all of them strategically.

4.4.1 Event Management System

No event exists on its own, but is part of a bigger environment where different actors and forces operate. Hence, each event in a destination is a part of a system of interdependent elements where continuous interactions take place (Getz, 1997). Getz and Frisby (1988, in Getz, 1997) call this setting an *event management system*. The authors mean that in such a setting every event management task imposes on others, and event managers have to learn to think and act systematically.

According to Getz (1997) in the event management system each event is both influenced by and has an impact on the community, economy and environment. Furthermore, in the system each individual event is embedded in three different layers of environment: internal environment, community context and general environment. The *internal environment* consists of the organisation and management systems that are needed to realise each individual event. Every event and its management are also influenced by the *community context* meaning the local forces and conditions of the host community. Finally, also the *general environment* consisting of different global forces has an impact on events, event organisations and event tourism. The result is an enormous system of many events and stakeholders related to economy, society, politics and ecology, all having an influence on each other. To try to make sense of the bigger picture is difficult and in order to cope with all the uncertainty and complexity a strategy is needed. One good strategy is to try to build up networks and alliances with tourist industry groups, professional associations, government agencies and other special interest groups. (Getz, 1997) First, however, all the different actors that have a stake in the events taking place in destinations need to be mapped.

4.4.2 Event Stakeholders

Activities within the event industry are very fragmented in nature, because of the huge breadth and range of the businesses that are involved in it. Event industry has little explicit structure to it and includes a broad range of all kinds of organisations and individuals. (Shone & Parry, 2004)

Larson (2002) points out how events are often executed by a coalition of different stakeholders. In the context of events stakeholders are persons, groups of people or organisations that have a personal and compelling interest in the success of the event (Hoyle, 2002). In other words, all the people that have some kind of interest in the event are its stakeholders. All stakeholders have their own agenda for an event as well as strong feelings about their stake in it. Since managers seldom have authority

over any of the stakeholders it becomes a great challenge to effectively manage the stakeholders and gain their help and support. (cf. Young, 1998)

Stakeholder Classification for Events

Stakeholders can be classified in many different ways. Cleland (1999) divides project stakeholders into two groups. Primary stakeholders are closely connected to the project and are part of it, while secondary stakeholders are not directly involved in the project but can have a strong interest in the project and try to influence it. Event stakeholders can also be divided into public and private stakeholders (Shone & Parry, 2004).

A large number of public sector organisations are involved in event management and the related activities for tourism and leisure. Public stakeholders for events are for example the European Union and the national government departments that are responsible for tourism. Furthermore, national and regional tourism organisations as well as national trade associations and industry professional bodies are also important stakeholders for events. Regional or local tourist offices, visitor and convention bureaus and educational institutions are further some examples of public event stakeholders. (Shone & Parry, 2004)

Private event stakeholders are often organisations that package and/or organise the whole event or provide some services for the event organisers. The organisations are normally event management companies, production companies, event catering companies, party planners and professional event organisers, exhibition and theatrical contractors and technical service and multimedia companies. There are also a large number of companies that provide other services that can be hired in, contracted or purchased to an event. (Shone & Parry, 2004) These services include suppliers of event facilities, caterers, transportation companies, speakers, entertainers and security companies (Hoyle, 2002).

In tourism businesses all stakeholders need to be drawn into the decision-making process (Robson, I. & Robson, J., 2000, in Ryan & Page, 2000). The same can also be applied to event tourism. It is important for tourism organisations in relation to event tourism stakeholder management to develop cooperation and coordination among important stakeholders in order to realise the full tourism potential of events.

4.4.3 Networking

Many different actors take part in the organising and marketing of an event and all the actors can be seen to act in a project network (Larson & Wikström, 2001). According to Hellgren and Stjernberg (1995) a project network is:

“...a set of relations where no single actor may act as legitimate authority for the network as a whole, where the network is open in the sense that there are no definite criteria by which the boundary of the network may be identified and controlled, and where the network is temporally limited, dynamically changing and (partially) reconstructed from one project to the next.” (p. 379)

Larson and Wikström (2001) point out that in order to build such a project network some kind of mutual interest is first needed to create a foundation. Once the foundation is in place, it creates an arena for different actors to meet.

Often actors within project networks have different, individual interests and sometimes these interests can be conflicting. This can lead to power usage and tensions between actors and negotiations are needed to solve the conflicts. (Larson & Wikström, 2001) Hellgren and Stjernberg (1995) point out how there is an extreme degree of uncertainty in project networks due to the interdependence among participating organisations. This results in an imbalance, since the relative power of each participant will vary according to how important its contribution is for the project.

The above described ties, and the overall structure of project networks are at the heart of the political perspective to understanding the organising and marketing of events. The perspective focuses on relations between actors within projects, and is especially interested in the different interests, conflicts, distrust and power relations of the actors, and how these affect the development and success of a project. (Larson & Wikström, 2001) According to Larson (2002) the political or conflict approach is very suitable to be used to understand the organising of events, since these usually involve a network of actors with different interests and asymmetric power positions.

Another perspective to understand project networks is the consensus perspective. The basis for the perspective is whether actors have mutual, shared interests or different, opposing interests. Compared to the above described political perspective and its focus on relations between interest, conflict and power this perspective also considers concepts concerning commitment, trust and communication. Consensus perspective advocates mutual interests and commitment, few conflicts, co-operation, trust and conversation/dialogue. (Larson & Wikström, 2001) Consensus is considered to be very important in forming long-term relationships and available strategies are facilitating meetings between different interests and the maintenance of mutual commitment (Larson, 2004). Mutual commitment, where the different actors in the network strive to develop a foundation for shared commitment and action (Larson & Wikström, 2001) is especially important if destinations and tourism organisations are to develop effective event tourism strategies.

4.5 MARKETING OF EVENTS

The events that take place in destinations need to be marketed against the increasing competition of all kinds of other activities and attractions for the consumer's limited time and money (Getz, 1997; Shone & Parry, 2004). The marketing of events is also important for destinations in order to expand their demand, attract new sponsors and supporters, and

create increased media coverage and revenue (Getz, 1997). One of the main goals of all tourism organisations is to attract more visitors to their destinations. Therefore, it would only seem natural that they also engaged themselves actively in the marketing of events held at their destinations.

4.5.1 Transactional Marketing

In recent year the importance of relationship marketing has increased as opposed to the more traditional, transactional view on marketing. In transactional marketing the focus is on attracting new customers, whereas relationship marketing aims at long-term lasting relationships. In the context of events relationship marketing is difficult to apply, since events are not continuous services like banking, but used only occasionally, or just once. The nature of an event is based on attracting new customers and therefore transactional marketing approach becomes more relevant. The potential event visitors make a decision each time about whether to go and which services to use, and therefore promotion and publicity are vital in order to attract visitors to events. There is often a need for intense, short term marketing for upcoming events, and especially in relation to one-time events the management of communication is extremely important in order to achieve early awareness. (Mossberg, 2000)

With marketing actions the event awareness is raised and the possible visitors are converted into definite visitors. However, the breath and range of types of special events make it hard to generalise how to market events. Events have different objectives to fulfil and the target markets might be very different. (Shone & Parry, 2004)

4.5.2 Market Segmentation

An important consideration in relation to event tourism and the individual events is the selection of target groups. Both the event

organisers and tourist authorities have to ask themselves about what type of visitors they prefer. Is the tourist market they want to address local, national or international? Furthermore, are the visitors they want to attract relatively homogeneous for example in terms of age, gender and lifestyle or more niche markets? (Mossberg, 2000) According to Shone and Parry (2004) a destination may have a variety of events in its calendar that are held on a yearly basis attracting different target market groups. The market for events is diverse and changing thereby challenging market segmentation.

When marketing events the marketer will need all the available knowledge about the target market, and also the ability to split it into convenient segments in order to best understand what techniques would make them aware of the event, and attract them to it (Shone & Parry, 2004). Shone and Parry define target market as the people who would come to a particular event. According to the authors target market is not only the people who participate in the event itself in the event location, but also the people who could be watching it on TV, or via the Internet. The authors also point out that knowledge of the target market makes it easier for the event organiser to promote the event to a particular group, as well as to know what kind of activities it would enjoy, or what publicity material it might respond to.

The limitation of the target market is also important. The larger the event is the more diverse range of people the event is to attract, and therefore more comprehensive market segmentation might be needed. This concerns also the catchment area, the area where your visitors are coming from - the more important the event the larger the catchment area (e.g. in the case of city festival or World Championships in Athletics). (Shone & Parry, 2004)

4.5.3 Packaging Events

The marketing of an event might not always be enough to attract visitors, since an individual needs more than just the event at the

destination. According to Mossberg (2000) events can be seen as packages.

There are several reasons to why destinations should package events. According to Getz (1997) event packages attract tourists by maximising convenience and adding perceived value. Event packages also tend to reach the higher yielding target segments. Furthermore, event packages can generate additional revenue and important cash flow and give an opportunity to develop partnerships with the industry (especially hotels and restaurants) and sponsors. According to Getz events can be packaged in two different ways. Firstly, events can act as the core attraction to which accommodation, other attractions, dining, shopping and tours are added. Secondly, events can function as an added value to other tours or meetings. Mossberg (2000) points out how event packages make the event more tangible and thereby also simplify the buying decision for a potential visitor much easier. According to Mossberg author event packages are visual metaphors of what is offered and should be designed to communicate a certain image.

4.6 EVENTS AS DESTINATION IMAGE MAKERS

In order to market their destinations tourism organisations need to have knowledge about the destination image of tourists (Jensen & Korneliussen, 2002). Several studies have noted that image is a critical component in the destination selection process (Hunt 1975, Ahmed 1991 and Crompton 1992, in Mossberg, 2001) and should therefore have a crucial role in the marketing strategies of destinations.

4.6.1 The Concept of Image

An image is a concept that is hard to understand. It has both vague and shifting meanings and used in a variety of contexts and disciplines, thereby creating different meanings. The definition for tourist

destination image that is most commonly cited is that by Crompton (1979, in Jenkins, 1999):

“...the sum of beliefs, ideas and impressions that a person has of a destination.” (p. 18)

Many authors have also defined tourism image of a destination as the mental portrayal of a destination (Alhemoud & Armstrong, 1996; Kotler, et al., 1993, in Erfurt et al., 2003).

According to Jenkins (1999) destination marketers are interested in tourist destination images mainly due to their relation to consumer decision-making process and sales of tourist products and services. The image of a destination is a crucial factor in a tourist's destination choice process (Jenkins, 1999) and according to Mercer (1971, in Mossberg, 2000) the initial image formation stage is the most important phase in the buying process when selection a destination. Only the destinations the individual is aware of will be considered in the destination selection process and this awareness implies an image of the destination (Mossberg, 2000). Furthermore, according to Fakey and Crompton (1991) only destinations with positive images can be expected to prosper, while those with less favourable images may never achieve their fullest tourism potential.

Appropriate images can create a meaningful position for the destination in the minds of the public as being a place that is different from other destinations. According to Laws et al. (2002) the development and implementation of an appropriate image should be a strategic process and every destination should select specific feature which to focus on. The selection includes two steps: (1) identifying the destination's special advantages or attributes and (2) understanding how to entice those visitors that the destination wishes to attract. According to Kelly and Nankervis (2001) the purposeful creation and projection of a desired destination image has to do with product positioning. According to the authors product positioning aims at communicating the different

competencies of a visitor destination that include any unique features or attributes that differentiate a destination from its competitors.

4.6.2 Events and Destination Image

There are several strategies available for putting the city on the tourist's mental map and one of these is the staging of events (Holcomb, 1999, in Judd & Fainstein, 1999). Events, especially mega events like the Olympic Games, are often claimed to be image builders (Mossberg, 2000) and play an important role in helping destinations to build unique destination images and differentiate themselves from their competitors.

According to Dann (1971, in Getz 1997) events play the role of an animator, making the destination seem more warm and friendly. Events can also play many other roles in creating a destination image and use should be a generic strategy for destinations (Getz, 1997). According to Getz events can for example manifest intangible heritage, cultural or environmental themes and bring them to life for both visitors and residents. Developing a hallmark event also meets many image making objectives, especially in creating and reinforcing a destination theme. Furthermore, since many tourists prefer something new every vacation, destinations can use the “new and improved” technique featuring events. Events can also create a sense of urgency. Tourists might have a positive image of a destination already, but it is one of many choices so why should they visit it now?

Erfurt and Johnsen (2003) recent research on how hosting an event influences the image of a destination revealed that events do affect a destination's image. The study showed that especially the destination image of travellers who lived close to the destination was influenced. Furthermore, the results showed that the image of travellers who had previous experience with the destination was less affected. In their conclusions Erfurt and Johnsen state that it is extremely important to carefully choose events for a destination, since each event can always have both positive and negative effects on a destination's image. Jago et

al. (2003) similarly point out how a good strategic and cultural fit with the destination is a prerequisite for making use of an event in the destination marketing strategy.

5 EMPIRICAL DATA

This fifth chapter will present the empirical findings regarding the four case tourism organisations. The empirical data presented in this chapter mostly originate from the conducted interviews. However, to compliment the data retrieved from the interviews some written material related to the chosen organisations is also used. In order to facilitate the reading of this chapter the authors have chosen to first present a short introduction to each tourism organisation. Thereafter the structure will to a great extent follow the theoretical framework of the study.

5.1 INTRODUCTION TO CASES

In order to provide the reader an introduction to the four case tourism organisations, below the background, business idea, and tasks of each organisation will be shortly presented

5.1.1 Helsinki Tourist & Convention Bureau

The principal role of Helsinki Tourist & Convention Bureau (HTCB) is to market Helsinki as a tourist, congress and event destination nationally and internationally through a operation with different organisations within the tourism industry. The organisation provides travelling information for both the tourists and local people as well as publishes marketing and information material and runs web pages. HTCB is also responsible for evaluating and promoting the development of tourism in Helsinki through statistics and research. (www.hel.fi, 041115; Helsinki Tourism & Convention Bureau, 2003) Furthermore, HTCB tries to emphasise the tourism perspective in the operations of the city as well as supports different events that take place in Helsinki. (Helsinki Tourism & Convention Bureau, 2004) HTCB was founded in 1963 and is part of the Helsinki City Bureau, and thereby 100 per cent owned by the city (Becker, 041012).

The vision of HTCBB is to:

“...be a powering engine for the tourism industry in the Helsinki region, and to contribute to its controlled and sustainable growth. Through its information and marketing services as well as other operations, the office aims at improving the networking and development within the tourism industry.” (own translation, Helsinki Tourism & Convention Bureau, 2003, p. 6)

Hence, the goals of HTCBB include to promote the development and cooperation of the tourism industry, and to strengthen the overall appeal of the city. (www.hel.fi, 041005; Helsinki Tourism & Convention Bureau, 2003) HTCBB is divided into four different departments: Tourist Information, Marketing unit, Convention unit, and Communications and other supporting units. (Helsinki Tourism & Convention Bureau, 2004)

5.1.2 Stockholm Visitors Board

Stockholm Visitors Board (SVB) is responsible for providing general information about Stockholm as a tourist destination. The organisation is also in charge of the general marketing of Stockholm and the Stockholm region. Moreover, through the cooperation with different industries specifically directed projects are launched in order to strengthen marketing in different areas. SVB has successively acquired an increasingly established and well-defined role as a leader of the development of the travel and tourist industry in the Stockholm region being responsible for the overall strategy and profile. (www.stockholmtown.se, 041014)

SVB is a relatively young company that was established in January in 2002 when it took over the responsibility of marketing Stockholm and the Stockholm region from the foundation Stockholm Information Service. (Stockholm Visitors Board, 2002) SVB is a corporation formed and owned by the City of Stockholm and a fully owned daughter company of Stadshus AB (www.stockholmtown.com, 041014).

The vision of SVB goes as the following:

“Stockholm shall be the centre of the visitor industry within the area of the Baltic Sea. Stockholm shall be one of Europe’s ten forefront cities in terms of growth within the visitor industry.” (own translation, www.stockholmtown.com, 041014)

The business idea of the organisation is:

“... to increase the number of international and national visitors within the chosen segments by offering them an attractive array of products and easy accessibility, in close cooperation with companies within the visitor industry, to which SVB shall be a professional and attractive partner that stands for knowledge, collective marketing and development of the region of Stockholm.” (own translation, www.stockholmtown.com, 041014)

In order to realise its vision and work according to its business idea SVB has formulated a strategy that is based on fulfilling several different tasks. The most obvious tasks for SVB are, according to Limnefelt (041015), to increase the number of visitors coming to Stockholm and the Stockholm region, and to market and profile the capital region. Moreover, the organisation also aims at improving the tourism services in general. Significant part of SVB’s work is also to take actively part in product development that is needed to attract more tourists. One more task for SVB is to promote the collaboration between different parties within the travel and tourism industry (Limnefelt, 041014). On the homepage and in the Annual Report 2003 of the organisation tasks such as providing different types of services to the mass media and conducting various investigations and analyses are also mentioned (www.stockholmtown, 041014; Stockholm Visitors Board, 2003).

An investigation called the Future Programme was made by the Swedish government a couple of years ago concerning tourism and how to work with it. In the investigation many different parties were involved and the conclusion was that within tourism three areas should be of major

concern: leisure tourism, business tourism and events. When SVB was then formed the results of this investigation was used as guidance. Since August 2004 SVB has had four different departments: Team Leisure Tourism, Team Business Tourism, Team Tourist Services, and Team Events Services. (Limnefelt, 041014) SVB also has a Media Centre and IT-department that provide support for the whole organisation (www.stockholmtown.com, 041014).

5.1.3 Wonderful Copenhagen

Wonderful Copenhagen (WoCo) is the official tourist organisation of the Greater Copenhagen area that consists of five counties: the City of Copenhagen, the Municipality of Fredriksberg, the County of Copenhagen, Fredriksbergs County and Roskilde County. Today WoCo is dealing with all aspects of Copenhagen as a tourist and travel destination. The organisation markets and promotes Copenhagen as a travel destination, provides brochures and information about the destination, develops tourism products and deals with public relations. Strategic planning and collecting statistics are also part of the organisation's work. (www.woco.dk, 041114)

WoCo has its roots back in 1887 when Copenhagen's first tourist organisation was established and it was founded in cooperation between public and private parties in Copenhagen (www.woco.dk, 041114). Still today public partners such as the state and regional authorities fund approximately 40 percent of the organisation's activities, while the resting 60 percent of the funding comes from private companies within the tourist sector. (Bender, 041102)

The mission of WoCo goes as the following:

“Tourism is to contribute to growth, creation of jobs and creation of international networks in the region.” (www.woco.dk, 041114)

The vision of the organisation is:

“The greater Copenhagen area is to be one of Europe’s most attractive and dynamic city regions for both leisure and business travellers.” (Wonderful Copenhagen, 2004)

WoCo builds its business strategy on its mission and vision, and aims to create results with the help four key “drivers”: international visibility, accessibility, attraction, and knowledge and innovation. Through *international visibility* WoCo is able to compete with all the other big cities in Europe. Visibility is achieved through press announcements, media visits, advertising, fairs and workshops, brochures as well as direct mail. *Accessibility* in turn is needed to generate business to Copenhagen, and it is achieved by securing transport to the capital region and providing a web portal and tourist information services. *Attraction* denotes the ways in which WoCo tries to make Copenhagen more appealing for tourists by offering attractive events, architecture, shopping, fashion and experience products. This is achieved through, for example, bidding of international congresses and events, and the development of existing events. Through the last driver *knowledge and innovation*, WoCo wants to ensure that the city has a unique experience offering. This requires a constant evaluation of the existing products as well as learning and innovating in order to develop new ones. (Wonderful Copenhagen, 2003)

WoCo is divided into three different centres: Administration Centre, Centre of Sales & Marketing, and Centre of Strategy & Communication. The Centre of Strategy & Communication includes Copenhagen Eventures, which is the event department of WoCo. (www.woco.dk, 041114)

5.1.4 Göteborg & Co

Göteborg & Co (Gbg&Co) is an organisation that has as a task to market and take part in the development of Göteborg as a tourist,

meeting and event destination. The organisation also aims to market and promote the region's possibilities and potential within the business and trade industry. In principal Gbg&Co is focused on increasing the quality of life for the people who live and work in Göteborg. (Göteborg & Co, 2003)

Gbg&Co was established in 1991 (Brusberg, 041124) and is 50 per cent owned by Göteborg & Co Kommunintressent (50%). The other half is owned by the Association of Local Authorities in the Göteborg Region (15%), the West Sweden Chamber of Commerce (5%), the Swedish Exhibition & Congress Centre Foundation (5%), Stena Line (5%), Storhotellgruppen in Göteborg (5%), Cityföreningen (5%), Föreningen Göteborgshotellen (5%), and the Swedish Hotels and Restaurants Association/Göteborg Restaurants Association (5%). Kommunintressent is in turn owned by Göteborgs Kommunala Förvaltning (55%), Liseberg (15%) and Got Event (15%). All the shareholders and principals of Göteborg & Co have entered into long-term cooperation agreements in order to develop, market and increase the awareness of Göteborg and the region. (Göteborg & Co, 2003)

The vision of Gbg&Co for Göteborg is:

“...to be a preferred choice among cities in Europe by being one of Europe's most pleasant and attractive urban regions to visit and in which to live and work.” (Göteborg & Co, 2003, p. 2)

According to Brusberg (041124) the vision is achieved through active cooperation between colleagues and competitors in other cities in relation to marketing, quality and the ability to create total solutions for customers. Accordingly, the business concept of the organisation is:

“...to be a leading platform for co-operation on destination development in an international context.” (Göteborg & Co, 2003, p. 2)

The vision and business concept of Gbg&Co are put into practice by constantly developing the co-operational skills of the organisation.

Gbg&Co firmly believes that professional co-operation is a unique competitive tool that enables the city to hold on to various markets against larger destinations with greater resources. (Göteborg & Co, 2004)

Gbg&Co is divided into three business areas, all of which have their own tasks. The Business Travel unit aims to attract and develop trade fairs, congresses, conferences and business meetings. The Private Travel unit in turn has a task of marketing, packaging and selling Göteborg as a destination. Finally, the Events Collaboration unit is focused on working with events. Gbg&Co also has a Trade & Industry Group, which is a concept and support division. In addition, the organisation has four separate support functions that include departments of Research & Development, Visitor Service, Media Centre, and Economy, Legal Affairs, Administration & IT. (Göteborg & Co, 2003)

5.2 EVENT TOURISM STRATEGY

In this section the empirical findings related to the ways in which the case tourism organisations work with events are discussed.

5.2.1 The Importance of Events for Tourism Organisations

Most of the interviewed representatives of the case tourism organisations describe how their organisations have during recent years paid more attention to the use of events in their operations. However, the ways in which they actually have come to realise the importance of events varies.

According to Limnefelt (041014) the City of Stockholm has taken more responsibility in the area of events in recent years as a result of realising the potential of events. According to SVB's Annual Report 2002 an investigation was made about the efforts of the City of Stockholm in relation to event marketing. The result of the investigation was a suggestion that SVB should take the responsibility of marketing

Stockholm as an events city in order to draw big international events to the city. (Stockholm Visitors Board, 2002) In December 2003 the City of Stockholm made a decision based on the investigation that SVB should establish event operations, and that this decision should be put into action during 2004 (Stockholm Visitors Board, 2003). Similar to SVB, also WoCo woke up as a result of the analyses that the organisation conducted some years ago. These analyses showed that Copenhagen, in comparison with other big cities, lied behind when it came to big international culture and sports events. Therefore, the organisation together with the Municipality of Copenhagen started a project with the intention of developing an events department within WoCo. (Wonderful Copenhagen, 2003)

According to Becker (041012) the importance of events for city tourism in Helsinki was properly realised for the first time in 2000, when the city was one of the European Capitals of Culture. During this year many different events were arranged in Helsinki, and these events, and the increased publicity for the city, lead to the realisation that events have a huge potential in attracting tourists. As a result, preliminary planning for event tourism started. Before this year events had only played a minor role in the tourism strategies of Helsinki. Similar to Helsinki, Brusberg (041114) describes how the World Championships in Athletics in Göteborg in 1995, and the festivities related to it, gave a strong upswing for Göteborg on the events market. Brusberg says that even though events have been a part of Gbg&Co's strategy from the beginning the work with events in Göteborg has developed a lot during the past 10-15 years.

The interviewed representatives of tourism organisations also describe how events have many kinds of values related to them. Many of the interviewees describe how events are important in increasing the attractiveness of the destination (Becker, 041012; Brusberg, 041124; Limnefelt, 041014). As an example Brusberg (041124) describes how the events that are held in Göteborg have a strong drawing power and may well be the reason why visitors choose Göteborg before other cities. Limnefelt (041014) similarly points out how interesting events in the

field of culture or sports make a destination much more appealing. In Göteborg events are also seen to provide the region's inhabitants with great experiences. According to Gbg&Co a wide variety of events also makes Göteborg a more attractive university city. (Göteborg & Co, 2003)

Becker (041012) describes how events can be used to enhance the image of a destination and to gain positive publicity. Similarly, the Operations Report of Gbg&Co (2003) states that all kinds of events make Göteborg a more pleasant and interesting city in which to live and work, while big international events in particular help increase the publicity and brand the city. Limnefelt (041014), Bender (041102) and Vallentin (041102) also stress the importance of media coverage that is created for the destination through events.

The economical benefits of events were also brought up in the interviews. According to Becker (041012) events have a lot of economical impacts. Limnefelt (041014) in turn states that events in Stockholm create direct economical effects through people coming to the city and spending money. As an example of an event that has both economical and media value Limnefelt mentions the annual Nobel Price Award and its festivities. However, Limnefelt describes how the most important economical value of events comes from the fact that people may return to Stockholm after having seen what the city has on offer. Limnefelt thinks that these returning visitors create more long-term effects compared to the money that the visitors spend when they visit Stockholm for the first time. Additionally, in relation to the economical impacts of events both Gbg&Co (Operations 2003) and Bender (041102) describe how events increase job opportunities and help develop infrastructure in the destinations. In relation to the economical impacts of events Becker points out that for example the World Championships in Athletics in 2005 in Helsinki do not have as great economical value as they could, because the event takes place during the busiest tourist season. By this Becker means that there is less capacity for those tourists that would visit Helsinki anyway in August 2005.

5.2.2 Strategic Event Tourism Planning

The ways in which the studied tourism organisations work with events varies. Some of the organisations have their own event department and specific strategies for events, while some of the organisations work with events more sporadically.

As already mentioned, according to Brusberg (041114), events have been a part of Gbg&Co's strategy from the beginning. The reason why Gbg&Co works with events is that the organisation believes that through events it can make the city even more attractive to both the tourists and local people. Furthermore, the organisation sees that events are also one important means to live up to the vision that it has set. The event unit of Gbg&Co, Events Collaboration, has its own steering committee, and it aims to work for a rich event offering in Göteborg. More specifically the goal of Event Collaboration is to achieve a good mix of events that makes the city even more attractive, and to make Göteborg to be the leading Nordic venue of events. (Göteborg & Co, 2003)

This is achieved through recruiting new events, supporting existing and repetitive events as well as assisting and collaborating with arenas, organisations and institutions that work with events. Event Collaborations is also responsible for arranging annual events such as the Göteborg Party and the International Science Festival, and in these events the department is in charge of the project management and implementation. (Göteborg & Co, 2003) The event unit is also responsible for project management of some one-time events like the Housing Exhibition in 2005 in Göteborg (Göteborg & Co, 2004). Accordingly, the main mission of Events Collaboration is to attract events, develop event concepts, evaluate events in terms of pay-back to the City of Göteborg and offer services including planning, project management and funding advice (Göteborg & Co, 2004). The fact that Göteborg has good event infrastructure and good facilities for cultural, entertainment and sporting events to a great extent assists the work of Gbg&Co in relation to events. (Göteborg & Co, 2003)

In addition to Events Collaboration, the work of Trade and Industry Group also partly related to events. The central aim of the group is to help develop Göteborg into one of Europe's most attractive regions to visit and in which to live and work, and in this context the group initiates different projects in some main areas one of these being events. The group actively supports the work of attracting different kinds of events to Göteborg. Events that are prioritised are in the start-up or development phase and judged to have positive long-term effects for the Göteborg region. (Göteborg & Co, 2003)

Another example of a tourism organisation that has an events department is WoCo. According to WoCo, people are nowadays looking for experiences, and events play an important role in attracting visitors to the capital region:

“Events are very important for the tourism development in Copenhagen and therefore events are an integral part of WoCo's strategy.” (Hansen, 041112)

The event unit of WoCo, Copenhagen Eventures, was established in 2003 and has an ownership structure that differs to some extent from its parent organisation WoCo: 75 per cent of the department is public owned, and the rest belongs to private actors. (www.woco.dk, 041116) Copenhagen Eventures has got its own budget (Bender, 041102) and a board that has members from both private and public sectors (www.woco.dk, 041116). According to Bender (041102) Copenhagen Eventures aims to:

“...attract international events within culture and sports, and to develop the existing local and national events if they have international tourism potential.”

According to Bender (041102) Copenhagen Eventures is involved in attracting, developing, and creating events in Copenhagen. To put it more formally, the tasks of Copenhagen Eventures are to attract existing culture and sports events, be a catalyst for the development of new and

existing events that fit Copenhagen's physical capacity, and to produce regional culture events by the assignment of its closest partners (Wonderful Copenhagen, 2003) According to Bender (041102) Copenhagen Eventures arranges only a few events and one of these is the Night of Culture, which is a cultural event gathering approximately 60.000 people every autumn.

WoCo and Copenhagen Eventures have set up written strategic goals in relation to events. The two official goals are to attract international events that have important tourism value and to be a catalyst in the development of new cultural events that reflect the values, history and international ambitions of Copenhagen. Based on these strategic goals more detailed result oriented goals are also formulated. For example, during 2004 WoCo and Copenhagen Eventures aim to develop two new events that fit the city and contribute to its tourism income. (Wonderful Copenhagen, 2003)

WoCo and Copenhagen Eventures are interested in two types of events: culture and sports events. According to Vallentin (041102) Copenhagen has a lot of knowledge and a long experience in arranging cultural events. Bender (041102) agrees and continues that Copenhagen also has a proud tradition in culture. Vallentin (041102) stresses that on the contrary to cultural events the city does not have a strong tradition and experience of arranging big international sports events. Therefore the work with sports events is a relatively new thing in Copenhagen. Bender (041102) points out how Copenhagen lacks the facilities for organising bigger sport events, and therefore Copenhagen Eventures is only in the start-up phase in working with sports events.

Bender (041102) emphasises how the work with events (especially sports events) should start from smaller events and then little by little after gaining more experience move to the bigger events. Bender states that Copenhagen does not have a lot of experience of arranging international mega events. Therefore, the plan is to start up with smaller events and then gradually try to attract bigger, more challenging events. As Bender points out:

“You have to learn how to crawl before you can walk”

As an example of this Vallentin (041102) describes that WoCo is at the moment concentrating on attracting smaller international sports events like the World Road Running Championships in 2007, and the World Championships in Swimming in 2010. Vallentin continues that for these events facilities are already in place, and by arranging these events Copenhagen Eventures will little by little gain the experience and knowledge as well as build up the facilities needed to host major international sports event like the Olympic Games. As Bender (041102) describes:

“To get there, you need to climb stairs”

A third tourism organisation - SVB - also has an event department. Limnefelt (041014) stresses how events as a business area are a priority for SVB, because it is important to work with what makes a destination attractive. According to Limnefelt having interesting events in the field of culture or sports makes a destination much more appealing. However, due to the recent restructuring of the organisation and scarcity of resources nobody is yet working within the events department at SVB. According to Limnefelt at the moment the focus of SVB's operations is on the three other business areas; leisure tourism, business tourism and tourism services. Right now SVB is waiting for the execution of a plan that will bring more focus on events. Limnefelt adds that SVB does not yet have direct goals or strategies in relation to events.

Although nobody is yet working in the events department, part of SVB's work is still related to events. Limnefelt (041014) stresses that SVB is not organising events in Stockholm, since the organisation feels that there already exists enough of other companies that are involved in the organising of events. Instead SVB has adopted two other roles in relation to events. Firstly, SVB provides help to those event organisers that do not know how to go about when organising an event. SVB, for example, helps event organisers with contacts and different kind of permissions and contracts that are needed when planning and organising

events. Limnefelt describes how in this role SVB is like a navigator that takes the ships safely into the harbour; in this case, events into a successful completion. (Limnefelt, 041014) In relation to the navigator role SVB also provides financial help for some events. In 2004 SVB, for example, sponsors events such as Stockholm Jazz Festival and DN-Galan. (www.stockholm.se, 041205) Limnefelt (041014) continues that the second role of SVB is to work actively with different actors that are organising events in Stockholm, trying to attract more events into the city. SVB also promotes the coming events in order to attract more tourists and media attention to the city.

Limnefelt (041014) also talks about the capacity of Stockholm in relation to events. To be able to compete with other destinations for major events, and to be considered as a candidate, Stockholm has to have event venues and other places that can take a lot of people in place. Limnefelt claims that Stockholm's capacity for events sets some restrictions to what kind of events can be attracted and organised in the city. Limnefelt continues that especially hotel capacity is important in order to be considered as a serious competitor among other cities that want to host major, international events.

Of the studied tourism organisation HTCB is the only one that does not have an own event department. Becker (041012) describes how the planning for event tourism in Helsinki is a rather new thing. Even if the importance of events has been realised, events are not yet part of the long-term tourism planning, and the role of events in destination marketing and tourism planning is not very systematic. Although Becker points out that Helsinki has knowledge and experience of arranging sports events, she argues that in general the tradition of event organising is missing in Helsinki and the event industry is not that developed. As Becker (041012) stresses:

“Helsinki has a lot to learn in working with events.”

Becker (041012) argues that major events are rare in Helsinki, since it is still hard to get the city engaged and motivated to provide financial

support for events. As a result after being the European Capital of Culture in 2000 the next mega event held in Helsinki will be the World Championships in Athletics 2005.

Although the organisation does not have an event department, HTCBB has adopted some roles when working with events. Becker (041012) points out that the role of the organisation is to promote and offer information on events that are held in Helsinki and provide help and support for event organisers. Becker describes how, for example, the role of HTCBB in World Championships in Athletics 2005 is to market and offer information of the event. HTCBB also provides tourism information services during the event as well as arranges activities for media representatives. Becker continues that apart from the previously mentioned roles, HTCBB also finances events that the organisation considers to increase the attractiveness of Helsinki, especially during the low season. An example of this is the Light Event in November-December that helps market Helsinki during the dark wintertime.

In the future it is important for HTCBB and the City of Helsinki to secure the success of existing events and also to develop new, quality events (Helsinki Tourism & Convention Bureau, 2004). Becker (041012) states that in order to make it easier to attract and arrange events, the plan of the City of Helsinki is to establish a separate event office, which would coordinate all the different events held in Helsinki and help the event organisers. Becker also stresses that HTCBB is willing to take the responsibility of running the event office in case it got more resources.

5.3 PORTFOLIO OF EVENTS

The ways in which the case tourism organisations are involved in the event offering at their destinations vary. Some of the case tourism organisations try to actively influence the event offering through various means, while others have little impact on how the event offering at their destinations looks like.

As has already been described Copenhagen Eventures concentrates on international events within culture and sports, as well as on existing local and national events if they have tourism potential. Copenhagen Eventures is also involved in producing events like the Night of Culture and bidding on some international sports events. Bender (041120) explains how the reason for the international focus is the fact that WoCo is a tourism organisation and its task is to attract international tourists.

According to Becker (041012) Helsinki has knowledge and experience of arranging big sports events and that is why sports events are also the most common type of events that are arranged in Helsinki. Cultural events are also important for Helsinki, especially events like Koneisto and Tuska music festivals that are directed for young adults. Nevertheless, Becker stresses that the city does not want to exclude anything, but think that all kinds of events are important. She predicts that in the future design as a theme for events held in Helsinki will become increasingly popular. Besides design, Becker also welcomes other new themes for events. Becker continues to describe how the role of HTCB is not to arrange events. As already mentioned above in the last section, the role of HTCB in relation events is mainly to promote events, and provide different kind of help for the event organisers.

Similar to HTCB, Limnefelt (041014) also stresses that the role of SVB is not to be involved in the organising of events in Stockholm. The role of SVB in events such as DN-Galan, Jazz Festival, Smaka på Stockholm, Nordic Light Open and Mayo Boule Festival is more to sponsor and market them. Limnefelt (041014) finds that the overall collection of events in Stockholm today is very wide. Limnefelt (041014) continues that the spectrum of events is broader and deeper than in many other cities in Sweden, since these do not have the same market for all the different kinds of events that Stockholm has.

Gbg&Co in turn works to achieve a wide-ranging array of cultural, sporting and entertainment events to the city. As Nilsson (2004, cited in Haneson, 2004, p.12) states, the ambition of the event department is that events should reach a wide audience and that:

“There should be something for everyone”

Nilsson (2004, in Haneson, 2004) continues to describe how each individual event does not necessarily has to attract all kinds of people, but instead the yearly event offering should have a good variety, and attract to many different target groups. Examples of events that Gbg&Co has helped bring to the city in recent years are the concerts of Paul McCartney and Metallica, Gulbaggen Film Awards 2002, Chef of the Year 2004, Ice Hockey World Championship 2002, and Volvo Ocean Race 2002. Gbg&Co also supports many regular leading events such as the Film Festival, Gothia Cup, International Book Fair and International Tourism and Trade Fair (Göteborg & Co, 2003). Nilsson also thinks that it is very important to try to improve and increase the content of each event Gbg&Co is involved. As an example of this Nilsson mentions the Göteborg Party, which during the years it has existed has developed a lot and had many different focuses. When the event unit of Gbg&Co decides which events to get involved in, it uses several criteria. For example issues like the number of visitors and participants a particular event is able to attract, how many nights these visitors and participants are estimated to stay in Göteborg, and if the event in question strengthens the Göteborg brand are taken into consideration (Brusberg, 041124).

5.3.1 Bidding

Two of the studied tourism organisations are actively involved in bidding on events. WoCo is actively involved in bidding the events to Copenhagen through Copenhagen Eventures. Bender (041102) states that the plan is to bid on events that fit the facilities and image of Copenhagen. The major goal in relation to bidding is to get the Olympic Games in 2024 to the city. Bender stresses how the bidding on sports events requires a long-term planning approach, and in order to become good in something, one needs to take the first steps early. Vallentin (041102) points out that it is very uncertain that Copenhagen will get the Olympic Games 2024, since one usually has to bid the Olympic Games

many times before getting to host the event. In order to get experience WoCo has a plan to bid on medium sized sports events like the World Championships in Swimming 2010. Vallentin (041102) believes that as long as one is well-prepared, and has the backing from all the different stakeholders, it should not be that hard to get sports events to Copenhagen.

Gbg&Co is also actively involved in bidding. Examples of the events brought to Göteborg by Gbg&Co are the UEFA Cup final 2004, and European Championships in Athletics 2006 (Gbg&Co, 2003). On the contrary, according to Limnefelt (041014) SVB is not involved in bidding on events at the moment but in the future Limnefelt hopes that SVB will have a more active role in this. SVB and the former Stockholm Information Service have been involved in trying to attract various events to Stockholm, for example the Olympic Games for 2004 (Limnefelt, 041014).

5.4 COORDINATION OF EVENTS

As in relation to how actively the studied tourism organisations try to influence the event offering, also the ways in which the organisations are trying to coordinate the different events held at their destinations differs.

Nilsson (2004, in Haneson, 2004) describes how the work of Events Collaboration is guided by an operations plan that shows how the department should work with events, how it should be developed, and how new events should be attracted. Accordingly, despite of which event is being planned the structure is always in place. Nilsson describes how each project or event that the department is working with has a project description so that it is always possible to go back and have a look at how the decision-making or thinking has proceeded. Brusberg (041124) similarly points out how it is very important for the events department to have a structure in place when working with events. Brusberg describes how Events Collaboration is very much project managed and the department develops according to what needs and competencies

exist within the department. She also points out how the number of people that are working with events is dependent on what projects the organisation is working with at a time. At the moment around 10 persons are working to attract events to the city and develop Göteborg as an events city, and another 10 work with specific projects or events like the Göteborg Party and the International Science Festival. Vallentin (041102) similarly describes how the work of Copenhagen Eventures is divided between different events and each of them has their own project managers.

In some of the cases interviewees relate the coordination of events to the coordination of the event industry in general. In the case of Gbg&Co the steering committee of Event Collaboration results in that the work of the department is carried out in close cooperation with for example different sporting, entertainment and cultural facilities, authorities and local authority departments. (Göteborg & Co, 2004). For example, preparations for the European Championship in Athletics in 2006 in the city are taken care of through the cooperation between Gbg&Co, Got Event, the Göteborg Athletic Association, the Swedish Athletic Association, and the European Athletics Association. (Göteborg & Co, 2003).

Becker (041012) in turn describes how there is a lack of coordination between different offices in the City of Helsinki. All the city offices from which event organisers can apply for financial aid form a complex web of different actors among which there is little coordination. As a good example of the lack of coordination Becker mentions how some event organisers take advantage of the fragmentation of the city by applying and receiving funds from many different offices (for example from the public works and sports offices) that do not know which events each of them has financed.

Becker (041012) continues to describe how there is a future plan that aims at improving the coordination of events in Helsinki. The plan is that the earlier mentioned event office would take the role of a coordinator in relation to all financial support that the city grants for

events in order to avoid overlapping. The office would also become a general source of information for event organisers. Hence, the role of the event office would be to build a link between the City of Helsinki and event organisers, and provide systematic planning and support that would create the continuity for events that the city needs. Becker stresses that the event office has been under planning for quite some years now, but still the city is not 100 per cent behind the plan, and the idea of the event office is always been buried when something else comes up.

Becker (041012) also describes how in Helsinki there has been a lot of talk about how to rationalise the role of the city in relation to the support it provides to events. As a solution an idea of event categorising has been brought up. With the help of dividing events into certain predetermined categories the role of the city in different kind of events could be clarified. The category to which each event is put would then determine the amount of money a particular event could receive from the city.

Bender (041102) in turn describes how the cooperation between different event organisers in Copenhagen is lacking. According to Bender the event industry in Copenhagen is somewhat polarised and synergies between events are not utilised. Bender describes how there are many clever event managers in the city, but cooperation between them is lacking. As an example of this Bender (041102) mentions how Copenhagen has a number of similar events taking place every year in Copenhagen (for example four different film festivals and three different electronic music festivals) that could benefit from a closer cooperation.

5.5 MANAGING EVENT TOURISM STAKEHOLDERS

Two of the studied tourism organisations have an ownerships structure that gathers many important actors around the same table. The strong belief of Gbg&Co in cooperation as a main competitive tool also permeates the work with events. Events Collaboration has its own steering committee of 13 members which consists of representatives from the parent organisation Gbg&Co and its Trade and Industry Group, Liseberg, Got Event, Kultur Göteborg, Göteborg Opera House, Göteborg Concert Hall and City Theatre, Göteborg International Book Fair, Göteborgshotellen, Swedish Exhibition & Congress Centre and Storhotellgruppen. (Göteborg & Co, 2003)

Also the Board of Copenhagen Eventures has both public and private actors. According to Bender (041102) the actors can at times have very different interests, and a lot of the work is required to try to get the commitment of all the different actors. As an example of this Bender describes how it is difficult to get the private sector, for example hotels, to adopt a long term approach in relation to events and their benefits. Private businesses tend to adopt an *ad hoc* approach, and only be interested in the short-term gains of individual events. Bender also stresses that since Copenhagen Eventures deals with public money, the department has to be very careful in its work to prevent public dissatisfaction. Bender cannot just concentrate on doing his own business, but he also needs to keep the board of the Copenhagen Eventures happy.

The role of the state in relation to the work with events was brought up in the interviews. For example, Vallentin (041102) describes how the government in Denmark is luckily starting to realize the importance of events, and all the benefits they can bring along. At the same time, however, Vallentin describes that the biggest challenge for Copenhagen Eventures in relation to events is to get the attention and the funding from the politicians. Recently there have been a lot of writings in the newspapers in Denmark about the importance of events, and Vallentin

points out how this media attention is important in order to get the authorities to increasingly realise the potential of events.

Also the Managing Director of Gbg&Co Claes Bjerkne (in Göteborg & Co, 2003) and the former Managing Director of SVB Anders Nordstrand (in Stockholm Visitors Board, 2003) mention the importance of the state involvement in relation to events. Gbg&Co is not that pleased with the efforts of the Swedish state in relation to tourism and events in particular. In many countries national subsidies and guarantees are given in order to ensure that a city and country win big international events. This is not the case in Sweden. In order for the city to continue to develop and attract events Gbg&Co feels that the business community, Göteborg City, the Västra Götaland region and the state all need to take part in generating resources for developing the event industry. (Bjerkne, in Göteborg & Co, 2003) Nordstrand (in Stockholm Visitors Board, 2003) similarly describes:

“Stockholm has big ambitions and wants to attract new large events. If this is to succeed, it requires a professional organisation and the economic means to have a presence in the international arena. There are signs indicating that international organisations will, to an even greater extent, demand comprehensive guarantees from a host city and a host country. It is important that Stockholm, together with other large cities and the government agree on how future demands for guarantees are to be handled. If the state and the cities can’t provide these guarantees, Stockholm and Sweden will no longer be considered as a host country or city for international events.” (p. 6)

The importance of the city in relation to events was also mentioned in the interviews. Becker (041026) stresses that it is very difficult to get the City of Helsinki involved in event tourism planning and motivated to provide financial support for events. Additionally, Becker claims that the event industry in Helsinki generally speaking needs to be strengthened so that it would not be depending so much on the support of the city. Becker continues to describe how the biggest challenge in relation to events, and their use in a tourism role in Helsinki, is that individual

events are not strong enough to become repetitive. Becker points out that one of the reasons for why HTCBB finances specific events, like the Light Event, is that HTCBB wants to ensure their continuity and high quality. Furthermore, Becker feels that event organisers should actively try to find new cooperation partners and sponsors than the City in Helsinki. In order to succeed in this the private and public sectors should be become increasingly aware of the various benefits that events can offer. This kind of thinking is growing in Helsinki, but it is not yet strong enough.

Bender (041102) also describes how the work of the event unit is sometimes difficult, since it has to all the time verify why it is important to have events in the city. Bender points out that events are still a new business in Denmark, and therefore, when working with events everything needs to be proven twice in order to get the support and funding. Bender claims that Danes are very cautious, and in general, risk is not the name of the game.

Furthermore, some interviewees emphasised the importance of the cooperation with different operators within tourism industry, for example private event organisers. Gbg&Co states that cooperation with the tourism industry is important and the organisation is also actively collaborating with event venues and event organisers in the city. (Göteborg & Co 2003) SVB also promotes the collaboration between different parties in the travel and tourist industry (Limnefelt, 041014). Limnefelt points out how the cooperation with all the different tourism actors is important, if the destination is to develop its tourism products and services. In addition Limnefelt highlights the important role of the intermediaries, such as travel agencies, tour operators, event organisers, journalists and the Internet. Limnefelt stresses how it is important to cooperate with the right people in right organisations.

Networking is an important part of the business strategy of WoCo and one of the aims of WoCo is to extend the existing networks as well as formulate new ones. (Wonderful Copenhagen, 2004) In relation to bidding Copenhagen Eventures aims to become a so called “one stop

shopping” partner for all the actors that want to get involved in bidding for bigger cultural and sports events to Copenhagen. In practise this means that Copenhagen Eventures tries to organise all the relevant actors so that the destination in a coordinated and professional way approaches the organisers of international events (e.g. the international sports associations and cultural organisations). (Wonderful Copenhagen, 2003)

Vallentin (041102) describes how in order to avoid overlapping in sports events Copenhagen Eventures networks with other cities in Denmark. Through this cooperation Copenhagen Eventures can also learn a lot from other cities that have more experience in attracting sports events. The members of this network exchange ideas and share plans with each other, and also agree which city will bid or arrange which events.

5.6 MARKETING OF EVENTS

As was already mentioned the role of some tourism organisations in relation to events is mainly to be the promoter, while others both produce and market the events they are involved in. For example, Gbg&Co and Events Collaboration actively take part in marketing the events they are involved in. According to Brusberg (041124) events are continuously marketed through the marketing channels of the organisation. Becker (041012) similarly stresses that in every marketing action HTC B takes, events are taken into consideration. Helsinki aims to market itself as an active and energetic city in which many events are held throughout the year (www.hel.fi, 041019). However, Becker (041012) points out that usually events are not marketed as core attractions, but more as an added value and as one strength of the city. As Becker describes, the role of events in marketing efforts of HTC B is to contribute to the feeling that:

“There is always something happening in Helsinki.”

Limnefelt (041014) stresses that SVB does not do a lot of advertising or large budget image campaigns. Limnefelt sees that these marketing tools would eat up the whole budget within a short period of time. Copenhagen Eventures in turn is not responsible of marketing events, instead the marketing unit of WoCo takes care of all marketing (Bender, 041102).

As has already been pointed out, the role of SVB and HTCBB in relation to events is mainly promotion related. Nevertheless, Becker (041012) stresses that HTCBB does not promote any single event in particular, but the organisation mainly provides information about what is going on Helsinki in general. In Helsinki the event organisers themselves are responsible for promoting their events and taking care of the media relations. Limnefelt (041014) in turn describes how although the event organisers in Stockholm mainly do their own marketing, they can still use SVB's marketing channels in order to gain more visibility and publicity for their events.

In all the interviewees websites were mentioned as an important marketing channel for events. All the studied tourism organisations for example have an events database from which information on events that take place in the destination can be searched for. (Becker, 041012; Bender 041102; Brusberg, 041124; Limnefelt 041014). Bender (041102) continues that at the moment the marketing channel that Copenhagen Eventures uses in relation to events is the website of the organisation but brochures are under planning.

Other important marketing channels mentioned are for example brochures (Becker, 041012; Brusberg, 041124), newsletters (Becker, 041012; Limnefelt, 041014), press releases (Brusberg, 041124; Limnefelt, 041014), and newspapers (Limnefelt, 041014). Becker (041012) also mentions street advertising. Finally, Brusberg (041124) points out how Gbg&Co has an own marketing plan with different media channels and target groups for each event

5.6.1 Market Segmentation

Becker (041012) describes how the target market for event tourism is hard to define, since the target market depends on each individual event and its character. However, the events held in Helsinki mostly have a national target market. Some events of course attract more international visitors, i.e., a HIM concert. Vallentin (041102) also points out how the target market depends on the event, and that is why Copenhagen Eventures has not specified any target markets in relation to events. Vallentin describes how, for example, for any European Championships the target markets are naturally Europeans. Vallentin emphasises that one needs to first evaluate the characteristics of each event and then decide the target markets. According to Limnefelt (041014) SVB has not set any target markets for event tourism yet but Limnefelt stresses that it will definitely become an important issue when the work with events really takes fire. When the event tourism strategies are in place, the general tourism target markets will most probably also change.

5.6.2 Packaging

Gbg&Co is packaging events, and a good example of this is the European Championship 2006 Göteborg package, which the organisation sells. The package includes accommodation and tickets in a single package, and the idea behind it is to make the visit as simple as possible for the visitors. The organisation also sells ECH Pass, which is a card that gives free entry to all tourist attractions, museums and sightseeing tours, and free access to parking and public transport in the city during the European Championship 2006. (www.goteborg.com, 041115)

Bender (041102) describes that Copenhagen Eventures has good experiences from packaging. An example of this is the successful packaging of Erik Clapton's concert in Copenhagen when WoCo sold packages that included tickets, transportation, accommodation, and discounts on various services. Even though event packaging according

to Bender shows very effectively how events pool the rest of the businesses, the packaging of events is not the core business of Copenhagen Eventures.

According to Limnefelt (041014) SVB no longer works with event packaging. Instead the packaging of events in Stockholm is handled by a private company that is specialised in offering different types of packages to tourists. Becker (041012) also points out how the packaging of events is not the responsibility of HTCB, but the work belongs to other actors like hotels.

5.7 EVENTS AS DESTINATION IMAGE MAKERS

According to Becker (041012) Helsinki is striving for three themes. The city wants to be coupled with a city, meeting and cruising destination. As strengths of Helsinki Becker mentions sea, architecture, design, east-west contrast and Russian influence, nature in the city, compact size, and events (always something happening). Becker also points out that HTCB would like Helsinki to be seen as trendy, unique, special and Finnish. In relation to events Becker states that HTCB and the City of Helsinki are not striving to get any particular types of events, neither do they want to exclude any kinds of events. Becker also welcomes new themes and predicts that in the future design as a theme for events in Helsinki will become increasingly popular.

Limnefelt (041014) in turn describes how Stockholm has a long list of words that it wants tourists to associate with the city, and which SVB wants to communicate. Limnefelt adds that at the moment SVB is in the middle of a process of trying to shorten out the list, and choosing the key words that the organisation wants to denote Stockholm. Some key words that Limnefelt mentions are beautiful memorable city, water, closeness, “small town big city” as well as trendy city and nature. Limnefelt stresses that events could be better utilized in the formation of a destination image for Stockholm. Around 250 events take place every

day in Stockholm and according to Limnefelt this is not really communicated.

Brusberg (041124) describes how events have a strong drawing power, and may be the reason why a visitors chooses Göteborg before other cities. Furthermore, events of all kinds make Göteborg a more pleasant and interesting city, while big international events help increase the publicity and brand of the city (Gbg&Co, 2003). Brusberg (041124) points out that when Event Collaboration decides which events it gets involved in they assess if the event in question strengthens the Göteborg brand.

Similarly, Hansen (041112) highlights that Copenhagen looks for events that fit the desired image of the city as a modern metropol region in Europe. Hansen describes how WoCo wants to invest in events that expose Copenhagen as a dynamic and rich cultural city as well as tell the story of the heritage and way of living. According to Hansen the organisation also has a clear picture in mind about the events it is not looking for:

“We will not support carnivals - carnivals apply to Brazil.” (Hansen, 041112)

6 ANALYSIS

In this chapter the analysis of the empirical findings will be presented with the help of the theoretical framework. When analysing the results the aim is to contrast and make comparisons of the four studied tourism organisations as well as highlight interesting aspects that the empirical data revealed. The chapter is divided into six sections and it starts by analysing the extent to which the studied tourism organisations strategically work with events. The next five sections will take a step further and analyse how the case organisations actually work with events in practise.

6.1 EVENT TOURISM STRATEGY

In this section the empirical findings in relation to how the studied tourism organisations work strategically events will be analysed. The section starts with a short discussion that describes how the studied tourism organisations see upon events in general.

6.1.1 The Importance of Events for Tourism Organisations

The empirical findings indicate that the studied tourism organisations have understood the importance of events for destinations (Getz, 1997). All the interviewees describe how their organisations have paid more attention to the use of events in their operations during recent years. What is interesting is that the ways in which the organisations have actually come to realise the importance of events varies. Some of the destinations (Göteborg and Helsinki) hosted larger events in the past and the positive impacts of these events lead to increasing realisation of the advantages of events. In other destinations (Stockholm and Copenhagen) the results of specific studies on events and their potential worked as catalysts to start working more actively with events.

The literature on events brings several benefits of events for destinations. Many of these benefits or values were also brought up in the interviews. All the case tourism organisations agree that events *increase the attractiveness* of

their destinations to both the tourists and local people. The increased attractiveness can be related to the economical and social effects of events that Getz (1997; 2004a) writes about. The tourism organisations also see that events *increase the media coverage and publicity* (Erfurt & Johnsen, 2003) as well as *enhance the image* of the destinations (Mossberg, 2000). One of the tourism organisations, SVB, points out how the most important long term economical impact of events comes from the fact that many *tourists return* to Stockholm after having participated in events held in the city. This verifies what Bohlin (1996, in Mossberg, 2000) points out as one of the most important benefits of events. According to Bohlin events create a lot of added value for destinations in generating repeat visits. The role events has as *catalysts in stimulating infrastructure* (Getz, 1997) was also mentioned in the interviews as well as the fact that events *increase job opportunities*. HTCB also highlighted that in Helsinki events are important means of *livening up the city* during the dark wintertime. This relates to the seasonality problems of tourist destinations that were pointed out by Moutinho (2000).

6.1.2 Events as a Part of Overall Tourism Strategies

Strategies are apparent at different levels in organisations (Botten & McManus, 1999) and this is also true in the case of tourism organisations. Tourism organisations have overall strategies that can be seen as the corporate strategies (Botten & McManus, 1999) that cover and define all the business areas that tourism organisations are involved in. Furthermore, tourism organisations also need to specify business strategies (Botten & McManus, 1999) to all their different business units.

Phillips and Moutinho (1998) describe how many tourism practitioners within the tourism and hospitality industry tend to see strategic planning as a complex and mysterious process. This, however, does not seem to be the case in the studied tourism organisations. All the studied tourism organisations have a *corporate strategy* and some kind of general vision as guidance. The corporate strategy is in turn further broken down into *business strategies* for each individual business unit of the organisations. These findings clearly imply that the studied tourism organisations have realised the

importance of strategic planning. In particular, the findings indicate that the case tourism organisations have understood the importance of long-term planning and strategy that Van den Berg et al. (1995) calls for. Furthermore, all the studied tourism organisations have similar kind of business units (e.g. tourist information service, and business and leisure tourism units) that provide the same type of services to tourists. This implies that the studied tourism organisations have made strategic decisions about the type of business to be in, segments to be attracted and products to be developed for the market (Moutinho, 2000).

According to Getz (1997) events should be an integral part of the destination tourism strategies. The empirical findings of this study show that the ways in which events are integrated into the overall tourism strategies of the case tourism organisations varies. In three of the four cases events have their own department. Of the three tourism organisations that have an events unit WoCo and Gbg&Co seem to have integrated events strongly into their overall tourism strategies and the rest of organisations actively support the work of the event unit. Hence, in two of the cases events can be seen to have an own business strategy.

What is interesting is that having an events department does not necessarily indicate that events play a central part in the overall tourism strategies of tourism organisations. SVB states that events as a business area is a priority and has its own department. However, nobody is working in the events unit at the moment, and the department in general seems to lack a more specific strategy for events. Hence, it seems like a plan for events already exists but the implementation is lacking. As Gunn (1994) and Haywood (2000) point out, plans must also be put into action on a regular basis, otherwise they have little value. HTCBB in turn mentions that events are a part of the overall tourism strategies, however, events are not at least yet seen as their own business area and therefore also lack a specific business strategy. In both SVB's and HTCBB's case the lack of resources is the main obstacle for working more strategically with events. Both SVB and HTCBB are 100 per cent owned by the cities, and therefore rely totally on the cities' financial support. Gbg&Co and WoCo in turn have an ownership structure that includes both private and public actors securing the organisations a much

broader financial base. In SVB's case it is also worth mentioning that the organisation is relatively young and still in the process of finding its form, which can also influence the work with events.

6.1.3 Strategic Event Tourism Planning in Tourism Organisations

Getz (1997) argues that if tourism organisations are to realise the full potential of events, a long-term strategic approach to event tourism planning and development is needed. The strategic planning process for event tourism suggested by Getz (1997) can be related to Porter's view on strategic planning consisting of a detailed analytical process followed by a sequenced set of different steps (cf. Atkinson, 2004).

Of the studied tourism organisations Gbg&Co has taken the strategic planning process for event tourism, as described by Getz (1997), furthest. The organisation has a clear vision and documented goals for events, and also the longest experience of working with events. Gbg&Co is also aware of the strengths and opportunities of the city in relation to events in general, and the organisation uses this knowledge when formulating its event tourism strategies. This implies that the organisation has conducted some kind of resource and supply analysis, and SWOT analysis in relation to event tourism. In other words, Gbg&Co has a planned strategy and intentions to put it into practise. Here a connection can be seen to what Mintzberg and Waters (1985) describe as a deliberate strategy.

WoCo has also conducted strategic planning in relation to events. Although the organisation has formulated a vision and detailed goals for events, the organisation also stresses the importance of learning. The events department of WoCo, Copenhagen Eventures, is relatively young and the goal is to constantly improve the working manners and strategies for events when gaining more experience and knowledge. In WoCo's case one could, to some extent, talk about an emergent strategy defined by Mintzberg and Waters (1985) as a strategy that is realised despite earlier intentions and influenced by learning over time.

In the other two cases detailed and systematic strategic planning approach to event tourism as defined by Getz (1997) is not that apparent. For example, although HTCB mentions events as one working area, the work with events is not systematic and strategic. This can be partly dependent on the fact that events in general are a relatively new business area for tourism organisations. Many of tourism organisations, HTCB and SVB included, are still in the start up phase when working with events and have not progressed to the level of strategic planning. Furthermore, strategic planning in relation to event tourism requires resources, and as was already described above, these two organisations do not have the required resources, or they are prioritised elsewhere. Nevertheless, both organisations have plans and ambitions to start using events more strategically in the future, which again shows how tourism organisations are increasingly recognising the benefits and importance of events in attracting visitors.

6.1.4 Generic Event Tourism Strategies

Getz (1997) has defined some generic event tourism strategies that destinations and tourism organisations can pursue. The empirical findings reveal that the case tourism organisations use events in many different roles and for example, Gbg&Co clearly pursues many of the generic tourism strategies suggested by Getz (1997). The organisation uses events as *core attractions* as well as *mega events* and *bidding* as general event tourism strategies in order to increase the publicity and brand the city.

What is interesting in relation to WoCo is that the ambition of the organisation is to attract and bid on international large scale events, however, the organisation states that it has to start with medium scale events, and then move gradually into mega events. *Bidding*, in general, seems to be an important strategy for WoCo, since it is already mentioned in the overall strategies of the organisation. HTCB, in turn, does not see events as core attractions but according to the organisation events are used more as *an added value* to other tourist products, or *animators* in order to enliven the city. A good example of an animator is the Light Event, which aims at increasing the attractiveness of the city during the dark wintertime. The animator role is

also related to the benefits of events that Getz (2004b) has defined. Events like the Light Event play important roles for tourism organisations in extending the tourist season. However, in the case of HTCBC one cannot really talk about generic event tourism strategies. According to the theory by Getz (1997) generic event tourism strategies should be the result of a strategic planning process for event tourism. As was described above, HTCBC does not conduct strategic planning for event tourism, and therefore the animator role that events have in Helsinki cannot really be seen as a generic event tourism strategy rather more an unintended result of the current situation. By this the authors mean that the event industry in Helsinki is not very developed, tradition of event organising is missing, and in general it is very hard to get the support of city for events. These factors set severe restrictions to why events cannot even be used strategically.

The generic event tourism strategies of the studied tourism organisations have a connection to the capacity and core competence of the studied destinations. Gbg&Co, thanks to a good events infrastructure, highly developed cooperation with the different event stakeholders and longest experience in working with events, can strive for a variety in general event tourism strategies. In Copenhagen, on the other hand, infrastructure for mega events, especially in the field of sports, is missing and therefore WoCo cannot directly strive for mega events. Moreover, Copenhagen has a long experience and a lot of competence in arranging cultural events. Therefore cultural events have a natural part in the general event tourism strategies of WoCo. In Helsinki, on the other hand, the tradition in event organising is missing, and in general it is very hard to get finance for events. This sets restrictions to how widely events can be used in a tourism role.

6.1.5 Event Tourism Policy

Tourism organisations can engage themselves in a number of different event-supportive policies. Getz (1997) has defined four tangible roles for tourism organisations that should follow the generic event tourism strategies of tourism organisations. These roles are to produce events, have an equity in events, sponsor events and assist the event sector.

The empirical findings suggest that the case tourism organisations have taken many different kinds of roles in relation to event tourism. In two of the cases, WoCo and Gbg&Co, the tourism organisations are involved in *producing* events. However, in neither of the cases the production of events is the primary role. Some of the studied tourism organisations also *sponsor* events, like SVB sponsors, for example, Stockholm Jazz Festival and DN-Galan. However, the main role of all the tourism organisations seems to be to *provide assistance* to the events sector. The type of assistance is financial, moral, marketing and advising. For example, the assistance role that SVB has in relation to events is to work as an advisory to events that need help, provide moral support for events as well as market events.

The four different event tourism policies that Getz (1997) has identified also, to some extent, show how far the tourism organisations have come in their strategic planning for event tourism. If a tourism organisation has adopted more than one policy this also is a sign that the organisation has a more advanced approach to event tourism strategies. Gbg&Co and WoCo both have at least three different roles in how they are involved in events (producers, sponsors and assistance). These two organisations are also the ones that work with events much more strategically in comparison with SVB and HTC B. The policies SVB and HTC B have adopted in relation to events seem to be derived from the overall tourism strategies of the tourism organisations, since in these organisations events do not have their own business strategy.

6.2 PORTFOLIO OF EVENTS

Getz (1997) has introduced a model for event tourism portfolios that has its origins in portfolio thinking. The basic idea behind the model is that destinations and tourism organisation should use more strategic thinking in relation to events and their management. More specifically, the combination or portfolio of events found in destinations should be the outcome of a strategic approach that should aim to maximise the tourism attractiveness and value of events.

The empirical findings indicate that of all the four case tourism organisations, Gbg&Co is the one that has implemented the event tourism portfolio model furthest. The organisation clearly tries to influence the event portfolio of Göteborg and is actively involved in attracting, developing and evaluating events. Gbg&Co has also adopted an approach in which a mix of events at all levels of the portfolio model (local, regional, hallmark and mega events) is included. “Something for everyone” and “a good mix of events” approaches imply that the organisation aims to maximise the tourism demand for events in Göteborg and is interested in all the possible measures of values that Getz (1997) has defined in relation to the portfolio model.

An interesting case in relation to the event tourism portfolio model is WoCo. The organisation tries to some extent to systematically influence the event offering in Copenhagen. By “to some extent” the authors mean that the organisation seems only to be interested in dealing with events that have international drawing power, or possess potential to some day attract international tourists. This strategy leaves out the local and regional events at the lower level of the portfolio model. Accordingly, the tourism goals defined by Getz (1997) that WoCo is interested in are growth potential, market share, image enhancement and economical benefits.

Mossberg (2000) describes how there is a risk that tourism organisations ignore smaller events, since they are only seen to have local or regional significance. This is very applicable to WoCo’s case. The authors argue that in order to maximise the tourism value and demand of the event portfolio of Copenhagen, WoCo should also include events that do not have international significance in its strategies. The authors agree with Getz (1997) who describes how also smaller community based events and festivals are important for destinations. These events not only give experiences but also provide tourism values, which events on international scale have hard time to achieve (e.g. community support). Moreover, by leaving certain types of events out of its strategies WoCo is not contributing to the development of the event industry in Copenhagen. Now it seems like support is only given to those event organisers that possess or strive to bid or develop events that have international potential.

In the two other cases, HTCBB and SVB, the organisations have little strategic orientation towards trying to build an event portfolio at their destinations. It seems like the combination of events in Helsinki and Stockholm is rather haphazard and portfolio thinking, i.e. finding the most desirable group of events given the value of each event, is lacking.

The extent to which the studied tourism organisations apply the event tourism portfolio model can again be seen to be dependent on how strategic approach the destinations have taken in relation to event tourism. Gbg&Co and WoCo have come longest in applying the portfolio model and actively influence the event offering at the destination, while SVB and HTCBB clearly lack a strategic approach.

6.2.1 Bidding

Bidding is a topic that in the theory part was related to event tourism portfolios. In the light of the event tourism portfolio theory by Getz (1997) destinations and tourism organisations should bid on events that help maximise the tourism attractiveness of the event portfolio. As Getz points out, bidding is a strategy for attracting events with high tourism demand and value, and due to the large amount of resources that this strategy requires tourism organisations should never take the decisions on bidding easily.

All except for one (HTCBB) of the case organisations are involved in, or have ambitions to bid on events, which implies that these tourism organisations want to operate at the top level of the event tourism portfolio model by Getz (1997) that was introduced in the theory part. An interesting case in relation to bidding is WoCo, which has recently started to bid on sports events. The organisation shows a carefully thought out sports event bidding strategy as it has primarily decided to bid on medium sized sports events, instead of rushing directly to bid on mega events. The approach is taken in order to get more experience, and the infrastructure in place for mega events like the Olympics Games. This is accordance with what Westerbeek et al. (2002) write about the need for destinations to first have the required technical competence in place if they are to bid on large-scale events.

Furthermore, Getz (1997) describes how bidders usually have to try to bid several times before getting to host an event, and WoCo seems to be aware of this as it points out that it is very uncertain that Copenhagen will get the Olympic Games in 2024. At the same time the organisation also highlights that it is important to have a long-term approach on bidding on sports events. The organisation has clearly understood that the bidding process and the actual event can have an extensive time gap between them as Catherwood & van Kirk (1992) suggest.

6.3 COORDINATION OF EVENTS

Events can be seen as projects having a specific task, carried out by a group of people with time constraints under which a transformation takes place (cf. Lundin & Söderholm, 1995). Today, in many organisations several projects are run simultaneously, and in order to coordinate this multiproject setting multiproject management is needed (Elonen & Artto, 2003).

In the studied tourism organisations and their events departments a number of events or projects are being planned and implemented at the same time. Hence, the situation can be described as a multiproject setting (Engwall, 1997; Elonen & Artto, 2003; Engwall & Jerbrant, 2003). In one of the cases events are clearly seen as projects and managed accordingly. The event unit of Gbg&Co, Events Collaboration, is managed as a project organisation that is guided by an operations plan in which each project has a project description. The operations plan can be seen as a multiproject management tool that guides the work of the whole department. Furthermore, the work of the events unit is characterised by flexibility, and the unit develops (e.g. the number of employees) according to which needs exist at the time. Events Collaborations also has a clear strategy how it chooses the projects it gets involved in. As an evaluation tool and criteria for which event it gets involved in the department uses for example the number of participants that are attracted by the event, and how many nights the participants are estimated to stay.

The way in which Gbg&Co works with events is a good example of multiproject management defined by Elonen and Artto (2003) as choosing the right projects, developing shared strategies between them and the organisation, and implementing a long-term view. Gbg&Co tries to maximise the value of the events (or the portfolio of events which was discussed above), and the strategy for events seem to be an essential part of the overall tourism strategies of the organisation.

Of the studied tourism organisations also WoCo sees events as projects and the multiproject setting seems to be an intended strategy. Copenhagen Eventures, the event unit of WoCo, has project leaders for different types of events. The unit also has a clear strategy for which kind of events it wants to get involved in (sport and cultural events that have international potential) supporting the notion of Engwall and Jerbrant (2003) that multiproject setting and management can be the result of a specific strategy. The other studied tourism organisations, SVB and HTC B, do not work with events as strategically as the two already mentioned tourism organisations that have events units and many people working in them. Accordingly, SVB and HTC B do not have that many projects or events going under planning and implementation at the same time that would need coordination. However, these two organisations are still involved in events through, for example, sponsoring and assistance, and therefore the authors think that some coordination is needed. The authors agree with Watt (1998) who points out how coordination is crucial to any successful organisation and its management. The below described problems and challenges that the tourism organisations have in relation to multiproject setting will verify this.

6.3.1 Challenges and Problems of Multievent Setting

Payne (1995) divides the challenges and problems related to multiproject management into the 5C's: capacity, conflicts, commitment, context and complexity. These themes also came up in this study (see the Figure 6.1 for a summary) In Helsinki for example *context* problems exist in the form of event organisers taking advantage of multiple sources of finance. In other words, problems exist in the coordination and flow of information between

the different city offices that provide funding to events. The lack of communication and flow of information between the city offices and the complicated system of actors the different offices form can also be related to the *complexity* problem, which arises when multiple interfaces take place between projects and other related parties. Although HTCBB is aware of the problem, it has so far done little to solve this problem. However, the plan of HTCBB and the City of Helsinki is to establish an events office, which would take the responsibility of coordination of resources to events.

The fact that the city has for a long time postponed the decision to finance the event office in Helsinki is a sign of a lack of *commitment* from the part of the city in relation to events. The lack of commitment results in that HTCBB is not even capable of improving the coordination of events held in Helsinki, since the organisation is dependent on the finance received from the city. Hence, there are *conflicts* of interest between the City of Helsinki and HTCBB.

Furthermore, in Helsinki there has been a lot of talk about event categorisation that would clarify the funding role of the city in relation to different kinds of events. The authors believe that this would diminish the *capacity* problems that are very apparent in Helsinki and help HTCBB and the City of Helsinki find a balance between the requirements of different kind of events especially in relation to financial aid.

In the case of WoCo, the Director of Copenhagen Eventures described how the cooperation between the different event organisers and events is lacking in Copenhagen. He described how similar events are held in Copenhagen by different event organisers and how this results in overlapping of events. The independence and overlapping of events in Copenhagen can be related to the problems that Elonen and Artto (2003) have pointed out in relation to independent projects. Moreover, the authors see the situation in Copenhagen as a *context* problem as the different events have totally independent existence with their own goals and problems. Despite being aware of the problems and challenges related to coordination of events industry in Copenhagen, it seems that WoCo does not find that it should take the responsibility of solving the problems. The reason for this is that the organisation prioritises events that have international tourism potential.

Hence, there seems to be a lack of *commitment* from WoCo's side in relation to local and regional events that have only national drawing power.

In the case of Copenhagen Eventures it seems like the public-private ownership causes some *conflicts* of interest between the actors. The private actors are more interested in short-term benefits of individual events, while Copenhagen Eventures wants to promote a more long-term view on event tourism.

The public-private ownership structure and the platform for cooperation that Gbg&Co has is a good example of trying to reduce any *conflicts* of interests that may exist between the different actors. The ownerships structure and strong focus on cooperation also is also bound to increase the *commitment* of all involved parties. In the steering committee of Event Collaboration all the key stakeholders are gathered around the same table, and the parties can together discuss what is the best way to work with events.

Multiproject problems: 5 C's by Payne (1995)	Examples of Multievent Management Problems for Tourism Organisations and Destinations
Context	Event organisers take advantage of the lack of coordination in relation to finance provided by the city (Helsinki) Total independence and overlapping of events in a destination (Copenhagen)
Commitment	The city is not committed to event tourism (Helsinki) Tourism organisation is not committed to all kinds of events (Copenhagen)
Capacity	Tourism organisation does not have the ability to coordinate resources to events (Helsinki)
Conflicts	Different interests of the city and tourism organisation in relation to event tourism (Helsinki) Different interests that originate from public-private ownership of tourism organisation (Copenhagen)
Complexity	Lack of communication and flow of information between city offices that provide financial aid to events (Helsinki)

Figure 6.1 Multievent Management Problems for Tourism Organisations and Destinations

The empirical findings to a great extent indicate that the coordination of events in destinations can be looked upon two different perspectives. Firstly, one can talk about internal coordination within the tourism organisation and the problems and challenges that are related to the events it is involved in. Secondly, the coordination of events, or the lack of it, can also be related to

all the events that take place in destinations and in which tourism organisations may play little role.

6.4 MANAGING EVENT TOURISM STAKEHOLDERS

The event management system model (Getz & Frisby 1988, in Getz, 1997) helps describe how each individual event is embedded in several layers of environments that keep inside many different kinds of actors and interactions that need to be identified and managed. The event management system can be applied to tourism organisations and the stakeholders they need to take into account when working with events. Tourism organisations have a great number of different event tourism stakeholders that need to be identified and managed.

In all the studied tourism organisations cities were mentioned as important event tourism stakeholders. Since all of the studied tourism organisations are at least partly public owned, it seems only natural that they rely on the help and support provided by cities. The empirical findings indicate that the involvement of the city in relation to event tourism varies a lot. The city can set severe restrictions to the work with events as in the case of HTCB, or it can also be an active collaboration partner as at Gbg&Co. Cities can be seen as a part of the community context of the event management system model, i.e. cities are important local forces that to a great extent dictate the conditions under which tourism organisations can work with events. According to the stakeholder classifications by Cleland (1999) and Shone and Parry (2004) cities can be seen as primary public event tourism stakeholders of tourism organisations. In general, it seems that it is hard for tourism organisations to get the city authorities to get involved in event tourism. This might be due to the fact that the event industry is rather new, and the city politicians have not yet properly realised the benefits events can bring along for destinations.

The empirical findings indicate that other important primary event tourism stakeholders for tourism organisations are the event organisers and the event industry in general. These stakeholders come from the private sector, and

like the cities also operate in the community context of the event management system model. The authors consider it vital for tourism organisations to try to cooperate with for example event organisers and owners of event venues like for example Gbg&Co does.

The event management system model by Getz (1997) also describes how global forces in the general environment influence events. The global force that the empirical findings indicate as very influential in relation to tourism organisations' event tourism strategies is the government. According to the stakeholder classifications by Cleland (1999) and Shone and Parry (2004) governments can be seen as secondary public event tourism stakeholders of tourism organisations. Three of the four case organisations stress how the government should get more involved in event tourism. The organisations point out that without the support of the government it is hard for them to develop the event industry at their destinations and attract international large scale events. Many of the interviewees stress that the lack of government involvement is one of the greatest challenges or problems in relation to event tourism. This problem can be related to the scepticism that governments in general have tended to show towards tourism. Since the governments have only recently started to realise the economical benefits that tourism can contribute to a country, it seems natural that it takes some time to get governments to comprehend the importance of events.

6.4.1 Networking

Getz (1997) points out how to cope in the event management system, every event needs a strategy how to manage all the different stakeholders (Getz, 1997). Similarly, tourism organisations not only need to identify their stakeholders but they also need to be actively managed. Moreover, Getz (1997) argues that as a solution to stakeholder management each event should try to build alliances and networks with all the important stakeholders. Similarly, tourism organisations need to network with all the important stakeholders in order to make the work with events most effective.

In two of the studied tourism organisations (Gbg&Co and WoCo) both the ownership structures of the organisations and the own steering committees of the events departments bring together key tourism and event tourism stakeholders and give excellent opportunities for networking. The ownership structure and steering committees create an arena where different event tourism actors can meet. They also work as a foundation based on a mutual interest, i.e. interest towards working with events (cf. Larson & Wikström, 2001). The ways in which Gbg&Co and WoCo network with the different event tourism stakeholders can be analysed with the help of the consensus perspective on understanding project networks by Larson and Wikström (2001). Both the organisations through their ownership structure and special steering committees for events enable conversation and dialogue, cooperation and the building of a shared long-term commitment and action among the different event tourism stakeholders. Although the networks of Gbg&Co and WoCo seem to be mostly based on the consensus perspective also some aspects of the political perspective to understanding project networks (Larson & Wikström, 2001) were apparent. A good example of this is the different interests that the members of Copenhagen Eventures' steering committee have in relation to events and event tourism (i.e. short-term gains vs. long-term view).

Another example of networking in relation to WoCo is the role that the events department has adopted in relation to bidding. Copenhagen Eventures calls itself an “one stop shopping” partner for all the actors that want to get involved in bidding for bigger culture and sports events to Copenhagen. In this role WoCo is like a spider in the web facilitating meetings and cooperation between different actors that want to get involved in bidding (cf. consensus perspective by Larson & Wikström, 2001). Moreover, the way in which Copenhagen Eventures networks with other cities in Denmark in relation to organising sports events can be understood with the help of the consensus perspective on project networks by Larson and Wikström (2001).

6.5 MARKETING OF EVENTS

Today tourists have an increasing amount of destinations and attractions to choose between, and in order to attract visitors to events some kind of marketing is needed (Getz, 1997; Shone & Parry, 2004). Compared to individual event organisers tourism organisations have much more resources and marketing channels available, and therefore it would seem natural that tourism organisations engaged themselves in the marketing of events.

Common to all the studied tourism organisations is that they market the events that take place in their destinations. The studied organisations market events, for example, on their home pages (all have an events calendar where one can search for events) and in brochures and press releases. Nevertheless, the roles that the organisations have in relation to marketing of events vary. For two of the studied organisations, HTCBB and SVB, the marketing of events seems to be the main role, or one of the main roles when working with events. Hence, the event organisers in Helsinki and Stockholm can use the marketing channels of HTCBB and SVB in order to market their events.

Interesting in relation to WoCo is that the events department does not engage itself in the marketing of events it handles, but instead it is the marketing and PR departments of WoCo that have the responsibility of all marketing. This can have its grounds on the organisational structure of WoCo, which is very detailed and consists of many different departments and units that all have their own responsibilities. The fourth tourism organisation, Gbg&Co, seems to be the only organisation that makes marketing plans for each individual event it handles.

What was evident in the empirical findings was that tourism organisations do not take the total responsibility of marketing the events that are held in their destination, but they help the event organisers to market the events through their own marketing channels. Hence, the events organisers themselves still have the main responsibility of the marketing. Exceptions of this are the events that the tourism organisations organise themselves. Furthermore, in all of the cases events are used as part of the general destination marketing that all the studied tourism organisations engage in. For example, HTCBB

markets the events held in Helsinki through its marketing channels with the aim of marketing Helsinki in general.

6.5.1 Market Segmentation for Event Tourism

As Mossberg (2000) and Shone and Parry (2004) describe the market for events is wide and event organisers need to select target markets for their events in order to direct their promotional efforts. Similarly, the market that is available for tourism organisations in relation to event tourism is wide, and it would only seem logical that tourism organisations specified the markets they want to address in their event tourism strategies.

What was evident in the empirical findings was that two of the studied tourism organisations had, to some extent, set target markets for event tourism. The aim of Gbg&Co is to reach a wide audience for events (something for everyone) and the organisation pursues many of the earlier described generic tourism strategies. Hence, the event tourism target market for Gbg&Co seems to be very wide. Furthermore, WoCo seems to target the international audience, since it only engages in events with international drawing power. In other words, the catchment area for events (cf. Shone & Parry, 2004) for WoCo is international. What was common to all the studied tourism organisations was the fact that they all stressed how each individual event needs to set its own target market due to the different nature of each events.

Generally speaking, it seems to be hard for tourism organisations to set up target markets for event tourism, if the tourism organisations in question are not extensively involved in working with events. Gbg&Co and WoCo have set up specific strategies for events and work systematically to attract and develop certain types of events. The decisions in which events to get involved in have their origins in which types of tourists the organisations want to attract with the help of events. In other words, the event tourism target markets guide the work with events. However, since the work with events is not very systematic in SVB and HTCB and these two tourism organisations do not actively try to influence the portfolio of events in their

destinations, it is impossible for them to set up any target market for event tourism.

6.5.2 Packaging

According to Getz (1997) packaging of the events is a good way to maximise the convenience and perceived value for tourists. Event packages also tend to reach higher yielding target market segments, generate additional revenue and important cash flow as well as give an opportunity to develop partnerships with the industry (Getz, 1997), and it would therefore seem natural that tourism organisations were involved in event packaging,

Of the four studied tourism organisations two engage themselves in event packaging (Gbg&Co & WoCo). In both the cases events are used as core attractions around which different services are added rather than as an added value to other packages (cf. Getz, 1997). A good example of this are the packages that Gbg&Co offers for tourists in connection to the European Championships take that place in the city in 2006. WoCo has also used event packaging and has good experiences of it. However, the organisation does not see packaging as its core business and does not therefore use it actively. HTCB and SVB in turn are not involved in packaging events. In these two cases the packaging is taken care of by the private sector

The authors believe that with the help of event packaging tourism organisations can not only maximise the convenience for tourists visiting events (Getz, 1997), but also spread the benefits of events to the whole tourism industry. Moreover, the authors think that packaging events can also be a good way for tourism organisations to start cooperating more closely with the tourism industry, and to get the private companies, like hotels, more involved in event tourism. Packaging events with other attractions would help to proof the mutual benefits of events and thereby hopefully increase the cooperation within the whole tourism industry.

6.6 EVENTS AS DESTINATION IMAGE MAKERS

The image of a destination has an important component in tourists' destination choice process. Destinations with positive images are more likely to prosper compared to destinations with less favourable images (Fakey & Crompton, 1991). Events are often seen as image builders for destinations, and therefore according to Getz (1997) they should be used as a generic strategy in the creation of a destination image.

Laws et al. (2002) discuss how the development and implementation of an appropriate destination image should be a strategic and systematic process including the identification of the destination special advantages or attributes, and understanding of how to use these attributes to attract those tourists that the destination wishes to attract. The empirical findings show that all the studied tourism organisations have identified events as positive attributes and advantages that their destinations possess. However, to what extent and how events are used strategically to develop a destination image varies.

For Helsinki events contribute to the feeling that there is always something happening in the city. Accordingly, HTCBB uses events in destination marketing and creation of destination image as the role of animators of the city (cf. Dann, 1971 in Getz, 1997). WoCo in turn has a clear vision of what kind of events does not belong to the destination image of Copenhagen. It is important for WoCo to get involved in events that fit and enhance the image of the city. Therefore, the organisation does not, for example, want to have carnivals in the city, since they apply more to Brazil than Copenhagen. This can be related to Erfurt and Johnsen (2003) who describe how destinations should carefully choose the events they get involved in, since events can have both positive and negative impacts on the destination image. WoCo clearly tries to achieve the strategic and cultural fit between events and the destination image what Jago et al. (2003) talk about. The excluding of certain events is in total contrast with HTCBB. The organisation supports all kinds of events and also welcomes new themes and this correlates well with the role events has as animators in the city. Similar to WoCo also Gbg&Co chooses to only get involved in events that reinforce the Göteborg brand. The two

organisations also strive to use mega events as image builders as Mossberg (2000) suggests. In the case of SVB it is apparent that events could be better communicated in the destination image of Stockholm.

7 CONCLUSIONS

This final chapter will present the conclusions of this study. First the three research questions that were formulated in the beginning of the study will be answered. Thereafter, a concluding model that will summarise the most important findings and help solve the main problem, and thereby the purpose of this study, will be presented.

7.1 EVENTS AND TOURISM ORGANISATIONS

Events as a destination marketing and development strategy in order to gain several economical and social benefits has received a lot of attention during recent years. However, how widely or systematically events are actually used to attract tourists to destinations is another story. This study was launched as a response to the lack of studies on how event tourism strategies are used in destinations. This study has been directed to tourism organisations and the aim has been to explore the event tourism strategies of these organisations. In order to answer the main problem, how tourism organisations work strategically with events, three research questions were formulated. Firstly, attention was directed to the role events play in the overall strategies of tourism organisations.

7.1.1 The Importance of Events

During the research a trend towards tourism organisations using events more extensive in their overall tourism strategies was found. Tourism organisations seem to have realised the importance of events in achieving many different kinds of benefits. Events are, for example, seen to increase the attractiveness of destinations to both tourists and the local people, raise publicity and media coverage of destinations, and enhance destination images. Moreover, events are seen to increase job opportunities and to work as catalysts in stimulating infrastructure. Events are also considered as important means to liven up destinations during off-peak seasons and play a significant role in generating repeat visits to destinations.

The study clearly shows that as a result of realising the positive impacts of events, tourism organisations have increasingly started to use events as components in their overall tourism strategies. However, the ways in which events are actually part of the overall tourism strategies varies. Some tourism organisations have integrated events deeply into their overall strategies, and events form their own business area and have an own business strategy. In other cases events are included in the overall tourism strategies, however, the work with events is rather haphazard and other business areas are prioritised. What was noticeable was that even if events have their own department and forms its own business area this does not have to mean that the work with events is very systematic or strategic.

7.1.2 Working Strategically with Events

After getting an understanding of what part events play in the overall tourism strategies of tourism organisations, the focus was turned to what extent event tourism strategies are actually used in tourism organisations. The empirical findings indicate that strategic planning for event tourism has reached different stages in tourism organisations. Some of the tourism organisations engage themselves in very comprehensive strategic planning for events setting up visions and goals how to work with events. The strategic planning process in turn leads to more specific strategies for events, which takes into account the resources, capacity and core competence of the destinations. The tourism organisations that have specific strategies for events have also taken many different event supportive roles. These organisations for example produce and sponsor events as well as assist the event sector.

The results of the research clearly showed how in some tourism organisations systematic and detailed strategic planning for event tourism is lacking. These organisations are working with events, however, they have not planned or formulated any strategies for these events. Hence, the work with events in general lacks a systematic approach and the ways and roles that these tourism organisations have adopted in relation to events seem to originate from the overall tourism strategies and goals of the organisations.

What was, however, interesting is that the tourism organisations that do not work with events very strategically at the moment have intentions and ambitions to start using events more strategically in the future. Another interesting aspect that came up during the study is the importance of learning in relation to event tourism strategies. Although tourism organisations may be well along the way in relation to the work with events, they still leave room for learning in their event tourism strategies. This is quite natural, since the event industry is relatively young and many tourism organisations are still in the start-up phase when working with events.

7.1.3 Work with Events in Practise

After getting an understanding of the extent to which tourism organisations use event tourism strategies the third research question - how tourism organisations work with events in practise - was asked. Different practical ways in which tourism organisations can engage themselves in events were chosen, and in relation to them a clear pattern was detected. Those tourism organisations that have taken the strategic planning for event tourism furthest also work with events more strategically in practise. In other words, they implement their event tourism strategies in their every day work. These organisations, for example, try to actively influence the event offering in their destinations through bidding and production of events that are considered interesting and important. These organisations also, to some extent, coordinate the events held in their destinations as well as try to build networks with the key event tourism stakeholders already through their public-private ownership structure. Furthermore, in these organisations events are used as destination image-makers and the organisations are actively involved in marketing events. The results indicate that those tourism organisations that lack event tourism strategies are actively involved only in one of the studied practical ways of working with events, i.e. marketing of events. From this a conclusion can be drawn that the most common event related role for tourism organisations that lack event tourism strategies is to market events.

7.2 EVENT TOURISM STRATEGY DEVELOPMENT

As summary of the results of this study and to solve the main problem the authors have developed a model (see below Figure 7.1) that illustrates the event tourism strategy development in tourism organisations. The model is based on the findings from the studied tourism organisations and helps understand how the ways in which these tourism organisations work with events can be seen to follow certain phases. The different phases in the model in turn correlate with how far the strategic thinking in relation to event tourism has come.

At the first or introductory phase tourism organisations have realised the importance of events in order to gain different benefits for destinations. However, at this phase the work with events cannot be seen to be strategic yet, since no actions are taken to use events more actively. This is illustrated by the dotted lines in the model. At the next phase tourism organisations have integrated events into their overall tourism strategies. This phase illustrates the beginning of strategic thinking in relation to events. During the phase tourism organisations start to adopt different event related roles as for example marketing of events. The third phase takes the strategic thinking in relation to events to a more advanced level. At this phase tourism organisations usually have an own department and a business strategy for events that is incorporated into the overall strategies of tourism organisations. The final phase of the model describes how the practical, every day work with events is characterised by a strategic and systematic approach. In other words, the event tourism strategy is systematically implemented in practise.

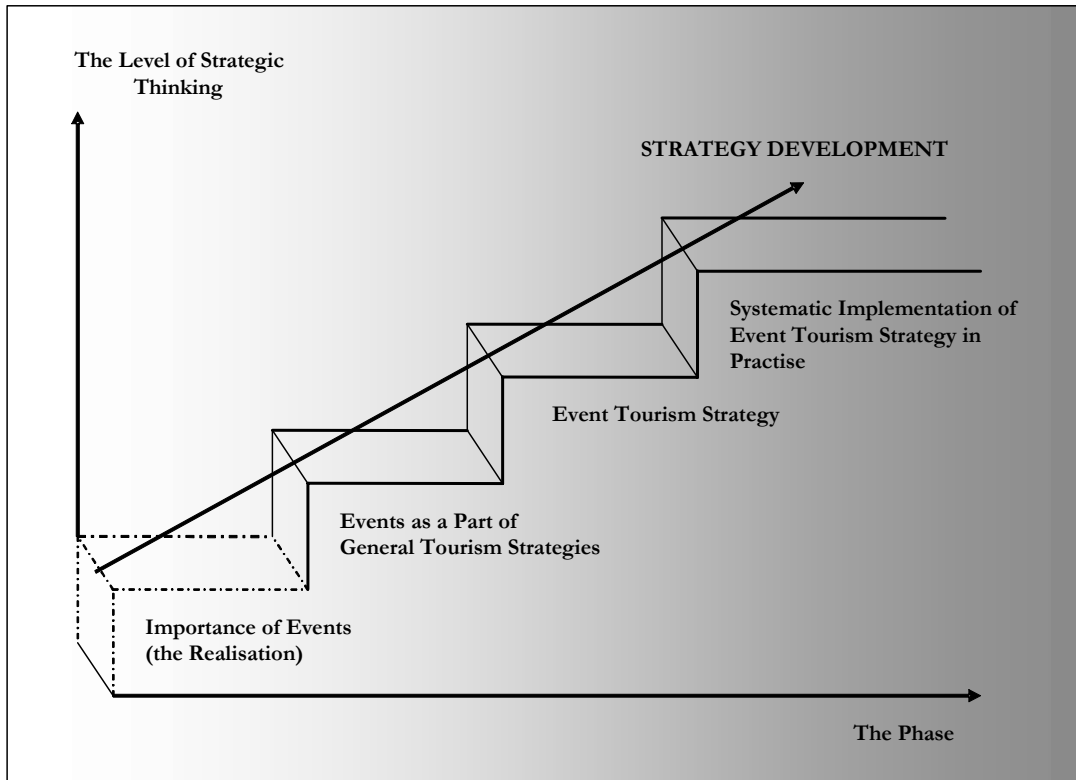


Figure 7.1 Event Tourism Strategy Development in Tourism Organisations

7.2.1 Factors Influencing Event Tourism Strategy Development

In relation to the model the authors found evidence that the level to which tourism organisations have come in their strategic event tourism management can be seen to be dependent on many different factors. One particularly influential factor seems to be the extent to which the city in which the tourism organisation operates has realised the potential of events and is actively supporting the work with events. Those tourism organisations that have the backing and support from the city for the work with events seem to also be the ones that have taken the event tourism strategy development furthest. The ownership structure and resource base of tourism organisations also seem to have significance to the event tourism strategy development. Public-private ownership of tourism organisations seems to correlate positively with a more strategic approach on event tourism. This

kind of ownership structure, for example, enables a closer cooperation with the event industry and guarantees a broader financial base when working with events in comparison with those tourism organisations that rely entirely on public money.

Furthermore, the development phase of the event industry as well as the tradition of event organising that exists in the destinations seem to have an impact on how strategically tourism organisations work with events. If the tradition of event organising is missing; and the event industry in general is not that developed in a destination strategic work with events is only in the start-up phase in tourism organisations. Moreover, good capacity and events infrastructure of destinations as well as long experience in working with events seem to correlate positively with a more strategic approach to event tourism. Finally, organisational restructuring was also seen to have an influence on the event tourism strategy development. If the tourism organisations in question had gone through a restructuring, despite good intentions, the work with events was still in the start up phase.

7.3 FUTURE RESEARCH

This study is of an explorative nature and has as such brought attention to several interesting factors in relation to how tourism organisations work strategically with events. The authors think that the results of the study can be used as a ground for developing a better understanding of how events can be used in destination development and marketing purposes also shading light to many interesting aspects on which future studies can build upon.

The authors feel that it would be very interesting to conduct a comparative study of public and private-public owned tourism organisations, and how they work with events in order to see if the findings of this study are a generalisation. Furthermore, the authors find that it would interesting to research more closely into the practical ways in which tourism organisations are working with events. For example, the authors feel that a more specific and in-depth study about how tourism organisations can use events as destination image makers would be useful.

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APPENDIX 1

Interview Guide

Can you describe what your organisation is working with? Does your organisation have a vision, business idea, and goals? If yes, what are they?

Can you describe the history of your organisation in short?

What is the ownership structure of your organisation?

What kind of tourism goals does your organisation have? Could you describe how your organisation works to achieve them in practise?

Is your organisation working with events, and is yes how?

If your organisation is working with events, when did you start to work with events and why? If your organisation is not working with events, what is the reason for this?

Does your organisation have any goals related to event tourism? Could you describe how your organisation works to achieve them in practise?

Do you think that events have value from a tourism perspective and if yes, what kind of value?

How many persons are working with events in your organisation and what do they do?

How would you describe the event offering in your destination? Does your organisation try to influence the offering and if yes, how?

How does your organisation choose which kind of events it gets involved in?

Does your organisation prioritise some kind of events and if yes, why?

Does your organisation try to avoid any type of events and if yes, why?

Does your organisation bid on events? If yes, what kind of events?

Does your destination have some kind special knowledge in relation to events?

How does your organization coordinate all the different events that it is involved in?

Can you name any problems that are related to the coordination of events?

Who are important actors when your organisation is working with events? Do you cooperate with any of the actors and if yes, how?

Are you involved in marketing the different events held at your destination and if yes, how?

Have you set up any target markets in relation to events?

Does your organisation package events and if yes, how?

What kind of image do you want to tourists have of your destination? Do you use events to achieve the wanted destination image? If yes, how?

What are the biggest problems and challenges for your organisation when working with events?