

eventIMPACTS

THE PROJECT

The *eventIMPACTS* Toolkit has been developed by UK Sport, Visit Britain, Event Scotland, the London Development Agency, the North West Development Agency, Yorkshire Forward and Glasgow City Marketing Bureau. It comprises some key guidance and good practice principles for evaluating the social, economic, environmental and media-related impacts associated with staging major sporting and cultural events.

Economic and media-related impacts

Hosting major events is widely believed to be inherently good because of the enjoyment and excitement they bring to those who attend them and those who follow them in the media. There is a well-developed body of evidence which shows that events have the potential to generate positive **economic impacts**. There is also a variety of established approaches to quantifying the **media impact** of events, including the benefits of place marketing. However, because methods of measuring and reporting on impacts in these areas can be inconsistent, event organisers have sometimes struggled to understand which methods will best suit their needs. In these respects, therefore, the purpose of *eventIMPACTS* is to provide organisers with templates for carrying out, or commissioning, such studies which are based on some central principles and which will facilitate comparison across events.

Social and environmental impacts

A relatively new agenda, for which there is little supporting evidence, is that major events can deliver directly, or act as catalysts for, wider **social impacts** such as the development of community and the advancement of skills. Furthermore, as environmental issues become increasingly important, event organisers should be mindful of the potentially adverse **environmental impacts** of events. In these respects, *eventIMPACTS* is designed to help event organisers move towards more developed approaches to measuring, monitoring and managing the social and environmental impacts of their events.

Investing in events

eventIMPACTS will not automatically provide funders with an answer to the question of whether they should invest in events or, if so, then to what extent. However, if, using the *eventIMPACTS* framework, event organisers become more practised, and more skilled, at testing the claims that are often made about the impact of events, then the growing evidence base should at least provide greater clarity about the contribution that events can make to economic objectives - and in furthering social and environmental agendas.

The tools

The Toolkit is organized around 11 impact areas. Although each area can be accessed and explored separately, we strongly advise anyone who wants to use the Toolkit to look first at the issue of Attendance.

The other ten impact areas are

Economic Impacts

Social Impacts: Satisfaction

Social Impacts: Identity Image & Place

Social Impacts: Participation

Social Impacts: Skills & Volunteering

Social Impacts: Children & Young People

Environmental Impacts: Carbon Footprint

Environmental Impacts: Waste

Environmental Impacts: Sustainability Development

Media-related Impacts

Keeping it simple

Many of the monitoring and evaluation methods contained in the Toolkit are concerned with producing quantitative data and/or are survey-based. To some extent, this can be explained by our desire to provide the events industry with some reasonably inexpensive, simple and easy-to-use tools that can help to get it started on the impact evaluation pathway. However, although qualitative methods such as focus group discussions and face-to-face interviews are likely to be more resource intensive, costly and require specialist input, the contribution that such approaches can play is not in doubt.

To help event organisers and others make informed decisions about the kind of impact assessment they should be undertaking given the nature of their event and the budget they have available for research, we have in each case separated the impact areas and associated evaluation tools into three types

- Basic impacts (signposted in green) - impact assessment can probably be undertaken using existing 'in-house' or event organiser data. Cost likely to be minimal.
- Intermediate impacts (signposted in amber) - impact assessment is likely to require some research, but could be organised by event organiser or generalist research company. Moderate cost depending on scope.
- Advanced impacts (signposted in red) - impact assessment is likely to require a significant piece of work using a specialist contractor/research company. Likely high cost.

Case studies

The guidance within *eventIMPACTS* has been devised following independent evaluations of six events that took place across Great Britain in the summer of 2008. With the focus falling primarily on social and environmental impacts, these events were:

1. IRB Junior World Rugby Championships (June 2008, Wales)
2. Edinburgh Film Festival (June 2008, Edinburgh)
3. Piping Live/World Pipe Band Championships (August 2008, Glasgow)
4. London Freewheel (September 2008, London)
5. Great Yorkshire Run (September 2008, Sheffield)
6. Tour of Britain Finale (September 2008, Blackpool/Liverpool)

For more information about the aims, objectives and concepts underpinning the Toolkit, please click here [\[goes to the Manual\]](#)

Feedback

If you have any questions about the *eventIMPACTS* Toolkit; if you have any suggestions about improving it; or if you would simply like to share with us your experience of evaluating the impact of an event, please click on the button below to send us an email.

EMAIL

Introduction to Measuring Attendance

Exaggerating crowd sizes can be common practice for the purposes of public relations, but it compromises the reliability of monitoring and evaluation that is based on estimates of attendance. This has implications for much of the research being undertaken at events, and we urge event organisers to recognise the implications of misrepresenting the popularity of an event in terms of spectator or audience numbers (or indeed competitor numbers at mass participation events). Exaggerating crowd sizes has the effect of overstating economic impact and at the same time overstating the carbon footprint attributable to an event. Other measures that are based on findings from a survey, such as the percentage of disadvantaged people attending the event, will be overstated if used subsequently to compute the absolute number of people from a particular group who attended an event. Thus regardless of the rigour with which monitoring and evaluation data is collected, its true value is unreliable if attendance levels are inaccurate.

Common forms of monitoring and evaluation involves conducting a survey of a sample of event participants and to aggregate the findings upwards to derive estimates for the population of participants. For example, it might be the case that 100,000 spectators attend a large scale equestrian event and event stakeholders wish to conduct an economic impact study. A research team would aim to interview around 1,000 spectators and then use the findings from this data to aggregate upwards on the basis that the 1,000 people interviewed are representative of all spectators. Assuming that the sampling has been conducted in a robust manner, the greatest source of error is likely to be the figure used to multiply the findings from the sample upwards to the population as a whole. For example the figure of 100,000 could have been used for the purpose of public relations, whereas in reality there were only 50,000 tickets sold. A practice such as this if left unadjusted would have the effect of doubling the economic impact attributable to the event.

At the majority of ticketed events there should not be a problem with spectator or audience levels as there are ticket sales databases which can provide accurate data with which to work. However, at free to view or open access events particularly along linear routes such as cycle races or cultural events that people can chance upon and drift in and out of such as Piping Live, there needs to be well reasoned estimates of the number of spectators for economic impact, environmental and social impacts. In particular, there should be a clear differentiation made between the number of attendances (throughput) and the number of different people (attendees) who generated the throughput figure.

For example there could be 90,000 admissions at a three day equestrian event which in turn could be made up of 90,000 different people attending once, 30,000 different people attending all three days, or numerous combinations of people and days in between these two extremes. Furthermore in the case of events that take place over an extended distance such as a cycle race or a carnival parade, there is the possibility that people can watch the event from more than one place on the same day. For example, in the case of the London Marathon, and similar events, it is possible (and common practice) for spectators to move around the course and see runners in whom they have an interest at numerous locations.

To illustrate the problems associated with overstating crowd sizes, consider the case of a cycling road race with an estimated attendance of 10,000. If the 10,000 crowd is all different people residing outside the host economy and their average spend is £10 per head at the event, the economic impact would be £100,000. However, this is a free to view event and primary research amongst a sample of 1,000 spectators indicates that they watch from an average of two different locations each, given that they are free to move around the route. Consequently, the 10,000 attendance becomes 5,000 different people when the repeat viewing factor of two is applied (i.e. $10,000/2$) and the economic impact will be £50,000 applying the same expenditure figure.

Furthermore, as explained above, left unchecked the carbon footprint attributable to spectators would also be overstated. In short, event organisers need to be aware that should they exaggerate crowd sizes, the net effect is to undermine the reliability of monitoring and evaluation that is dependent upon accurate crowd size estimates.

Moreover, any over inflation of crowd sizes is also likely to have downstream effects in terms of social impacts. For example, if half of the 10,000 attendance are from the host economy and 50% of our sample report that they are more likely to cycle as a result of their attendance at the event; it would appear that there are 2,500 people at whom to direct any cycling interventions designed to increase participation. However, as suggested previously, if people watched from an average of two locations then this would halve the potential target group. This in turn might be the difference between implementing a cycling participation initiative, or shelving it due to an apparent lack of interest.

Measuring Attendance at Ticketed Events

Attendance at ticketed events can be monitored by ticket sales, or tickets surrendered on entrance to gain admission. Where technology permits, other measures such as the total number of clicks on turnstiles can also be used as there can be no guarantee that all of those people who purchase a ticket for an event actually use them. The purpose of analysis is first to estimate the total number of attendances at an event, and then to down-weight it to the number of unique attendees by using a repeat viewing factor. We restate the requirement to differentiate between attendees and attendance, which applies not only to non-ticketed events but also ticketed events

For some types of monitoring and evaluation (such as economic impact assessment) it may be necessary to distinguish between those whose attendance at the event is their primary motivation for being in the local area and those who are 'casuals', that is, people who are in the locality for some other primary purpose and their attendance at the event is a secondary consideration. It is conventional practice to exclude casuals from calculations such as economic impact and carbon footprint estimates because the impacts made by such attendees cannot be attributed to the event.

Suggested considerations when measuring attendance at ticketed events

- Primary data source will be box office data, ticket sales and ticket distribution
- The number of tickets distributed or sold does not always equal the attendance at the event
- Ticket buyers may not be the people who use them (i.e. group bookings and one person not always representative of the group)
- Some of the larger ticketed events may operate a reuse policy whereby people who leave an event early would relinquish their tickets, to be sold on to other spectators wanting to watch the action.
- Ticket sales and distribution may provide a broad indication of the nature of the audience attending, however, primary research is required to provide more detailed information on those attending (**see Standard Impacts**)

Introduction to Profiling Attendance

Sex, age, socio-economic group, disability levels, ethnicity, educational attainment, employment status, home ownership and car ownership are some of the more commonly asked aspects of people's personal profile. The possible list of questions is almost exhaustive but needs to be balanced against considerations such as:

- Why do you want to know?
- How will the data be used?
- What impacts will collecting the data have on the time and cost of data collection?

Profile questions should be asked in a comparable way to national surveys so that valid questions are asked and where appropriate comparisons can be made with wider populations. If event organisers adopt practices such as those recommended, then it also becomes possible to make comparisons between events.

In an online survey of 2,250 London Freewheel participants (see [LFW](#)), the following Profile information was identified. For an example of how profiling questions might translate into a surveying tool, please see the [IRB questionnaire](#).

Sex:	1,400 Male (62%); 853 Female (38%)
Age:	Mean Age 42 years. Actual age was requested and the frequency distribution can be grouped according to national categories such as <i>Census</i> 16-17, 18-19, 20-24, 25-29, 30-44, 45-59, 60-64, 65-74, 75+ or Active People
Disability:	116 (5%) considered that they have a long standing illness or disability which limits their daily activities.
Employment:	Work FT (30+ hrs/wk) 73%, Work PT (<30 hrs/wk) 9%, Self-employed 8%, Student 3%, Retired 5%, Not in paid work 8%
Ethnicity:	White British 73%, White Other 15%, Mixed Race 2%, Black/Black British 2%, Asian/Asian British 2%, Other 5%. This is a truncated version of the groupings from the Census which may be too complex for the average survey.
Socio-economic:	In terms of the socio-economic groups to which respondents might belong, the National Statistics Socio-economic Classification (NS-SEC) is now used. The questions necessary to derive NS-SEC are numerous and difficult to code, which may be more than is required by the average event evaluation. A pragmatic approach maybe to ask for the occupation of the main earner and the

annual household income. Should event organisers wish to examine NS-SEC in more detail use the downloadable [manual](#) from ONS. [Taking Part](#) is another reference option when looking in more detail at young people.

For examples on how to group the responses designed to profile those attending specific events, visit [Key Statistics](#) at the ONS based on the 2001 Census.

Profiling Attendance by Residence

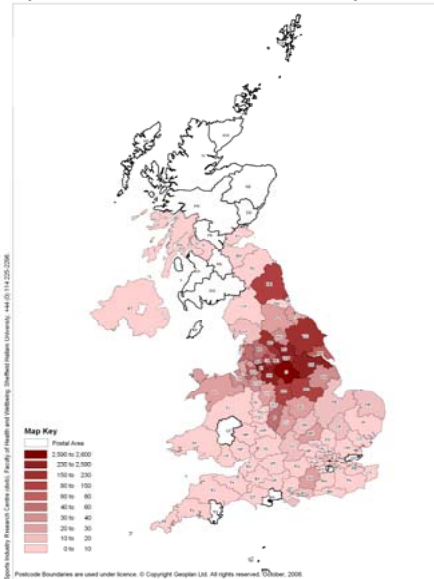
Profiling by residence may be required to identify other impacts (economic), or establish performance against targeted demographics (eg % of local residents or socio-economic categories engaged by the event).

Geographic analysis of survey results is made possible by the inclusion of a question asking for people's postcode. Although actual postcodes do not have legally binding boundaries, their positions can be plotted using a Geographic Information System (GIS) by making reference to a directory file, such as the National Statistics Postcode Directory. The advantage of this system is that the majority of people know their postcode, and are able to supply it when responding to a survey. The level of detail on any subsequent map is determined by the amount of postcode data recorded. Thus, a full (or unit) postcode can be plotted at street level, while the first two letters of a postcode are sufficient to identify the postal area (of which there are 124 in the UK). It is therefore possible to produce maps at a range of geographic scales with a suitable map 'theme' to show the results of the survey. The examples below demonstrate the difference between mapping survey data at postcode area and postcode district level (the first half of a postcode, sufficient to identify a post town).

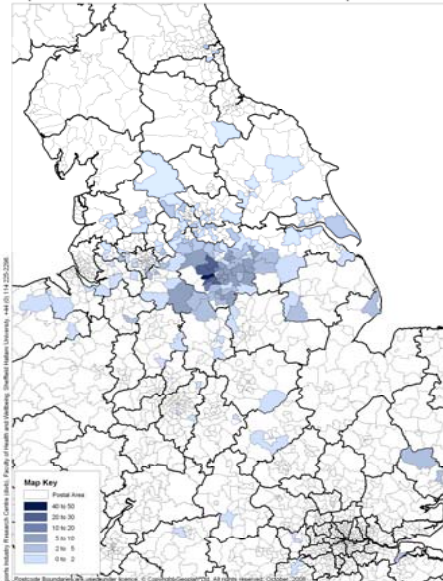
Unit postcodes are sufficiently accurate to be mapped to within 100 properties (with an average of 15 per postcode). Once plotted, this point data can be aggregated up to any other level of geography within the national statistics hierarchy (e.g. super output area, ward, local authority, county), enabling comparison with other geographic datasets, such as population counts or market segmentation directories. Other spatial analysis techniques can be used on postcode level data, such as hotspot mapping and travel distance modelling (see examples below). It is not possible however, to reverse-engineer the postcode from postcode area to unit postcode level. It is therefore preferable to collect full postcode data from survey respondents.

Local authorities and central government departments/agencies have access to spatial data sets under the Mapping Services Agreement (MSA) with central government. The MSA provides a wide range of data from a number of suppliers including Ordnance Survey, including road network, address and postcode data, boundary datasets and other topological data. Under the MSA, authorities are able to supply data to consultants under a 'contractor sub-licensing agreement', which is a standard contract template identifying the datasets to be used. The use of such data is tightly controlled by the terms of the contract, which usually requires that data is only used for the purpose for which it is supplied, and cannot be retained beyond the period of the contract. Acknowledgement of copyright is required at all times, and must refer to the relevant licence number.

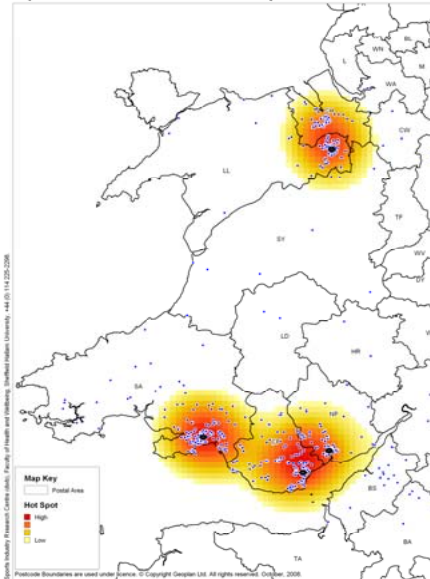
Map to Show Home Postcode Area of Great Yorkshire Run Participants



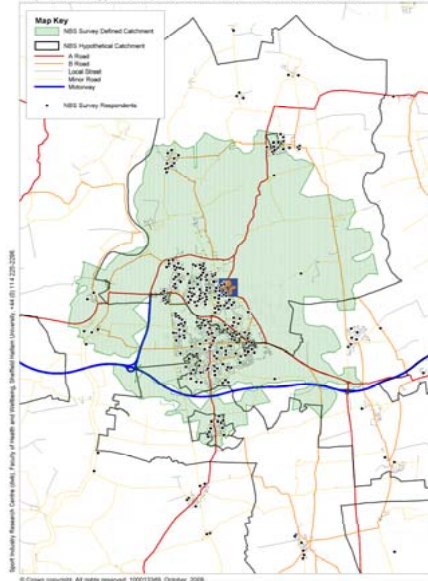
Map to Show Home Postcode District of Great Yorkshire Run Spectators



Map to Show Home Postcode of Under 20 RWC Spectators



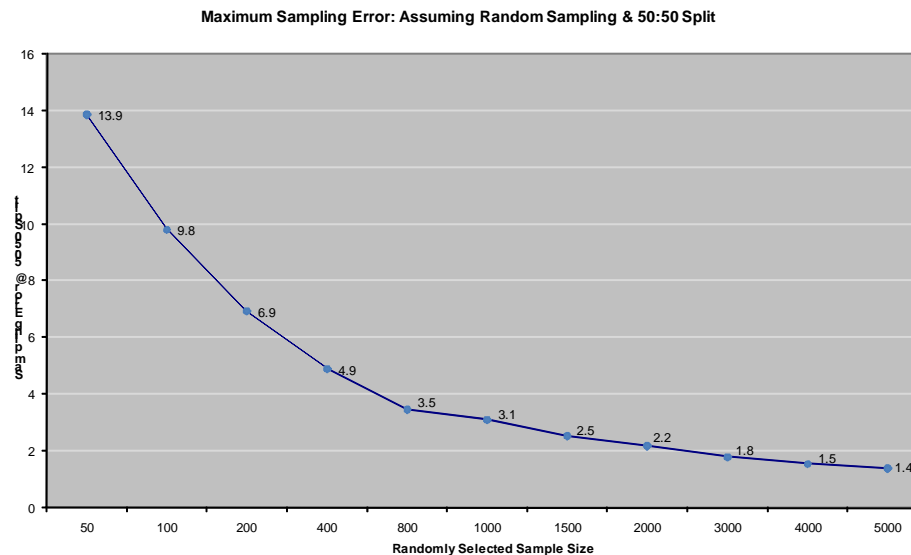
Map to Show Hypothetical and Actual Catchments for Centre 0164



Introduction to Surveying and Sampling Error

The value of survey data is entirely dependent on the quality of sampling. Whenever a sample is drawn from a population, the data relating to that sample will contain a degree of error. This error is known as sampling error. For large populations (over 1,000) it is the *absolute* size of a sample which determines sampling error, not the *relative* size of the sample compared with the population from which it is drawn.

To illustrate this point consider the case of polls featured on television news programmes. The adult population of the UK is 48 million, yet most commercially commissioned surveys tend to employ sample sizes of around 1,000 respondents. Assuming that these respondents have been drawn randomly from the adult population, then the maximum degree of sampling error attributable to a research finding would be $\pm 3\%$. That is to say, if 50% of respondents in the 1,000 sample stated that they had been to the theatre in the last 12 months, then the 'true' (population) answer would lie somewhere between 50% ± 3 , i.e. somewhere between 47% and 53%. In order to halve the sampling error (i.e. to $\pm 1.5\%$) it would be necessary to quadruple the sample size. The graph below shows the relationship between absolute sample size and maximum sampling error for that sample size, whilst the accompanying Table provides the sampling error for some milestone numbers at a variety of divisions within a sample.



Sampling error at milestone sample divisions (assuming random sampling at 50/50 split)

Sample Size	Sampling Error
50	13.9
100	9.8
200	6.9
300	5.7
400	4.9
600	4.0
800	3.5
1000	3.1
2000	2.2
4000	1.5

Sampling error only applies to truly random samples, i.e. those which are representative of the populations from which they have been drawn. In the event related research to which this document refers, it is almost impossible to demonstrate that truly random sampling has been carried out. At many events there is only a limited window of opportunity to collect data from those attending. Consequently, the pragmatic approach is to survey as large a sample as possible within the time and resources available (convenience sampling) in the hope that it represents the population as reasonably as possible and that the size of the sample minimises any potential biases. Where an event is small enough (in participant terms) or where particular groups are relatively low in number to make it cost effective, the entire population could be targeted. For example, at most events supported by UK Sport it has been possible to survey the majority of, if not all, media personnel attending, providing that access is facilitated by the event organisers.

In the case of undertaking survey research into non-attendees, random sampling is necessary and can be achieved by using household surveys, similar to the approaches employed for large scale national surveys such as *Taking Part*. However, the resource requirements for such initiatives will be well beyond the budgets of most events. With appropriate planning ('bolting in') it is possible to gain access to surveys of local communities, such as those routinely carried out by local authorities, cost effectively or indeed at no cost.

We would argue (where resources allow) for samples of c. 1,000 in line with those used in political opinion polls and to ensure that reasonable sub-samples can be achieved when the data is cut. This is especially important should an event have specific target groups at which it is aiming; or alternatively if this is the case we would suggest bespoke monitoring and evaluation which specifically targets such people; though once again this approach will be reliant on clearly stated aims and objectives.

As with all monitoring and evaluation, the design of research depends crucially on the intended use of the results. For example, if it is intended to sample people attending an event in order to identify certain groups of interest then there can be a major issue surrounding sample sizes. For example if people from minority ethnic groups are a group of interest, then in a random sample of 1,000 residents of the UK some 90 respondents would be expected to be members of a minority ethnic group. As can be seen in the graph above, if this was a random sample the sampling error would be around +/- 10 percentage points. Thus if 50% of the sub sample enjoyed the performance and we wished to aggregate upwards, the true answer would lie somewhere between 40% and 60%. Findings of this type do not allow much in the way of a meaningful interpretation or analysis. Thus in some cases, if there are particular groups at which outcomes are targeted, then (to reiterate) bespoke monitoring and evaluation of such groups is our recommendation rather than being solely reliant on the results of surveying.

Summary of Surveying Techniques

The following data collection techniques can be used to sample an event population. There are advantages and disadvantages to each which will need to be considered when developing/commissioning the research:

- Administered surveys at the event
 - Accurate data, good completion levels
 - Costly and time intensive, often only narrow windows of opportunity, low(ish) sample sizes
- Self completion survey at event
 - Larger sample
 - Maximise window of opportunity - best use of fieldworkers
 - Less accurate data - trade off between sample size and data quality
- Postal survey
 - To event attendees post-event - beware if sales data shows lots bought by one person
 - Need to collect addresses from non-ticketed events
 - Can be costly dependent on sample size
- Hybrid survey
 - Distribute survey packs to those attending free events in the hope of them responding (free pen and SAE)
 - Reach wide audience but no guarantees of success (sell them on an idea, incentivise)
 - Bias as only certain types respond (though true of all surveys)
- Online
 - Distribute URL cards at event
 - Collect emails at event

There may be instances where data is required from non-attendees or the population at large. In such cases access to local omnibus surveys such as Citizens Panels where simple, event specific questions can be included, is one option. Such surveys provide those purchasing questions with a means to get quick, relatively low cost answers to their questions without financing and organising a full survey themselves. For more detailed feedback about a variety of event related topics a simple household or telephone survey would be a better option, but is likely to cost more than a question on an omnibus survey.

Measuring Attendance at Non-Ticketed Events

Having explained the importance of crowd sizes, it is perhaps worth explaining an '*open access*' methodology in more detail. The approach developed as a result of the increasing number of open access events at which monitoring and evaluation work has been undertaken, particularly economic impact studies.

The methodology is based on crowd densities along the 2.5m crash barriers found on linear routes; the assumption being that these accommodate five people side by side. If barriers are on both sides of a 1km route and the crowd is one deep for its entirety then there would be 800 barriers (400 on each side of the road) and 4,000 spectators (5 x 800). Clearly this is the approach in simplistic terms, however, the final estimate is refined according to the experience of the research team at an event and with reference to their photographs and video footage at the event (and from event websites, blogs etc.). Moreover, where available, any recorded TV footage of the event plus aerial stills (where in some instances it is possible to count the people attending); is also used to derive crowd densities.

The 'no-stadium' methodology is particularly useful as a test of reasonableness for the estimates put out by event organisers. For example, if organisers claimed that an event attracted 100,000 spectators around a 1km course, it would be reasonable to expect crowd densities of around 25 deep on both sides of the road. If photographic and other evidence refute the expected crowd densities, then it is likely that crowd numbers have been overstated. In the case of large scale events, it is possible to derive a reasonably accurate estimate of attendance levels by surveying the community concerned after the event.

Some events report attendance figures on the basis of police estimates. We have interviewed two senior officers from the Metropolitan Police who have advised us that the police do not make any scientific estimates of crowd sizes and ideally do not like to have figures attributed to them. Any estimates attributable to the police are based on little more than hunches. Finally, any repeat viewing factor derived from primary research amongst spectators will be applied to derive an estimate of the number of different people en route. The '*open access*' methodology can be adapted for crowds in open spaces such as free concerts based on the number of people per square metre.

Case Study: Audience Representativeness 1

The following table demonstrates how Audience Representativeness can be defined once a basic profiling of a sample of the event population has been defined. In this case, the population from the 2008 World Junior Rugby Championships is compared with that of the UK population.

Demographic	IRB Rugby	UK	Ratio
Gender			
Male	73.6	49.1	1.50
Female	26.4	50.9	0.52
Age Structure			
16 - 24	16.1	14.9	1.08
25 - 44	43.1	34.6	1.25
45 - 64	33.4	27.1	1.23
65+	7.4	23.4	0.32
Ethnicity			
White	95.4	92.1	1.04
Minority ethnic groups	4.6	7.9	0.58
Health (Limiting Long Standing Illness or Disability)			
No LLSI	94.7	78.0	1.21
LLSI or Disability	5.3	22.0	0.24
Ratio > 1	Over-representative		
Ratio = 1	Representative		
Ratio < 1	Under-representative		

Case Study: Attendance Representativeness 2

The case study below attempts to demonstrate how attendance profile data can be used in conjunction with existing benchmarks within the sector, to demonstrate how representative the event attendees are of those who regularly engage with the activity.

	Survey Indicator	Sample (%)	Benchmark (%)	Ratio (Sample / Benchmark)
U20 Rugby World Cup	% attended major rugby events in Wales previously	78.1	3.2 ¹	24.41
Glasgow Int'l Piping Festival	% engaged in piping	40.5	52.0 ²	0.78
Great Yorkshire Run	% running for health, leisure or competition at least once a week	44.1	3.9 ³	11.31
	% non - participants (last 4 weeks)	44.1	94.0 ⁴	0.47
Tour of Britain (North West)	% taking part in cycling at least once a week	55.5	4.3 ³	12.91
	% non - cyclists (last 4 weeks)	32.0	91.5 ⁴	0.35
Ratio > 1	Over-representative			
Ratio = 1	Representative			
Ratio < 1	Under-representative			

Notes:

¹ % of UK adults that attended a live rugby union event in 2006 (Source: GB TGI, BMRB Quarter 4 2006/Mintel).

² Not entirely comparable to sample. Relates to % of adults in England participating in an arts activity. Source: Taking Part Survey (see <http://www.culture.gov.uk/images/research/TP-surveyAnnualData-0607.pdf>).

³ Source: Active People Survey 2 (see http://www.sportengland.org/ngb_sport_factsheet_final_3.pdf).

⁴ Source: Active People Survey 2 (see http://www.sportengland.org/aps2_all_sport_factsheet2.pdf).

Guidance: Measuring the Impact on Future Attendance

The collection of data in relation to this impact will need to take place at one or more points after the event – allowing at least six months before the research is undertaken. The results will help you understand the ‘change impacts’ of your event – ie. the impacts that stems from initial interaction with the event. We believe it is helpful to think of there being two types of change impact; indirect impacts – those where, as in this case, attendance at an event and a positive event experience might lead to further engagement with similar events; and induced impacts – that is, any subsequent (potentially long term) impact involving behaviour change following the initial round of impacts. Such impacts would ordinarily require requisite support systems to be in place rather than occur simply by putting on an event.

Once people have experienced an event, it may be worthwhile investigating whether or not participants feel that the event has had any sustained impact on them, particularly if there are planned social impacts attached to the event. These might include some of the questions detailed below.

On the basis of your attendance at event X, will you;

- Attend the event again in the future?
- Take up the activity?
- Participate in the activity more frequently than you do currently?
- Attend similar events in future?
- Watch the activity on TV?
- Become an advocate for friends and family to take up the activity?

There are no guarantees that what people say they intend to do is what they actually do, particularly if interviewed in a state of post event euphoria. This point relates to the Transtheoretical Model (TTM discussed in the *Manual*) and in order to move towards testing intentions, longitudinal research over a

sustained period is required. This involves tracking the same sample of people over a period of time and usually involves monitoring a 'before' and 'after' state. The further in time from an event a change in behaviour is observed, the more problematic it is to attribute such change to the event, especially as there are likely to be multiple influences at play. Longitudinal research can be costly, hence event organisers should think clearly about the claims they make of their events in terms of what they might achieve and more importantly how they might demonstrate success. Furthermore, given the need to deliver reporting statistics soon after an event, organisers should consider whether longitudinal approaches to monitoring and evaluation are consistent with such timescales. This point links back to a recurring theme within this *Toolkit* and accompanying *Manual* for the need to be explicit about what is planned to be achieved, how it is to be achieved, and how any such achievements can be demonstrated.

ECONOMIC IMPACT

Why Measure Economic Impacts?

Economic impact measurement has become a powerful and persuasive tool for those looking to capture and evidence the financial benefits that can result from the hosting of a major event. Measuring economic impact not only allows public sector bodies to evaluate their economic return on investment, but it also demonstrates how events drive economic benefits – allowing event organisers develop practices which maximise these benefits.

The 'economic impact' of a major event refers to the total amount of additional expenditure generated within a defined area, as a direct consequence of staging the event. For most events, spending by visitors in the local area (and in particular on accommodation) is the biggest factor in generating economic impact; however, spending by event organisers is another important consideration. Economic Impact studies typically seek to establish the net change in a host economy – in other words, cash inflows and outflows are measured to establish the net outcome.

Choose a level of Impact

Attendance Impacts have been broken down into three categories based upon the ease with which they can be measured.

Basic Impacts	Intermediate Impacts	Advanced Impacts
Basic Economic Impacts capture headline spectator and attendee numbers, as these are a strong indicator of likely economic impact	Intermediate Economic Impacts usually involve survey work to calculate the 'direct economic impact' figure from the event	Advanced Economic Impacts consider adjustments to the 'direct economic impact' figure, usually to measure the subsequent effects of increased spending in the host

		economy
The number of spectators is the principal determinant of absolute economic impact. Learn More (link to Measuring Success 2)	The direct economic impact of the World Rowing Championships 2006 was £3,268,703, of which 82% was visitor spend. (link to measuring success 3)	

Economic – Basic Impacts

What are the Basic Impacts?

- Number of spectators
- Number of attendees (non-spectators)
- Percentage of spectators and attendees from outside the 'host economy'
- Duration of event

Overview & Considerations

The basic economic impacts listed here are primarily measures which are both relatively simple to capture and give a broad indication of the potential scale of an event's economic impact. The actual process and key stages to be used in determining a robust economic impact figure is dealt with in the Intermediate Economic Impact section.

Whilst good economic impact measurement requires intermediate-level assessment (involving surveys of people's spending patterns), the basic measurements listed here have been shown to be relatively strong indicators of economic impact. For example, research conducted in the UK has consistently shown that the key determinant of total economic impact is the number of spectators attending an event. This is highlighted in the resource guidance below.

Therefore, on the condition that their limitations are acknowledged, looking at basic economic impacts can be useful for event organisers and funders to get a broad feel for the potential economic effect of an event. Scenarios where this may be particularly applicable include those where:

- Organisers/Funders may be involved with a large number of events and may not be able to afford to conduct attendee surveys at all of them.
- The organisers of an annual event may have conducted a full economic impact assessment involving spectator surveys for several years. The organisers may decide that they have enough historical data to make certain assumptions around the spending patterns associated with a typical event, and may choose to rely on basic impacts alone.

Routes to Measurement

All of the basic economic impacts listed here relate to measuring attendance at the event. There is a separate section of eventIMPACTS dealing specifically with Attendance which can be found [here](#). Alternatively links to the specific guidance documents regarding measuring attendance can be found below.

Resources

Introduction to Measuring Attendance

This resource explains the importance of securing accurate attendance data, and outlines the consequences of getting this wrong.

Measuring Attendance at Ticketed Events

This resource explains outlines the main routes to collecting attendance data at ticket events.

Basic Economic Impacts as an Indicator of Intermediate Economic Impacts

This resource references why some basic information concerning the number of people attending the event can provide a good indication of economic impact

Introduction to Measuring Attendance

Exaggerating crowd sizes can be common practice for the purposes of public relations, but it compromises the reliability of monitoring and evaluation that is based on estimates of attendance. This has implications for much of the research being undertaken at events, and we urge event organisers to recognise the implications of misrepresenting the popularity of an event in terms of spectator or audience numbers (or indeed competitor numbers at mass participation events). Exaggerating crowd sizes has the effect of overstating economic impact and at the same time overstating the carbon footprint attributable to an event. Other measures that are based on findings from a survey, such as the percentage of disadvantaged people attending the event, will be overstated if used subsequently to compute the absolute number of people from a particular group who attended an event. Thus regardless of the rigour with which monitoring and evaluation data is collected, its true value is unreliable if attendance levels are inaccurate.

Common forms of monitoring and evaluation involves conducting a survey of a sample of event participants and to aggregate the findings upwards to derive estimates for the population of participants. For example, it might be the case that 100,000 spectators attend a large scale equestrian event and event stakeholders wish to conduct an economic impact study. A research team would aim to interview around 1,000 spectators and then use the findings from this data to aggregate upwards on the basis that the 1,000 people interviewed are representative of all spectators. Assuming that the sampling has been conducted in a robust manner, the greatest source of error is likely to be the figure used to multiply the findings from the sample upwards to the population as a whole. For example the figure of 100,000 could have been used for the purpose of public relations, whereas in reality there were only 50,000 tickets sold. A practice such as this if left unadjusted would have the effect of doubling the economic impact attributable to the event.

At the majority of ticketed events there should not be a problem with spectator or audience levels as there are ticket sales databases which can provide accurate data with which to work. However, at free to view or open access events particularly along linear routes such as cycle races or cultural events that people can chance upon and drift in and out of such as Piping Live, there needs to be well reasoned estimates of the number of spectators for economic impact, environmental and social impacts. In particular, there should be a clear differentiation made between the number of attendances (throughput) and the number of different people (attendees) who generated the throughput figure.

For example there could be 90,000 admissions at a three day equestrian event which in turn could be made up of 90,000 different people attending once, 30,000 different people attending all three days, or numerous combinations of people and days in between these two extremes. Furthermore in the case of events that take place over an extended distance such as a cycle race or a carnival parade, there is the possibility that people can watch the event from more than one place on the same day. For example, in the case of the London Marathon, and similar events, it is possible (and common practice) for spectators to move around the course and see runners in whom they have an interest at numerous locations.

To illustrate the problems associated with overstating crowd sizes, consider the case of a cycling road race with an estimated attendance of 10,000. If the 10,000 crowd is all different people residing outside the host economy and their average spend is £10 per head at the event, the economic impact would be £100,000. However, this is a free to view event and primary research amongst a sample of 1,000 spectators indicates that they watch from an average of two different locations each, given that they are free to move around the route. Consequently, the 10,000 attendance becomes 5,000 different people when the repeat viewing factor of two is applied (i.e. $10,000/2$) and the economic impact will be £50,000 applying the same expenditure figure.

Furthermore, as explained above, left unchecked the carbon footprint attributable to spectators would also be overstated. In short, event organisers need to be aware that should they exaggerate crowd sizes, the net effect is to undermine the reliability of monitoring and evaluation that is dependent upon accurate crowd size estimates.

Moreover, any over inflation of crowd sizes is also likely to have downstream effects in terms of social impacts. For example, if half of the 10,000 attendance are from the host economy and 50% of our sample report that they are more likely to cycle as a result of their attendance at the event; it would appear that there are 2,500 people at whom to direct any cycling interventions designed to increase participation. However, as suggested previously, if people watched from an average of two locations then this would halve the potential target group. This in turn might be the difference between implementing a cycling participation initiative, or shelving it due to an apparent lack of interest.

Measuring Attendance at Ticketed Events

Attendance at ticketed events can be monitored by ticket sales, or tickets surrendered on entrance to gain admission. Where technology permits, other measures such as the total number of clicks on turnstiles can also be used as there can be no guarantee that all of those people who purchase a ticket for an event actually use them. The purpose of analysis is first to estimate the total number of attendances at an event, and then to down-weight it to the number of unique attendees by using a repeat viewing factor. We restate the requirement to differentiate between attendees and attendance, which applies not only to non-ticketed events but also ticketed events

For some types of monitoring and evaluation (such as economic impact assessment) it may be necessary to distinguish between those whose attendance at the event is their primary motivation for being in the local area and those who are 'casuals', that is, people who are in the locality for some other primary purpose and their attendance at the event is a secondary consideration. It is conventional practice to exclude casuals from calculations such as economic impact and carbon footprint estimates because the impacts made by such attendees cannot be attributed to the event.

Suggested considerations when measuring attendance at ticketed events

- Primary data source will be box office data, ticket sales and ticket distribution
- The number of tickets distributed or sold does not always equal the attendance at the event
- Ticket buyers may not be the people who use them (i.e. group bookings and one person not always representative of the group)
- Some of the larger ticketed events may operate a reuse policy whereby people who leave an event early would relinquish their tickets, to be sold on to other spectators wanting to watch the action.
- Ticket sales and distribution may provide a broad indication of the nature of the audience attending, however, primary research is required to provide more detailed information on those attending (**see Standard Impacts**)

Basic Economic Impacts as an Indicator of Intermediate Economic Impacts

Introduction

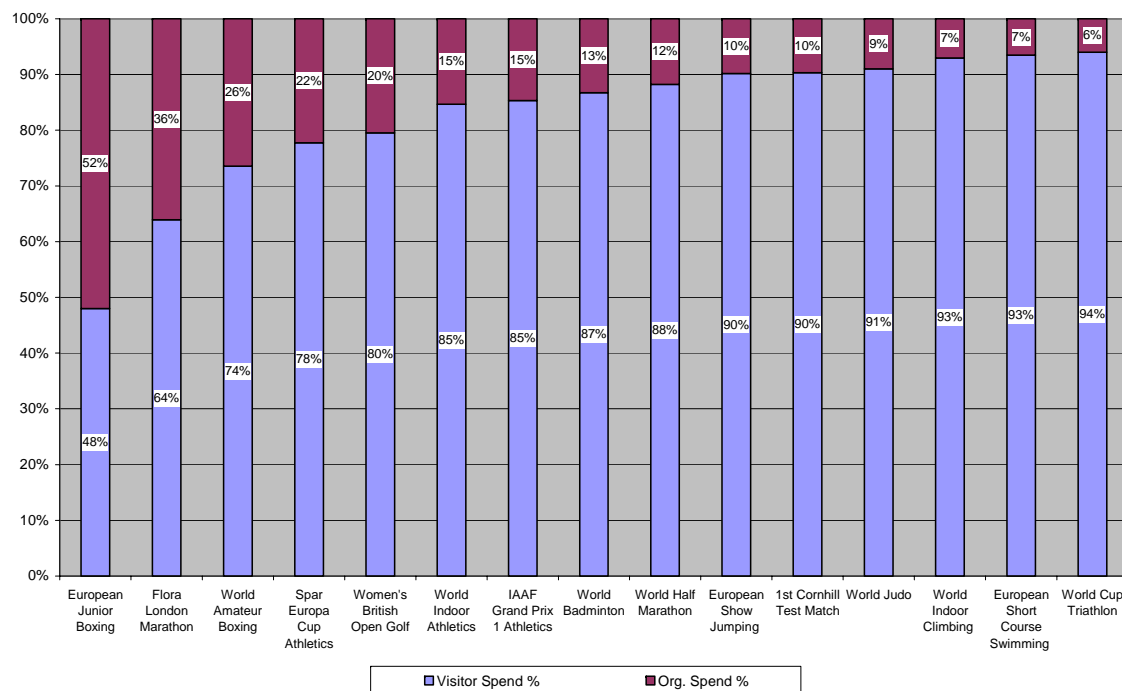
In 2004, UK Sport consolidated economic impact surveys that it had commissioned across 16 major sporting events to assess trends and commonalities. One of the key findings was that spectator spending (primarily driven by the number of spectators attending events) was the key determinant of economic impact.

The extract presented here (from Measuring Success 2) explains these conclusions, and supports the view that event organisers can get a good idea as to the potential scale of economic impact simply by considering basic impacts such as the number of spectators, the length of their stay, and where they originate from.

Abridged Extract from Measuring Success 2

Using the events in the sample, the relative amounts of expenditure attributable to organisational and visitor expenditure can be seen in Graph 4.

Graph 4: The relative proportions of visitor and organisational spending



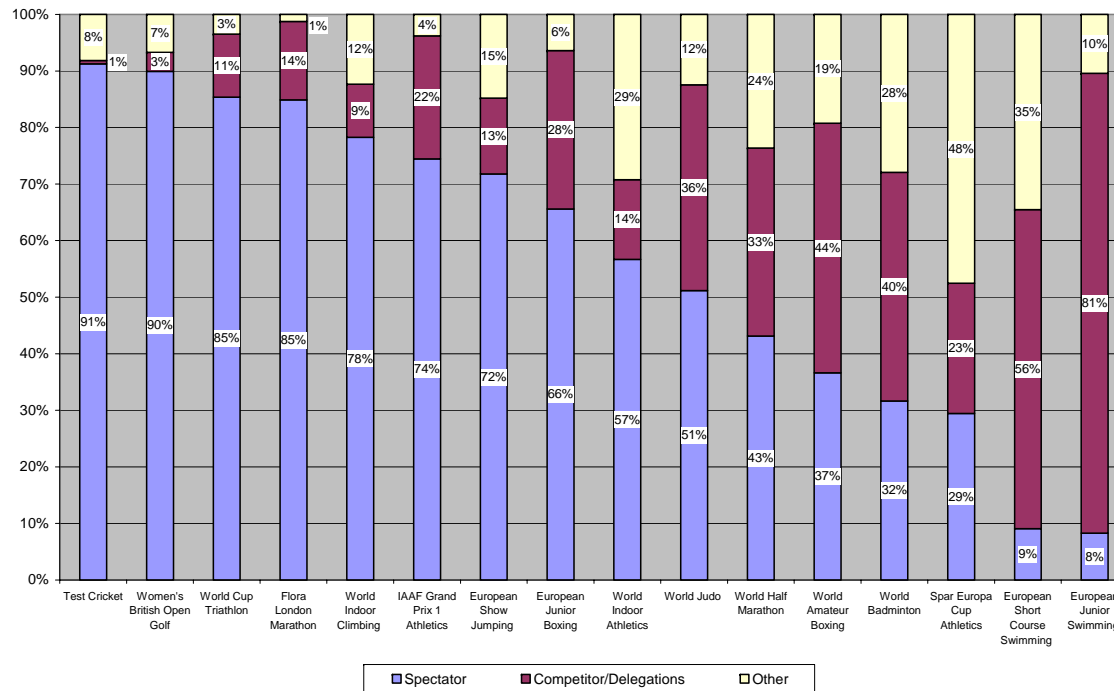
Graph 4 indicates that for all the events (apart from the European Junior Boxing), the economic impact attributable to organiser spend is a minority of the total economic impact. It should be noted that the graph excludes the European Junior Swimming Championships held in Glasgow in 1997, where none of the economic impact was attributable to organiser spend. The sheer scale of the Flora London Marathon (which achieved the second highest proportion of organiser spend) with 99,000 applicants, 42,000 accepted entries and more than 32,000 finishers necessitates a more significant organisational spend than the other events.

The median value is 13% for organiser spend, and 87% for visitor spend. **The significance of this finding is that, for the events included in this sample, the vast majority of the economic impact (80%+) is caused by visitors** and therefore it is logical to concentrate the subsequent secondary analyses on visitor expenditure. The reason why the majority of events in this report have relatively low levels of organiser spend is because they were all events that took place within existing facilities and existing infrastructure. There was no need to build or upgrade

existing facilities, and therefore virtually all expenditure incurred by organisers was on revenue items necessary for the operational running of the event.

Key Groups within Visitor Spend

Graph 5: The continuum between spectators' and other visitors' expenditure



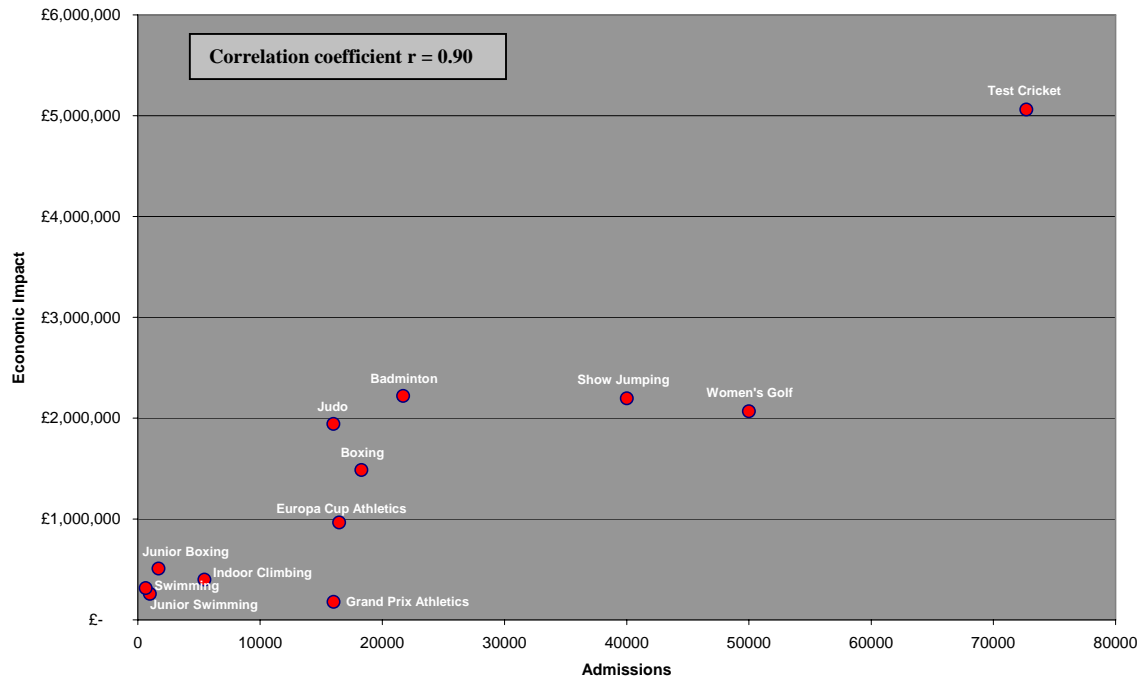
From Graph 5 it can be seen that at ten of the sixteen events featured, the majority (at least 51%) of the economic impact can be attributed to spectators and these would be categorised as 'spectator driven' events. The events at which the greatest percentage of economic impact was generated by spectators are the Test Match Cricket (91%), the Women's Golf (90%), the World Triathlon and London Marathon (both 85%). By contrast, at the remaining events, the economic impact was driven by other groups (principally competitors), in particular the two

swimming events. The Short Course and Junior Swimming events are characterised by having large numbers of competitors staying in commercial accommodation and relatively small numbers of spectators (990 and 640 admissions respectively) most of whom are either the friends or families of the competitors; such events are categorised as 'competitor driven'.

Key determinants of economic impact

In order to investigate the relationship between the absolute scale of an economic impact and the number of people who generated it, the report now examines economic impact against the total number of spectator admissions as shown in Graph 6. This does not include events which were not staged in stadia and where the spectator admissions were approximations as there were no audience data available. This said, Graph 6 indicates that there is (in social science terms) a very high correlation ($r = 0.90$) between the number of spectator admissions at an event and the economic impact attributable to that event. **Therefore it can be concluded that if economic impact is an important consideration in determining whether or not to support an event, then the number of spectators is the principal determinant of absolute economic impact.** As a consequence of this finding it can be concluded that in elite level sport (i.e. the type of event likely to be supported by UK Sport), 'competitor driven' events are unlikely to generate as much economic impact in absolute terms compared with 'spectator driven' events.

Graph 6: The relationship between spectator admissions and absolute economic impact



Notwithstanding the previous comments, it could be argued that if all or most of the spectators attending an event were local people, then the economic impact attributable to an event would be relatively small as there would be only a small net change in the economy i.e. most expenditure would be 'deadweight'. In order to investigate this possibility further, the report examines the relative proportions of local to non-local admissions as detailed in Table 3.

Table 3: The relative proportions of non-local and local spectators at events

EVENT	ADMISSIONS	NON-LOCAL	LOCAL
1997 World Badminton	21,702	62%	38%
1997 European Junior Boxing	1,690	73%	27%
1997 1st Cornhill Test Match	72,693	92%	8%

1997 IAAF Grand Prix 1	16,025	70%	30%
1997 European Junior Swimming	990	100%	0%
1997 Women's British Open Golf	50,000	99%	1%
1998 European Short Course Swimming	640	83%	17%
1999 European Show Jumping	40,000	55%	45%
1999 World Judo	16,000	87%	13%
1999 World Indoor Climbing	5,444	91%	9%
2000 Spar Europa Cup Athletics	16,478	20%	80%
2000 Flora London Marathon	300,000	57%	43%
2001 World Amateur Boxing	18,300	66%	34%
2001 World Half Marathon	15,000	45%	55%
2003 World Cup Triathlon	31,000	85%	15%
2003 World Indoor Athletics	15,000	81%	19%

Economic – Intermediate Impacts

What are the Intermediate Impacts?

- Direct Economic Impact of an Event

Overview & Considerations

The **Direct Economic Impact** is a measure of the *total amount of additional expenditure within a defined geographical area, which can be directly attributed to staging an event*. Based on visitor and organiser spending, Direct Economic Impact is an assessment of the net increase in spending as a result of the event.

Importantly, Direct Economic Impact measures what is sometimes called the ‘first round’ of spending. In basic terms, this means direct transactions between those outside the host economy and those inside the host economy – for example between a visitor and the owner of a local restaurant.

Many event organisers and funders also wish to capture the Total Economic Impact. This step is designed to make adjustments to the Direct Economic Impact to capture the subsequent ‘secondary impacts’ of additional spending within the host economy. Effective calculation of the Total Economic Impact requires previous studies to have been carried out which analyse detailed interactions and interdependencies within the host economy itself. For this reason, the Total Economic Impact is dealt with in the Advanced Economic Impacts section.

This section also includes guidance on moving towards a more standardised reporting protocol for economic impact, both in terms of researchers’ reporting to clients around economic impact, and public sector bodies’ reporting of headline impact figures in public.

Routes to Measurement

There is broad consensus on the standard approach to measuring the economic impact of an event. The spending patterns of event attendees are sampled, averaged and then upscaled to the overall ‘event population’. This is typically combined with an assessment of the net spending in the host economy by the event organiser to determine the Direct Economic Impact. This process typically requires some primary research in the form of surveying event attendees to evaluate peoples’ spending patterns at the event. Whilst not excessively complex or longitudinal in nature, this research is normally best carried out by a specialist contractor.

Within this basic approach however, there is the potential for diverging results based on different interpretations of the stages within the process. There can be varying approaches to: defining the host economy, surveying and sampling parameters, treatment of local residents, measuring economic flows in and out of the host economy, and the application of multipliers (which is covered in Advanced Economic Impacts). Arguably the biggest scope for error is in upscaling visitor spending patterns to an inaccurate event population – a factor which highlights the importance of securing accurate attendance data.

The resources in the section below explain each stage involved in calculating the Direct Economic Impact of an event. An online Calculator has been included so that organisers can forecast the approximate scale of economic impact of their event, based on achieving certain numbers.

Resources

Overview of the Economic Impact Calculation

Summarises the process and key steps by which economic impact figures are calculated.

Economic Impact Calculator

This calculator provides a step-by-step tool whereby event organisers can enter either forecasted or actual numbers to calculate the approximate economic impact of an event.

Defining the Host Economy (Step 1)

This resource explains the importance of an accurate assessment of the geographical area(s) within which you are measuring.

Measuring the Spending of Spectators (Steps 2.1 to 2.5)

This resource explains how to calculate the total number of non-resident spectators whose spending is eligible for assessment.

Measuring the Spending of Spectators (Steps 2.6 to 2.8)

This resource outlines the approach to measuring spectators' spending patterns on accommodation and in other areas. Consideration is also given to assessing direct 'leakage'.

Measuring the Spending of Attendees (Steps 3.1 to 3.2)

Explains how the previous steps should be repeated for all non-spectator groups attending the event.

Overview of the Economic Impact Calculation

Introduction

Economic impact is an important consideration when bidding to secure major events, particularly in cases where organisations seek support from the public sector to help fund staging costs. Public sector bodies across the UK are increasingly investing in events with a view to stimulating regional GDP. However, the term 'economic impact' is often interpreted loosely. Approaches to the measurement and reporting of economic impact associated with events can be inconsistent. Due to the differences in methodologies employed it is often difficult to compare and contrast event-related impacts. This lack of comparability makes it difficult for the public sector to prioritise which events to support when it comes to allocating funds. eventIMPACTS seeks to establish some common ground amongst those undertaking such assessments for producing a transparent audit trail that is based on central principles and facilitates comparison across events.

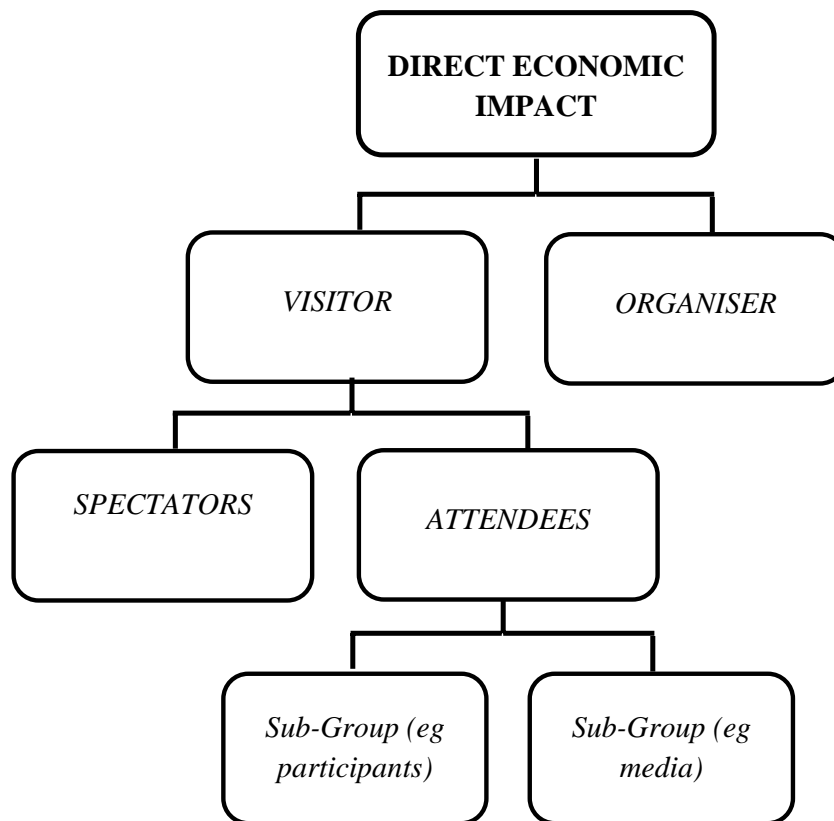
The approaches discussed in eventIMPACTS are generally usable for events of local, national or international significance. Nonetheless, for certain larger events (such as the Olympic Games or the FIFA World Cup) the economic consequences can be more far-reaching and stretch over a longer period of time. Whilst the principles of economic impact analyses still apply to larger events like the Olympics, more sophisticated approaches may be required to judge the full scale of the impact.

The measurement of economic impact requires pragmatism, as there is an inherent trade off between what can be measured reliably and the resources available to conduct the research. Complex procedures have both time and cost implications. In reality, the normal portfolio of events that are held in the UK do not require the same degree of complexity for economic impact assessment as a one-off 'mega' event. With this in mind, the focus of eventIMPACTS around economic impact is to provide a generic template to aid organisers of major events to commission economic impact studies, and set the terms of reference for contractors undertaking such assessments.

What is Economic Impact?

In the context of sport, Turco and Kelsey (1992) define economic impact as "*the net economic change in a host community that results from spending attributed to a sports event or facility*". Although this is set in the context of sport specifically, it is equally transferable to events in the arts and cultural sector, and can also be applied to business events and conferences. By measuring the net economic change, this considers cash inflows (positives) as well as outflows (negatives).

The key elements of economic impact are **Visitor Spend** and **Organiser Spend**. Visitor Spend refers to additional expenditure within a defined geographical area from event-related visitors such as spectators and attendees. For most events, Visitor Spend forms the major component of economic impact. However, the Organiser Spend in staging an event can also generate additional expenditure in the host economy. Collectively, visitor and organiser spending in the host economy that is directly attributable to the staging of an event can be termed **Direct Economic Impact**.



An estimate of the Direct Economic Impact provides an 'at least' position, which can be supported by a transparent audit trail of the assumptions used in the calculation process. Depending on the ultimate aspirations of the research and the availability of requisite evidence, adjustments can then be made to the Direct Economic Impact in order to calculate the **Total Economic Impact**.

Guidance in eventIMPACTS

eventIMPACTS provides guidance on measuring both the Direct Economic Impact and the Total Economic Impact. The relevant issues within each stage, which are often overlooked or misunderstood, are discussed and illustrations are provided where appropriate. This can be used as a practical resource for any organisation wishing to carry out or commission an economic impact assessment of their event.

Also provided is guidance on research design, data collection and analysis, in addition to further guidance on the presentation of economic impact results and its reporting

Overview of Key Steps

STEP 1: DEFINING THE HOST ECONOMY

Step 2: MEASURING THE SPENDING OF SPECTATORS

Establishing Eligible Spectator Numbers

Step 2.1 Define Total Spectator Admissions

Step 2.2 Remove Repeat Spectators

Step 2.3 Discount Local Residents

Step 2.4 Discount Casual Spectators

Step 2.5 Consideration of Spectator Types

Applying Spectator Spending Patterns

Step 2.6 Calculate Spectator Spend on Accommodation

Step 2.7 Calculate Other Spectator Spend

Step 2.8 Deduct Direct Leakages

STEP 3: MEASURING THE SPENDING OF ATTENDEES

Step 3.1 Establish Attendee Sub-Groups

Step 3.2 Repetition of Spectator Process (noting differences)

STEP 4: MEASURING THE SPENDING OF THE EVENT ORGANISER

<i>Step 4.1</i>	<i>Subtract local income from local expenditure</i>
<i>Step 4.2</i>	<i>Considerations for commercial promoter-driven events</i>
STEP 5:	DIRECT ECONOMIC IMPACT
STEP 6:	ADJUSTMENTS FOR TOTAL ECONOMIC IMPACT
<i>Step 6.1</i>	<i>Application of multipliers</i>
<i>Step 6.2</i>	<i>Additional considerations for larger events</i>

Defining the Host Economy (Step 1)

The starting point for calculating the Direct Economic Impact attributable to an event is to formally establish the geographical area under consideration ie the **Host Economy**. The Host Economy is usually defined as a city, county, region or country. The choice of the host economy may be influenced by the remit of the agency providing financial support to the event. For example, if the event is being funded primarily by the Regional Development Agency then it would be reasonable for them to want to measure the impact at regional level. It is possible to define different host economies within the same study. For example if an economic impact assessment were to take place on an event at the Millennium Stadium in Cardiff, it would be possible to assess the economic impact of that event on Cardiff, Wales, and the UK.

Defining the Host Economy is a critical stage because the spatial boundary selected will determine what to include in, and what to exclude from, any potential impact assessment. As a general rule of thumb, events are more likely to deliver a greater Direct Economic Impact on a host city or county rather than on a region or nation. However, if the immediate locale does not have the requisite service sector infrastructure (eg accommodation stock) to manage the increased level of demand for the event, then the impact will tend to be spread over a wider geographical area.

PRACTICAL EXAMPLE: WORLD SOMERSAULT CHAMPIONSHIPS

For the purpose of the World Somersault Championships, we assume that the economic impact will be measured on the London region comprising the 32 London boroughs.

Measuring the Spending of Spectators (Steps 2.1 to 2.5)

Once the host economy has been defined, the next stage involves establishing the visitor spend from spectators. There are two basic parts to this work:

- Steps 2.1 to 2.5 detailed below address how to **calculate eligible spectator numbers**. This process takes the total number of spectators present at the event and down-weights this in order to account for residents and casual visitors.
- Steps 2.6 to 2.8 address how to **apply spectator spending patterns**. This involves taking survey data regarding spectators' spending patterns and applying them to the eligible spectator numbers (as defined through Steps 2.1 to 2.5).

The key steps to calculate the eligible spectator numbers are outlined below.

<i>Step 2.1</i>	<i>Define Total Event Admissions</i>
<i>Step 2.2</i>	<i>Remove Repeat Spectators</i>
<i>Step 2.3</i>	<i>Discount Local Residents</i>
<i>Step 2.4</i>	<i>Discount Casual Visitors</i>
<i>Step 2.5</i>	<i>Consideration of Spectator Types</i>

Step 2.1 - Define Total Event Admissions

The accuracy of Visitor Spend estimates is dependent on gaining access to good quality attendance data. Accurate records are usually available from the organisers relating to accredited groups such as participants, officials and media personnel. The key group for whom attendance data tends to be variable is spectators. Research conducted at major events in the UK has consistently shown that the key determinant of economic impact is the number of spectators attending an event.

Estimating spectator numbers is less problematic at ticketed events and / or events that occur within the confines of a stadium or arena. A more scientific approach should be employed at open access and free-to-view events, especially where large distances are involved (e.g. marathons).

PRACTICAL EXAMPLE: WORLD SOMERSAULT CHAMPIONSHIPS

The numbers of accredited personnel at the World Somersault Championships is assumed as follows: 250 participants, 100 officials and 50 media representatives. In addition, we assume that the event had 25,000 spectator admissions over the four days.

Step 2.2 - Remove Repeat Spectators

When dealing with spectators, the approach to attendance measurement should allow differentiation between visits (total admissions) and visitors (individuals). This may include, for example, a consideration of how many days of an event people attend. If an event is held at more than one location (e.g. along a linear route at free to view events), then it would be appropriate to down-weight total admissions to account for possible repeat viewing at multiple locations. A survey of people may be required for this purpose, particularly in the case of non-ticketed events. Even at ticketed events, there may be a difference between the number of tickets sold and the actual number of people who attend. However, should the requisite data be available from box office records or a ticket sales database, then this would provide a reasonable indication of the number of different people attending an event, which can be used as a proxy for survey work.

PRACTICAL EXAMPLE: WORLD SOMERSAULT CHAMPIONSHIPS

It is estimated that spectators at the World Somersault Championships attended the event for an average of two days. Therefore, the 25,000 spectator admissions were actually made by 12,500 different people.

Step 2.3 - Discount Local Residents

Attendance at sporting events is but one leisure pursuit. Essentially, events are in competition amongst themselves, and with other sectors of the leisure industry, for the custom of people with limited resources (income and time) at their disposal. In other words, every £1 spent on one form of leisure activity in the UK is potentially £1 less spent on another activity. Spending by local people in the host economy is merely a recirculation of money that already existed there. When evaluating investment decisions in the public sector, the consideration of 'additionality' is regarded as best practice as per the HM Treasury Green Book and is also consistent with the national RDA Impact Evaluation Framework. The Green Book defines additionality as follows: "An impact arising from an intervention is additional if it would not have occurred in the absence of the intervention." Essentially we are concerned with what happened over and above what would have happened anyway.

Consequently the spending of people normally resident within the defined impact area should be considered 'deadweight' and not included in calculations of direct economic impact. The Green Book refers to deadweight as "outcomes which would have occurred without

intervention". Anticipating what local residents might have done had they not attended an event is a complex process. It could be argued that events generate increased spending by local residents in the host economy; however this is difficult to prove, and does not represent new money to the host economy. With the exception of mega events, it would be unusual to find many instances where local resident income is retained (and not spent outside the region) simply because an event is being staged. For events that are held routinely in the UK, this is another reason for adopting the deadweight argument cited above.

PRACTICAL EXAMPLE: WORLD SOMERSAULT CHAMPIONSHIPS

For the World Somersault Championships, the assumption is that 50% of spectators were normally resident in London. Therefore, 6,250 people were exempt from economic impact calculation.

Step 2.4 - Discount Casual Visitors

Not all non-local spectators visiting the host economy will be eligible for inclusion in the calculation of the Direct Economic Impact of an event. This will happen in cases where:

- The event was not their main reason for being in the defined impact area. For example, someone from Scotland might be visiting friends or relatives in London and during this trip elected to attend the World Somersault Championships; however the event was incidental to the visit and therefore any related expenditure may have occurred regardless, albeit on something else.
- Visitors changed the timing of their visit to coincide with the event. For example, an overseas visitor might be planning a visit to London but decided to plan the trip around the World Somersault Championships; however, the trip and related expenditure would have occurred regardless, albeit at a different point in time.

As with local residents, expenditure by casual visitors should be considered deadweight for economic impact purposes.

PRACTICAL EXAMPLE: WORLD SOMERSAULT CHAMPIONSHIPS

We assume that 20% of non-local spectators attending the World Somersault Championships were casual visitors. Therefore, the number of event specific visitors to London was 5,000.

Step 2.5 - Consideration of Spectator Types

Events involve different types of spectators who can be grouped by the nature of their economic involvement:

- **Commercial Stayers** - Visitors making use of hotels, guest houses or other commercial accommodation in the Host Economy.
- **Non-Commercial Stayers** - Visitors staying overnight in the Host Economy but in unpaid accommodation, for example with friends or relatives.
- **Day Visitors** - Visitors not staying overnight in the Host Economy. This sub-group may include someone staying either commercially or non-commercially outside the Host Economy.

The rationale for this classification is that the spending patterns of these sub-groups are not the same. In short, Commercial Stayers are likely to spend more than Non-Commercial Stayers or Day Visitors. Similarly those staying non-commercially have a greater opportunity to interact with the Host Economy than Day Visitors because their dwell time is longer. Therefore, it is good practice to treat these sub-groups separately.

PRACTICAL EXAMPLE: WORLD SOMERSAULT CHAMPIONSHIPS

At the World Somersault Championships, we estimate that 15% of event-specific spectators from outside London were commercial stayers, 10% stayed non-commercially and the rest (75%) were day visitors.

Should organisers or event funders also wish to assess the expenditure of local residents, then the process outlined here can be modified to exclude visitors from outside the Host Economy. It is important to note that this will necessitate collecting full expenditure information from local residents (in addition to visitors) and replicating the calculation process. Thus, there will be an increase in the time taken to administer the survey for local residents which may reduce the sample size obtained. Moreover, the extra analysis will increase the cost of conducting the research. If the objective is to measure Visitor Spend then the focus should be on maximising response rates in order to make reliable inferences about the non-local people.

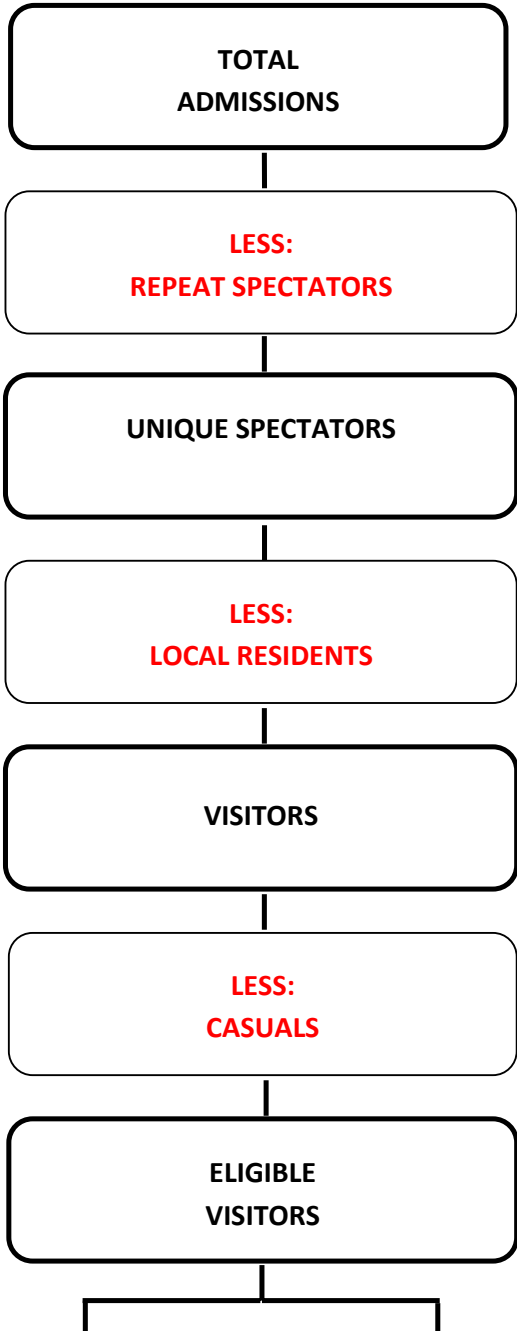
Worked Examples for Steps 2.1 to 2.5 – World Somersault Championships

The following example relates to spectators only. The same process can be repeated for other visitor groups (e.g. participants) in order to establish the total number of eligible visitors. Steps 2 and 4 will not apply to accredited event personnel.

	Example	Calculation
Step 2.1 - Define Total Event Admissions		
Total spectator admissions	25,000	A
Step 2.2 - Remove Repeat Spectators		
E.g. Average number of event days attended	2	B
Number of different spectators	12,500	$C = A / B$
Step 2.3 - Discount Local Residents		
% of spectators resident in the host economy	50%	D
Number of non-local spectators	6,250	$E = (1 - D) / C$
Step 2.4 - Discount Casual Visitors		
% of non-local spectators who are casual visitors	20%	F
Number of event specific visitors	5,000	$G = (1 - F) / E$
Step 2.5 - Consideration of Spectator Types		
Commercial Stayers	750 (15%)	H
Non Commercial Stayers	500 (10%)	I
Day Visitors	3,750 (75%)	J

NB: For illustrative purposes, it is assumed that members of all other groups represented at the World Somersault Championships were from outside London and were exclusively Commercial Stayers.

FIGURE 2: SUMMARY OF CALCULATING ELIGIBLE SPECTATOR NUMBERS



Measuring the Spending of Spectators (Steps 2.6 to 2.8)

Introduction

Once the eligible spectator numbers have been calculated as per the previous resource (Steps 2.1 to 2.5), the spending patterns of those spectators need to be determined and upscaled to output the overall estimated spend associated with spectators (Steps 2.6 to 2.8).

The methodology used to assess Direct Economic Impact usually involves some survey work. A standard economic impact questionnaire tries to ascertain the spending of visitors on accommodation and other event-related areas.

With this in mind, it is important to recognise that an individual might undertake expenditure on behalf of other people. For example, a couple sharing a hotel room might be spending £100 per night on their accommodation, but this equates to £50 per person. Similarly, a parent or guardian attending with children is more likely to cover the expenses of their dependents. If left unadjusted, a practice such as this might artificially inflate the spending patterns of visitors. Any error in the calculation of the spending patterns of those surveyed will be compounded when these are extrapolated across all eligible visitors. Whilst it is inevitable that people might spend on behalf of others in their group, sensible design of the survey can help to resolve this issue by simply asking a respondent how many people his or her expenditure relates to.

<i>Step 2.6</i>	<i>Calculate Spectator Spend on Accommodation</i>
<i>Step 2.7</i>	<i>Calculate Other Spectator Spend</i>
<i>Step 2.8</i>	<i>Deduct Direct Leakages</i>

Step 2.6 - Calculate Spectator Spend on Accommodation

Accommodation tends to be the most significant item of expenditure in economic impact studies. In this regard, estimates of visitor spend on accommodation must be reliable. The impact on the accommodation sector is relatively simple to calculate, as shown below.

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Number of Commercial Stayers} \\ \times & \text{Average number of nights spent in the Host Economy} \\ = & \text{Number of commercial bed-nights} \\ \times & \text{Average cost per bed-night} \\ = & \text{Spectator Spend on Accommodation} \end{aligned}$$

The number of Commercial Stayers will have been determined from the previous section (Steps 2.1 to 2.5). The rest of the information required can be gathered using a relatively simple survey of event visitors, such as those used in the development of eventIMPACTS.

For events that tend to attract a large number of visitors, it is recommended that the findings from the survey are supplemented by consultations with hotels and other providers of commercial accommodation in the Host Economy. Given the relative importance of accommodation to the overall economic impact, it is crucial that the findings from any visitor survey match the experiences of accommodation providers. Questions to be explored from such consultations include:

- What was the average occupancy level and room rate achieved by hotel operators during the time of the event?
- How does this compare with normal occupancy levels and room rates in the host economy at a similar time of year?
- Were any event specific bookings or enquires made with hotels or special offers taken up for the event?
- Did the operators turn away any event visitors?

Responses to such questions help to verify the findings from the survey, and provide a more rounded view and ‘narrative’ of the impact on the accommodation sector.

PRACTICAL EXAMPLE: WORLD SOMERSAULT CHAMPIONSHIPS

The number of Commercial Stayers is known to be 750 from Step 2.5. A survey showed that spectators staying commercially spent on average two nights in London, and that the average cost per bed night was £50. The spectator spend on accommodation was therefore £75,000.

Step 2.7 - Calculate Other Spectator Spend

Whilst accommodation is a major item of Visitor Spend, it is not the only one. With a view to promoting a common template for recording and reporting Visitor Spend, six other standard categories of expenditure are proposed. These are:

- Food and Drink
- Entertainment
- Local Travel (eg Bus, Taxi)
- Merchandise
- Shopping/Souvenirs
- Other (eg Petrol, Parking)

As with accommodation, spectator expenditure on the above items can be captured through a survey and recorded on a per-day basis, which can then be extrapolated based on eligible spectator numbers.

Note that the expenditure on tickets is not listed here, nor are other items such as programme sales. Tickets and programmes tend to be an item of revenue for the event organiser, whereas the items listed above are usually items of revenue for local traders. The revenue that event

organisers take from tickets and programmes often goes directly towards the staging costs of the event itself. Consequently tickets and programmes are best dealt with in a subsequent section (Organiser Spend) where the income and expenditure of the organiser can be properly evaluated. There may well be other items that partly feed through to event organisers (for example, commissions received from on-site concession stands or from the sale of merchandise). Any such items should therefore be discounted from estimates of Visitor Spend.

In addition to individual categories of expenditure, it is good practice to find out how much visitors are planning to spend on their entire trip to the Host Economy. This will serve to indicate their typical behaviour, and there may be arguments to inflate or deflate their daily spend figures accordingly. For example, if someone attending all four days of an event spent £40 on the day of interview, but budgeted to spend £120 over the four days of the event then his / her average expenditure per day would be £30 and not £40. In this way it becomes possible to subject the expenditure patterns reported on the day of interview to a 'test of reasonableness'.

PRACTICAL EXAMPLE: WORLD SOMERSAULT CHAMPIONSHIPS

Steps 2.5 and 2.5 respectively have already shown that there were 5,000 event-specific visitors and that spectators attended an average of two days. This equates to 10,000 visitor days. A survey showed that the average spectator spend per-day on items other than accommodation was £30. The spectator spend on other event-related activity was therefore £300,000.

NB: In the interest of simplicity, the £30 figure has been taken as an average across commercial stayers, non commercial stayers and day visitors. In reality, the calculation process should consider the expenditure patterns of these groups separately.

Step 2.8 - Deduct Direct leakages

When visitors spend money at (or around) an event, some of this could immediately leave the Host Economy. This is 'direct leakage'. An example of where this might happen is around on-site concessions or trade-stands which are not resident in the Host Economy. Any expenditure incurred with such non-local traders, although technically changing hands locally, does not directly impact on the Host Economy. Non-local traders tend to have minimal interaction with the Host Economy outside the event. Whilst traders would be expected to pay the event organiser for their stands at an event, such expenditure would need to be considered under Organiser Spend for the reasons outlined above.

To try and account for leakage, visitor expenditure at the event site should be discounted to reflect the proportion of concession or trade-stands from outside the Host Economy. At events where retail villages feature prominently (eg equestrian events), surveys can be designed to differentiate between on-site and off-site expenditure. Furthermore, primary research may be required with traders working at the event to get a feel for the income that they generate and their expenditure levels in the Host Economy. The following table illustrates the effect of different transactions involving concession or trade stands.

	Impact on Host Economy		
	<i>Positive</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Negative</i>
Visitor spending with local vendors			
Non-local vendors' spend in the host economy			
Local residents' spend with local vendors			
Visitor spending with non-local vendors			
Spending by local vendors in the host economy			
Vendors' spend with organisers			
Local residents' spend with non-local vendors			

A strategic approach to maximising the economic impact of an event would be to encourage on-site concessions and trade stands from within the Host Economy.

PRACTICAL EXAMPLE: WORLD SOMERSAULT CHAMPIONSHIPS

Following an analysis of both spectator spending and the residency of the concession stand owners, it has been assumed that £75,000 of spectator expenditure associated with the World Somersault Championships was made with traders not normally resident in London.

Worked Example for Steps 2.6 to 2.8 – World Somersault Championships

The following example relates to spectators only. The same process can be repeated for other visitor groups (e.g. participants) in order to establish total eligible visitor spend. With respect to non-accommodation items, visitor spend can be further broken down by the six standard categories of expenditure proposed in Step 2 above.

	Example	Calculation
Step 2.6 - Calculate Spectator Spend on Accommodation		
Number of commercial Stayers (from 2.5 example)	750	H
Average number of nights spent in the host economy	2	K
Number of commercial bed-nights	1,500	$L = H \times K$
Average cost per bed-night (per person)	£ 50	M
Revenue for accommodation sector	£ 75,000	$N = L \times M$
Step 2.7 - Calculate other event-related visitor spend		

Total number of event specific visitors (from 2.5 example)	5,000	G
Average number of days attended (from 2.2 example)	2	B
Day visits generated	10,000	$O = G \times B$
Avg. daily spend on non-accommodation items	£ 30	P
Non-accommodation visitor spend	£ 300,000	$Q = O \times P$
Step 2.8 - Deduct direct leakages		
Visitor spend with non local traders	£ 75,000	R
SPECTATOR SPEND	£ 300,000	$S = N + Q - R$

Measuring the Spending of Attendees (Steps 3.1 to 3.2)

Whilst spectators have been shown to be the main driver of economic impact, other attendees can also make a significant contribution to the economic impact of an event. This is especially important for events which might have a high number of participants. Whilst some attendee groups such as officials may be relatively small in comparison to spectator numbers, they often stay for the full duration of the event. Similarly athletes may arrive several days in advance of a sporting event for acclimatisation and training.

The main attendee groups at an event should therefore be detailed and a similar process be applied to these groups as has been detailed for spectators (Steps 2.1 to 2.8). The guidance here explains the relatively minor differences between the spectator and attendees processes.

Step 3.1 Establish Attendee Sub-Groups

Step 3.2 Repetition of Spectator Process (noting differences)

Step 3.1 – Establish Attendee Sub-Groups

For major events, a number of people outside of spectators are required to attend. These are principally people participating in or running the event. It is important to categorise the sub-groups of Attendees so that their economic impact can be measured in a similar way to spectators. Some typical sub-groups include:

- Athletes/Teams/Participants
- Media
- Officials
- Delegates
- Volunteers

For major events, these groups may often be shaped by accreditation categories which can assist in capturing robust numbers of attendees. Event organisers will tend to have access to good quality data regarding many of the attendees in terms of their numbers and their duration of stay.

Step 3.2 – Application of Spectator Spend Process

For attendee groups, the basic process detailed in Steps 2.1 to 2.8 can be applied to assess both eligible numbers and spending patterns. There are however a couple of important exclusions which apply to spectators only, and should not normally be applied to attendees:

- Step 2.2 down-weights the total number of admissions to allow for repeat spectators. This will typically not be required for attendees as their numbers can usually be counted fairly robustly from organiser data such as accreditations. It can still be useful however to apply Step 2.3 which will determine whether the attendee is a local resident.
- Step 2.4 down-weights the spectator numbers based on casual visitors whose main reason for visiting the area was not attending the event. Typically a reasonable assumption can be made that most non-resident attendees (for example a volunteer or official) have visited the locality with the primary reason of attending the event.

For simplicity, the calculator used in eventIMPACTS groups all attendees together for the purposes of assessing their numbers and spending patterns. However a more robust assessment of economic impact can be achieved through consideration of each sub-group, as groups such as the media may well have different spending patterns to athletes.

PRACTICAL EXAMPLE: WORLD SOMERSAULT CHAMPIONSHIPS

Whilst there were significantly more spectators than attendees at the World Somersault Championships, there were a large number of athletes competing at the event, most of whom had arrived several days earlier. A survey across the attendees established that an additional £200,000 was generated in London as a result of the event being staged.

Measuring the Spending of the Event Organiser (Steps 4.1 to 4.2)

The final stage required in assessing Direct Economic Impact is the event organisers' net spend within the Host Economy. The organisation of major events can be an expensive and complex business involving income streams from inside and outside the host economy, and spending on contracts with suppliers inside and outside the host economy. A calculation is therefore required to assess the organisers net spend in the Host Economy.

Economic impact estimates of major events sometimes include visitor spending on tickets; however, it should not be assumed that such expenditure will entirely benefit the Host Economy as this is normally used immediately by the organiser to offset the staging costs of the event.

It is imperative that event organisers engage with the evaluation process by providing access to relevant financial documentation and they should be made fully aware of their responsibilities prior to the commencement of the research.

- Step 4.1 Subtract local income from local expenditure*
Step 4.2 Considerations for commercial promoter-driven events

Step 4.1 - Subtract Local Income from Local Expenditure

The following table illustrates a hypothetical break-even budget for the World Somersault Championships in London. It can be seen that the total revenue generated by the event is £1m, of which £650,000 originates from within London and the remainder from elsewhere. However, the expenditure made by organisers in London amounts to £750,000, which indicates a net Organiser Spend of £100,000 in London.

In practice, it is possible that the transactions of event organisers could have a negative impact on the Host Economy, particularly where support services and expertise are outsourced. Therefore, there is an obvious rationale for developing a network of local suppliers and expertise which will assist public bodies to maximise the economic impact of their events.

	London	Elsewhere	Overall
INCOME			
Ticket sales	£ 250,000	£ 250,000	£ 500,000
Merchandise	£ 100,000	£ 50,000	£ 150,000
Sponsorship	£ 200,000	£ -	£ 200,000
Other	£ 100,000	£ 50,000	£ 150,000
Total	£ 650,000	£ 350,000	£ 1,000,000
EXPENDITURE			
Rights fees	£ -	£ 150,000	£ 150,000

Suppliers & Staff	£ 500,000	£ -	£ 500,000
Prize Money	£ -	£ 100,000	£ 100,000
Other	£ 250,000	£ -	£ 250,000
Total	£ 750,000	£ 250,000	£ 1,000,000
SURPLUS / DEFICIT	£ 100,000	£ (100,000)	£ -

Hypothetical Event Budget – World Somersault Championships

Step 4.2 - Considerations for commercial promoter-driven events

Most publicly funded events are likely to break-even in financial terms (ie income = cost). On the other hand, most commercial promoter-driven events are designed to achieve a profit. The inclusion or exclusion of profit as economic impact will depend on a number of factors that include the promoter's place of business; how much of the profit is then spent; and where it is spent.

For example, Wimbledon generates an annual surplus (in the region of £25m) for the All England Lawn Tennis Club, which is then handed to the Lawn Tennis Association (LTA) to be reinvested in British tennis. It is impractical to assume that the LTA will spend all of this money in the Greater London area; rather the money will most likely be distributed across the UK regions to fund tennis initiatives. In contrast to Wimbledon, the surplus from the London Marathon is used by the London Marathon Charitable Trust to support recreational projects in London.

It is apparent from the two examples cited above that the treatment of profit will vary by event and therefore it is difficult to be prescriptive about whether to consider profits generated by events as economic impact on the Host Economy. In order to facilitate cross-event comparison, and in line with producing an 'at-least' estimate of economic impact, the recommendation is to exclude profits from the calculation of Direct Economic Impact.

PRACTICAL EXAMPLE: WORLD SOMERSAULT CHAMPIONSHIPS

Following a review of the British Somersault Federation's accounts in staging the event, it was seen (above) that an additional £100,000 was spent by the organiser in London as a result of staging the event.

Calculating Direct Economic Impact (Step 5)

The various calculations from Steps 1 to 4 can now be brought together to determine the Direct Economic Impact:

	Example	Calculation
Spectator Spend (Step 2)	£ 300,000	S

Attendee Spend (Step 3)	£ 200,000	T
ELIGIBLE VISITOR SPEND	£ 500,000	U = S + T
Organiser Spend (Step 4)	£ 100,000	V
DIRECT ECONOMIC IMPACT	£ 600,000	W = U + V

In the event that organiser's spending in the Host Economy is a negative figure, then this should be deducted from visitor spend in order to arrive at the Direct Economic Impact.

Reporting on Economic Impact

It is important that any economic impact findings are presented in a transparent manner that allows the reader to trace how the results have been derived. The rationale for this is to ensure comparability when trying to reconcile economic impact estimates for two or more events, or for the same event over time.

Standardised Reporting of Methodology

It is recommended that those commissioning event impact studies request the following ten pieces of information to be clearly set out on a summary top-sheet which should accompany any report.

1	A statement explaining whether the research was conducted in-house or by an independent external contractor.
2	Definition of the host economy - whether this is a city, county, region or nation.
3	The total number of people attending the event, broken down by their role in the event (eg spectators, athletes, participants, media, officials, etc). If the event was not ticketed, an explanation should be provided as to the approach used to gauge spectator numbers.
4	The method used to estimate visitor spending patterns. If a survey has been used, what was the approach to data collection, the size of the sample and the associated sampling error? What was done to ensure that the sample obtained is representative?
5	The number of people eligible for inclusion in the economic impact calculation by group (eg participants, spectators, etc) on account of being resident outside the host economy but visiting the host economy specifically for the event.
6	The number of commercial bed-nights generated by the different groups in the Host Economy and the associated impact in expenditure terms on the local accommodation sector.
7	The impact of visitor spending on other sectors of the host economy (ie not accommodation) broken down by group (eg food & drink, entertainment, etc).
8	The method used to estimate organiser spend. Was the event budget scrutinised?
9	The Direct Economic Impact - to include eligible visitor and organiser Net Spend in the host economy. This should be reported net of any direct leakages from the Host Economy.
10	The Total Economic Impact if considered feasible, and therefore any adjustments

	made to the Direct Economic Impact. What type of multiplier has been applied? What evidence is there to support the use of these adjustments?
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Sample top summary sheet for the World Somersault Championships

Event Title	World Summersault Championships				
Venue and Date	London, 1st - 4th January 2010				
Host Economy	London Region				
Economic Impact Summary					
	Participants	Officials	Media	Spectators	Totals
Total Number	250	100	50	12,500	12,900
Eligible Number	250	100	50	5,000	5,400
Commercial Bed-Nights	1,250	500	150	1,500	3,400
Accommodation	£ 75,000	£ 30,000	£ 11,250	£ 75,000	£ 191,250
Food & Drink	£ 31,250	£ 14,000	£ 5,250	£ 150,000	£ 200,500
Entertainment	£ -	£ 2,500	£ 750	£ 3,000	£ 6,250
Merchandise	£ -	£ -	£ -	£ 47,000	£ 47,000
Shopping/Souvenirs	£ 12,500	£ 5,000	£ 1,500	£ 50,000	£ 69,000
Local Travel	£ -	£ -	£ 1,500	£ 30,000	£ 31,500
Other	£ 6,250	£ 2,500	£ 750	£ 20,000	£ 29,500
Total Visitor Spend	£ 125,000	£ 54,000	£ 21,000	£ 375,000	£ 575,000
Direct Leakage					-£ 75,000
Eligible Visitor Spend					£ 500,000
Organiser Net Spend					£ 100,000
DIRECT ECONOMIC IMPACT					£ 600,000

Standardised Public Reporting

It is recommended that public reporting of economic impact figures, or reporting in the press, uses the two standardised terms as defined in this framework:

- Direct Economic Impact
- Total Economic Impact

It is also recommended that press releases confirming economic impact contain notes which clarify the sample size and sampling error of visitor surveys (as is seen more commonly in polling).

Economic – Advanced Impacts

What are the Advanced Impacts?

- Total Economic Impact of an Event

Overview & Considerations

Advanced Economic Impacts primarily involve making judgements about longer-term economic activity, or economic decisions that people may or may not have made were it not for the event taking place. In other words, there is an increasingly high level of complexity involved in making a robust link between the event and the stated impact.

The **Total Economic Impact** builds on the calculation made in the Intermediate Impacts section which determined the Direct Economic Impact. Whereas the Direct Economic Impact assesses additional 'first-round' spending resulting from an event (eg a direct transaction between say a visitor and a local restaurant), the Direct Economic Impact seeks to capture the knock-on benefits to the host economy (eg the additional money spent in the local area by that restaurant as a result of the increased business).

Other economic impact considerations for larger events have been referenced. These introduce concepts such as displacement and import substitution which are generally felt to be more applicable to the very largest scale international events.

Routes to Measurement

The most common way in which the calculation of Total Economic Impact is made is to take the Direct Economic Impact and apply a 'multiplier'. The application of the multiplier, once determined, is a straightforward process, but the data and analysis required to calculate an accurate multiplier can be extremely difficult and require the study of complex economic interrelations within a defined geographical area. This is the reason why Total Economic Impact has been listed as an Advanced Impact.

In practice, these Advanced Measurements will need to be handled by professional companies or research bodies that are skilled in working with complex economic data.

Resources

Measuring the Total Economic Impact

Summary of the application of multipliers to calculate Total Economic Impact, and other considerations which may be applicable for economic research into extremely large scale events.

Reporting on Economic Impact

Guidance on a standardised way for researchers to report back methodological summary to clients, and around a standardised approach to public reporting of economic impact figures.

Economic Impact Calculator

This calculator provides a step-by-step tool whereby event organisers can enter either forecasted or actual numbers to calculate the approximate economic impact of an event.

Measuring the Total Economic Impact (Step 6)

Step 6 deals with adjustments that can be made to the Direct Economic Impact figure to capture secondary impacts on the Host Economy. In most cases, the information required to undertake these adjustments is not readily available, can be speculative, and has additional resource implications. However, should such information be available and reliable then it is possible to assess the Total Economic Impact. As a matter of practice, any adjustments should only be undertaken following the calculation of the Direct Economic Impact (Steps 1 to 5).

Step 6.1 Application of multipliers

Step 6.2 Additional considerations for larger events

Step 6.1 - Application of multipliers

Multipliers are used to assess the extent to which increased spending in the host economy produces subsequent benefits for that economy. For example, the local businesses benefitting from increased visitor and organiser spend will use some of this money to pay their suppliers. Assuming that these suppliers are also locally based, a 'multiplier effect' is created.

Two types of multipliers are commonly applied in the context of events - output multiplier and income multiplier. Both these multipliers are measured in monetary terms but have very different uses. The output multiplier measures the impact on the total business turnover in the host economy. By contrast, the income multiplier measures the overall increase in household income of local residents. The value of output multipliers will tend to be much higher than those of income multipliers, although the latter are considered to be more 'fit for purpose' in academia.

Regardless of its type, the value of any multiplier is dependent on the size of the economy being considered. In simple terms, the smaller the host economy, the higher the chance of leakage and the lower the value of the multiplier. In many cases, multiplier values are borrowed from other studies, which are far less valid than multipliers that are empirically derived based on the inter-industry relationships in a given host economy. However, empirically derived multipliers are not readily available for every level of geography.

Both the data and analyses required to accurately calculate a multiplier tend to be fairly complex and are beyond the scope of the guidance in eventIMPACTS. A failure to understand how multipliers are derived (or use of incorrect multipliers) will only serve to mislead event funders about the value of their investment. Therefore where multipliers are not readily available, and/or it is considered too costly to derive these empirically, it is recommended that only the Direct Economic Impact is reported. It worth noting however that the development/application of multipliers may be of particular benefit in calculating the additionality of the very largest scale events.

As a final point of note, an event has no bearing on the value of the multiplier. Therefore when comparing the economic impact of events that take place in different cities or regions, it is not appropriate to consider multiplier effects and the Direct Economic Impact should be used.

Step 6.2 - Additional Considerations for Larger Events

For the very largest events, there may be a case that the event exerts an impact on residents' normal economic behaviour which should also be measured.

In some instances there could be legitimate grounds to claim that a large-scale event has prevented local residents from temporarily leaving the Host Economy, which in effect represents income retained in the Host Economy. For example, had Paris won the right to host the Summer Olympic Games in 2012, then it could have been reasonable to argue that some Londoners (and indeed other UK residents) may have travelled to France to attend the event. With the Games being awarded to London, the UK population will now have the opportunity to witness the event without having to travel abroad. However, quantifying the value of local resident income retained in London is at best tenuous. As a counter scenario, some residents may temporarily leave the UK because of the event, which would result in a negative economic impact on the UK. For example, some London residents might decide to take a holiday abroad to avoid the large influx of people expected during the 2012 Olympics.

Yet another consideration (primarily though not exclusively) for larger events is **displacement**. This is caused when normal tourists planning a trip to the Host Economy are crowded out by event-related visitors. For example, London is a popular tourist destination regardless of staging a major event like the Olympics in 2012; the expected influx of Olympic visitors will place additional demands on the London economy. An increase in demand is in turn likely to trigger an increase in price levels for certain sectors of the economy e.g. accommodation (although a Fair Pricing and Practice Charter has been introduced for 2012). Congestion coupled with inflated prices could have a detrimental effect on the behaviour of normal tourists planning to visit London during that period. The challenge then in economic impact terms is to quantify the monetary value associated with the volume of displacement.

Not only are these advanced economic impacts only likely to occur with significance around large-scale events, but also it is likely to be only those events that can afford to undertake the research required to assess them. As has been noted elsewhere in eventIMPACTS, the cost benefit of impact assessment needs to be carefully considered.

Reporting on Economic Impact

It is important that any economic impact findings are presented in a transparent manner that allows the reader to trace how the results have been derived. The rationale for this is to ensure comparability when trying to reconcile economic impact estimates for two or more events, or for the same event over time.

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Introduction to Measuring Environmental Impacts

Why Measure the Environmental Impacts of Events?

For event managers, funders and other stakeholders, the nature and scale of environmental impact is not always immediately evident. Neither is the underlying goal of sustainable development policies. In deciding to act to reduce selected impacts, quite complex decisions must be made regarding the boundaries of event responsibility. There will rarely be the technical capacity or staff time within organising bodies to develop a 'conceptual' approach from first principles, let alone build a completely bespoke management, monitoring and evaluation structure to tackle the issue.

Firstly, attending events is by its very nature amongst the more *obviously* damaging part of individuals' consumption activities. Much of the environmental impact of individuals' behaviour is 'remote', occurring along long product supply chains and at power stations. Attending events can typically cause the immediate burning of fuel for transport and the consequent release of greenhouse gases connected to climate change. There is also an increasing level of international debate regarding the environmental impact of event infrastructure, albeit with this focussed on the largest events such as the Summer Olympic Games and FIFA Football World Cup. Here, then, the support for event-hosting from regional or national policymakers is likely to be increasingly conditional on these events having a constructive and thoughtful approach to environmental monitoring and management.

Secondly, an event's wider legitimacy amongst organising partners, spectators and athletes will only be assured if the event reflects the fundamental attitude of its stakeholders in the widest sense. Sport and cultural events are increasingly mainstreaming sustainability, but only by offering participants, visitors and others inclusion in a truly sustainable experience will they be able to retain goodwill and buy-in. Concrete efforts towards measuring and monitoring impacts is the first step.

Thirdly, event organisers need to understand and mitigate their environmental impact for reasons of sound strategic management and to ensure cost effectiveness. It is not possible to understand the risks surrounding an event without addressing the environmental sphere. It is very likely that climate change (and associated regulations and taxes) and fossil fuel depletion will, in the medium term, significantly raise travel, build and supplier costs (and, as we have already seen, 'shake out' many inefficient actors). Without an appreciation of how exposed an event is in terms of changes in these areas, an event cannot be assured of financial viability over anything but the shortest time frame.

In short, events which do not mainstream the environmental agenda will appear increasingly isolated and out of touch.

When Should Environmental Impacts be Considered?

Emerging evidence from the pilot study into eventIMPACTS is unequivocal: *the earlier environmental management is incorporated into event planning, the more effective are actions and outcomes*. This has strong implications for how and when event organisers incorporate environmental actions into the planning of their one-off or repeated event. Effectively, there are real advantages where environmental monitoring and management processes are *bolted in* to event organisation rather than *bolted on* to already-developed management structures as an afterthought or PR exercise.

This evidence raises a key issue that will influence the likelihood of guaranteeing wider socio-cultural impacts as well as environmental good management: the extent to which the event is strategically planned, and over what period. It is to be expected that there will be a degree of 'instrumentalism' in the management of events: that is to say event organisers are most likely to manage and measure those elements that they are obliged to in order to attract funding or be successful in a bidding process. Hitherto, there has been a limited requirement to display coherent, grounded and explicit environmental management and evaluative actions, which are evidence-based and where results are measureable. In the UK, this is changing, and it will become increasingly difficult for events to evidence their environmental good management without reference to a wider strategic event management structure.

Environmental actions are best developed at the earliest stages of development, when the goals for the event are first set: in this context, events can show how they are addressing 'impact' and 'legacy' in their widest forms, incorporating economic, socio-cultural and environmental aspects. Early and explicit consideration of how an event impinges on these different spheres will reveal potential synergies and conflicts; help an event understand where it is organisationally strong or weak; and shed light on how an event might work towards leveraging the largest and longest-lasting legacies.

For events that are one-off or peripatetic, this is also the opportunity to develop an exit strategy which guarantees the sustainability of environmental and other actions, for example by identifying partners responsible for particular actions after the core event team has been dissolved or has moved on.

Types of Approach to Measuring Environmental Impacts

The variety of environmental impacts associated with events has required a number of approaches to impact assessment. These can be *quantitative and 'outcome' oriented* (e.g. carbon footprints) or *qualitative and process oriented* (eg sustainable procurement strategies; attainment of standards). Either, or a mix of both may be appropriate for specific events.

Quantitative and Outcome-Oriented

Measurement might include the *ecological footprint* involves a series of complex calculations to estimate how much resource a person, country or event uses compared to a fair, global 'one planet' share. *Carbon footprints* are conceptually simpler (although difficult in practice) requiring only an estimate of the climate change emissions consequent on an event. Quantitative approaches offer benefits in prioritising event actions (e.g. those with the biggest carbon savings per £), and reference external frameworks that are widely familiar. Setting very tough numerical targets might encourage a radical appraisal of how an event has to change to survive. Measurement can, however, be resource intensive. Moreover, the link from action to outcome will usually require outside expertise. Related measurement techniques are constantly developing, and different consultancies already offer differing 'products', which may be problematic.

Qualitative and Process-Oriented

This approach involves examining the portfolio of activities undertaken in support of an event, and seek to improve the environmental performance and environmental management systems associated with these activities. It has some similarities with quality assurance approaches, and International and British Standards are in development to help events in this area (BS 8901). These approaches have many benefits. As actions are based on existing activities, they are transparent and communicable, and intuitive for organisers; they can yield immediate benefits, because practicable actions will be identified and prioritised. There are, however, limitations. The actions taken may not be those most effective in ameliorating impact, due to the lack of an external reference framework against which to prioritise (i.e. the 'low hanging fruit' may not be very important). Hence conflicts over the prioritisation of scarce resources or time may not be easy to resolve. Also, because these approaches examine an existing set of actions, they may encourage incremental rather than radical, transformative actions, when it may be the latter that are appropriate.

Whatever approach one takes, it will always be important to consider:

- The event variables that might link to environmental impacts;
- How far these variables can actually be measured and influenced;
- How far results from measurement processes can actually help us to manage events more sustainably and efficiently.

In the short term, there is value in focusing on carbon footprint as this can be linked to climate change, transport and waste variables – as well as engaging with political and fund holder agendas. Where quantitative approaches are not viable, or where survey resources are limited, there nevertheless continues to be value in assessing process changes.

Guidance in Selecting Environmental Impacts to Measure

Event organisers and stakeholders may collect a great deal of information that they may not automatically regard as useful for environmental impact measurement and monitoring. As well as undertaking an economic impact assessment of their event, organisers may, for example, collect a great deal of useful information regarding the home locations of competitors. Such information, with limited modification, could itself form the building blocks of an environmental impact indicator set for an event.

In the process of developing environmental impact indicators for events, organisers should consider the following basic questions which will help them develop an indicator set which is most realistic and practicable for their own context:

1. What are the most important impacts?

Given the nature of the event, can a prior estimate be made of which impacts are likely to take priority? For example an event that utilises existing infrastructure but attracts a large number of overseas attendees or participants might expect, *a priori*, to focus on travel behaviours and carbon footprinting.

2. What variables link to these impacts?

If an assessment of the likely 'big hitting' impacts can be made, are there variables that can be tracked which have a strong relationship with the outcome/impact in question? In the above example, a monitoring of the mode and distance of attendee travel, together with actions to encourage more sustainable travel patterns, would be favoured.

3. Are these impacts practically measurable and can they be influenced?

Organisers should only target variables and behaviours that can be adequately measured and influenced given the level and mix of resources available. There is no point in an event promising to bring about radical, sustained behavioural change if these claims are not credible or provable. Modest, but demonstrable achievement will be more appropriate than excessive rhetoric.

4. What is the likely resource cost?

There are costs associated with the collection, validation and processing of data. This can be a real issue where impacts rely on official data that is not available until months/years after an event. An assessment of the personnel and financial resources available – and how these will be provided if they are currently inadequate – will be required to guide future action. Some management and measurement may be undertaken in house, some by third parties/consultancies.

5. Will the results influence future event management?

Measurement actions are most worthwhile if they influence future event management, either of the event in question, or of events in the UK more generally (through dissemination of best practice). Organisers should consider how best to structure, schedule and communicate environmental actions such that the results inform better, more effective management in an incremental fashion. There is an important difference here between impacts that are merely contextual and those that might be influenced. For example, impacts that may be directly influenced include the transport modes of people attending the event; tonnes of waste collected; or amounts of waste recycled at the event.

6. What will the impacts cover?

There is a real challenge for indicators to be able to pick up on 'additional' activity that occurs specifically as a result of the event.

7. Do the impacts provide clear information for stakeholders to act upon?

It is important that decision-makers can understand as fully as possible the methods through which environmental indicators are developed.

8. Will the indicator aid comparison across events?

There is value in being able to benchmark progress across different events in different places, especially if the event in question is not a one-off.

The Boundaries of Responsibility for an Event

Events may be responsible for a set of environmental impacts that vary in nature, timescale and in geographic location. Each type of effect should be considered by an event as part of any environmental management and monitoring system, although all may not need action.

Direct, local and immediate

Examples of this might include damage to natural habitat (or remediation of brownfield land) that arises as a result of event hosting. Direct impacts may be quite subtle encompassing implicit losses to the services derived from the natural environment and which need to be addressed via site-specific environmental impact assessments.

Direct, global and longer-term

Climate change linked emissions arising from spectator travel or infrastructure development are examples of impacts that are. The damage is not just localised (but can be significant in global-aggregate), and with temperature effects taking decades to arise. Here events need concentrate on the 'input' (e.g. fuel/energy use) whilst relying on wider society or science to provide the explicit link to the 'outcome'.

Indirect

These might include, on the global scale, carbon emissions that were consequent on the production of event merchandise even when they are directly attributable to third party suppliers, often far away. Other, local examples might be any environmental damage caused by contractors in the construction of event venues.

Partial

An example here would be travel emissions by event attendees who are on multi-purpose trips – for example, a visitor from Australia who has come to the UK to attend rugby internationals, but also to visit family; or the portion of responsibility that can be attributed to the FA Cup for Wembley stadium's environmental footprint.

Any comprehensive assessment of event impacts should cover these bases, however unlikely it is that all can be directly measured or ameliorated by the event in question. Even if only a rough appreciation of the likely relative size of direct, indirect or partial impacts is possible, this can nevertheless inform the event's prioritisation of actions and general approach to environmental monitoring and management.

Engaging with Event Stakeholders when Selecting Impacts

As with any set of event objectives or impacts, it is recommended that these are discussed and agreed with representatives of the event stakeholders. Just as with other core event functions, the identification and use of stakeholder groups can assist with the development, identification, agreement, resourcing and implementation of plans to measure an event's environmental impacts. These often overlapping groups will include (but not be limited to):

- Sport/Arts Sector Stakeholders, such as national agencies and the sub-national agencies, governing bodies and international agencies.
- Local Stakeholders, including affected host communities, local authorities, regional development agencies and venues.
- Technical partners, such as environmental, management and economic consultancies
- Private Industry, either in a sponsorship or funding role, or as event suppliers

Event participants and attendees, without whom the intrinsic worth of the event is lost, and without whose support no event is viable, let alone 'sustainable'.

Identifying the Strategic and Operational Context for Environmental Impacts

The following matrix represents a potential list of environmental impacts placed within a logical flow from strategic to operational context. It is taken from research conducted in preparation for eventIMPACTS and based around the 2008 Great Yorkshire Run. Consideration is given to the objectives that underpin the selection of the impacts, through to the practical/operational feasibility of their use. This provides a possible template for organisers to use for not only capturing environmental impacts, but also to understand why those impacts have been selected.

	Waste-related	Transport	Carbon Footprint	Sustainability and Other Issues
Objective ↓	-Changing consumer behaviour -Encouraging recycling in Sheffield -Increasing re-use and recycling of waste	-Reducing amount of private motorised transport to/from event -Indirectly changing long term travel behaviours	-Minimising carbon footprint of event related consumption spending	-Presence of strategic plans to organise events in a sustainable manner
Possible Impacts ↓	-Tonnage of event-related waste sent to landfill -Tonnes recycled Waste management plan in operation	-Proportion spectators/competitors using dedicated park & ride facilities -Number of spectators using public transport -Proportion of spectators/competitors attending using private cars	-Carbon equivalent addition of the GYR event -Total miles travelled to event by spectators and competitors -Carbon equivalents generated per spectator/participant	-Waste management plan (city, event) -Event sustainability plan (city, event, BS8901)
Nature of Approaches ↓	-Landfill reduction -Minimising 'final' waste generated at event	-Insights into reduced carbon footprint of event	-Carbon equivalent emissions connected to event related activity; strong connection to both waste and transport indicators	-Presence of planning to monitor and measure environmental consequences of event
Policy Relevance and User Utility ↓	-Ties to general local waste management planning, and Quarterly -Key Performance Indicators monitored by	-Links to Sheffield transport planning (South Yorkshire Transport Plan & Plan for Transport in Sheffield).	-Links to headline SD indicator set at national level	

	Waste-related	Transport	Carbon Footprint	Sustainability and Other Issues
	Sheffield CC -Links to DEFRA SD headline indicators			
Transparent and Clear? ↓	-Simple tonnages easy to relate to by wide stakeholder group, but issues of deadweight and displacement	-Fairly transparent and clear, although potential issues of deadweight and displacement to be considered	-A number of techniques available to estimate the footprint; lack of transparency on conversion factors	-Presence of plans may not link to positive environmental outcomes
Comparable? ↓	-Potentially comparable across Sheffield and Great Run events in terms of waste per capita measures	-Comparable across events for Sheffield, and with indicators usable in a cross section framework	-Depends on whether same carbon calculator method used across space and through time	No
Development Costs and Practicality	-Possible issues of isolating waste streams additional on event -Waste contractor (eg Veolia Environmental Services) may provide some data on wastes -Marginal cost of data collection may be high given scale of event, and amount of waste generated -Could require survey of food and drink vendors which could be costly	-Potential for remote monitoring of public transport, and park & ride -Survey material possibly required to understand use of different public transport but could be included as part of standard economic assessment tools used to monitor event -Economies of scope with standard economic impact assessment	-Requires representative survey of event spectators, participants, and organisers seeking information of travel, other spending etc. -Potential to link closely with methods used for economic impact assessment -Results largely linked to patterns of travel and distances travelled to event	-Development of plans involves costs, as does achievement of standards

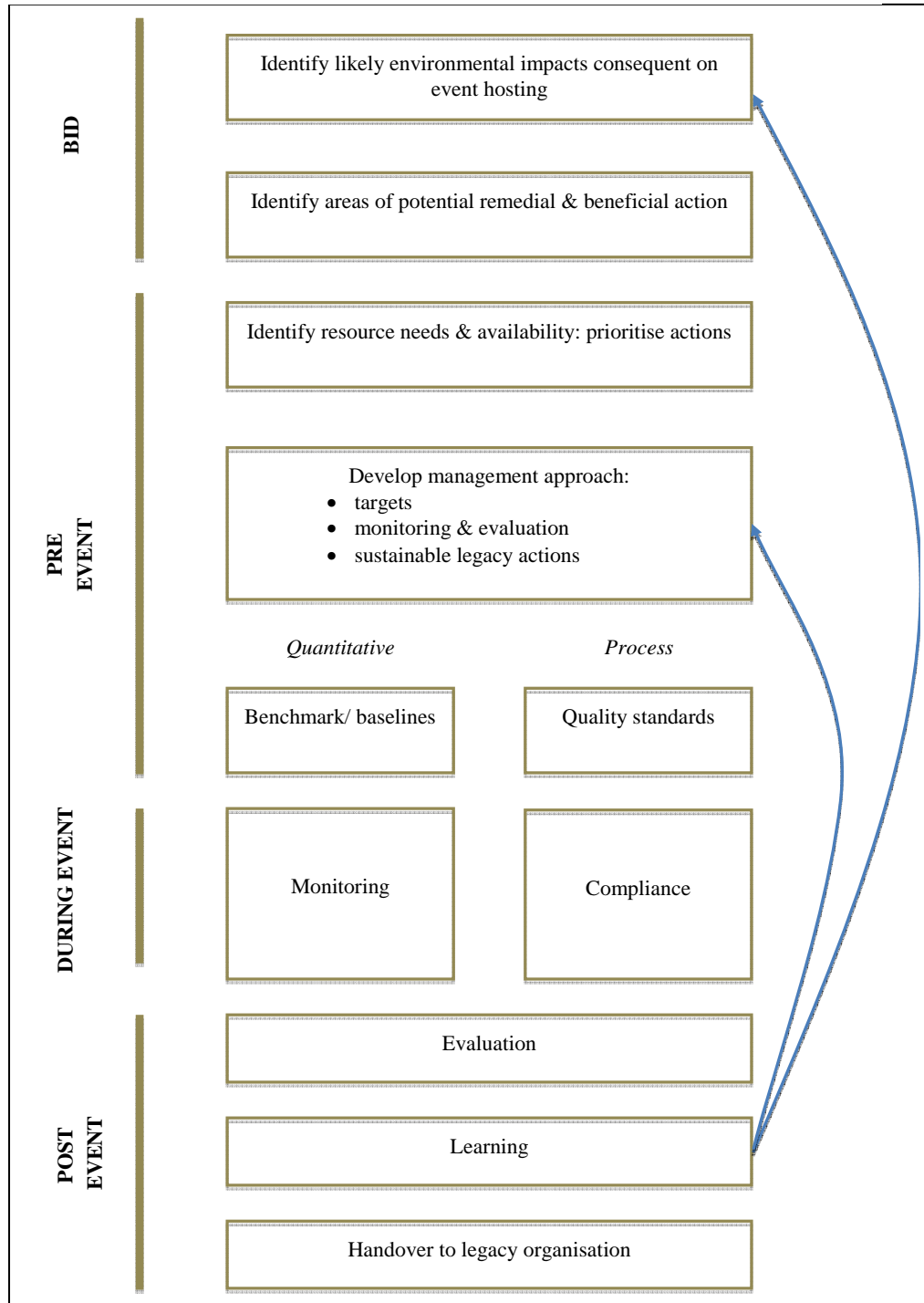
Event Organiser's Environmental Impact Checklist

The following checklist can be used by event organisers to ensure they are addressing the environmental impacts of their events at each stage of event delivery. For more details on developing a management system, see BS8901.

AREA	ACTIONS	RESP
Before the Bid/Decision to Host...		
1.1 Building Knowledge Base	Develop familiarity with <ul style="list-style-type: none"> event IMPACTS toolkit BS8901 specification for sustainable event management systems 	
1.2 Environmental Viability	Assess the fundamental environmental viability/ appropriateness of the event. Consider location, access and timing.	
Before the Event...		
2.1 Environmental Scoping	List areas of potential environmental impact (+ve and –ve). Consider: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Pre-event venue infrastructure development Organiser impacts (energy use, procurement) During-event visitor impacts (travel, waste, subsistence) Post-event legacies (clean up, remediation) 	
2.2 Environmental Planning	Write an environmental strategy (as long or as brief as appropriate) outlining practical actions to manage impacts noted in 2.1. Effort here should reflect the likely scale of the impacts. Elements might include statements or strategies relating to the following (if needed) : <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Sustainable Procurement Waste Energy Use Travel Behavioural Change Legacy Monitoring & Evaluation 	
2.3 Partnership	Following 2.2, identify the range of partners who might be	

Development	involved in delivering a sustainable event: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Public Sector • Sponsors • Suppliers • Waste Contractors • Consultants 	
2.4 Communications Strategy	Develop a plan to inform stakeholders of event actions for sustainability. Consider: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Audiences • Media • Messages • Milestones 	
2.5 Contractual Agreements	Formalise contracts or memoranda of understanding with outside agents required to deliver parts of sustainable event management (following 2.2).	
During the Event...		
3.1 Monitoring	During-event monitoring to ensure agreed procedures are followed and visitor data captured	
3.2 Management	Explicit management structure and information resources to enable proper <i>ad hoc</i> decision making to respond to unforeseen circumstances and developments.	
3.3 Communication	Environmental messaging to identified audiences (following 2.4)	
After the Event...		
4.1 Evaluation	Analysis of environmental data (visitors, organisers, partners) with explicit focus on lessons learned & best practice. Explicit recording for use in future event organisation.	
4.2 Dissemination	Communication of environmental impacts, actions & lessons learned (following 2.4)	
4.3 Legacy: Task and Finish	Remediation or legacy actions identified in 2.2	

The diagram below explains the checklist in a visual format:



Introduction to Intermediate Environmental Impacts

The following resource details some of the intermediate-level impacts and provides some guidance on approaches to measurement.

Measuring Environmental Activity

The easiest intermediate-level environmental impacts are those where attendees can be asked straight-forward questions regarding their activities around an event. Typically these will be in relation to travel. It should be noted that there is a strong association between these questions, and those that are asked around economic impact assessment:

- Proportion of total attendees driving to/from the event by car
- Proportion spectators/competitors using dedicated park & ride facilities
- Number of spectators using public transport
- Total miles travelled to event by spectators and competitors

Whilst the data collection of these impacts could be handled by a basic organiser-led survey (perhaps online), it is likely that these questions are most easily handled through their inclusion within a wider survey led by a research contractor. The analysis of the results is not likely to be complex, and the information will give event organisers a good feel for some baseline travel-related impacts of their event.

Measuring Environmental Perception

One of the areas in which events may offer the potential to drive positive environmental impacts is around changing people's perception and awareness of environmental issues. If practical steps are taken around events to minimise environmental impact, it may be useful to make these as visible as possible and put in place measurement systems to assess that visibility. Some impacts that can be measured include:

- Attendees who believed the event worked to promote sustainability objectives
- Attendees who believed event efficiently managed waste streams and adopted means of reducing attendee carbon footprint

Measurement can be achieved through basic surveying techniques as described in other sections of eventIMPACTS such as those in Participation, where respondents are asked to rate their level of agreement or disagreement with conditional statements around the impact of an event. Such statements might include:

“the SD objectives of the event were clearly communicated to me”

“there was a real concern about minimising waste at this event”

“I took note of the transport guidance issued pre–event”

Measuring Intent to Change Behaviour

As with participation, attendees can also be asked whether they believe an event will change their environmental behaviour. It should be noted however that this indicates merely intent, rather than evidencing an actual behavioural change:

- Proportions of attendees asserting that event attendance will impact upon their environmental behaviours

In assessing behavioural changes resulting from attendance at (or participation in) events, there are likely to be challenges in assigning cause and effect - with numerous variables impacting on behaviour change at any one time. Quantifying the environmental benefit of participation change is explored further in Environmental Implications of Participation Change.

Measuring Carbon Footprint

Measuring the Carbon Footprint of events is dealt with in a separate resource Carbon Footprinting Application to Events. The following measures may be considered. This approach to measurement offers benefits in that it can help prioritise management action by identifying those aspects of event delivery that have the biggest impact. Measurement can be resource intensive however, although related measurement techniques are constantly developing, and different consultancies offer differing ‘products’, which may be problematic.

- Total CO₂ emissions per event attendee
- Total energy consumption per event/attendee

Measuring Waste

The volume, nature and destination of waste associated with an event, either as part of venue development, event operations or visitor consumption are important environmental metrics, but complex to measure. This is due to the mix of responsible agents – venues, local authorities, event organisers, and of course, attendees.

Under BS8901, an initial scoping of the likely waste impacts is appropriate – what are the likely sources of waste; which is relatively the largest or most problematic, and where might an event, impact upon the level and destination of waste.

As an area where event organisers will be less likely to have sole responsibility, proper management and partnership processes are important. It is likely that for smaller events, process monitoring may initially take precedence over quantitative measurement for example;

- Is the event waste strategy extant and fit for purpose?
- Are recycling facilities available and signposted at venue(s)?
- Are attendees advised of the need to reduce waste and recycle?
- Are any on-site franchises subject to any compliance via contracts or minimum standards?

In parallel to the above, the waste strategy should address the destination of waste, for example emphasising collaboration with venues and waste agencies to ensure waste is in a proper form for recycling.

Carbon Footprint of Events – Technical Summary

The term ‘carbon footprint’ has become hugely popular in discussions around the environmental impact that humans have upon the ecology of the Earth. Not only have carbon emissions been identified by the IPCC (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change) as the primary human-generated cause of changes in global climate, but additionally, because carbon emissions are related almost wholly to the burning of fossil fuels, a consideration of carbon emissions can also contribute to an understanding of how the depletion of liquid and solid fuels might impact human activity¹.

Despite the accepted importance of the concept and associated measurement method, there is surprisingly little consensus on the exact definition and scope of a carbon footprint. Key issues include whether one measures just carbon from fuels, or include carbon from other sources (such as the decomposition of organic matter), or indeed include other gases that have an impact of global climate (such as methane).

More critically for events policy perhaps is the discussion around the limits of responsibility for carbon emissions. For events this will link to both conceptual and moral/ethical considerations, and also considerations of practicality and applicability.

A position can be taken on the concept and scope of the carbon measurement. Following this definitional debate, the problem remains regarding how to actually *measure* carbon emissions according to the definition and scope of responsibility arrived at. To summarise briefly, the nature of the emissions concerned will drive how they are measured.

Direct emissions from an event will overwhelmingly relate to those released as a result of fossil fuels burned in service of the event; before, during or after the event itself. These will relate to fuel burned during infrastructure development, by organisers during the event (for example in the vehicle fleet) and, critically, by spectators travelling to, from and potentially around the event.

Indirect emissions will relate to those which do not occur as a result of the immediate burning of fossil fuel, but which still are directly caused by event activity. For example, turning on the floodlights for an evening rugby game places a demand upon the national electricity grid which is serviced by power station turbines turned by steam that is generated in large part (in the UK at least) by the burning of fossil fuels². Other indirect emissions would include those required to create the goods and services that are

¹ This centring on the debate around ‘Peak Oil’

² This is an oversimplification. At times of very low demand (e.g. early hours of the morning) energy is being generated unavoidably from ‘always on’ sources such as Nuclear, and hence little or no additional energy would be needed if the user was geographically close to such a source and required energy at this time.

consumed during or because of an event (including electricity at accommodation, and energy used in processing food consumed at an event, producing event merchandise etc.).

Clearly, the measurement of direct emissions is conceptually and practically more straightforward than the measurement of indirect emissions. Importantly, if the quantity and type of fuel burned can be ascertained, then the consequent level of carbon dioxide emissions can be closely estimated. Even directly estimating the amount of fuel burned is *not* straightforward in some cases, but help is at hand. For example, the UK Department of the Environment (DEFRA) provides estimates of carbon emissions per kilometre by vehicle type that obviate the need to directly measure fuel consumption (although of course at the cost of some accuracy). Organisers can of course directly record fuel purchases in service of an event (or require contractors to do likewise) should the will and organisational capacities exist.

The measurement of indirect emissions is more problematic. To some degree, as with the above, institutional ‘buy in’ can solve some problems. For example, the recording of kilowatt-hours of electricity use by organisers in service of an event can be translated into carbon emissions by reference to the general grid mix of generation types³. For other indirect emissions, such as those involved in the processing of goods that are consumed/purchased at an event, it is far more difficult. Here, the option is to use what is known as *environmental input-output (ENVIO) techniques* to estimate carbon emissions.

ENVIO effectively uses techniques developed to estimate the ‘multiplier’ effects of new economic activity on the supply chain (and potentially on household income) and adapts them to track the carbon emissions associated with this new economic activity. In the UK, energy use and greenhouse gas (reported in carbon equivalents) and other emissions are reported for 76 industries which can be used for this analysis; a similar account for 44 industries exists for Wales.⁴

Effectively, then an ‘economic multiplier’ approach is used to estimate the extent of new production along all stages of the supply chain as new inputs are needed to product outputs (both goods and services) that service an event. This new output is then assessed, industry by industry in terms of the energy use and carbon emissions that are consequent.

³ See Digest of UK Energy Statistics. www.berr.gov.uk

⁴ See for a review of the method Munday, M. and Roberts, A. (2006) “Developing approaches to measuring and monitoring sustainable development in Wales: A review”, *Regional Studies*, 40, pp.535-544.

There are a number of well established limitations associated with economic input-output analyses which are carried over into environmental input-output. For example, all relationships are assumed to be linear – another 10% of industry output will require another 10% of each input used (including, for example electricity) – whereas in reality, this will not hold.

Additionally, ENVIO analysis can only track activity and emissions within the economy of reference – usually a nation or a region. Complementary methods have to be employed to estimate the carbon emissions associated with the production of goods produced overseas that are then imported to the UK and then sold at an event (such as assuming they are produced overseas using UK-identical production methods and energy use). This limitation is even truer of services, such as travel agencies, that are provided wholly overseas to clients visiting the UK for an event).

Notwithstanding these problems, ENVIO is, along with process and lifecycle analyses, considered an appropriate way to measure the carbon footprint of an activity.

¹ See Digest of UK Energy Statistics. www.berr.gov.uk

¹ See for a review of the method Munday, M. and Roberts, A. (2006) “Developing approaches to measuring and monitoring sustainable development in Wales: A review”, *Regional Studies*, 40, pp.535-544.

Resource - Online Measurement Techniques

Within the Case Studies, research has often supplemented face-to-face interviews with some online techniques which are cost effective and accessible ways of gathering data and more detailed information.

Online Collection of AV Material

AV material can be a valuable way of capturing characteristics of an event, the participation of different groups in it and of generating further comment and discussion. Websites such as [Flickr](#), a photo sharing website, allow pictures to be easily uploaded to the site, made publicly available or restricted to specific groups, 'tagged' so that they can be categorised and made accessible, mapped, and commented on.

Blogging and Comment Tools

Blogs or immediate text update sites are an increasingly popular way for people to record their thoughts, opinions, experiences and lives online. As such they are a useful way of generating qualitative information and comment on particular initiatives and events. Many events will have associated blogs that can be researched, contacted and from which material can be collated. More simply, web based comment tools are easy and cost effective to set up and are a valuable way of capturing the thoughts of participants.

Online Surveys

Online surveys are also easy and cost effective to set up and can be especially valuable for post-event analysis on a range of issues and with specific groups, such as children and young people. Collection of, or access to, email addresses of participants, volunteers or audiences make this approach much more effective. This said it is imperative that child protection issues and informed consent and other permissions are considered before gathering data from minors.

Online Qualitative and Quantitative Reporting

There are some online systems for evaluating social impacts that are more comprehensive, combining both quantitative and qualitative approaches as well as the ability to store, tag and report evidence such as documents, AV material etc. They also allow the recording and assessment of individual's progression, or *distance travelled*, over time. Such systems need to be user friendly, cost effective and comprehensive ways of evaluating impacts on young people.

Best Practice

They need to help events demonstrate:

- The breadth and quality of their work

- The engagement and progress of participants
- The contributions and development of children and young people
- How activities and approaches are meeting key project/programme objectives and broader Government policy agendas
- Access to real time statistics and a full range of quantitative and qualitative reporting functions. These enable users to:
- Reflect on practice through continual learning and development
- ‘Tell the stories’ of participants, children and young people and activities in rich, detailed ways
- Produce professional web-based and paper reports to communicate success, help develop partnerships and draw down additional funding
- Ideally online systems will help events and associated interventions demonstrate:
- Information about participants (demographic details, outcomes, tracking)
- The identification, role and contribution of volunteers
- Qualitative information including media files (video clips, photos etc) that can be tagged against particular pieces of work and key government agendas
- Allow the creation of qualitative case studies
- Instant access to statistics and automatic generation of statistical reporting
- Flexible reporting to meet a range of stakeholder requirements

Online systems that can provide this range of reporting allow both ‘top line’ as well as more in depth, longitudinal, evaluation. Event organisers need to consider the aims and objectives of their events but such approaches are particularly useful for longitudinal research and examining behaviour over a sustained period; especially for volunteers and young people. One example of such a system is Substance’s Project Reporting System (SPRS), which provides a simple, flexible and powerful web-based monitoring, evaluation and reporting tool with access to many of the features outlined above.

Advanced Environmental Impacts

The following resource details some of the advanced-level environmental impacts and provides some guidance on approaches to measurement.

In line with the categorisation within the rest of eventIMPACTS, advanced environmental impacts are generally considered to be those which constitute long-term behavioural change on behalf of spectators or other event attendees. In environmental terms, the following list represents a sample of some of the types of long-term changes that might be considered eligible for measurement. In all cases, measurement will be longitudinal in nature and possibly complex.

- Impact on travel patterns and mode following participation change
- Reductions in personal carbon footprint following events
- Changes in aggregate transport modes to future events
- Changes in consumption behaviour following participation/attendance at events
- Changes in amount of waste and stream per event attendee/participant
- Changes in proportion of waste recycled by attendee/participant following event

Useful here are events which either encourage repeat attendance, or involve a high level of interaction with (and 'buy in' by) attendees. Here, longitudinal work, either at events or in follow up surveys, can assess the nature of event impact upon behaviour change. This has been carried out around the London Freewheel event and is detailed in a separate resource.

With annual and recurring events attendance profile may provide some inference on changed behaviour in relation to the event itself i.e. proportions of participants using different transport modes, using paperless entry systems, or any long term changes in waste stream make-up and volumes.

Monitoring is more difficult with discrete (non-repeated) events. Here there is value in survey work that assesses how far attendees *claim* that the event will impact upon longer-term behaviour, as detailed in the intermediate impacts section. Relatively easy to implement, this data could be a useful benchmark between events or in assessing how events can contribute to behaviour change compared to other policy interventions

Whilst there is expected to be a role for quantitative analysis tools (i.e. an estimate of the carbon consequences of changes in behaviour), primary data will need to be collected through quantitative/qualitative/attitudinal surveys seeking evidence of nature of changed consumption behaviour, extent to which change can be attributed to participation/ event.

Environmental Implications of Participation Change

Introduction

In the summer of 2008, a research team headed by the Sport Industry Research Centre (Sheffield Hallam University) carried out a pilot study of six events to inform the development of eventIMPACTS. One of these events was London Freewheel, an organised cycle ride encouraging cyclists to cycle safely around London on a range of traffic-free routes. An event such as Freewheel (now renamed Skyride) offered a number of options for examining the environmental implications of a change in people's participatory behaviour. For more details around the participation impacts of Freewheel.

Research objectives

Data from the London Freewheel survey covered 2,250 individual attendees, out of the estimated 30,000 participants. Respondents who had participated in the 2007 event answered a series of questions relating to changes in their commuting and leisure cycling following that event. The focus here is on the environmental consequences of changes in commuting patterns.

The survey data was used to gain an estimate of the total increase in commuting bike travel that followed participation. It is accepted that some of this increase is down to factors other than event participation, but the following results are indicative of the carbon consequences of changed participation behaviour.

Results

The following table shows that, based on a 'grossing up' of the survey results, some 30,000 Freewheel participants travelled an estimated 3.8 million km of additional commuting distance by bike in the year following their participation in the 2007 Freewheel event.

This overall 'distance saving' was then allocated to different commuting modes according to the survey data (with the assumption that those whose commute already included cycling increased their reported use of the bike at the expense of using the train/underground).

2008 data from DEFRA on CO₂ emissions per passenger kilometre were then used to estimate the carbon equivalent emissions savings by mode and thus in total for all Freewheel attendees. The results below show that a total of 242 tonnes of carbon were estimated to be saved as a result of changed travel patterns.

Estimates of carbon savings resulting from changed commuting patterns

Commuting patterns	Numbers by mode	Additional cycling (000s km)	CO ₂ ratio (grammes per km)	CO ₂ 'saving' tonnes
None	2,678	238	0	0
Bike	10,584	2,134	62.5	133
Car	4,788	425	137	58
Taxi	3	0	175	0
Bus	1,292	115	82	9
Train	3,686	327	60	20
Underground	3,749	333	65	22
Foot	1,607	143	0	0
Other	1,512	134	0	0
OVERALL	c.30,000	3,847		242

Source: Methodology paper for Transport Emissions Factors, July 2008, DEFRA.

For example, an additional 2.1 million km were travelled by bike following the event by commuters whose journey to work already involved cycling. Making the assumption that these people would have otherwise travelled by tube and bus, then a total of 133 tonnes of carbon is saved. In the case of commuting car travel, 425,000kms are saved with a CO₂ saving of 58 tonnes.

Conclusions

It is accepted that changed travel patterns by individuals, for example, movements from bus to cycle, may not lead to a reduction in scheduled services. However, were this behaviour replicated across larger numbers of people, it is not inconceivable that scheduled services might change. Furthermore, whilst it is extremely difficult to draw wider inferences from this limited and non-representative sample, it is worth noting that, if the 8kg per-person annum saving in commuting CO₂ evidenced here were replicated across the entire London workforce (of approximately 4.7m), annual savings of 38,000 tonnes of CO₂ would be achieved.

This sort of information can be useful in scoping the longer-term environmental consequences of events, and can represent a valuable addition to the evidence base on the dynamic impacts of participation.

Most people involved in staging major events have experienced their potential to have positive effects on the people and communities that interact with them. Major events have the power to mobilise large numbers of people and create meaningful impacts on their lives in a number

of different ways. At a basic level this might simply be the creation of an enjoyable or pleasurable experience for spectators. At an advanced level this might be the creation of an opportunity that positively changes peoples' long-term behaviour. In either case, these impacts have almost always been observed anecdotally but rarely captured through a structured approach to impact measurement.

eventIMFACTS seeks to provide the starting point for a more structured approach to the measurement of the social impacts of events. The impacts and guidance captured here are by no means complete, they are purposefully not prescriptive, and will be open to interpretation to a far greater degree than other areas such as economic impact. Whilst social impacts are not generally measured against fixed or numerical outcomes, it is however perfectly possible to provide evidence of delivery and outcomes for social impacts in both qualitative and quantitative ways.

The reason for measuring social impacts can often be linked directly to the aims and objectives of the event funders. It is important to recognise that satisfying the objectives of a stakeholder should not offer the only incentive to measure the social impacts of events. Any event organiser should wish to understand how their event impacts on the perceptions and behaviour of people (whether directly or indirectly).

Social impacts are unlikely to happen by chance and must be managed if they are to occur. The starting point in delivering specific social impacts is for an event to have clearly stated aims and objectives that describe the delivery mechanisms by which the planned impacts will occur.

eventIMFACTS has identified five areas of social impacts. These are by no means exhaustive [Link to section 3.4.2 of the Framework Manual], but they offer a framework which allows many aspects to be covered:

Satisfaction

The impact of peoples' experience of attending an event

Identity, Image & Place

The impact of peoples' changed perceptions of the host city/region as a place

Participation

The impact of engaging with an event to bring about a change in people's interest in participating in a certain activity

Skills & Volunteering

The impact of acquiring new skills or experiences through working or volunteering at an event

Children & Young People

The impact that an event has on a key part of our society

Case Study – The BUPA Great Yorkshire Run 2008

SATISFACTION

Why Measure Satisfaction Impacts?

Satisfaction is an important social impact for two main reasons. Firstly, providing people with an enjoyable experience at an event is a valuable objective in its own right - in that it contributes towards their general happiness and contentment. Secondly, a satisfying experience at an event is likely to enhance the achievement of other social impacts such as changing people's perceptions of a place, or their predisposition towards a certain activity.

Understanding satisfaction is also an important operational tool for event organisers. Events often need to secure revenue from spectators to make them financially viable. In these cases, a robust evaluation of satisfaction will lead to a more accurate understanding of their customers' needs.

Some elements of satisfaction are under the direct control of the event organiser, such as ease of ticket purchase or quality of onsite catering. However other elements are not within the control of the event but are nonetheless important, such as people's experiences in the broader event locale (eg local restaurants and bars, accommodation, public transport, etc).

Choosing a level of Impact

Satisfaction Impacts fit into the intermediate impacts category.

Basic Impacts	Intermediate Impacts	Advanced Impacts
No Basic Impacts for Satisfaction	Intermediate Satisfaction Impacts cover surveyed attitudes and perceptions around aspects of the event.	No Advanced Impacts for Satisfaction

SATISFACTION - INTERMEDIATE IMPACTS

What are the Intermediate Impacts?

- Satisfaction - Individual Event Aspects
- Satisfaction - Overall Event (Weighted and Average)

Overview and Considerations

Intermediate Satisfaction Impacts are primarily concerned with understanding the quality of people's event experience through their perceptions of different aspects of that event. Therefore the guidance here focuses on measuring those perceptions and analysing the resulting information.

There is an almost limitless list of aspects around an event experience to which people's satisfaction can be measured. The priority should therefore be to measure satisfaction with those aspects of the event which relate to the aims and objectives of the event.

In this respect, measuring satisfaction also requires clarity about the group of people you are interested in. For example, satisfaction with transport or accommodation may be important aspects to measure if the event is focusing on a world-class experience for athletes. Satisfaction with value for money will be an important aspect if the focus is on attracting spectators for future events. Measuring satisfaction should therefore be underpinned with an accurate understanding of attendance.

Resources

Introduction to Measuring Satisfaction

Introduction to Satisfaction and supplemental considerations when surveying for satisfaction

Evaluating Net Satisfaction

Introduces a five-point scale which measures 'net satisfaction' and acts as the basis for much of the surveying work around social impacts

Interpreting Net Satisfaction Scores

Provides a brief summary and example of how to present net satisfaction scores

Determining and Comparing Overall Satisfaction Scores

Explains how net satisfaction scores for different aspects of an event can be weighted and averaged to produce an overall satisfaction score for an event

Basic List of Satisfaction Aspects

Provides a basic list of event aspects that might be used to measure spectator satisfaction

Resource – Introduction to Measuring Satisfaction

People's perceptions about an event are best captured through survey work. The basics of surveying are covered in the eventIMPACTS section related to Attendance, and so this should be reviewed before considering the subsequent guidance here.

Some supplemental points to consider when surveying around satisfaction are:

- Pre-event experiences are best measured at the event using simple administered or self-completion surveys.
- Some elements of satisfaction cannot be assessed without first having experienced the whole event - this could affect both the timing of any questionnaires or surveys that are undertaken, and potentially the location of survey work (for example at a large outdoor event).
- If specific target groups have been identified, more detailed feedback utilising qualitative techniques might be beneficial in supplementing any survey findings.
- It is possible to measure the opinions of non-attendees using questions on omnibus/household surveys or via telephone interviews.
- Post event follow-ups can be used to derive a more informed opinion on key elements, or where organisers feel there is merit in acquiring more detail.

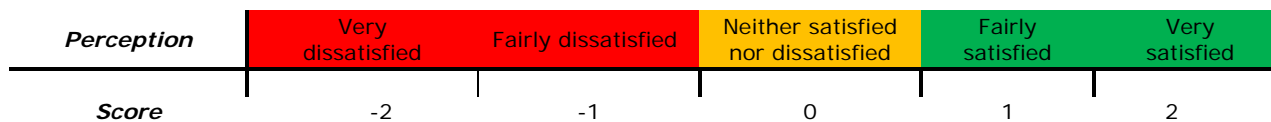
It is recommended that those interested in surveying techniques review the surveys that were used at the pilot events that informed eventIMPACTS.

The following resources in this section explain how people's responses to satisfaction questions can be analysed and interpreted in a meaningful way.

Resource – Evaluating Net Satisfaction

Probably the most straight-forward way of evaluating satisfaction is to develop a scale which attributes scores to both positive and negative aspects of events. This allows the development of a 'net satisfaction' rating for these selected aspects.

Using a five-point 'Likert Scale' which ranges from -2 (very dissatisfied) to +2 (very satisfied), and with zero representing a neutral score (neither satisfied or dissatisfied), it is quite easy to produce a score for satisfaction. This scoring system aids visual description of responses, allowing quicker judgement of the direction of respondents' experiences of an event. This pictorial display can be enhanced further by attributing traffic light scoring to scores:



An accurate graph showing people's satisfaction of a particular aspect of an event can be created once the 'mean satisfaction score' for that particular aspect has been determined. The worked example in the table below demonstrates how the mean satisfaction score for any aspect of an event can be determined.

	Very Dissatisfied	Fairly Dissatisfied	Neither Satisfied nor Dissatisfied	Fairly Satisfied	Very Satisfied	No Opinion / Don't Know	Valid Total
No. of Responses	10	20	25	30	15	25	100 (A)
Cumulative Score	-20	-20	0	30	30	NA	+20 (B)
	(10 x -2)	(20 x -1)	(25 x 0)	(30 x 1)	(15 x 2)	NA	
Net Mean Score	B / A = 20 / 100 = 0.2						

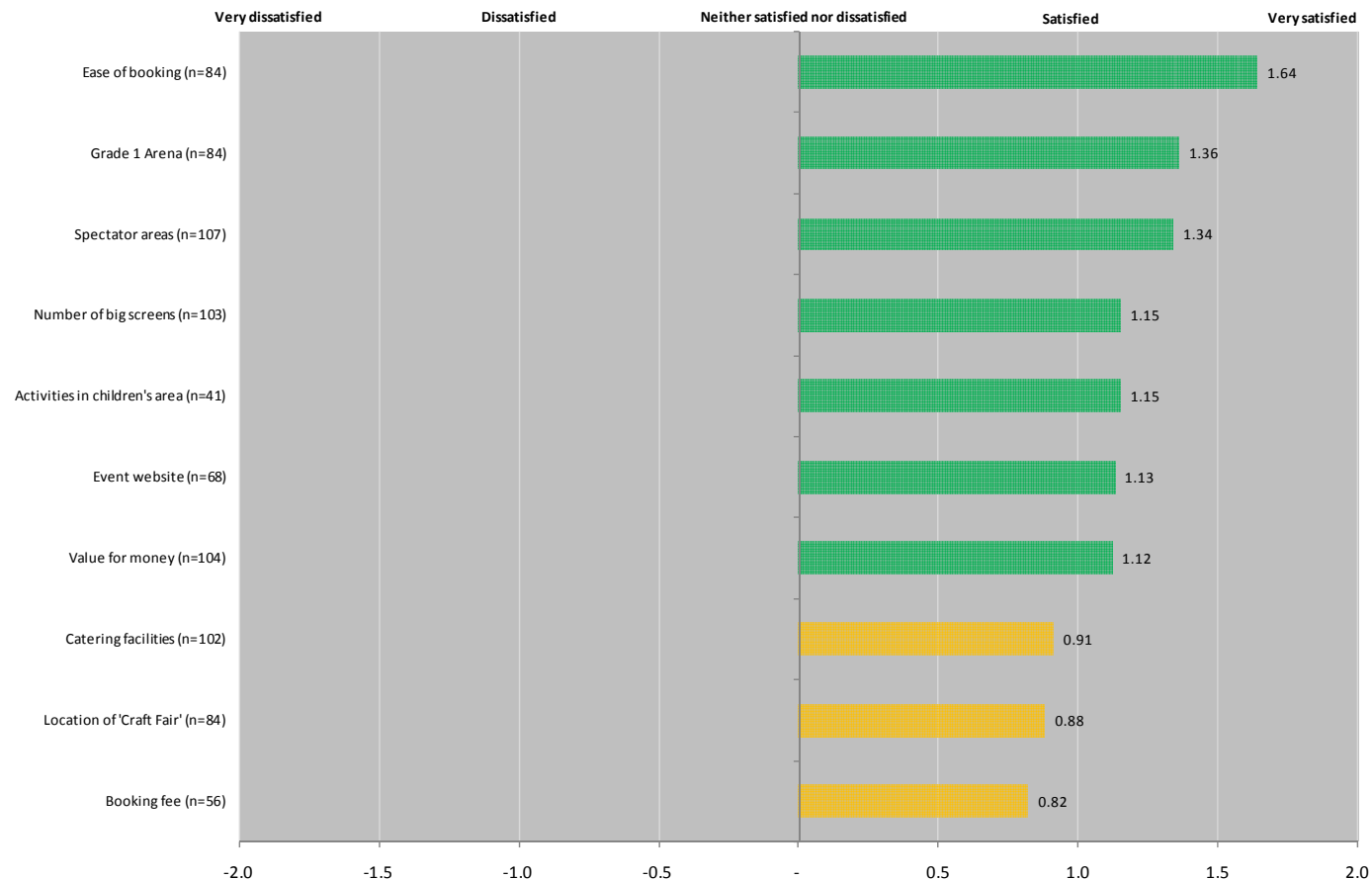
NB: Respondents who did not express an opinion about a particular aspect are excluded from calculations.

- Having questioned one hundred people, ten people responded as 'very dissatisfied'.
- The number of 'very dissatisfied' responses (10) is multiplied by the score for 'very dissatisfied' (-2), giving a cumulative score of -20 for these responses.

- Add this to the cumulative scores for all remaining respondents gives rise to overall satisfaction score of 20 for that aspect of the event.
- This total score is divided by the number of respondents to produce the net mean score (0.2).

Resource - Interpreting Net Satisfaction Scores

The graph below shows responses from people asked about their satisfaction with different aspects of the 2008 World Pipe Band Championships (sample 119 people). The responses have been interpreted using the approach to net satisfaction as outlined in the previous resource.



The green bars in the graph indicate aspects of an event with which respondents are at least 'satisfied' and emphasise relative strengths from a customer viewpoint. These aspects are identified green as they achieve a mean satisfaction score greater than 1. As a general rule of thumb, bars shaded amber highlight potential areas for improvement because respondents are less than satisfied with such aspects, albeit the mean satisfaction scores are greater than 0 (the neutral score). Although not

relevant to the examples cited here, the presence of red bars where the mean satisfaction score is less than 0, would suggest areas that might deserve managerial attention, especially when attributes score at or below the -1 threshold.

It is important to consider satisfaction scores alongside the number of respondents, since the latter might vary depending on whether people have engaged with a particular aspect of the event. For example, only a subset of the event audience who attended the 'Gaelic Piping Night' or the 'Come and Try' sessions at the Piping Live! Festival would be in a position to comment on the quality of those individual events. Opinions on more generic event attributes might be open to a wider audience (eg ease of booking if the event requires paid admission). The logic of this argument is that it allows extreme scores to be put in an appropriate context, that is, an average score of say 0.8 based on a sample of more than 100 respondents is perhaps more credible (when considering remedial action) than a score of 1.6 derived from a handful of respondents.

Resource – Determining and Comparing Overall Satisfaction

Allowing for the fact that each event is unique, organisers of annual events may wish to benchmark satisfaction levels year-on-year, and indeed against any other comparable events. For aspects that are likely to be constant across events (eg ease of booking, price of admission, event website, parking, security, etc) it is therefore possible to compare satisfaction scores on a like-for-like basis over time and between events.

If each aspect of satisfaction assessed is of equal importance (that is, carry the same weight), then an overall satisfaction score can be derived based on a **Straight Average** of all the scores recorded across the range of aspects, as per the table below.

Conversely, organisers might attach more importance to some aspects (eg format of the event or the perceived quality of pre-event publicity achieved in the media) than others (eg catering). In this case it may be appropriate to weight the responses to reflect the relative importance of each aspect. By doing this a **Weighted Average** can be calculated, as per the table below.

	Mean Score	Importance (Weight)
Catering	1.0	20%
Event Format	0.3	50%
Quality of Publicity	0.5	30%
Overall (Straight Average)	0.6	
	$(1.0 + 0.3 + 0.5) / 3$	
Overall (Weighted Average)	0.5	
	$(0.2 \times 1.0) + (0.5 \times 0.3) + (0.3 \times 0.5)$	

Another approach to measuring customers' experiences around sport facility performance management and recommended by Sport England's National Benchmarking Service (NBS) is the *importance-satisfaction gap*. This approach is effective for gauging satisfaction levels relative to the customers' own expectations of (or importance attached to) facility provision. The net result is a set of scores that reflect variances or 'gaps' between mean importance and mean satisfaction scores for selected facility attributes.

In terms of finding out what people consider to be important in the context of events, a good starting point for organisers might be blogs or website comments (should these exist) from either previous editions of the same event and / or linked to other comparable events. Selected excerpts from the online tools employed in the Great Yorkshire Run research are presented below. Notwithstanding the quantitative tools detailed above, it should be remembered that there is a qualitative aspect to evaluating and understanding peoples' satisfaction with an event.

- *"Logistics are great ... easy to get to the run and easy to get back to the car. I would only recommend to add more trams between the Hallam FM stadium and the centre*
- *"(More) music and entertainment on route for the runners. Maybe I was in a trance, but I do not recall seeing more than a handful of entertainers on route".*
- *"...a run is so much more enjoyable if there are beautiful surroundings. Of course, logistics and activities for non-runners should not be compromised".*
- *"Something for everyone ... I was lucky to have my family come to watch. The centre of Sheffield offered them something to do whilst I was lugging myself over the course".*
- *"Put more time clocks along the route. It is good to know how one is performing and can be motivating to achieve a good time".*

Resource – Basic List of Satisfaction Aspects

There is an almost limitless number of aspects around an event to which satisfaction questions can be asked, and different sets of questions to be asked depending on which group of people you are targeting. A sample of some key areas for spectators has been included below:

Information
Website
Pre-event Information
Venue Location
Venue Wayfinding
Event/Competition Information
Programme
Ticketing
Booking Process
Distribution
Seating Position / Vantage Point
Pricing
Services
Toilets – Quality
Toilets – Access
Food & Beverage – Quality
Food & Beverage – Range
Food & Beverage – Access
Food & Beverage – Pricing
Merchandise – Quality
Merchandise – Range
Merchandise – Access
Merchandise – Pricing
Security
Staff – Helpfulness
Staff – Access
Parking
Transport Links
Event
Format
Presentation
Audio/Visual

IDENTITY, IMAGE AND PLACE

Why Measure Identity, Image and Place?

Major events are often intrinsically linked to the locations and places in which they are staged. People's perceptions of an event may therefore elicit a strong impact on their perceptions of the place in which it is hosted. Importantly this does not just apply to visitors to the event but also to local residents, whose perception of the place as somewhere to live or work may be altered by an event. With local and regional authorities becoming increasingly active bodies in terms of supporting the staging of major events, the ability of an event to change people's perceptions of place are more important than ever.

As with other impact areas, the measurement of identity, image and place should be linked into the specific aims and objectives of the event and its stakeholders.

Choosing a level of Impact

Impacts around identity, image and place have been broken down into three categories based upon the ease with which they can be measured. Further details on this categorisation can be found [here](#).

Basic Impacts	Intermediate Impacts	Advanced Impacts
No Basic Impacts	Considers the impact of an event in changing residents' and non-residents' perception of a place as somewhere to visit, work and live.	No Advanced Impacts

IDENTITY, IMAGE AND PLACE - INTERMEDIATE IMPACTS

What are the Intermediate Impacts

- Visitor Perception (general)
- Local Resident Perception (general)
- Civic Pride
- Local Valuation of an Event

Overview and Considerations

Intermediate impacts around identity, image and place focus on understanding the perceptions of residents and visitors about the place which is hosting an event. As with other social impacts, people's perceptions which may have been modified by an event do not necessarily translate into longer-term behavioural change. For example if a local resident believes that the hosting of a major event enhances their perception of the locale as a place to live and work, this does not necessarily mean that they will reside or stay within the area for a longer period of time than if the event had not taken place.

Routes to Measurement

As with many intermediate-level areas of eventIMPACTS, the focus of measurement is around basic survey work and robust interpretation of the results.

Resources

Interpreting Perceptions of Place

Provides guidance on assessing survey responses around identity, image and place, with reference to research conducted in the development of eventIMPACTS.

Local Perceptions of Place

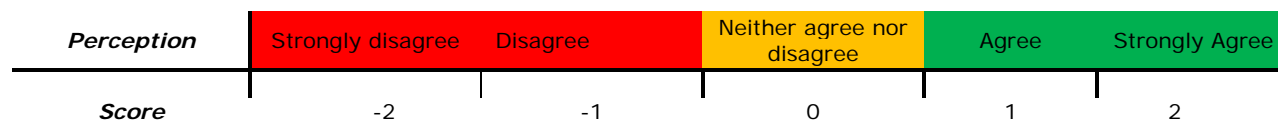
Outlines specific measures that might be considered for assessing the impact of an event on local residents

Resource – Interpreting Perceptions of Place

The main vehicle for measuring the impact of an event on people's perception of identity, image and place will be primary research at an event, or post-event using for example telephone or postal surveys. The basic principles around surveying covered elsewhere in eventIMPACTS should therefore be reviewed. To demonstrate how people's perceptions of a place can be surveyed and understood, the following examples have been provided from the pilot events which were researched for eventIMPACTS.

The tool that has been used is very similar to the one employed to capture satisfaction, therefore it is strongly recommended that anyone interested in understanding the following approach should review the relevant section on interpreting satisfaction. The important principle which is maintained is that of 'net impact'. In other words, the use of an approach that reconciles positive and negative perceptions of an event (or in this case a place).

The minor difference between the approach employed to capture satisfaction and the approach employed here is with the set of standard responses provided. For satisfaction, people were asked to respond on a scale from 'Very Dissatisfied' through to 'Very Satisfied'. To measure perceptions of place, people were asked to rate their agreement with a series of statements on a scale from 'Strongly Disagree' through to 'Strongly Agree'.



A scoring system has been applied to responses based on this scale, and an average level of 'agreement' is calculated. Full details of this process are covered here.

In the case of the 2008 Tour of Britain (Stage 8), a series of questions were asked around the location of the event and perceptions of the place. Some of the findings are shown in the table below, and presented using the process detailed above. As the table below shows, use of the geographic profile of the respondents allows responses to be categorised based on their place of domicile which is of particular interest to study of perceptions of image, identity and place.

In the case of these findings, spectators responded positively to questions designed to explore the perceived value of the Tour of Britain (and similar events) to the local community and the North West region. More than half (56%) of visitors reported they were more likely to visit the North West as a result of their attendance at the Tour of Britain. Whilst this is an encouraging finding, it should be noted that without longitudinal tracking it is not possible to establish how any intent generated from interaction with an event is translated into actual visits. It may however be an unrealistic expectation for events in isolation to deliver much more than these 'inspirational' impacts. It is up to the relevant authorities to build on the positive thinking fostered by events.

2008 TOUR OF BRITAIN (Stage 8)	SCORE				
	All respondents	PLACE OF DOMICILE			
		Liverpool	Blackpool	Rest of NW	Elsewhere in UK
The ToB should be an annual feature of the North West sporting calendar	1.67	1.72	1.76	1.79	1.49
Attracting major events like the ToB is good for the image of the North West	1.65	1.60	1.76	1.77	1.50
The NW region should continue to try and attract major events like the ToB	1.67	1.68	1.78	1.77	1.51
The ToB and events like it bring the local community together	1.16	1.10	1.20	1.24	1.08

	> average score for all respondents
	< average score for all respondents

A similar exercise was carried out at the 2008 Great Yorkshire Run, the headline findings of which can be seen below. In addition to profiling those in attendance, the research examined their perceptions of Sheffield as a venue for hosting such events, as well as the likelihood of visitors re-visiting Sheffield based on their experience of the city whilst attending the Great Yorkshire Run. Experiences linked to the wider offering of the event locale outside the direct remit of organisers (eg restaurants and bars, entertainment, cultural engagement, etc) are also likely to have a bearing on the perceived image of the host location.

GREAT YORKSHIRE RUN	SCORE			
	All respondents	PLACE OF DOMICILE		
		Sheffield	Rest of Yorkshire	Elsewhere
Sheffield is a suitable venue for staging major events such as the Great Yorkshire Run. [STATEMENT OF OPINION]	1.53	1.55	1.63	1.39
My experience during the event has enhanced my image of Sheffield as a visitor destination. [STATEMENT OF OPINION]	1.06	0.96	1.27	0.96
Based on my event experience in 2008, I am inclined to visit Sheffield for leisure or on holiday in the next three years. [STATEMENT OF INTENT]	1.04	NA	1.32	0.96

	> average score for all respondents
	< average score for all respondents

Perhaps unsurprisingly, the likelihood of a repeat visit to Sheffield in the next three years other than to attend the Great Yorkshire Run is correlated with the geographical spread of spectators. In other words, the further away respondents reside from Sheffield, the less is their likelihood of returning to the city for leisure or on holiday. Again, without longitudinal tracking it is not possible to establish how any intent generated from interaction with an event is translated into actual visits.



Resource – Local Perceptions of Place

With an increasing amount of regional funding being invested into the staging of major events, the impact of the event on all local people is critical. In most studies it will be important to consider the opinions of non-attendees, since those who will attend the event are likely to be implicitly supportive of it. Research should also consider people beyond the immediate locale of the proposed event if they are impacted by decisions concerning public sector involvement in event delivery.

Some specific areas of measurement relating to local people are suggested as follows:

Civic Pride

To assess civic pride resulting from hosting major events, questions can be asked of attendees and non-attendees using simple closed questions or a Likert scale as explained in sections around Satisfaction. Sample questions which might be included in a survey are:

- *Does the staging of special events give you pride in your area and make you think it is exciting or a more desirable place to live?*
- *Did the event make a positive contribution to the image, appearance or reputation of the local area?*

As noted above, assessing the impact of an event on local people may well require measuring the opinions of those who have not attended the event. Whilst a household survey could be considered, there are creative alternatives that may be more cost-effective or impactful. These include the inclusion of relevant questions on citizens panel surveys, and an omnibus style survey such as the one carried out by the Office of National Statistics (ONS).

Local Valuation

Some events have attempted to place a value on the staging of the event in the local area. Contingent valuation techniques measure an individual's 'willingness to pay' for an event to be staged in the defined local area. This approach attempts to quantify perceptions around the value of an event to an area, and provides a monetary measure which can be considered by regional authorities.

Work has been done on this around London 2012, where studies assessed people in London, Manchester and Glasgow in respect of their willingness to pay for hosting the 2012 Olympic and Paralympic Games.

Average willingness to pay for hosting the 2012 Games was found to be £22 per household per year in London (as an increase in their council tax) and £12 per household per year in both Manchester and Glasgow (as a voluntary contribution to a support fund).

<http://www.eftec.co.uk/news.htm#>

Similar work has also been undertaken around the 2008 Liverpool Capital of Culture, the survey for which can be found here:

<http://www.econstudy.net/surveys/jan/2008.php>

In terms of establishing willingness to pay, questions may present scenarios as follows:

- *Would you be willing to pay £X in taxation in order to support/retain this event?*
- *Would you be willing to pay a smaller amount and if so, how much?*

PARTICIPATION

Why Measure Participation?

This area of eventIMPACTS looks at measuring the potential of an event to effect a change in people's thinking - and possibly their behaviour - around a certain activity.

From an event organiser's perspective, it is important to be clear about the impacts that an event can reasonably expect to achieve in participation terms. Events often act as an excellent 'shop-window' for a particular activity, and in this respect they should be recognised as a valuable tool. However it is a major leap of faith to expect interaction with an event to automatically deliver increased and sustained engagement with a particular activity. Events ideally need to be supported by ancillary programmes, run by specialists in the area of developing participation and engagement, and accompanied by well-managed and clearly defined pathways capable of delivering such changes.

In setting targets linked to supporting changes in people's behaviour, event organisers might consider the different stages of the 'participation continuum' and, in particular, whether an event can actually deliver a behavioural change, or merely create contemplation or the intent to change behaviour. If it is the aim is to create intent to change behaviour, then these outcomes can be assessed with intermediate level processes (not dissimilar to those used to measure satisfaction and identity, image and place). If the intention is to achieve a sustained participation increase then the measurements required will be more advanced.

Choosing a level of Impact

Satisfaction Impacts have been broken down into three categories based upon the ease with which they can be measured. Further details on this categorisation can be found [here](#).

Basic Impacts	Intermediate Impacts	Advanced Impacts
No basic impacts	Considers the impact of an event on people's intent to participate more frequently in a certain activity	Considers actual behavioural change around participation in a certain activity – as a result of an event

Participation

Intermediate Impacts

What are the Intermediate Impacts?

- Intent to Participate
- Market Penetration
- Market Development

Overview and Considerations

It is important for event organisers to understand the division between intermediate and advanced participation impacts – especially when it comes to setting objectives around their events, and determining budgets to monitor and evaluate the impacts of those events.

Intermediate participation impacts focus primarily on people's intent to participate more frequently in a certain activity having engaged with an event. Advanced participation impacts focus primarily on whether that intent to participate was carried through into actual behavioural change.

Routes to Measurement

It is clear that measurement of intent will be more straight-forward than measurement of actual behavioural change. Whilst some primary research will be needed – typically through the use of a specialist research organisation, the processes and resources required to undertake this research are not considered to be onerous. The resources below provide further guidance in this area.

Measuring Intent to Participate

Guidance around the application of surveying techniques and questions to measure intent to participate.

Market Penetration and Market Development

Explains the way in which survey responses can be segmented to assess whether the event is reaching new or existing participants.

Resource – Measuring Intent to Participate

As noted in the introductory section to Participation, events can be particularly successful in making an impact on people's intent to participate more frequently in an activity. Whether this translates into action may well be dependent on the effectiveness of other organisations and the availability of development programmes to support the event. Nevertheless, the potential for an event to inspire people is an important one and should be measured.

Establishing intent to participate can be captured using the same basic surveying and assessment approach detailed in the eventIMPACTS sections on Satisfaction and Identity, Image and Place. In summary, respondents are asked to rate their agreement on pre-defined scale with a number of statements which link their engagement with the event with an intent to change their participation in an activity.

The following results are taken from eventIMPACTS surveys around the 2008 Tour of Britain (Stage 8), the Great Yorkshire Run and the Glasgow International Piping Festival.

EVENT	INDICATOR	SCORE								
		Negative Impacts					Positive Impacts			
		Strongly disagree	Disagree			Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree		
		- 2	- 1			0	+ 1	+ 2		
Tour of Britain										
Spectators	The ToB & its associated activities have opened my mind to cycling.						0.88			
	Based on my event experience, I am likely to take up cycling or cycle more often.						0.78			
	I feel inspired to attend sport & / or cultural events more than I have previously.							1.00		
	As a result of attending the event, I am more likely to encourage my children & immediate family to cycle or cycle more.						0.99			

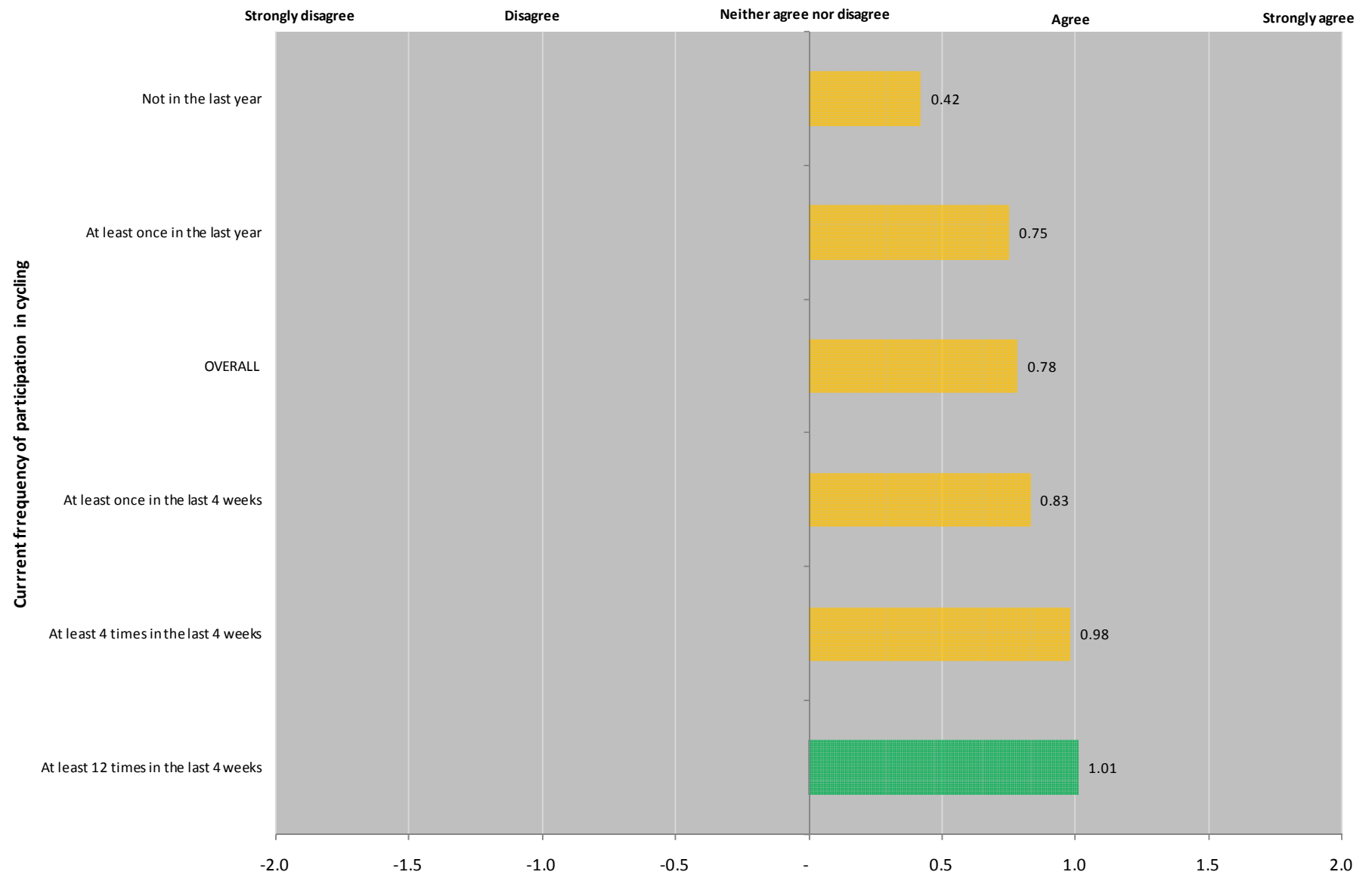
EVENT	INDICATOR	SCORE								
		Negative Impacts					Positive Impacts			
		Strongly disagree	Disagree		Neither agree nor disagree			Agree	Strongly agree	
		- 2	- 1		0			+ 1	+ 2	
	The ToB and its associated activities have provided me with information on how to get involved in cycling.						0.59			
Great Yorkshire Run										
Participants	The event has inspired me to increase my running participation.								1.18	
	The event has signposted me towards new routes to participation (e.g. running clubs)					0.00				
	My experience in 2008 has motivated me to take part in next year's event.								1.16	
	My event experience has motivated me to engage with sporting events more than I have previously.						0.65			
Spectators	The event has inspired me to take up running or to run more often.						0.34			
	The event has signposted me towards routes to participation in running.				- 0.14					
	My event experience has motivated me to <u>watch</u> the GYR in 2009.						0.67			
	My event experience has motivated me to <u>run</u> next year's event.						0.22			
	My event experience has motivated me to engage with sporting events more than I have previously.						0.33			
Glasgow International Piping Festival										

EVENT	INDICATOR	SCORE								
		Negative Impacts						Positive Impacts		
		Strongly disagree		Disagree		Neither agree nor disagree		Agree		Strongly agree
		- 2		- 1		0		+ 1		+ 2
Spectators	My experience during the Festival has motivated me to take up piping or engage with the activity more often.						0.52			
	The Festival has inspired me to engage with other activities in the arts and cultural sector.						0.43			
	My experience during Festival has encouraged me to attend in 2009.								1.34	
	Based on my experience, I am likely to recommend Festival to others.								1.64	

Resource - Market Penetration and Market Development

When assessing intent to participate, it can be useful to group respondents by their current participation levels. Using the baseline data gathered on target audiences, it is possible to disaggregate 'market penetration' effects from 'market development' effects. In other words, does an event simply act as a catalyst for increasing engagement by a predisposed population, or does it genuinely enthuse new audiences?

The graph below assesses whether respondents attending the Tour of Britain intended to take up or increase the amount of cycling they undertook as a result of attending the event. The results clearly show that, specifically around this event, the more an individual already participated in cycling, the more likely they were to increase their current participation.



Grouping respondents based on their predisposition to participate can therefore assist in drawing conclusions from the measurement. For example the evidence emerging from this graph is that, for this particular audience, 'intent to change' is inversely correlated with current level of engagement. In other words, the likelihood of people taking up cycling or participating more often having attended the Tour of Britain is influenced by their pre-existing behaviour.

The above example highlights the nature of the problem faced by some events when tasked with bringing about behavioural change and market development. It should be noted however that *sustaining* people's involvement in activity is increasingly recognised as an important objective.

Irrespective of the groups targeted by an event, care must be afforded to the associated sampling error (for random samples) when breaking down the data for assessing impacts on specific demographics (e.g. gender, age, ethnicity etc.) - [see sampling section](#).

Participation

Advanced Impacts

What are the Advanced Impacts?

- Actual Changes in Participation Behaviour
- Quantified Participation Increase

Overview and Considerations

Measuring the impact of an event in changing actual participation behaviour (ie beyond the inspirational impact) is a challenging task. Research will need to be longitudinal in nature, and assess participation levels at different points in time. If an uplift in activity is detected, there remains the issue of establishing a reasonable causal link between the event and the uplift.

This section provides some initial guidance and recommendations for those attempting to establish the impact of an event on actual participation. In reality, this work is probably best considered as an integral part of any bespoke development programmes that are structured around a major event. As noted previously in eventIMPACTS, events can be strong at inspiring people to participate, but in isolation from any specialist support programmes, they are unlikely to create sustained behavioural participation change.

Resources

Measuring Actual Participation Change

Guidance around the application of surveying techniques and questions to measure intent to participate.

Interpreting Actual Participation Change

Explains the way in which survey responses can be segmented to assess whether the event is reaching new or existing participants.

Participation Change and Causality

Explains the way in which survey responses can be segmented to assess whether the event is reaching new or existing participants.

Resource – Measuring Actual Participation Change

Introduction

If an event seeks to go beyond inspirational impacts and create actual change in behaviour, for example an increase in commuting by bike to work, a longer-term approach to assessment is necessary. In order to measure this, event organisers ideally need to ensure that the same people are interviewed both prior to and after the event. Consequently, an important requirement of measuring this impact is the collection of personal data which allows event organisers to track people over time. The availability of a suitable database (ticket database, registration contact details etc) is therefore an important aspect in determining whether robust measurement can take place.

An interesting dimension of behavioural change around participation is that much of this may happen prior to an event – especially around mass participation events that may require large numbers of people to undergo extensive training. It is important to consider this pre-event impact on the results of any survey of people connected to such an event.

This section provides a brief overview of some of the considerations to take into account when measuring actual participation change. The subsequent section looks at how to interpret these measurements through the example of London Freewheel.

Which Groups are being Measured?

The approach to measuring the participation impacts of an event will be influenced by the target audience whose behaviour an event is wishing to impact upon. For example, do event organisers wish to impact people who attended the event or non-attendees from the local community?

From a measurement perspective, it is arguably easier for event organisers to assess longitudinal impacts on spectators/attendees, as information can be collected from bespoke surveys at a number of points around the event:

- Prior to the event - for example during registration of participants in the case of mass participation events
- During the event - for example through a site survey of attendees
- Retrospectively - for example online or postal survey using registration details of participants or a ticket sales database for spectators

If the event's aims and objectives target children's participation, as some ancillary activities on the day of an event often do, blogs and AV tools can be used to encourage young people to share information about their activities. Moreover, online tools may be employed to record ongoing engagement with an activity.

Establishing a baseline position

In order to determine whether or not an event has brought about an increase in active or passive participation, it is important to understand the current level of engagement of those groups targeted by the event in the activity.

- Ideally, baseline participation rates should be valid at the time of the event or immediately prior to the staging of the event. This will ensure availability of appropriate baseline data against which any event stimulated impacts can be assessed.

- In the interest of developing a uniform approach to event evaluation, indicators should, where possible, allow for compatibility with recognised guidelines for participation. Reference should be made to Sport England's Active People Survey for guidance relating to sport participation and DCMS' Taking Part Survey for engagement in sports, arts and cultural activities.

Resource – Interpreting Actual Participation Change

Introduction

In the case of one of the events measured through eventIMPACTS (London Freewheel), participants in the 2007 Freewheel were contacted one year after the event to assess their change in behaviour by comparing cycling patterns before and after the event.

In order to allow a like-for-like comparison of before and after results, the audience essentially needs to be fixed. In the case of Freewheel, the availability of a database of participants facilitated the research exercise. In this respect, it is probably easier to measure behavioural change at annual or regular events, as they may offer greater potential to capture returning spectators or participants.

A bespoke online survey was developed and sent to participants from the 2007 event. Respondents were asked to specify the frequency (times per year) and distance (per ride) of bike journeys undertaken for leisure or recreation and in relation to their daily commute. The online survey can be viewed through the following link:

<http://sircspss.hwb.shu.ac.uk/londonfreewheel>

Of the 30,000 participants in the 2007 event, 2,250 responses were received (7.5%). More details can be found in the full case study regarding the demographic profile of respondents.

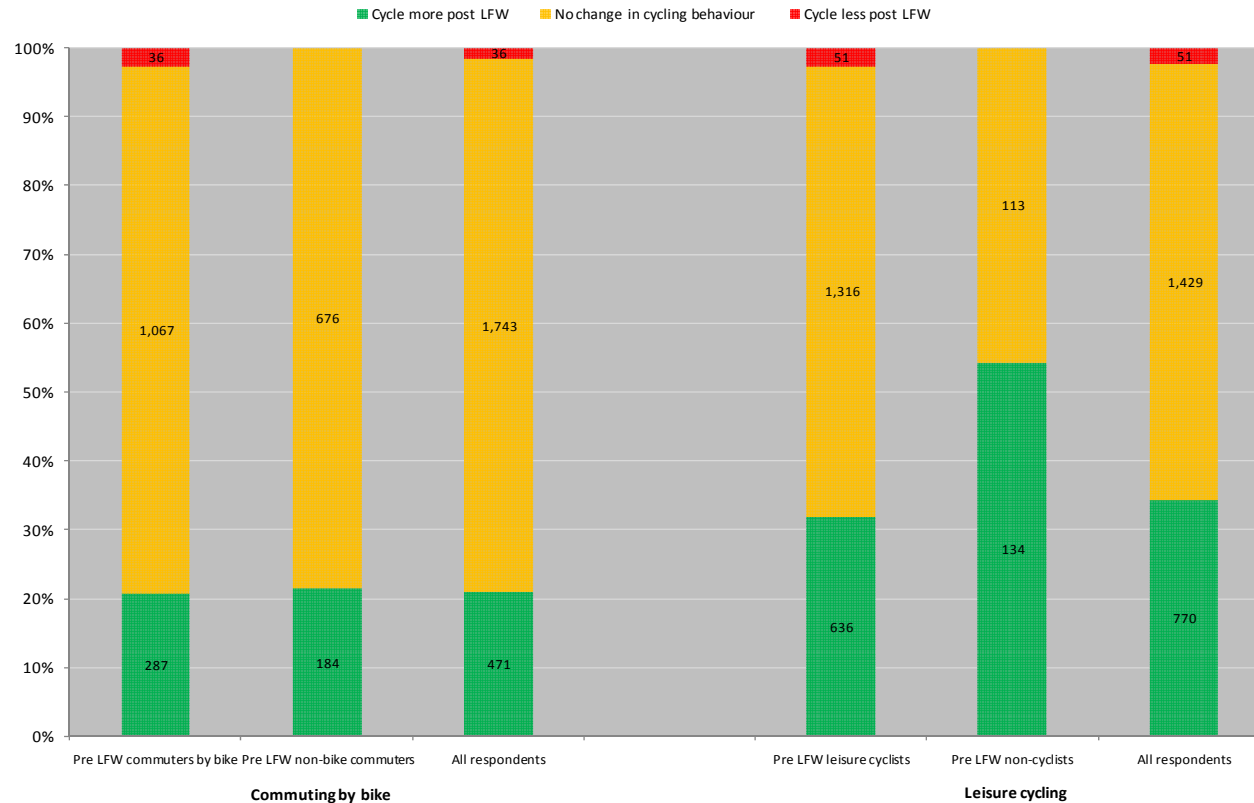
Participation was defined in two key areas, 'commuting by bike' and 'cycling for leisure'. A basic headline summary of people's increase or decrease in cycling since London Freewheel has been shown in the table below.

Changes in cycling behaviour of LFW participants in the year following the event

Market penetration

For those participants who commuted by bike to some extent as part of their daily journey in the year prior to LFW '07 (n = 1,390), there was a "net" positive change of 18% (251 people) in further uptake of commuting by bike.

Net change =
cycle more post LFW
minus
cycle less post LFW



Market development

184 out of 860 respondents (21%) who did not use a bike for commuting pre LFW '07 subsequently reported that they had commuted by bike in the year following the event.

134 out of 247 respondents (54%) who did not cycle for leisure and recreation pre LFW '07 subsequently reported that they did so in the year following their participation in the event.

Market Penetration and Market Development

As outlined in measuring intent to participate, it can be useful to group respondents based on their existing levels of participation. This can help event organisers understand the extent to which the event is impacting on people already within the 'market', compared with bringing new people into the 'market'.

In respect of the above graph, market penetration can be assessed through establishing a net increase or decrease amongst those already participating in the activity. This approach recognises that there may be people who have participated less in an activity following an event. This net change has been calculated as follows:

Cycle more post-Freewheel (green) *minus* Cycle less post-Freewheel (red)

So, for those participants who already commuted by bike to some extent as part of their daily journey in the year prior to Freewheel (1,390 respondents), there was a 'net' positive change of 18% in further uptake of commuting by bike. For existing leisure cyclists there was a net positive change of 29% in people cycling more after Freewheel.

Market development can be assessed in almost same way, except there is no need to make a net calculation as people who were not participating previously will not be able to participate less after an event. The measurement simply becomes the percentage of people of say they have participated more frequently following an event.

Using the graph above, 21% of the respondents who did not use a bike for commuting prior to Freewheel subsequently reported that they had commuted by bike in the year following the event. Of the respondents who did not cycle for leisure prior to Freewheel, 54% reported that they did so following Freewheel.

Quantifying Participation Change

Over and above seeking headline responses on people's increase or decrease in participation, the Freewheel survey also sought to quantify their behavioural change in participation. For cycling this was addressed through asking for details on increased rides and distance of rides.

The table below shows how this information can be plotted, aggregated, and upscaled to the overall event population of participants to try to capture an overall impact for the event.

	Avg. days per month			Avg. distance per ride (miles)			Gross annual distance travelled per person (miles)		
	<i>Pre LFW</i>	<i>Post LFW</i>	<i>Change</i>	<i>Pre LFW</i>	<i>Post LFW</i>	<i>Change</i>	<i>Pre LFW</i>	<i>Post LFW</i>	<i>Change</i>
Commuting by bike									
Pre LFW commuters by bike	11.8	12.7	0.8	13.8	13.7	(0.1)	1,963	2,088	125
Pre LFW non-bike commuters	-	1.4	1.4	-	3.3	3.3	-	55	55
OVERALL SAMPLE AVERAGE (N=2,250)							1,213	1,311	98
Cycling for leisure									
Pre LFW leisure cyclists	4.6	5.1	0.5	16.9	18.3	1.4	942	1,126	184
Pre LFW non-cyclists	-	1.5	1.5	-	6.9	6.9	-	126	126
OVERALL SAMPLE AVERAGE (N=2,250)							839	1,016	177

So for example, if we take the group of people who were already commuting by bike prior to Freewheel.

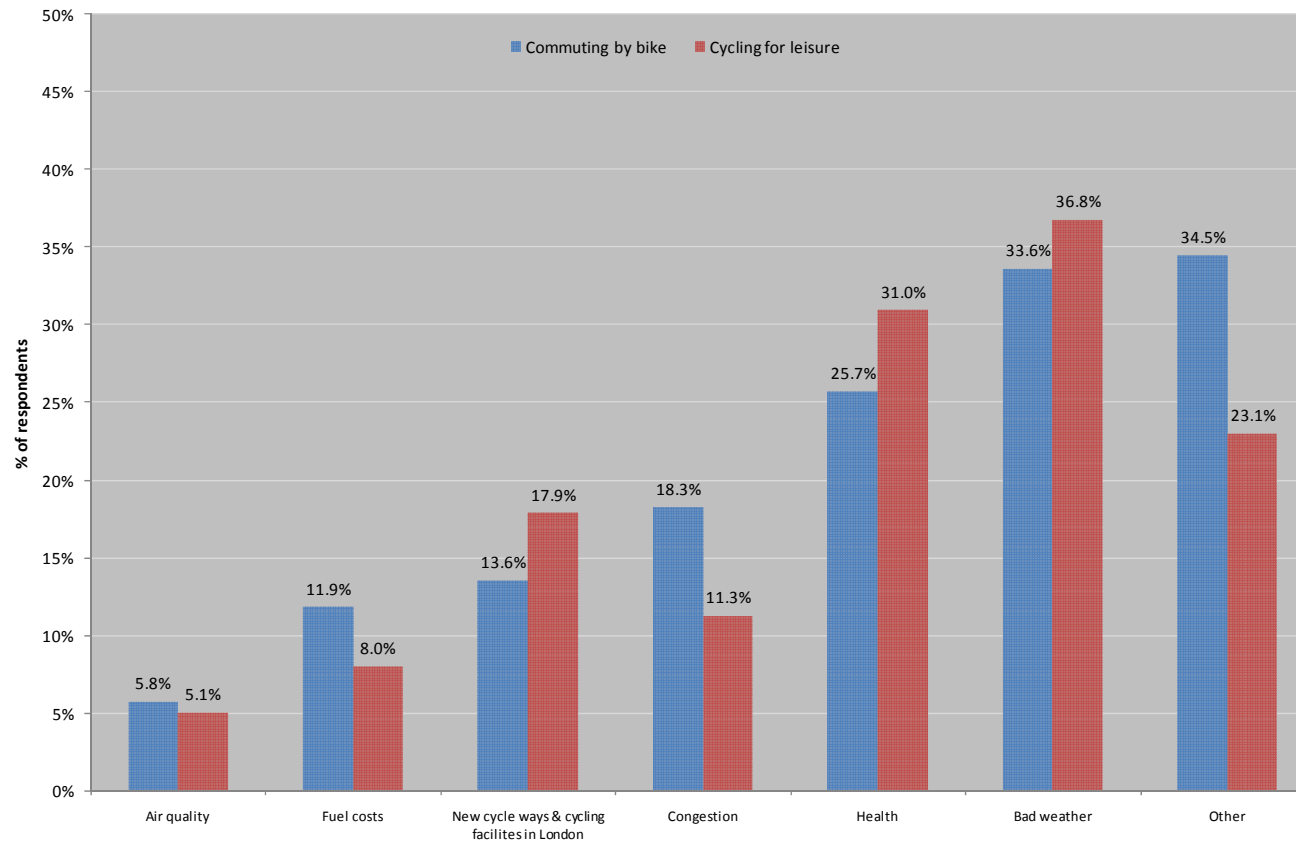
Participation <u>Rate</u> post LFW	12.7
Distance per ride post LFW	13.7
Months in a year	12
Annual miles per person post LFW	2,088
<i>Annual miles per person pre LFW</i>	<i>1,963</i>
Per capita change in distance travelled by bike	125

These increases can be grossed up and applied to the event population of participants to establish an overall increase in participation based in this case on the total increase in distance travelled by bike as a result of the event. In the case of Freewheel, this has also facilitated the modelling of the potential environmental impact of this behavioural change, demonstrating again how many of the aspects within eventIMPACTS are interrelated.

Resource – Participation Change and Causality

Event organisers should be aware that it is highly unlikely an event will be the only impact that would promote actual changes in behaviour. Events do not occur in a vacuum, and it is seldom the case that any one-off event, unsupported by ancillary activity, will bring about sustained behavioural change in participation. People's actions are influenced by the external environment which must be taken into consideration when examining the rationale behind a person's change in behaviour.

The graph below highlights the different factors associated with changes in cycling patterns of 2,250 of the London Freewheel participants following the 2007 event.



NB: Subtotals may not sum to 100% because respondents were

allowed to state more than one contributory factor

The variation in factors cited by Freewheel participants highlights how difficult it is for event organisers to definitively link events and subsequent changes in behaviour.

SKILLS AND VOLUNTEERING

Why Measure Skills and Volunteering?

The development of people's skills and volunteering through events is not just an important social impact in its own right, but is also an important operational objective if future events are to be sustainable.

Events can offer diverse opportunities for people to gain valuable experiences and skills that they may not be able to develop within their own working environments. Events may entail training opportunities to up-skill their workforce, providing the volunteer workforce with transferrable skills and the host region with better quality support for future events. The benefit for the event organiser is the provision of cost-effective labour, which is sometimes highly skilled in nature and often makes the difference in events becoming financially viable.

If events intend to use volunteering to develop 'social capital' in this way, it is essential that they establish appropriate objectives from the outset, and that recruitment policies are set which seek to support these objectives.

Choosing a level of Impact

Skills and Volunteering Impacts have been broken down into three categories based upon the ease with which they can be measured.

Basic Impacts	Intermediate Impacts	Advanced Impacts
Considers some basic measures around event volunteering including total hours, value and duration of volunteer engagement	Considers measuring people's satisfaction with the volunteer experience and intent to re-volunteer	Considers the scope and process by which longer-term impacts might be felt by volunteers

BASIC IMPACTS - SKILLS AND VOLUNTEERING

What are the Basic Impacts?

- Number of Volunteers
- Cumulative Volunteering Hours
- Cumulative Volunteer Training Hours
- Economic Value of Volunteering
- Profile of Volunteers (including local and low-skilled volunteers)

Overview and Considerations

Basic impacts around skills and volunteering are focused on gathering the numbers of volunteers used at an event and mapping their engagement with that event – either in terms of training for the event or working at the event. These numbers can then be assessed through profiling volunteers based on their demographic make-up. Alternatively, event organisers can use these basic numbers to reach valuable conclusions such as the real economic value of the volunteer hours or value in kind investment into the event budget.

Routes to Measurement

Simple measurement techniques are detailed in the *Attendance* section of this toolkit. Using this method and collecting data such as e-mail address etc. can pave the way for running more complex measurements such as long terms benefits as outlined in the *Advanced Impacts* section.

Resources

Basic Skills and Volunteering Impacts

Outlines some basic impacts for event organisers to consider around skills and volunteering, with associated guidance on measurement.

Resource – Basic Skills and Volunteering Impacts

Introduction

The first port of call for measuring skills & volunteering impacts is to ensure access to any volunteer database. Major events will usually have a volunteer manager to oversee this area, and consequently there may well be good quality information regarding the volunteers – especially if a recruitment process has been carried out. Many events will require the volunteer manager to monitor closely the number hours each volunteer is working and their key functions. Good quality management of volunteers in this way makes the reporting of basic-level skills and volunteering impacts relatively straight-forward after the event.

The following Basic Impacts for Skills and Volunteering have been identified:

Number of Volunteers

Adopt similar techniques and approaches to those detailed in the *Attendance* section (desk research on event documentation) in order to get absolute numbers, and refer to the volunteer database if this is available. This database may differ from those who accessed any training pre-event.

Cumulative Volunteering Hours

Whilst this can be measured through multiplying the number of volunteers with their average hours worked, care should be taken to account for the changeable patterns of volunteering throughout an event. Where possible volunteer timesheets should be referenced.

The number of cumulative volunteer hours arguably provides a better measure of the overall scale of volunteering than the total number of volunteers – not least because it allows the duration of the event to be factored in.

Cumulative Volunteering Training Hours

Many major events require training and up-skilling of key volunteer groups. Capturing the cumulative number of volunteers training hours can provide a basic but useful indication of any bespoke training that has been undertaken.

Economic Value of Volunteering

Converting volunteering hours into an economic equivalent value provides a useful measure for event organisers in understanding the importance of volunteering impact and the associated need to both manage and develop volunteers.

Data relating to hours contributed may be collected and multiplied by the average hourly wage in order to provide the notional value of the 'labour' utilised in delivering an event. The average hourly wage (Gross and inc FT/PT) in 2008 was £13.90 according to the Office of National Statistics - see Table 1.5a at the following link:

http://www.statistics.gov.uk/downloads/theme_labour/ASHE_2008/2008_all_employees.pdf

This figure is used on the basis that it accounts for people working in specialist and higher powered jobs who may be volunteers as well as those undertaking more menial tasks. It is also used to account for the specialist and technical roles that are often filled at some event by volunteers. It is however accepted that for a robust assessment of the economic value, a more detailed categorisation of volunteering functions per event is required.

Profile of Volunteers

The profile of the volunteers can be determined using similar demographic information as detailed in the Attendance Section.

- Of particular interest might be an assessment of the impact of the event on the skills and volunteering of local people. Not only are regional event partners likely to want to see an impact in this area on local people, but using skilled local volunteers minimises the environmental impact of the event and sometimes makes it more financially sustainable if the organiser can avoid paying the travel and accommodation costs of key volunteers.
- Another area of interest around volunteering may be the use of people from certain employment categories – particularly if the event has an objective to look at how the development of skills and volunteering might contribute towards self-confidence and employability.

INTERMEDIATE IMPACTS – SKILLS AND VOLUNTEERING

What are the Intermediate Impacts?

- The Volunteer Experience
- Intent to Volunteer again

Overview and Considerations

The main intermediate-level impact that has been defined for skills and volunteering is the quality of the 'volunteer experience'.

This is considered important as it relates to people's future intent, in terms of both propensity to volunteer again and perceived value of the volunteering experience in respect of self-esteem and skills acquisition. As noted within this section, understanding the quality of the volunteer experience will also allow event organisers to better manage volunteers. This is an important issue when cross-referenced with the potential economic contribution that volunteers can make to an event.

It should be noted that measurements taken at the time of an event – such as people's intent to re-volunteer – do not constitute evidence of actual behavioural change. Many of these issues are addressed in the section on advanced impacts around skills and volunteering, and in the participation section of eventIMPACTS.

Resources

Understanding the Volunteer Experience

Provides guidance around measuring and interpreting volunteer satisfaction and perception regarding the impact of the volunteer experience

Resource – Understanding the Volunteer Experience

Introduction

Having accurate contact information for volunteers will ensure that event organisers have a medium through which to contact and survey volunteers. Whilst a well-managed event may have volunteer rest areas where survey work can be conducted, it is often difficult to collect data during an event due to the workforce commitment of the volunteer groups.

Having an effective database giving access to a group of individuals, who are by nature interested in the event, generally delivers a high response rate to surveys and questioning. Post-event surveys can produce some very detailed responses in the area of the volunteer experience, and go some way to determining an individual's intent to volunteer again. Some volunteers can be highly experienced in major events therefore the quality of information gained from any surveying can be invaluable to organisers, especially if the particular event is not a one-off.

Alternatives to surveying at the event include the use of online tools, which may be a more cost effective measure, particularly if the fieldwork team is more concerned with the responses of spectators (and other event attendees). Blogs and other online tools were used successfully amongst volunteers within the six pilot listed in this toolkit. These have managed to overcome data-protection issues by using the event organiser as the intermediary to send out links via e-mail rather than them going direct from the research team: the following framework uses examples from the Edinburgh International Film Festival (EIFF) and London Freewheel (LFW).

Measuring Volunteer Experience

In developing eventIMPACTS, the volunteer experience around the 2008 Edinburgh International Film Festival was assessed. Whilst the number of responses were low (34), some of the results demonstrate the methodological practices and type of information that can be achieved.

Measuring volunteer experience is essentially a measure of satisfaction, and therefore the tools used should be those detailed in the satisfaction section of eventIMPACTS. The net satisfaction approach detailed there was applied to various aspects of the Film Festival. The results of the survey can be seen in the case study around the event.

Intent to Volunteer again

Perhaps of more interest here is understanding how the volunteer experience might impact on intent to volunteer again. In this respect, surveys can start to build a picture of people's previous and future volunteering activity by asking about their volunteering history. For example at the Film Festival:

- 37% had previously volunteered at the Festival
- Around one in five had previously volunteered at other cultural events
- 37% had also volunteered at non-cultural events.

With this background information in mind, it is not difficult to see how the following findings from the survey about the perceived future effects of volunteering could be quite powerful. These findings also demonstrate how quantitative and qualitative information can be combined to create a more rounded narrative of event impacts:

- Based on their Festival experience, nearly four out of five volunteers expressed the likelihood of volunteering again at the Festival. Furthermore, a significant minority (48%) reported that their experience during the Festival was likely to lead to volunteering at other events.
- More than half (56%) of volunteers cited that the Festival had empowered them with new skills or provided relevant experience. Notable quotes in this context are presented below.

"I gained further experience of customer service, together with an understanding of how to efficiently collate and organise information in a library. I also appreciated being able to meet key players in the industry and understand how it operates."

"It gave me valuable insight into the film industry and how it works, which is something I knew very little about previously."

- A very encouraging finding related to the high level of acceptance (74%) by respondents that their volunteering experience at the Festival had either positively impacted on their current employment or helped them to gain employment (see relevant excerpts below).

"Following my work experience I was given increased responsibility at work and use my knowledge of the festival in certain circumstances."

"(I) gained a new job partly due to the experience and skills learned at EIFF volunteering."

- Positive feedback was also received from those respondents who did not feel that the Festival had enhanced their job profile/employment prospects.

"Expanding my knowledge and experience always helps, even if it's not in quantifiable ways."

"The Festival tasks do not directly relate to my current job skills, but being involved in an interesting and enjoyable event brings an extra inspiration to whatever else I'm doing, so time at the job is enriched".

- Some 62% of respondents reported that the event had signposted them towards routes to participation in the performing arts.

"The Delegates' Centre had a table full of industry magazines and adverts for workshops and courses."

"The desk at the Delegate Centre had many interesting film and performing arts magazines, which I read with great interest/ and found useful (full of new information)."

- Lastly, 50% of volunteers reported that EIFF had inspired them to engage with other activities in the arts and cultural sector.

"I'd like to volunteer/work more for general festivals and events in the arts and cultural sector, for example, the Fringe festival, or the Book Festival."

"The film festival experience vindicated my decision to study festivals and events, and gave me confidence that I've made the right decision career wise."

ADVANCED IMPACTS – SKILLS AND VOLUNTEERING

What are the Advanced Impacts?

- Repeat Volunteers
- Enhanced Perception of Self
- Career Progression

Overview and Considerations

As with other areas of eventIMPACTS, these advanced impacts tend to be concerned with longitudinal effects that can be complex and/or time-consuming to measure. On the positive side however, these impacts can provide compelling evidence regarding the ability to effect real behavioural change.

The impacts listed here try to give an idea of the sort of areas that might logically output from a high quality volunteering experience, a clear intent to volunteer again, and an immediate perception on behalf of a volunteer that their experience volunteering at an event has provided them with skills that will be beneficial to them.

Resources

Advanced Skills and Volunteering Impacts

Provides a summary of the types of advanced impacts that organisers of larger-scale events might want to consider.

Resource – Advanced Skills and Volunteering Impacts

Introduction

Whereas intermediate-level skills and volunteering impacts focused on intent to change behaviour, advanced impacts in this area try to consider whether any such behavioural change has occurred.

In reality, many of the techniques used in this area may not be significantly different from those used to measure the volunteer experience and people's intent to volunteer. The key difference in approach however will be the need to measure at different points over a longer period of time, and the need to measure the same people over that period. Increasingly, event organisers, sporting organisations and regional bodies are developing volunteer networks to ensure they have the capacity to be able to deliver major events. These networks provide a good opportunity to track people over longer periods of time.

The most effective route to measure advanced skills and volunteering impacts is via post-event online surveying, however blogs and other online tools have also shown to be useful. As with any measurement, the further away from an event you get, the more difficult it is to attribute change to the original volunteering experience. In all circumstances, researchers will need to ensure that volunteers have given permission to be contacted at a predetermined time in the future in order to access 'distance travelled'.

Many of the issues found here are similar to those that have been detailed around behavioural change in participation – not least the challenge of demonstrating causality between the event and any measured change.

Repeat Volunteers

Tracking the same people surveyed immediately after the event, it will be possible to follow up with them to determine how many converted an intent to volunteer again with action. Event organisers and, in particular volunteer managers, will be able to supplement this with qualitative reviews of how people's volunteering activity has progressed within a particular activity. Similarly to the section on participation, retention of volunteers within the sport or cultural activity may be as important as developing new volunteers.

Enhanced Perception of Self

This will require some pre-event measure to act as a baseline, which may be as simple as asking people a set of questions developed to determine how they perceive themselves, and then following this up sometime after the event.

Career Progression

Establishing a link between volunteering at an event and the ability to gain employment or progress within a career is challenging. Understanding the impact of volunteering on career progression is complex to measure and difficult to determine exact cause. It is known that events do not occur in a vacuum and interviewing someone 6-12 months post event gives plenty of time for other factors to influence this area.

A summary by the Institute of Volunteering Research concluded that based on existing research, the overall link between volunteering as a route into direct work is currently inconclusive:

http://www.ivr.org.uk/NR/rdonlyres/D5F25AD2-F79E-4031-95F8-267C5BA71DBA/0/Vol_employ.pdf

Notwithstanding this, the same article concludes that there are strong links between volunteering and the acquisition of skills that can provide a good base for seeking employment. In reality, measuring the impact of an event on people's employability and career progression is probably a major piece of research.

CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE

Why consider Children and Young People?

A specific section of eventIMPACTS has been dedicated to children and young people for two reasons. Firstly, they arguably represent the most important part of society for events to impact upon – especially when so many events are now considering long-term legacy plans. Secondly, there are specific considerations that have to be made when measuring impacts on children and young people.

This section includes:

- How the event involves and is accessible to young people;
- How the event might help increase the participation of young people in certain activities (especially culture and sport); and
- How the event might help young people by improving their lives in a number of ways, both short term and long term - ie its developmental outcomes.

This section will examine the absolute number of people attending a given event and will move beyond the numeric to examine some of the legacy issues around engagement with, and participation in, an activity. Some of the measures discussed below mirror those in *Participation*.

Resources

Measuring the Involvement of Young People

General principles around applying some of the eventIMPACTS guidance to young people

Monitoring Participation of Young People

General guidance regarding monitoring of participation of young people

Specific Measures for Young People

Outlines national frameworks and strategies for assessing general impacts and services for young people

Online Measurement Techniques

Provides guidance on using online techniques to measure impacts

Resource - Measuring the Involvement of Young People

Introduction

Children and young people are a hard-to-reach group from a research perspective, especially given the issues surrounding child protection and parental consent. Any research commissioned should integrate such information. If you need to speak with young people, first get consent from parents/guardians or from those *in loco parentis* (ie school staff, those organising ancillary activities) and preferably the young people themselves.

When engaging with any group of vulnerable people (children & young people, vulnerable adults) event organisers must ensure they follow correct procedure as outlined by the relevant authorities. This includes ensuring that only people who have undergone enhanced criminal record checks and who satisfy the criteria to work with children and young people are permitted to conduct any interviewing. For further information on this matter please refer to the NSPCC Child Protection in Sport Unit.

Event Audience

The measurement of young people in the event itself, as spectators or attendees, can be captured within the approach already provided around *attendance profiling*.

Associated Activities and Programmes

Simple measurements of young people's participation in associated event activities can also be relatively easily captured. Where events are ticketed or booked (such as fun-runs specifically for under 18s) records can provide this information. Where these are 'social intervention' programmes for young people (such as work with schools or extended schools, or other educational work) the agencies delivering such programmes should be able to supply details of the young people involved.

Young People's Satisfaction

Determining how many young people were involved as spectators or in associated activities will help the event's evaluation, but it tells us very little about their actual experience of the event or activity. As such, any evaluation of the involvement of young people should also try to capture their views and their experience of the event. Methods for assessing this in a quantitative way are outlined in *Satisfaction*. However, where this concerns young people, these elements must be tailored appropriately and additional more qualitative methods can be employed. These might include:

- Online comment tools or blogs; and 'free text' comment sections in questionnaires
- Getting young people to submit their photos of the event, with comments, or use of 'tagged' photos in websites
- Qualitative interviews and focus groups with young people

Accessibility and Inclusion

It is important to understand more about *which* young people have been involved and how. Many events aim to be 'accessible to all' or claim that they will help with 'social inclusion' of young people from disadvantaged backgrounds. Some will aim to break down barriers between social groups by involving young people from a variety of backgrounds. Techniques to do this might include:

- Analysis of the demographics of young participants, as outlined in *Attendance*.
- Collection of postcodes of young people and digitally mapping these to show the different geographic areas from which they have come.

Qualitative techniques such as those outlined in *Young People's Satisfaction* described above to understand more about the 'lived experience' of young people from different backgrounds at the event (you may involve a wide variety of young people, but this does not necessarily mean that they have any 'meaningful interaction').

Resource - Monitoring Participation of Young People

The participation of young people needs to encompass both the event itself and associated activities, and be both short-term as well as longitudinal.

Event Participants

The approaches to quantitative assessments of participation at the event and in associated activities are outlined in *Participation*. Some of this is relatively straightforward in terms of records of young people who are participants, or on educational or other activities.

Empowerment - Planning

Young people's policy increasingly emphasises the need for a more engaged approach to the involvement of young people. *The Ten Year Youth Strategy*, published by the Department for Children Schools and Families in 2007, emphasises a number of areas of reform, all of which create new opportunities for events to deliver and assess impacts on improving the lives of young people.

In particular this includes the need to 'encourage empowerment - allowing young people to influence services'. If events are to remain relevant to the direction of public policy in relation to young people and be of most benefit to them, then they need to show how young people have been:

- Consulted about events in the planning stage
- Involved in designing which aspects are to be provided for and by young people
- Involved in the delivery and evaluation of events.

As such, records of meetings with groups of young people, evidence of consultation sessions, documents and exercises, sessions with representatives of young people and other qualitative data of young people's involvement (photos, testimony, comments etc.) is needed. Further, a participatory approach to evaluation in which young people play an active role is essential.

Need for Longitudinal approach

Within all assessments of participation, it is vital to not only encapsulate the point in time of the event, but also the longer term impact on participation. As such, post-event questionnaires, tracking individuals over time (for instance whose emails are captured in event-based questionnaires or event records), electronic or online diaries and other online tools outlined below should be employed if an event is to claim that it has any meaningful impact on young people's participation in sport or culture. This said events appear to have a catalytic effect and should agencies other than the organisers wish to get involved or *piggyback* this should be encouraged in order to maximise the potential inspirational effects.

Resource - Online Measurement Techniques

Within the Case Studies evaluations of events, the research supplemented face-to-face interviews with some online techniques which are cost effective and accessible ways of gathering data and more detailed information.

Online Collection of AV Material

AV material can be a valuable way of capturing characteristics of an event, the participation of different groups in it and of generating further comment and discussion. Websites such as [Flickr](#), a photo sharing website, allow pictures to be easily uploaded to the site, made publicly available or restricted to specific groups, 'tagged' so that they can be categorised and made accessible, mapped, and commented on.

Blogging and Comment Tools

Blogs or immediate text update sites are an increasingly popular way for people to record their thoughts, opinions, experiences and lives online. As such they are a useful way of generating qualitative information and comment on particular initiatives and events.

Many events will have associated blogs that can be researched, contacted and from which material can be collated. More simply, web based comment tools are easy and cost effective to set up and are a valuable way of capturing the thoughts of participants.

Online Surveys

Online surveys are also easy and cost effective to set up and can be especially valuable for post-event analysis on a range of issues and with specific groups, such as children and young people. Collection of, or access to, email addresses of participants, volunteers or audiences make this approach much more effective. This said it is imperative that child protection issues and informed consent and other permissions are considered before gathering data from minors.

Online Qualitative and Quantitative Reporting

There are some online systems for evaluating social impacts that are more comprehensive, combining both quantitative and qualitative approaches as well as the ability to store, tag and report evidence such as documents, AV material etc. They also allow the recording and assessment of individual's progression, or *distance travelled*, over time. Such systems need to be user friendly, cost effective and comprehensive ways of evaluating impacts on young people.

Best Practice

They need to help events demonstrate:

- The breadth and quality of their work
- The engagement and progress of participants
- The contributions and development of children and young people
- How activities and approaches are meeting key project/programme objectives and broader Government policy agendas
- Access to real time statistics and a full range of quantitative and qualitative reporting functions. These enable users to:
- Reflect on practice through continual learning and development
- 'Tell the stories' of participants, children and young people and activities in rich, detailed ways

- Produce professional web-based and paper reports to communicate success, help develop partnerships and draw down additional funding
- Ideally online systems will help events and associated interventions demonstrate:
- Information about participants (demographic details, outcomes, tracking)
- The identification, role and contribution of volunteers
- Qualitative information including media files (video clips, photos etc) that can be tagged against particular pieces of work and key government agendas
- Allow the creation of qualitative case studies
- Instant access to statistics and automatic generation of statistical reporting
- Flexible reporting to meet a range of stakeholder requirements

Online systems that can provide this range of reporting allow both 'top line' as well as more in depth, longitudinal, evaluation. Event organisers need to consider the aims and objectives of their events but such approaches are particularly useful for longitudinal research and examining behaviour over a sustained period; especially for volunteers and young people. One example of such a system is Substance's Project Reporting System (SPRS), which provides a simple, flexible and powerful web-based monitoring, evaluation and reporting tool with access to many of the features outlined above.

Resource – Specific Measures for Young People

Many major events aim to have a 'legacy' of a positive impact on the lives of young people more broadly - through participation or volunteering, as an audience, or as part of social interventions (or legacy) programmes. These might include impacts in the following areas:

- Educational
- Positive Activity
- Substance misuse
- Child Safety
- Skills and Employment

If these aims are to be evidenced, then there needs to be a robust approach to evaluate developmental outcomes.

The structure for assessing services for young people in England and Wales is the [*Every Child Matters - Change for Children Outcomes Framework*](#). The five outcome areas of *ECM* are:

- Be healthy
- Stay safe
- Enjoy and achieve
- Make a positive contribution
- Achieve economic well being

This provides a very usable, relevant and approved framework for events to judge the impacts on young people's lives. Furthermore, the [*Youth Strategy*](#) emphasises the importance of delivering these in ways which:

- Provide a positive image
- Provide funding
- Address problems for young people from disadvantaged backgrounds
- Provide extended schools.
- Develop positive activities
- Encourage empowerment - allowing young people to influence services
- Increase Access
- Ensure Quality

Once again event organisers may dip in and out of these potential areas for evaluation based on the aims and objectives for their events. However it is important to stress that *ECM* and the *Youth Strategy* are current at the time of writing (the *YS* runs until 2017) and organisers might want to align their event aims to these national frameworks though they are not compelled to do so. Notwithstanding this point, if events are to catch up with local authorities, social agencies and in some instances, sport, they may want to use the *ECM* to assess their services to children.

Whichever approach they choose will require a combination of qualitative and quantitative techniques to evidence the developmental outcomes for young people. Some of these are very straightforward and employ evidence that those delivering events, or delivering young people's services and intervention programmes, will routinely have or collect. Others will require more long term and qualitative assessments.

Media Impact

INTRODUCTION

Assessing the media impact of events is a notoriously difficult task. It is also very important as much of the justification for funding for events, from both the public and private sectors, is either directly or indirectly linked to the media impact they can achieve. This is usually done with the objective of shifting or enhancing perceptions of the host destination in order to boost tourism and investment to the area.

Whilst the eventIMPACTS partners fully recognise the importance of the media impact of events, this area is still under development. As such we aim to provide some basic guidance notes until more detailed research has been undertaken.

In assessing the media impact of an event there are a number of variables which need to be evaluated. These are:

1. Fit with Message
2. Volume and Type
3. Tone

These variables will need to be evaluated both pre-event and post-event to assess whether success was achieved in gaining the desired short-term media coverage and longer-term attitudinal and behavioural impact.

1. FIT WITH MESSAGE

What is this?

Before any assessment of the short-term media impact or value can be undertaken it is essential that the organisation or individual seeking to assess the impact is clear on their objectives and on the message they wish to convey.

This can vary from sponsors who may want to expose the name of their product to as many people as possible, sport governing bodies who may be asking people to become involved in their sport or destination management organisations who may want to promote their area. In all cases they may be looking for a strong association with the event itself. The message is vital as it is impossible to gauge the effectiveness and value of media coverage if you do not know what you are trying to say.

In evaluating the overall potential media impact of an event therefore, it is essential to look at 'fit'. In other words how good is the event likely to be at selling the desired message(s). The 'fit' will have a number of facets which will be dictated not only by the desired messages but also by the overall strategy in which the event exists. This will vary from event to event and also for different partners on the same event.

2. VOLUME AND TYPE

What is this?

Volume refers to how much coverage the event can achieve in each target territory. Type refers to the kind of coverage that is anticipated.

Type of coverage is also linked closely with audience and can go some way to building a profile of the sort of audience your message was exposed to.

For example, social media and online coverage will generally speak to a younger audience than, for example, hard copy daily newspapers. Likewise, trade press or specialist publications for a specific discipline of sport or type of cultural event will raise your profile among the relevant industry but is less likely to attract additional or new audience members or spectators.

Depending upon your goals and objectives and your message, the type of coverage generated will have more or less value and, for an in depth evaluation of coverage, emphasis and weighting should be given accordingly.

3. TONE

What is this?

Tone refers to whether the coverage was positive, neutral or negative.

Positive coverage will speak highly of your event, brand or organisation and will convey your key messages. This may take the format of an interview with one of your representatives.

Neutral coverage will be more of a reporting nature. It will be factual and objective and may take the format of a listing in a magazine giving dates, times and information.

Negative media coverage will go against your key messages and will be discouraging to consumers or derogatory to your brand or organisation.

PRE-EVENT MEDIA IMPACT ASSESSMENT

Prior to committing funding or other resources or support to an event it is important to make an assessment of the potential media value of the event using the above three variables as a guide.

This will, to a large degree, be subjective but some basic questions follow below to assist you. Score each on a scale of 1-5, where 1 = poorly/ negatively/ highly unlikely; and 5 = excellently/ positively/ highly likely.

1. FIT WITH MESSAGE

Considering 'fit' requires an organisation to be clear about its strategic aims, its brand values, and the messages it wishes to convey. Straight forward individual or collective judgment can be used to assess 'fit' using the following questions as a guide:

How effective is coverage likely to be at showcasing the destination? (For example, will television coverage feature iconic 'beauty spot' locations?)

How much coverage will we get for our brand? (I.e. will the position of television cameras enable frequent and prominent showcasing of the brand to television audiences?)

How much is the event likely to help build and consolidate our reputation? (For example, will coverage be viewed by target audiences? Is the coverage likely to provide a demonstration of brand values?)

2. VOLUME AND TYPE

Is coverage likely to be shown at times conducive to high viewing figures?

- For information, these times are:
 - *6.00pm - 11.00pm Weekdays
 - *10am - 11pm Weekends

- You may also wish to make an assessment of how many cumulative hours of coverage are likely to be shown, and how many hits are likely to be received to the official website for the event. Does the event organiser have target figures for these things and plans in place to meet/ exceed targets?

How likely is it that the event will achieve:

- Dedicated scheduled International Television Coverage
- Dedicated scheduled UK and Ireland Wide Television Coverage
- Regional or specialist TV coverage
- International Print Media Coverage
- National Print Media Coverage
- Regional or local Print Media coverage
- Specialist magazine print coverage
- Live international web casting
- International internet coverage
- National internet coverage
- International or National Radio Coverage
- Local Radio Coverage

3. TONE

How likely is it that negatively toned stories or messages will be aired regarding:

- a/ the event itself;
- b/ the environment (weather, event facilities etc);
- c/ the destination or wider infrastructure (traffic, hotels, transport links, cost) etc?

How effective are communications plans likely to be at reducing negatively toned coverage?

It is essential that this PRE-EVENT MEDIA IMPACT ASSESSMENT is done in order to evaluate the POST-EVENT MEDIA IMPACT ASSESSMENT.

POST-EVENT MEDIA IMPACT ASSESSMENT

Following the event you can re-assess the three variables (fit, volume & type and tone) and compare the actual results against the anticipated results.

1. FIT WITH MESSAGE

Following the event, and using individual or collective judgment, consider:

How effective was coverage at showcasing the destination?

How much coverage did we get for our brand?

How much did the event help build and consolidate our reputation?

2. VOLUME AND TYPE

Was coverage shown at times conducive to high viewing figures?

How many cumulative hours of coverage were shown?

How many articles were produced in each print media type?

How many hits to the official website for the event, or to other related websites?

How many opportunities to view the event were made available through TV and internet?

Did the event achieve:

- Dedicated scheduled International Television Coverage
- Dedicated scheduled UK and Ireland Wide Television Coverage
- Regional or specialist TV coverage
- International Print Media Coverage
- National Print Media Coverage

- Regional or local Print Media coverage
- Specialist magazine print coverage
- Live international web casting
- International internet coverage
- National internet coverage
- International or National Radio Coverage
- Local Radio Coverage

Measuring Volume and Type through Advertising Value Equivalence (AVEs)

A wide range of commercial media companies calculate Advertising Value Equivalence(y) (AVE). AVE provides a measure of media exposure, commonly calculated by multiplying the column inches (in the case of print), or seconds (in the case of broadcast media) by the respective medium's advertising rates (per inch or per second). The resulting number is what it would have cost to place an advertisement of that size in that medium. By assessing all of an event's media coverage in this way, and aggregating all such calculations, an overall AVE can be assigned to the media exposure garnered by an event.

There are a number of different ways of deriving this but one methodology can be viewed on the following link.

<http://www.marketing-metrics-made-simple.com/advertising-value-equivalency.html>

AVE is widely recognised across a number of industries and sectors as an appropriate mechanism for gauging the value of coverage and is the current industry standard for evaluating the media impact of events. It is used by organisations involved in events across the world and forms at the very least a valuable part of the assessment. The method does, however, have drawbacks:

- AVE does not measure an impact on consumers' awareness, perceptions, attitudes and behaviours, for example whether media exposure leads to tourism visits;
- AVE does not generally measure tone and message content. Wide exposure that misses the core message or provides an unfavourable image of the destination is unlikely to lead to achievement of objectives;
- Calling it an 'advertising equivalency' implies that an article or broadcast feature on the hosting of an event by a destination has equal impact to a specially crafted advertisement for that destination; and
- In some cases no advertising rates exist. Many print publications do not accept advertisements on their front page. Some broadcasters accept no advertising. Yet often it is these media, or spaces within these media, that will carry the most influential reporting on an event.

As a result many researchers have suggested that media impact evaluation of events should be more holistic, reporting both the short-term media exposure and the longer terms attitudinal and behavioural impacts *[see/ link to section below]*

3. TONE

How well did coverage positively showcase the destination?

Were any negatively toned stories or messages aired regarding:

- a/ the event itself;
- b/ the environment (weather, event facilities etc);
- c/ the destination or wider infrastructure (traffic, hotels, transport links, cost) etc?

How effective were communications plans at reducing negatively toned coverage?

(If using an AVE calculation) How has the tone of the coverage impacted the AVE?

MEASURING THE LONGER-TERM ATTITUDINAL IMPACT

One of the most common research means of assessing the impact that media coverage of an event has had on the attitudes and behaviours of consumers towards a destination is the tracking study. This involves assembling a consumer panel and collecting information on their awareness, attitudes and intentions towards the destination both before and after the event and the associated media coverage has taken place. It is important to establish the influence of the coverage on any changes to the data. One way of doing thing could be use of a panel which comprises both those who have been exposed to the coverage and those who have not, in order to assess any differences between the two groups. Or exploring with those who have been exposed, the extent to which it influenced their perceptions and decision making process if they are now intending to visit the destination.

