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Composition of Event Attendees: A Comparison of Three Small-Scale Sporting Events

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Abstract

This study contributes to the literature on economic impact assessments of sporting events by categorizing attendees of small-scale sporting events based on their potential primary economic stimulus to the host region. Thereby, the research questions driving this study are as follows: (1) What is the composition of event attendees at small-scale sporting events according to their primary economic stimulus to the host region? and (2) How does the composition of event attendees vary between the three considered events? The study builds upon primary data ($N = 2,006$) gathered at three small-scale sporting events (cycling, windsurfing, and ski jumping) hosted in Northern Europe. The empirical analysis draws on a state-of-the-art framework for economic impact assessments. The results show that the percentage of attendees, whose expenditures result in fresh money influx to a host region, does not exceed 40% for any of the events and heavily depends on the event-specific characteristics.

Keywords: event attendees, composition, economic impact assessment, small-scale events

Introduction

There is a growing body of research emphasizing the significance of event attendees as the driving force of the economic impact of events (e.g., Burgan & Mules, 1992; Jeong, Crompton, & Dudensing, 2015; Preuss, 2005; Taks, Green, Chalip, Kesenne, & Martyn, 2013; Warnick, Bojanic, & Xu, 2015). However, most studies on event attendees to date have focused on issues such as: (1) How much and on what do event attendees spend money during an event? and (2) What are the determinants of their spending?

However, there is also the need to understand theoretically under what circumstances event-related expenditures will cause a positive, neutral, or negative economic stimulus to the host region. Furthermore, based on this theoretical knowledge, it seems equally important to have sufficient empirical evidence about the composition of event attendees according to the direction of their individual economic stimulus to

the host region. This evidence is particularly important for the economic impact assessment of events for several reasons. First, information about the direction of expenditures flows (positive, neutral, negative) serves as a key input to several available models aimed at calculating the overall economic impact of an event, such as Regional Input–Output Modeling System (RIMS), Impact Analysis for PLANing (IMPLAN), Economic Impact Analysis (EIA), or Cost-Benefit-Analysis (CBA). Therefore, as noted by Matheson and Baade (2006), “if errors are made in assessing direct spending, those errors are compounded in calculating indirect spending through standard multiplier analysis” (p. 357). Consequently, more comprehensive and context-specific estimates of the composition of event attendees will increase the reliability of any form of *ex-ante* economic impact assessment. Second, the results of any *ex-ante* economic impact assessment that are based on such more reliable information can, if appropriately presented to relevant stakeholders (e.g., politicians and citizens/taxpayers), help these individuals make a more profound assessment of whether hosting an event would likely justify widespread beliefs of a positive economic impact on the local/regional economy. Considering this more profound assessment of economic effects together with evaluations of other, largely non-economic factors, decisions involving whether a city/region wants to host a specific event will be more thorough, careful, and balanced (Kwiatkowski, in press).

Against this background, this paper presumes that the determination of money flows from event attendees, combined with an accurate understanding of their economic relevance for the host region, constitutes a key precondition for an economic impact assessment of events (Crompton, Lee, & Shuster, 2001; Diederling & Kwiatkowski, 2015; Dwyer, Forsyth, & Spurr, 2005, 2006; Preuss, 2005; Tyrrell & Johnston, 2001).

Accordingly, based on a state-of-the-art framework for economic impact studies developed by Crompton (1995, 2006), Crompton et al. (2001), and Preuss (2004a, 2004b, 2005, 2006), this study aims to categorize event attendees at three small-scale¹ sporting events according to their potential primary economic stimulus to the host region. Specifically, the event attendees are categorized into one of six predefined groups: “Residents,” “Home Stayers,” “Event Visitors,” “Extensioners,” “Casuals,” and “Time Switchers.” The definitions of these groups are strictly derived from the mentioned conceptual framework. This framework, in essence, defines which behavior of local and non-local (tourist) attendees of the event leads to an additional economic stimulus to the host region and which behavior only causes crowding out, redistribution, and deterrence effects (Preuss, Seguin, & O’Reilly, 2007). Consequently, the proposed categorization of attendees is based on economic theory and does not represent marketing segmentation. Furthermore, it must be clarified that the paper bases its analyses exclusively on the attendees’ composition according to their potential primary economic stimulus to the host region. Thus, neither calculation of the total economic impact nor consideration of other economic effects arising from hosting events (e.g., changes in business revenue, business profits, personal wages, jobs, or crowding-out effects) is addressed herein.

The empirical analysis is based on primary data collected by self-administered questionnaires at the following small-scale sporting events: (1) Giro d’Italia 2012 in Denmark (761 questionnaires), (2) PWA Windsurf World Cup Sylt 2012 in Germany

(948 questionnaires), and (3) FIS Ski Jumping World Cup 2013 in Oslo, Norway (304 questionnaires).

To summarize, the current study extends the existing literature by categorizing event attendees of small-scale sporting events using theory-driven group definitions from a local perspective (i.e., where the host region had been defined as the city/municipality in which the event is hosted). This approach differentiates the current study from the earlier studies that focused mainly on the composition of event attendees at large-scale (mega) sport events examined mainly from a national perspective.² Moreover, this study is novel in terms of a cross-event comparison of event attendees' composition, which is supported by consistent data collection based on a coherent questionnaire. Second, the paper adds to the literature by offering a practical scheme for the identification of event attendees based on Preuss's (2005) theoretical framework. The proposed scheme clarifies how to identify the composition of event attendees using a survey-based approach. This, in turn, is of managerial relevance because it will help event managers and analysts to easily transfer the rather complex Preuss framework into a practical tool for the identification of event attendees' composition. Finally, the paper provides a comparison between the basic approach by Crompton and the more refined approach by Preuss in terms of the categorization of event attendees.

Description of the Crompton and the Preuss Framework

Following the pioneering work of Burns and Mules (1986) analyzing the Adelaide Grand Prix, several studies have contributed to increase knowledge about the economic effects (such as increased employment, wages, and tax revenues) of hosting sporting events. However, relatively few studies have attempted to examine the primary economic stimulus of the event-related consumption expenditures to the host region.

This literature review, albeit briefly, discusses (1) how events may influence travel and spending behaviors of persons living *in* (locals) and *outside* (non-locals) the host region, and, subsequently, (2) what is the economic stimulus of event-related money flows stemming from both groups' consumption to the host region. Based on their economic effects for the host region, the expenditures made by attendees of an event—both locals and non-locals—will be categorized as positive, neutral, or negative. To illustrate the links between theoretical and empirical research in this field, selected empirical contributions will be presented accordingly.

After analyzing 20 economic impact studies of various events, Crompton was the first to propose a set of principles central to the integrity of economic impact analyses (Crompton, 1995). Based on the attendees' origin and reason for attending an event, Crompton (1995) identified several groups of attendees of the event and discussed their economic relevance to the local economy. One central assumption is that "only spectators who reside outside the jurisdiction and whose primary motivation for visiting is to attend the sports event, or who stay longer and spend more because of it, should be included" (p. 26). This statement can be divided into two main arguments. First, he claimed that event-related expenditures made by locals are in most cases substituting for other leisure expenditures. Assuming a given limited (leisure) budget for the locals, their event-related spending is only a form of redistribution among different (leisure) sectors of the host region; thus, no net economic stimulus can be assigned to these expenditures.³ Hence, following Crompton (1995), locals' expenditures should

not be counted as an economic stimulus. Second, he further concluded that even expenditures by non-local attendees (tourists) should not be included in the calculation of the economic impact without closer inspection of their motivations, because only purely event-oriented attendees and those attendees who extended their stay in the host region due to the event will generate an economic impact. Notwithstanding their high importance with respect to the development of a theory-driven framework, his propositions—if applied strictly and without reflection—entailed some (serious) methodological problems.

One decade later, Preuss (2005) significantly extended Crompton's work by introducing more sophisticated and nuanced definitions of event-affected persons⁴ by splitting locals and non-locals into several, more definite sub-groups. Most importantly, he placed special emphasis on the argument that the categorical omission of expenditures made by locals as suggested by Crompton (1995) may lead to a non-trivial simplification. Furthermore, he showed theoretically that locals' spending cannot be treated as a pure redistribution of money in all circumstances and that, moreover, it might very well be possible that this spending entails some relevant economic impacts for the host region. Preuss (2005) proposed four categories of event-affected local persons based on their behavior and motivations. The first group is called "Runaways" and is defined as those residents who take extra holidays outside the region because of the event. Consequently, their expenditure is taken outside the region within which it otherwise would have remained, hence representing a loss to the region. The second group ("Changers") is defined as those residents who change the time of their holiday trip from another time of the year to the period of the event. Furthermore, it can be assumed that these persons do not spend more or less money outside the region than they would have without the event; thus, they create neither a loss nor a gain to the local economy. Accordingly, expenditures of "Changers" can be left out of the calculation because they are neutral with respect to the calculation of economic impact. Conversely, Preuss (2005) indicated that other local inhabitants might opt to stay at home to attend the event instead of going on vacation outside of the region. Consequently, this third group is called "Home Stayers." Because their expenditures would have poured out of the region without the event being hosted—in other words, their "money was kept at home"—these expenditures represent a gain to the local economy. Finally, the fourth group ("Residents") is defined by Preuss (2005) as "residents who would have been in the city/region without the event" (p. 283); thus, their expenditures are neutral with respect to the calculation of economic impact. This outcome seems plausible, particularly because it can be assumed that people have a limited budget for leisure activities of any kind. If a "Resident" has spending induced by an event—clearly a leisure activity—it is apparent that she/he must cut spending for other (regular) leisure activities such as cinema, theatre, and concerts. This behavior indicates that the effect of this group must be considered neutral because the additional revenues of, for example, the event organizers are mirrored by revenue losses of other companies located in the region at the same level.

An equally complex situation exists in terms of the money flows generated by non-locals, which traditionally have been perceived as the main driver of the economic impact of events. For example, this group of attendees typically raises the highest expectations concerning the potential economic impact among event organizers. This

is generally also true; normally, non-locals generate the largest part of an event's economic impact. However, at the same time, the scholarly literature shows several relevant circumstances that should be considered when estimating the economic impact stemming from non-locals' consumption.

When assessing non-locals' expenditures associated with an event, Crompton (1995) advocated excluding "those nonlocal spectators who have been planning a visit to the community for a long time but changed the timing of their visit to coincide with the event" (p. 27). Such event attendees are commonly known in the literature as "Time Switchers" (Crompton, 1995; Preuss, 2004). It is clear that this type of time switching does not lead to a net increase in the economic activity in the region but simply alters the time period in which the activity occurs (Matheson & Baade, 2006).

The next specific sub-group of non-locals consists of the so-called "Casuals," that is, those attendees who, according to Crompton (1995), may have already been in the host region, being attracted by other features of the region and may have preferred to go to the sporting event instead of another activity. Reasonably, the expenditure made by "Casuals" cannot be attributed to the event because such expenditure would have been made regardless (Crompton, 1995; Preuss, 2005; Tyrrell & Johnston, 2001).

Finally, as noted by Preuss (2005), some regular tourists will likely opt to shift or cancel their visits when the event occurs. This phenomenon is known as a displacement or crowding-out effect (Hultkrantz, 1998). Although Crompton (1995) emphasized its significance, a comprehensive conceptualization of this phenomenon accompanied by empirical testing was not provided until recent studies were conducted by Fourie and Santana-Gallego (2011), Fourie, Siebrits, and Spronk (2011), and Preuss (2011a). What is particularly valuable here is the fact that Preuss (2011a) clearly distinguished the crowding-out effect from the time-switching effect. To do so, he introduced another category of non-locals who stay away but would have come in the absence of the event, the so-called "Avoiders." Furthermore, Preuss (2005) divided "Avoiders" into two sub-groups, the first labeled as "Cancellers" (non-locals who totally cancelled their trip) and the second labeled as "Pre/Post Switchers" (tourist who will come to the region at another time).

Summarizing, within the existing literature several conceptual studies identified 10 groups of event-affected persons. To date, however, only few scholarly studies, largely conducted by Preuss with several co-authors, have analyzed (sporting) event attendees with respect to their theoretically derived economic impact. However, the focus of these studies was restricted to those groups of event-affected persons that can be directly identified at the event venue (hereafter "event attendees"): "Residents," "Home Stayers," "Event Visitors," "Extensioners," "Casuals," and "Time Switchers."⁵ Table 1 provides an overview of the composition of event attendees for different events as revealed by these studies.

The results presented in Table 1 clearly show that there is high variation in the composition of event attendees among the reviewed studies. However, when examining the overall vertical structure of the results, three homogeneous groups of events appear. The first group includes three mega football events, whereas the second group consists of a handball and a field hockey world cup tournament. The last group contains a single multi-sport event, the 2002 Commonwealth Games, for which the overall composition of event attendees seems to be rather distinct from previously categorized events.

Table 1. Summary of Empirical Studies on the Composition of Event Attendees (in %)

Group of event attendees	FIFA WC 2006 (Germany)*	FIFA WC 2010 (South Africa)*	EURO 2008 (Austria)*	Handball World Cup 2007 (Germany)*	Hockey World Cup 2006 (Germany)*	Commonwealth Games 2002 (City of Manchester)*
Residents	38.3	23.0	27.0	87.4	62.5	16.8
Home Stayers	6.7	1.1	5.0	4.6	4.6	15.8
Extensioners	9.3	1.5	2.0	2.8	6.0	–
Event Visitors	26.6	33.1	37.0	2.2	15.5	46.0
Casuals	8.3	12.0	23.1	0.9	2.9	17.0
Time Switchers	10.7	29.4	5.9	2.1	8.5	4.9
Source	Preuss, Kurscheidt, and Schutte (2009)	Preuss (2011b)	Preuss (2011a)	Preuss (2011a)	Preuss (2011a)	Preuss et al. (2007)

Notes: * - in parenthesis: affected area as defined by the authors of the respective study

Specifically, the proportion of attendees contributing to a positive primary economic impact, notably “Event Visitors” and “Extensioners,” in the group of football events ranges from approximately 35% to 39%. The same group of attendees for the handball and field hockey world cup tournaments ranges from approximately 5% to 22%, whereas in the last group (Commonwealth Games), it amounts to approximately 46%. Conversely, it is worth mentioning that there are also differences in terms of the percentage of “Residents,” in which for the football events the percentage ranges from approximately 20% to 40% and for other World Cup tournaments from 60% to 90%, whereas for the remaining event, the percentage of “Residents” does not exceed 20%.

The potential explanation of such significant variation in the presented results may be twofold. First, the reviewed events vary noticeably in terms of scale diversity and the sport discipline with which they were associated. More precisely, the first group embraces mega football events. The second contains international sporting events (world cups) but in sports disciplines which, in contrast to football, are less popular (handball and field hockey). Finally, the divergent results of the 2002 Commonwealth Games can be caused by the chosen definition of the affected area, which in this examination was limited to the city of Manchester and not to the whole host country as was the case for the remaining five events.

Altogether, it must be clarified that although the differences in the revealed percentage share of the different groups of event attendees among the considered event is obvious, the reasons behind these differences have never been the subject of any academic debate. Obviously, some suppositions come to mind in terms of the geo- and sociocultural context of those events, their scale diversity, or the sport discipline with which they were associated. However, as mentioned above, we have little knowledge of the differences in the composition of visitors at different types of events and their respective determinants. This issue can be identified as a clear research gap and should be considered a prospective avenue for future research. Therefore, the goal of this

study is to improve knowledge about the composition of attendees to events by specifically examining smaller-scale events that need more research attention (Agha & Taks, 2015; Gibson, Kaplanidou, & Kang, 2012; Gratton, Dobson, & Shibli, 2000; Kwiatkowski & Oklevik, in press; Taks, Chalip, & Green, 2015). This goal is further addressed by the empirical examination of three events in different sports, of different sizes and scope, in three different locations, and at different times of the year. Hence, in addition to providing reliable estimates on the composition of event attendees, the current study is intended to elucidate specific “event,” “place,” and “time” characteristics, three attributes that are key to enhancing our understanding of impacts and outcomes of different types of events and contexts.

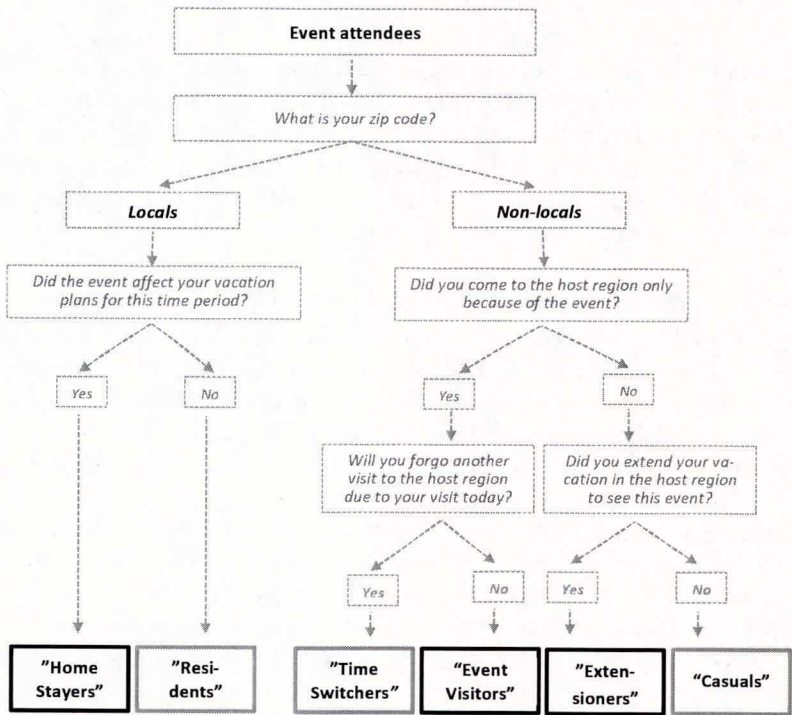
Scheme to Identify Groups of Event Attendees

To gather the necessary information to categorize respondents into one of the six groups of event attendees, a series of different questions must be collected. These questions can be grouped by (1) the respondent’s place of origin, (2) the purpose for visiting the region, and (3) changes in the respondent’s travel patterns attributable to the event. Figure 1 displays the procedure that must be followed to clearly identify the event attendee group affiliation for any respondent.

However, prior to any data analysis, it is necessary to clearly define the affected area. This endeavor requires specifying the explicit geographical boundaries of the area whose economy the event is expected to affect (Crompton, 1995). With respect to the above-mentioned classification of event-affected persons, the delimitation of the affected area directly determines who will be considered a local and who will be considered a non-local (tourist). Obviously, this somewhat arbitrary decision also determines the further assignment of event attendees into the respective sub-groups (“Residents,” “Home Stayers,” “Event Visitors,” “Extensioners,” “Casuals,” and “Time Switchers”). Thus, such a decision must be made carefully and might be guided by ascertaining the main stakeholders of the event organizers.

Furthermore, a number of specific questions must be integrated in the questionnaire to divide the respondents further into one of the above-mentioned six groups of event attendees.⁶ Figure 1 displays the process employed. First, rather than asking the respondents of the questionnaire directly about their status (local or non-local), respondents are asked about their place of origin in terms of their respective postal code. Based on these data, respondents are categorized as either “locals” or “non-locals.” This step is intended to separate “fresh” money from outside the area from local spending.

In a second step, non-locals (tourists) are classified into two groups according to their main purpose of travel to the host region: (1) tourists whose motivation to visit the region was solely driven by the event and (2) tourists whose travel purpose is not solely the event itself. However, for both groups, the assessment of their (spending) behavior with respect to the generation of a primary economic impulse is ambiguous. Consequently, additional information is needed to accurately determine whether a groups’ spending in the host region can be considered an influx of money into this region. Thus, the following refinement of the procedure using additional questions is necessary.



Notes: – Prior to commencing the procedure, there is a need to define clearly the geographical boundaries of the area on whose economy the effect of the event is supposed to occur;

Positive economic impact

Neutral economic impact

Source: Kwiatkowski (in press).

Figure 1. Identification scheme for sub-groups of event attendees.

The first group will be asked whether they have been planning a visit to the region for a long time but changed the timing of their visit to coincide their stay with the event. Respondents who answer this question positively are unambiguously identified as “Time Switchers.” Expenditures made by these “Time Switchers” are neutral with respect to an economic stimulus because they would have occurred in the region anyway without the event. Consequently, these expenditures should not be considered in an economic impact analysis. Respondents who state that they have not been planning a visit of the host city at another point in time (in the foreseeable future) are identified as “Event Visitors.” The expenditures of this group can be clearly identified as fresh money influx and, thus, should be included as primary economic impulse in an economic impact analysis.

The status of the group of non-locals who answered that the event was not the sole purpose of their visit also needs further refinement to identify whether their spending

can be considered positive or neutral. Here, information is necessary about whether these people have extended their stay (i.e., came earlier and/or stayed longer). Respondents who have not extended their stay at all are classified as “Casuals.” Their expenditures are neutral with respect to the effect of the event because it can be assumed that this spending would have occurred in the host region anyway. Respondents who prolonged their stay will be categorized as “Extensioners” in the following. In contrast to the “Casuals,” at least the spending that occurred during the extension period must be counted as fresh money influx and additional economic stimulus. However, it is important to mention that this is only true for the extension days and not for the time they would have stayed in the region anyway.

Finally, also within the group of locals, a further distinction is necessary. Although it seems quite logical to assume that, generally, the spending of locals does not have a positive effect on the local economy (pure redistribution), there are cases, as mentioned previously, in which spending by residents nonetheless leads to an unambiguous effect. Spending of locals must be considered a positive money flow if the event affected their vacation plans for the period the event was staged. In such a case, money that would have been spent outside the region (possibly even abroad) was now spent inside the region only due to the event. Accordingly, the questionnaire must contain a question identifying whether locals have cancelled an already planned trip to attend the event. These local respondents will be classified as “Home Stayers”, whereas local respondents who answered this additional question negatively will be classified as “Residents.” It is apparent that expenditures made during the event by the latter group cannot be considered a primary economic impulse.

Data Collection

The data for this study were collected during three small-scale sporting events staged in Denmark, Germany, and Norway between May 2012 and March 2013. Table 2 presents the distinctive features of the considered events.

With respect to the main characteristics of the chosen events, although all three cases analyzed in the current study were spectator-driven small-scale sporting events, several other context-related characteristics allow differentiating them clearly from one another. In particular, the chosen events were associated with different sports, specifically, cycling (2012 Giro d'Italia), windsurfing (PWA Windsurf Word Cup), and ski jumping (FIS Ski Jumping Word Cup in Oslo). Of the three events, two are recurring events that have been staged annually at the same place for many years (world cups in windsurfing and ski jumping), whereas the remaining one (Giro d'Italia) was a non-recurring cycling event that occurred in Denmark. Furthermore, only the ski jumping event in Oslo was ticketed and held only during the weekend. In contrast, the other two were open-access events that have been staged during both weekends and weekdays. Moreover, only the windsurfing event was staged during the tourist season (i.e., during the so-called autumn holidays for several German states), whereas the other two events were held in off-season periods. The events also varied in their total audience size from less than 100,000 spectators for the ski jumping event in Oslo, to 200,000 spectators for the windsurfing event, to almost half a million during the first three stages of the 2012 Giro d'Italia. Finally, the events occurred at highly distinctive sites, specifically, a well-established coastal tourist destination in Northern Germany

Table 2. Distinctive Features of the Considered Events

Event	Sport	Location	Occurrence	Duration (days of the week)	Season (Date)	Ticketing (Number of spec- tators)
2012 Giro d'Italia (the first three stages)	Cycling	Denmark, two mid-sized cities located on the Jutland Peninsula: Herning (1 st and 2 nd stage) and Horsens (3 rd stage)	Annual, one-off, (first time in Denmark)	4 days, Friday– Monday	Off- season, (May 4–7, 2012)	No (500,000)
PWA Windsurf World Cup	Windsurfing	Germany, a small coastal town of Westerland, which lies on the North Sea island of Sylt	Annual, reoccurring, since 1984	11 days, Friday– Sunday	Autumn holidays, (Sep. 28– Oct. 7, 2012)	No (200,000)
FIS Ski Jumping World Cup (Oslo)	Ski jumping	Norway, Oslo, the capital and most populous city in Norway	Annual, reoccurring, Since 1980	2 days, Saturday– Sunday	Off- season, (Mar. 16– 17, 2013)	Yes (96,000)

(windsurfing), a mid-sized urban area on the Jutland Peninsula in Denmark (cycling), and the metropolitan area of the capital city of Norway (ski jumping). The data for this study were collected by a self-administered questionnaire that was distributed to attendees and retrieved after it had been completed. The questionnaire was designed based on the before-mentioned framework introduced by Crompton (1995) and Preuss (2005) and was used consistently throughout all investigated events. To collect data a random cluster sampling procedure was applied (Cochran, 1977). The interviewing was conducted during all event-hosting days in order to provide the best possible sample representation. Finally, in an effort to accommodate the main expected origins of the attendees at the particular events, in addition to an English version of the questionnaire, native speakers of the particular languages produced Danish, Italian, and German versions.

The questionnaire consisted of four sections. The first section collected data on trip-related characteristics (previous attendance, planning horizon, composition of the immediate group, transport mode, accommodation, and origin). The second section collected data about spending behavior (expenditures, number of persons paid for, and length of stay). The third section collected data on the reason for attending (primary purpose event attendees, casuals, and time switchers) and the effects of the event

attendance on individuals' behavior (changes in vacations plans and changes in consumption). The final section addressed a range of socio-demographic characteristics (age, gender, education, employment status, household status, and income).

Prior to the fieldwork, the questionnaire was tested to eliminate potential shortcomings. The interviewer team consisted of six to twelve students at the undergraduate, graduate, and PhD level. In a preceding meeting, the interviewers were instructed on the purpose, scope, target group, and technique of the data collection. The data collection occurred exclusively at the event venues. Concerning the cycling event, in which no clear boundaries of the event venue inherently exist, data collection was limited to the start and finish areas of the race. These were located in the same city on each of the three days (first and second stage in Herning, third stage in Horsens). During the windsurfing event, the data were collected on the waterfront promenade, close to the surf zone where the competition was held. Finally, during the ski jumping event, data collection was restricted to the ski jumping arena. Respondents were briefed about the purpose of the research beforehand, and the fact that the survey has a purely scientific character was communicated to them as an incentive for participation. Given all of the above, it seems reasonable to assume that only people with a particular interest in the sporting competition or in some of the multiple forms of non-sporting attractions (e.g., music, food, and equipment presentations) associated with the sporting competition were interviewed.

The total sample consists of 2,006 questionnaires, of which 756 were collected during the first three stages of the 2012 Giro d'Italia, 946 during the 2012 PWA Windsurf World Cup Sylt, and another 304 during the 2013 FIS Ski Jumping World Cup staged in Oslo.

Composition of Event Attendees

In the context of this study, a local is defined in a narrow geographical sense, that is, as a person who lives within the city/area where the event is occurring. For instance, with respect to the 2012 Giro d'Italia, the city of Herning was the location of the start and finish areas of the first two stages, whereas the start and finish of the third stage in Denmark were in the city of Horsens. Thus, all respondents who reported that they live in Herning (postal code 7400) were classified as locals with respect to the first two stages, whereas those from Horsens (postal code 8700) were classified as locals for the third stage. Furthermore, for the windsurfing event, it seems more appropriate to define the entire island of Sylt (postal codes between 25969 and 25980) as the affected area rather than the city of Westerland. Finally, for the ski jumping event, the city of Oslo is considered to be the affected area (with the first two digits of the postal code between 01 and 12).

The illustration of the composition of event attendees depicted in Table 3 shows that the 2012 Giro d'Italia attracted primarily "Residents" (39.3%) of Herning and Horsens. Moreover, this event attracted a significant percentage of non-local attendees whose expenditures are neutral with respect to the economic impact for the host region, namely "Casuals" (14.8%) and "Time Switchers" (8.4%). In contrast, another one-third of respondents were classified as "Event Visitors." Furthermore, the event did not significantly affect the vacation plans of local respondents, because less than 0.7% of them decided to cancel their vacation plans because of the 2012 Giro d'Italia

Table 3. Comparison of the Composition of Event Attendees (in %)

Group of event attendees	2012 Giro d'Italia (the first three stages)	2012 PWA Windsurf World Cup	2012-2013 Ski Jumping World Cup - Oslo
Residents	39.3	4.8	46.6
Home Stayers	0.7	0	0
Extensioners	8.4	9.5	1.4
Event Visitors	29.8	29.0	4.41
Casuals	14.8	55.8	28.8
Time Switchers	7.6	1.1	18.3

(“Home Stayers”). This result is in line with expectations, because the main vacation period in Denmark falls in July and August. Finally, 8.4% of non-local respondents, who were staying in the region already, decided to stay longer to attend the event (“Extensioners”).

When examining the results related to the 2012 PWA Windsurf World Cup Sylt, specifically, a high percentage share of casual attendees (55.8%) is apparent. To find a rationale for this seemingly outstanding figure, it is necessary to recall the context and period in which the event was held. With respect to the context of this event, it is important to notice that the island of Sylt represents a well-established and very popular domestic tourist destination in Germany. In 2011, the island of Sylt had 20,853 inhabitants, more than 58,000 guest beds, and 850,000 tourists who accounted for 6.71 million overnight stays (Sylt Marketing GmbH, 2013). Almost 50% of the overnight stays were concentrated in the city of Westerland, the largest settlement on this island and where the event and data collection occurred. Combined with the event occurring during the autumn school holidays for several German states, this statistic supports the conclusion that during the 2012 PWA Windsurf World Cup Sylt in the city of Westerland, many regular tourists—or from the perspective of the current study’s standpoint, so-called “Casuals”—attracted by features other than the event per se were present.

Furthermore, in contrast to the results of the previously discussed cycling event, the windsurfing event attracted a relatively small percentage share of “Residents” (4.8%). Again, the context in which the event was embedded can be adduced as an explanation. The event is one of the oldest PWA World Tour events; it has occurred annually at the same place since 1984. Hence, its “novelty effect” for local citizens was much weaker than the corresponding “novelty effect” of the cycling event (staged for the first time in Denmark) for citizens of Herning and Horsens. In other words, it can be assumed that the 2012 PWA Windsurf World Cup Sylt attracted only those residents who might be characterized as “hard-core surfing fans,” whereas the 2012 Giro d’Italia attracted a greater number of “curious” resident spectators.

Another 29% of respondents were classified as “Event Visitors” who, together with a substantial group of “Extensioners” (9.5%), account for an economically relevant stimulus to the local economy. Here, the non-marginal percentage share of “Extensioners” suggests that the event had some influence on individuals’ behavior, albeit only on those who were already on the island. In contrast, the number of people who decided to make their stay coincide with the event (“Time Switchers”) was

modest (1.1%). Similarly, the event did not influence the residents' plans for the event period at all because none of the local respondents reported that she/he decided to stay on Sylt ("Home Stayer") because of the event.

The last event analyzed in the current study relates to the FIS Ski Jumping World Cup 2012–2013. The event was held in the capital of Norway (Oslo) at the most well-known ski arena in Norway, called Holmenkollen. In addition, for a better understanding of the situational context the event was embedded in, it is worth mentioning that the ski jumping competition at Holmenkollen was preceded by an also very popular FIS World Cup competition in cross-country skiing. Although these two events were independent from a pure sport perspective, their sequential setting at the same venue might have affected the composition of event attendees at the ski jumping event, as will be presented in the following.

The results from the Oslo sample show that almost half (46.6%) of the respondents were classified as "Residents." This figure, although representing the highest percentage of "Residents" group among the investigated events, corresponds with expectations. To gain better insights into the reason behind the percentage, there is the need to consider the size of the predefined affected area. This area has been set as the densely populated Oslo metropolitan area, which is—compared with the predefined affected areas for the other two events—much larger from a spatial point of view.

Another 28.8% of the respondents were classified as "Casuals." Such a relevant percentage of casual attendees could be caused by the fact that the sequential setting of two important sporting events staged during those days at Holmenkollen attracted many respondents. Given the two consecutive events, for many respondents, the ski jumping event was not the primary reason for visiting Oslo; the primary reason could instead be the cross-country skiing event. In addition, note that for many tourists, the ski jumping competition was one of many attractions offered in Oslo and not necessarily the main one that induced their visit.

Furthermore, the event attracted a relatively large number of "Time Switchers" (18.3%). The remaining respondents were classified as "Event Visitors" (4.4%) and "Extensioners" (1.4%). Again, as was the case for the previously discussed 2012 PWA Windsurf World Cup, the ski jumping event in Oslo did not affect the residents' vacation plans because none of the local respondents stated this. Consequently, no respondent was categorized in the "Home Stayers" group.

In addition, Table 4 shows a comparison of the audience composition according to Crompton's (1995) basic approach and Preuss's (2005) more refined approach. The main difference between the two approaches is that Preuss, in addition to four groups of event attendees identified by Crompton (i.e., "Residents," "Event Visitors," "Casuals," and "Time Switchers"), identifies two additional groups (i.e., "Home Stayers" and

Table 4. Comparison of the Crompton (1995) and the Preuss (2005) approaches (in %)

Group of event attendees	2012 Giro d'Italia (the first three stages)		2012 PWA Windsurf World Cup		2012-2013 Ski Jumping World Cup - Oslo	
	Crompton	Preuss	Crompton	Preuss	Crompton	Preuss
Approach	Crompton	Preuss	Crompton	Preuss	Crompton	Preuss
Positive	29.8	38.9	29.0	38.5	4.41	5.77
Neutral	70.2	61.1	71.0	61.5	95.59	94.23

“Extentioners”), whose expenditures cause a positive economic impact on the host region. For the sake of better readability for the two approaches the results are presented as the percentage relationship between those whose expenditures cause a positive economic impact on the host region and those whose expenditures must be considered as neutral.

The results presented in Table 4 show that for both events there is a noticeable difference between the two approaches, where the Crompton approach underestimates the percentage of those attendees whose expenditure causes a positive economic impact on the host region of about 10 percentage points in both the cycling and the windsurfing event, and about 1.4 percentage points for the ski jumping event. Here, it is worth mentioning that the same examination conducted for several studies published by Preuss with co-authors (presented in Table 1) has revealed, as expected, the same pattern. The percentage of event attendees whose expenditures cause a positive economic impact on the host region is between 2.6% and 16% lower for the Crompton approach as compared to the Preuss approach. Given that, it can be concluded that there are some circumstances such as a significant share of local residents whom the event “keeps at home” (mega events) or visitors who decided to stay longer in the region and attended the event (both mega and non-mega events), which may have a substantive impact on the final economic impact estimations. Consequently, it is highly recommended to follow the more refined Preuss approach in future analyses of composition of event attendees in order to provide more reliable input variables to overall economic impact assessments.

In addition to the results of the empirical analysis offered by this study, there is a rationale to presume that the considered events entailed rather minor crowding-out effects among those event-affected persons who could not be interviewed on-site (e.g., “Runaways,” “Changers,” “Cancellers,” “Pre/Post Switchers”). First, the events were staged primarily in off-season periods or at the very end of the high season, as was the case for the windsurfing event. Second, the events represented relatively short-term occurrences; thus, all negative aspects associated with overcrowding and traffic-congestion can be assumed minor and strictly temporary. Third, compared with other sports, notably football (soccer), the examined events attract rather peaceful spectators; thus, potential tourists concerns’ about hooligans are most likely very small. Fourth, one out of the three events (cycling) occurred in a relatively unknown tourist destination; therefore, the events constituted rather an attraction than an obstacle for tourists.

Conclusion

Although several scholars have suggested that the lack of knowledge on the composition of event attendees is one of the main hurdles in reliable estimating of the economic impact of events (Crompton et al., 2001; Preuss, 2005; Tyrrell & Johnston, 2001), to date only a limited number of empirical studies have aimed to categorize event attendees according to their potential primary economic stimulus to the host region (Kwiatkowski, in press). In particular, there is a clear research gap with respect to the analysis of the composition of events attendees at small-scale sporting events from a local perspective (Kwiatkowski & Oklevik, in press). Thus, the question of what is the composition of event attendees of small-scale sporting events must be addressed so

that stakeholders of events can assess—as accurately as possible—the primary economic impact of specific events. Accordingly, the current study aimed at filling this research gap by (1) analyzing the composition of attendees at three different sporting events from a local point of view and (2) revealing differences in the attendees' composition across these events.

The results show that the percentage of attendees, whose expenditures result in fresh money influx to the host region, does not exceed 40% for any of the events and heavily depends on the event-specific characteristics. Thus, there is a clear management implication that can be drawn from this result. Event managers of small-scale sporting events and the respective local officials need to be more critical in estimating the potential of these events for contributing to the host economy, because in many cases such events are mainly driven by either (a) local audience or (b) visitors who would have visited the region anyway. This, in turn, clearly suggests that managers of small-scale events need to find different arguments to legitimize their event than managers of larger events do, since the composition of event attendees does not give reason to expect a large influx of fresh money.

Furthermore, when the results of the current study are compared with those for the visitor composition at mega events, the importance of the event's context seems to be of key relevance for the composition of attendees. Here, three groups of non-trivial factors for the composition of event attendees can be identified.

The first factor embraces “event-specific characteristics” such as the popularity of the sport discipline with which the event is associated (niche vs. mainstream sport). Specifically, the conducted literature review and empirical studies allow to conclude that only mainstream sports (noticeably large football tournaments and the Olympics) are capable of attracting a significant number of non-local visitors as well as “to keep” locals in the host region.

The second factor pertains to “place-specific characteristics” such as the endemic characteristics of the host region (e.g., traditional tourist destination, urban areas, and rural areas). Here, it can be concluded that especially traditional tourist destinations should be very careful when considering hosting sporting events during the season as such events can crowd out regular tourists from the destination due to inflated prices and overcrowding.

The third factor relates to “time-specific characteristics” such as the event's occurrence (one-off event or regular event) or time of the year in which the event is hosted (e.g., holiday season, regular session). Here, it can be concluded that hosting small-scale sporting events in the off-season period results in attracting mainly people from the local area and non-locals who would have visited the region anyway.

Consequently, information generated from this paper should provide event managers and politicians with a better understanding of the context-specific figures of the composition of event attendees based on their individual economic stimulus for the host region, which can serve as a reference point for future *ex-ante* economic assessments of comparable events.

As an avenue for future research it would be worthwhile to analyze data from a broad variety of events and contexts—including under-researched cultural and music events—consistently using the previously presented conceptual framework to identify potential patterns of the composition of attendees at different types of events.

Furthermore, it is equally important for future studies to pay better attention to other equally important hurdles in estimating the economic impact. The first is the crowding-out effect, which to date has received only scant attention (Preuss, 2011b). The second pertains to problems associated with estimating attendance figures at open-access events (Davies, Ramchandani, & Coleman, 2010). All three pieces of information are particularly important with respect to the reliability of any form of economic impact assessments, for which credible estimates of (a) the composition of event attendees, (b) the crowding-out effect, and (c) trustworthy attendance figures are essential input variables.

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Endnotes

¹ This study follows a definition of small-scale events proposed by Higham (1999), who points out that small-scale sporting events require very little in the way of public funding, usually operate within existing infrastructure, and are more manageable in terms of crowding and congestion compared to mega sport events.

² See Kwiatkowski (in press) for a review.

³ Note that in specific cases, event-related expenditures made by residents may cause a positive economic impact on a host region. A clear example includes a situation in which residents tap into their savings to attend the event (Allmers & Maennig, 2009; Késenne, 2012). However,

because the majority of smaller-scale events are open-access and short-term occurrences, it is rather unlikely that residents need to use their savings to attend such events.

⁴ The term “event-affected person,” which was introduced into the event literature by Preuss (2005, p. 287), applies to all persons who are attracted by the event but also to those who avoid the event by leaving or not entering the host city/region.

⁵ To clarify, in the current study, the term “event attendees” refers to all visitors who attend the event (i.e., both locals and non-locals) who later are divided into more nuanced subgroups: “Residents,” “Home Stayers” (within a subgroup of locals), and “Event Visitors,” “Extensioners,” “Casuals,” and “Time Switchers” (within a subgroup of non-locals; see Figure 1).

⁶ Although the decision about the impacted area is arbitrary in nature, allocation of the respondents into these six groups is solely driven by the mentioned conceptual framework and, thus, is based in economic theory.

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