PERCEPTIONS OF RISK

AT MEETINGS AND CONFERENCES:

AN EVENT PLANNER'S PERSPECTIVE

By

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I hereby declare that I am the sole author of this thesis. This is a true copy of the thesis, including any required final revisions, as accepted by my examiners.

I understand that my thesis may be made electronically available to the public.

ABSTRACT

Events are a part of every culture and community (Allen, et al., 2002; Getz, 1997; Getz, 2007; Rogers, 2003). They may differ in their purpose (celebration, education, marketing), but at the core they are a gathering of people (Goldblatt & Nelson, 2001). Economically, the event industry is an important sector of the tourism industries; in the USA it is estimated at $652 billion USD in revenues and to have created more than 1.7 million jobs in 2005 (Rutherford Silvers, 2008). Inherent within this industry are risks of varying types (financial, physical, legal, etc) that are the responsibility of the event planner to assess and manage. There are numerous proposed risk assessment and management strategies (GWU Tourism, 2007; MacLaurin & Wykes, 2003; Rutherford Silvers, 2008; Ryerson, 2008; Tarlow, 2002a), which are based on models presented in the general risk literature (Althaus, 2005; Johnson, 1993; Law, 2006; Sjoberg, 2000b; Slovic, 2000; Slovic, et al., 2004). However, there are no empirical data to support these proposed models, nor any research that has studied event planner perceptions of potential sources of risk. This study is an exploration of the socio-demographic influences of event planners on risk perception and how these support the current risk assessment and risk management strategies.

A model was developed that outlined the manner in which experience, education, gender and country of residence influenced the risk concepts of "dread" and "familiarity". These concepts then lead to risk perception that, in turn, influenced risk assessment and risk management. In order to test this model, a mixed-methods, two-stage approach was used (Creswell, 2003; Veal, 2006). In-depth interviews were used to develop a definition of risk specific to the event industry, followed by an on-line survey

to measure perceptions of various risk elements and gather socio-demographic information. There was evidence to support education, experience, gender and country of residence as influencing perceptions of "dread" and "familiarity" that, in turn, directly correlated with levels of risk perception.

This exploratory research has opened the way for many new facets of research in the event industry. Future research is suggested in the areas of cultural influence on risk perception, risk perception related to various event types (festivals, sports, mega-events, etc), and risk management strategies utilized by event planners.

KEYWORDS: event industry, risk, risk perception

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Dedication

Thank you does not even begin to describe my gratitude to Cody, Amy, and Brian. You have been witness to the process first-hand, seeing all the stress, frustration, excitement, and joy. Your unwavering and unconditional love, pride, and belief gives me strength and courage; this accomplishment is as much yours as mine.

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CHAPTER ONE

Introduction and Overview

Risk is a many-layered concept, one that has yet to have a single, widely accepted

definition (Clarke and Short Jr, 1993; Fischhoff, et al, 2004; Tierney, 1999). Risk can take

myriad forms and is influenced by facts, perceptions, experience, social groups, culture,

and personal judgments (Boholm, 1998; Cole and Withey, 1981; Rogers, 1997; Sjoberg,

2000b). In addition, sensational occurrences can dramatically affect risk perception, as

evidenced by the 2001 September 11th terrorist attacks that led to an increased awareness

in the tourism academic and non-academic literature (see, e.g., Kegley, 2003) of terrorism.

Tourism is an integral part of the global economy; it generates spending

internationally and creates jobs (Allen et al, 2002; Dwyer, 2002; Tarlow, 2005). Socially,

tourism provides a venue exposing travelers to new cultures and ideas, thereby promoting

a more global community (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2003; Tarlow, 2002b). In addition, visitors

are highly mobile and may change their choice of destination if they perceive an increase

in risk at a destination. Does this belief that tourism is at risk trickle down to the

individual industries of the tourism sector? Although the event industry is part of the

tourism sector, and shares some of these risks, there are risks that are event-specific.

Studies have concentrated on how to assess and manage risk, but as yet have not provided

an empirical exploration of risk from the perspective of the event planners.

1.1   Event Industry Introduction

Events are one of many industries that are considered part of tourism (Figure 1). The

Events sector can be further classified as conventions, meetings, and exhibitions. For the

purposes of this research, "events" are defined as "a function requiring public assembly for the purpose of celebration, education, marketing and reunion" (Goldblatt & Nelson, 2001: 71). The various types of events can be categorized as: meetings and conferences; social life-cycle events; civic events; expositions; fairs and festivals; hallmark events; and sports events.

Figure 1. Tourism Industry Sectors
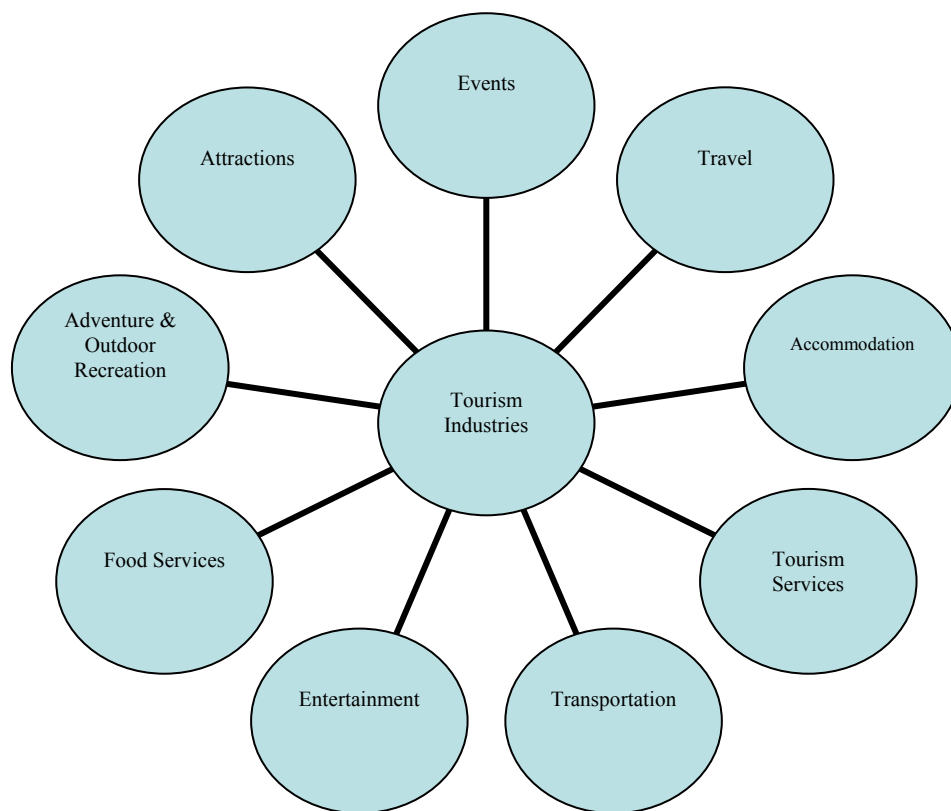
Source: Goeldner & Ritchie, 2003: 122

1.2   Event Industry History

Events have always been a part of every culture as rites of passages, celebrations, festivals, and rituals (Allen, et al, 2002; Getz, 1997; Getz, 2007; Rogers, 2003). The oldest known event is arguably the Greek Olympics. Although the original date is not known, it is believed to have began circa 776 BC (Olympic Museum Lausanne, 2002). As civilization became less nomadic, and city centres became places for gathering and business, events took on a public face. These traditions were transported to North America with the arrival of the first settlers.

Over the course of the next century, professional associations formed which hosted events in North America, becoming part of American culture (Spiller, 2002). These associations began to hold meetings in the mid-1800s, attracting the attention of businesses interested in making a profit by serving the association meetings' growing needs. In 1896, the city of Detroit formed the first convention bureau with the aim of attracting convention business (Montgomery & Strick, 1995; Spiller, 2002). By 1910, five more cities had convention bureaux and the American Hotel Protective Association (AHPA) was formed (Montgomery & Strick, 1995; Spiller, 2002). This was followed quickly by the International Association of Convention Bureaus (IACB) in 1914, and the Hotel Sales Management Association (HSMA) in 1927 (Montgomery & Strick, 1995).

These organizations were designed to increase the professionalism of individuals and corporations in the hospitality industry (Montgomery & Strick, 1995). In 1949, three of these organizations (AHPA, IACB, and HSMA) joined together with the American Society of Association Executives (ASAE) to form the Convention Liaison Council (CLC), which is still in existence today (Fenich, 2005; Montgomery & Strick, 1995). This

organization has a mandate to provide a centralized location for information related to meetings, conventions, and expositions (Montgomery & Strick, 1995). Another key development for the event industry came from Jim Collins in the late 1940s. Mr. Collins was a salesperson at the Chicago Conrad Hilton Hotel and recognized a need for a designated person to deal with these increasing business meetings, the first meeting planner (Montgomery & Strick, 1995).

As can be inferred, the hotel industry was the leader in professionalizing the event industry, but it was not alone in that venture. In the background there were always people responsible for planning the events. The Professional Convention Management Association was formed in 1957 (PCMA History, 2007). In 1972, Meeting Planners International (MPI) was formed, later changing its name to Meeting Professionals International to reflect the diversity of its membership (Fenich, 2005). The International Special Events Society (ISES) was formed in 1987 (ISES, 2007). These associations were designed to provide educational and professional development opportunities (ISES, 2007; MPI, 2007; PCMA, 2007). Currently, Human Resources and Skills Development Canada lists 30 job titles related to the event industry (HRSDC, 2008).

1.3 *Event Industry Today*

Economically, the event industry is an important part of tourism. Lee & Back (2005) estimated that in 2003 $141.3 billion USD in revenues were generated by the MICE (meetings, incentives, conventions and expositions) industry. The event industry is comprised of many different types of events and a variety of industries (Goldblatt, 2000).

Each event draws different kinds of people with different reasons for attendance, with the common denominator being people coming together.

Table 1 is a partial list of the current associations that exist in the event industry and the country in which it is incorporated. There are numerous other organizations that are affiliated, or provide services to, the event industry, but events are not their primary business. As can be seen, the majority of the event associations have their headquarters in the USA. The numerous entries in the table illustrate the diversity of the industry with umbrella organizations such as MPI, and ISES and specialized organizations, such as FILM. The majority of professionals belong to MPI and/or ISES; many also belong to more specialized associations because each specialization has characteristics that require specific educational and training programs.

Table 1. Event Industry Organizations

American Society of Association Executives (ASAE), U.S.A.	Association for Convention Operations Management, U.S.A.	Association for Fundraising Professionals, U.S.A.
Association of Bridal Consultants (ABC), U.S.A.	Association of Destination Management Executives (ADME), U.S.A.	Association of International Meeting Planners (AIMP), U.S.A.
Convention Liaison Council (CIC), U.S.A.	Council of Engineering and Scientific Society Executives (CESSE), U.S.A.	Foundation for International Meetings (FILM), U.S.A.
Hospitality Sales and Marketing Association International (HSMAI), U.S.A.	Insurance Conference Planners Canada, Canada	International Association for Exhibition Management, U.S.A.
International Association of Assembly Managers, U.S.A.	International Association of Conference Centers, U.S.A.	International Association of Conventions and Visitors Bureaus (IACVB), U.S.A.
International Association of Fairs and Expositions (IAFE), U.S.A.	International Association of Professional Congress Organizers (IAPCO), United Kingdom	International Congress and Convention Association, The Netherlands
International Meetings Association, The Netherlands	International Festivals and Events Association (IFEA), U.S.A.	International Institute of Convention Management, U.S.A.
International Special Events Society (ISES), U.S.A.	Meeting Professionals International (MPI), U.S.A.	National Association of Catering Executives (NACE), U.S.A.
National Association of Reunion Managers, U.S.A.	National Coalition of Black Meeting Planners (NCBMP), U.S.A.	National Society of Fundraising Executives, U.S.A.
Professional Convention Management Association	Religious Conference Management Association	Society of Corporate Meeting Professionals (SCMP), U.S.A.

| (PCMA), U.S.A. | (RCMA), U.S.A. | |
| Society of Government Meeting Professionals (SGMP), U.S.A. | Society of Government Travel Professionals (SGTP), U.S.A. | Society of Incentive Travel Executives (SITE), U.S.A. |

Source: Goldblatt & Hu, 2005: 419-425

These associations represent different subfields of events. There are many different types of events, from weddings to sports tournaments to conventions. One way to categorize these many subfields is illustrated by Figure 2. Each of these categories fulfills different requirements for their attendees. Meetings and conferences are educational and networking opportunities; private events are celebrations; cultural celebrations are community based; expositions are trade shows; fairs and festivals are entertainment gatherings; hallmark events are large and global (e.g., Olympics, National Football League Super Bowl); and, sports events are athletic games and/or tournaments (Goldblatt, 2008; Goldblatt & Nelson, 2001). Although there are many differences, at the core, all these events are gatherings, and social (networking, celebrating, etc) in some manner.

Figure 2. A Typology of Planned Events

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

Source: Getz, 1997: 7

Not only does the event industry boast diversity of subfields, but also in its stakeholders. There are four main stakeholders in the event industry: the attendees/participants, the planners, the suppliers, and the organizations. Attendees/participants are those who are invited and/or pay to attend an event. Suppliers are the various businesses that provide the goods and services necessary to create the event environment (hotels, conference centres, rental companies, florists, etc). Organizations are the groups that require, and pay for, the event to occur. They can be corporations, associations, or volunteer-based. Planners are the people who are responsible for the research, design, planning, coordination, evaluation and execution of the event (Goldblatt & Nelson, 2001). Although ultimately planners are responsible to the client that hired them or the organization for which they work, they also have a responsibility to provide a satisfying experience for attendees. In addition, planners and suppliers are part of the event industry and must work in concert to uphold the standards and reputation of the industry as a whole.

Given the uniquely important position of event planners in the event industry, it is curious that little research has been undertaken on this profession. Descriptive demographic research investigating age, education, certification, years of employment in the industry, training, type of event planned, location of event (domestic or international), travel habits, research sources, and place of residence would provide benchmark data on which to conduct future research on event planners' perception, motivation, and decision-making processes.

1.4 Purpose of the Study

As just noted, there is little demographic research on event planners. Moreover, with respect to the current study, there has been no research on event planners' perception of risk. Most academic literature on events has focused on surveying event planners regarding site selection, and evaluation of meeting services and destinations (Lee & Back, 2005). Some professional literature describes how the event industry should manage risk, but does not provide guidance for assessing the actual level of threat. Event planners are faced with many forms of risk that have not been previously identified.

This research is an exploratory examination of the potential factors that contribute to the perception of risk by meeting and conference event planners in the event industry. Questions will be developed to explore the potential relationships between gender, experience, education, and country of residence and 11 event industry risk elements. This research will assist event planners, educational institutions, and destinations to gain a sense of those factors contributing to an increase in the risk perception of event planners. It will also provide a starting point for understanding which event elements are perceived as being riskier than others.

CHAPTER TWO

Literature Review

A large body of scholarly literature regarding risk and risk perception in general, and with regard to tourism, has been developed. The literature related to risk and the event industry has focused on risk management, risk assessment, and risk strategies. This chapter begins with an overview of the event industry literature both scholarly and professionally. It also includes a review of the literature on risk and risk perception, followed by risk and tourism literature and concluding with the event industry risk literature.

Many scholars have applied the general risk and risk perception literature to their disciplines (Faro & Rottenstreich, 2006; Froot, et al., 1994; Linsley & Linsley, 2008; March & Shapiro, 1987; Miller, 1992). Event planners could be viewed as having to make risk decisions in the same vein as managers in the field of business, so a brief review of this literature was considered. Studies in management focus on decision-making processes and those variables that could influence these processes, such as risk (Faro & Rottenstreich, 2006; Linsley & Linsley, 2008). As well, this literature also looks at predicting other people's perceptions of risk in order to assess and manage risk. Although efforts to predict risk appears to be in line with what event planners do, there is a significant and important difference: the management literature assumes that managers will willingly take risks (March & Shapiro, 1987). This means that they will seek out those risks that offer the potential for an increase in profitability and/or awareness. By stark contrast, event planners seek to identify and assess risk as a means of eliminating, or reducing it to an acceptable level and developing strategies to deal with the negative

consequences. Due to the difference in focus on acceptable risk, this literature was not examined further for the current study.

2.1 Event Industry Research

The event industry includes people, places, and activities. It is a dynamic and evolving industry with many related industries, such as venues, hotels, and caterers. Research has contributed to knowledge in several areas and there are also numerous review articles that summarize this research (Abbey & Link, 1994; Formica, 1998; Lee & Back, 2005). Several articles identify dominant research themes and suggest avenues for future research (Getz, 2000; Ladkin, 2002; Yoo & Weber, 2005). Prior to 1993, with the founding of the journal *Festival Management & Event Tourism* (now titled *Event Management),* event industry research was found in main stream tourism journals such as *Annals of Tourism Research, Tourism Management*, and *Journal of Travel Research* (Formica, 1998; Lee & Back, 2005). In 1998, the *Journal of Convention & Exhibition Management* (now titled *Journal of Convention & Event Tourism)* was founded, providing two publications committed to the advancement of event industry knowledge and research (Lee & Back, 2005). From 1998-2003, a total of 137 research articles related to the event industry were published (Figure 3).

Figure 3. Event Industry Publications 1990-2003

Name of Publication	Years Covered in Analysis	# of Articles Identified
Journal of Convention & Exhibition Management (JCEM)	1998-2003	60
International Journal of Hospitality Management (IJHM)	1990-2003	13
Cornell Hotel & Restaurant Administration Quarterly (CHRQ)	1990-2003	11
Tourism Management (TM)	1990-2003	10

Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research (JHTR) *	1990-2003	8
Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing (JTTM)	1992-2003	5
International Journal of Tourism Research (IJTR)	1999-2003	5
FIU Hospitality Review (FIU)	1990-2003	4
Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing (JHLM)	1993-2003	4
Journal of Travel Research (JTR)	1990-2003	3
Annals of Tourism Research (ATR)	1990-2003	2
International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management (IJCHM)	1990-2003	2
Others	1990-2003	10
		Total: 137

*Formerly the *Hospitality Research Journal (1990-1996)*
Source: Lee & Back, 2005: 7

Marketing dominates research in the event industry (Ladkin, 2002; Lee & Back, 2005; Yoo & Weber, 2005). This is not surprising considering the fact that the event industry is a sector of the tourism industries and marketing research has been a dominant theme in this field as well. An electronic search of SCIRUS using "marketing" and "tourism" resulted in 1,785 articles (SCIRUS, 2007). Formica (1998) conducted a content analysis of 83 articles related to festivals and special events to discover the research topics investigated and the methodological and statistical techniques used. He found that economic/financial impact and marketing dominated the articles (see Figure 4). The focus on economic/financial impact and marketing is understandable because the accommodation industry sought, and funded, much of the event industry research in order to make their marketing programs more effective.

Figure 4. Topic Areas of Event Industry Research

Area	Number
Economic/financial impact	15
Marketing	13
Profile of festival/event	10
Sponsorship	10
Management	10
Trends and forecasts	4

N=83
Source: Formica, 1998: 135

Lee and Back (2005) conducted a content analysis of 137 convention and meeting articles in the period 1990-2003 (see Figure 5). In their study, research areas were further elaborated to connect the industry player with the research topic. For example, research that focused on "Attendees" was concerned with those factors that could potentially influence their decision to participate in an event. Lee and Back found that research focused on Meeting Buyers (planners) dominated the articles, with site selection and perceived evaluation of meeting services and destinations as the leading themes.

Figure 5. Topic Areas by Research Focus

Research Focus	Sub-themes (Functional area)	# of Articles (%)
Meeting Suppliers	Destination marketing & CVB operations	19 (13.87)
	Hotel meeting sales & operations	9 (6.57)
	Convention center development & operations	7 (5.11)
	Other meeting venues	3 (2.19)
	Sub-Total:	**38 (27.74)**
Meeting Buyers	Meeting planning (budgeting, scheduling, planners' role)	12 (8.76)
	Site-selection process (attributes, factors, & criteria)	18 (13.14)
	Planners' evaluation of meeting services & destinations	16 (11.68)
	Sub-Total:	**46 (33.58)**
Attendees	Meeting participation process (factors)	8 (5.84)
	Sub-Total:	**8 (5.84)**
Industry General	Trends, issues, and the future of industry (forecasting)	11 (7.03)
	International meeting market	5 (3.65)
	Economic (socio-economic) impact	13 (9.49)
	Advances in technology	9 (6.57)
	Education (college curriculum)	4 (2.92)
	Other areas (law, labor, government)	3 (2.19)

		Sub-Total:	45 (32.85)
		Total:	137 (100)

N=137
Source: Lee & Back, 2005: 15

These studies are supported by other summaries of event industry research, albeit not as detailed or longitudinal. For example, Abbey and Link (1994) noted the importance of site selection in their review of academic and industry (associations and trade publications) research on events. According to their analysis, research by industry associations was conducted primarily by the International Association of Convention and Visitor Bureaus (IAVCB). This research was concerned with convention expenditures. Other trade publication research explored the characteristics of meetings (type, number of attendees, lead time in planning, etc).

Ladkin (2002) also looked at the same three groups conducting research as Abbey and Link. She suggested that academic research has focused on economic impacts and site selection issues. Industry association research has been conducted by the Union of International Associations (UIA) and the International Congress and Convention Association (ICCA), and findings from this research have been international in nature, centered on characteristics of the meetings (size, types, services, and venues), and profiles corporate meeting planners. Ladkin also mentions the IACVB research referred to by Abbey and Link. Ladkin suggests that research by trade publications is generally concerned with destination and facility promotion.

As mentioned, there have been two publications dedicated to research specific to the event industry since 1993. A review of the titles of articles published in *Event Management* (formerly *Festival Management and Event Tourism*), and the *Journal of*

Convention and Event Tourism (formerly the *Journal of Convention and Exhibition Management*) was conducted using the period 1998 – 2007. Topics from *Event Management* used festivals, sporting events, and cultural activities, with some references to conventions, for the base of study. A majority of the articles focused on marketing, economics, behaviours, motivations, perceptions, and reactions of event planners and attendees (Event Management, 2007; Festival Management and Event Tourism, 2007).

Authors from the *Journal of Convention and Event Tourism* used conventions, conferences, associations, and meetings for their base of study. Articles in this journal are concerned primarily with convention centers and planners; with marketing and economic issues following closely. This journal also seems to have included more studies of international destinations such as Australia and Asia (Journal of Convention and Event Tourism, 2007). As an aside, the Australian event industry is a source of a great deal of research on the event industry, in part because the Australian government supports the industry through funding of research and academic programs. In North America, academic event industry programs are generally part of a tourism or hospitality program. In Australia, however, there are numerous stand-alone event industry programs.

Two recent publications, *Convention Tourism: International Research and Industry Perspectives* (Weber & Chon, 2002) and *Event Studies: Theory, Research, and Policy for Planned Events* (Getz, 2007)*,* contain large bibliographies. Again, a review of articles within these bibliographies was conducted by the researcher that supports the claim that marketing and economics are the primary areas of research. The scan of these two journals and the bibliographies was not rigorous and did not follow content analysis procedures;

however, it does give an indication of academia's research foci with regard to the event industry.

Suggestions for future research have been made in many of the articles that have been written (Abbey & Link, 1994; Carlsen, 1995; Go, et al, 2002; Ladkin, 2002; Lee & Back, 2005; Oppermann & Chon, 1997; Weber & Chon, 2002). Those most relevant for this study include definitions and terminology, meeting planners, and safety and security.

2.1.1 Definitions and Terminology

There are many definitions for all aspects of the event industry (Carls0n, 1995; Ladkin, 2002). This makes it difficult to compare research results. For example, Goldblatt (2008) outlines the different responsibilities for event leaders, event managers, catering directors, family reunion leaders, political event leaders, and tourism event leaders to name a few. All of these titles have different background and experience requirements. It would be useful to conduct research into the diverse definitions and terminologies that exist in academia and the industry. The Convention Industry Council's APEX (Accepted Practices Exchange) has begun this process through panels that have proposed voluntary standards for definitions, event specifications, requests for proposals, housing and registration, contracts, and post-event reports (CIC, 2007). This could be the starting point for further standardization of definitions, terminology, policies, and procedures.

In 2006, the World Tourism Organization and Meeting Professionals International undertook a study to acquire the information necessary to develop a Tourism Satellite Account for the event industry (UNWTO, 2006). As part of this study, concepts were

operationally defined, a list of services for the industry was identified, and cooperation

encouraged and promoted in data collection from all stakeholders (UNWTO, 2006).

2.1.2 Meeting Planners

Meeting planner, event manager, conference planner, conference producer, special event

manager, special event coordinator, corporate planner, wedding planner, meeting manager,

party planner: these are just a few of the titles used to describe the person responsible for

coordinating and executing the event plan (CIC, 2007). Responsibilities also vary greatly

depending on the organization, the event, experience levels, education, and accreditation.

There has been little research that has studied meeting planners' education, responsibilities,

education, and/or skill sets. In addition there are numerous academic and professional

training programs available (Abbey & Link, 1994; Ladkin, 2002; Lee & Back, 2005).

2.1.3 Safety and Security

A focus of attention within the event industry has been the terrorist attacks of September

11, 2001. This horrific attack changed the world, bringing safety and security concerns to

the forefront in many industries, including events. Although some researchers have argued

the event industry is an ideal target for terrorists, several industry leaders suggest that

terrorism is not a direct threat (Ito, 2001; Yang, 2003). They suggest that a risk

management plan is necessary, but that objectivity is required when assessing terrorism as

part of this plan (Sturken, 2005). The belief in the need for developing risk management

plans or crisis plans is an assumption behind much of the existing literature (Boger, et al,

2005; Diamond, 2001; Goldblatt & Hu, 2005; Sturken, 2005; Tarlow, 2004). However,

even with all the attention and discussion regarding the potential impact of terrorism on the

industry, almost half of planners voluntarily surveyed do not have a risk management plan

tailored to each of their meetings (Sturken, 2005). In addition to terrorism are concerns

such as food safety, insurance requirements, on-site security, and alcohol regulations.

These concerns are likely to be more relevant to most events; however, there is no research

on the types of risks that are specifically associated with events. Research on safety and

security plans for each of the major players would provide a foundation for

standardization, and to identify gaps.

2.1.4   Summary of Literature Review on Event Industry Research

Getz (2007) asserts that there is a gap in the event industry between academia and

practitioners. Many practitioners are unaware of the research done in academia, do not

have an academic background, or do not see how to apply the research being done. At the

same time, researchers are not asking practitioners what they need to know. Getz (2000)

highlights the need for a framework for research conducted on the event industry. One

way to frame research would be to base it on the various management or functional areas

within the industry. The "Event Management Knowledge Domains" model EMBOK

(Figure 6), was designed by Rutherford Silvers (2008); based on work from a Masters'

thesis by William O'Toole. Its aim is:

> [t]o create a framework of the knowledge and processes used in event
> management that may be customized to meet the needs of various
> cultures, governments, education programs, and organizations. (EMBOK,
> 2007)

Figure 6. EMBOK Model
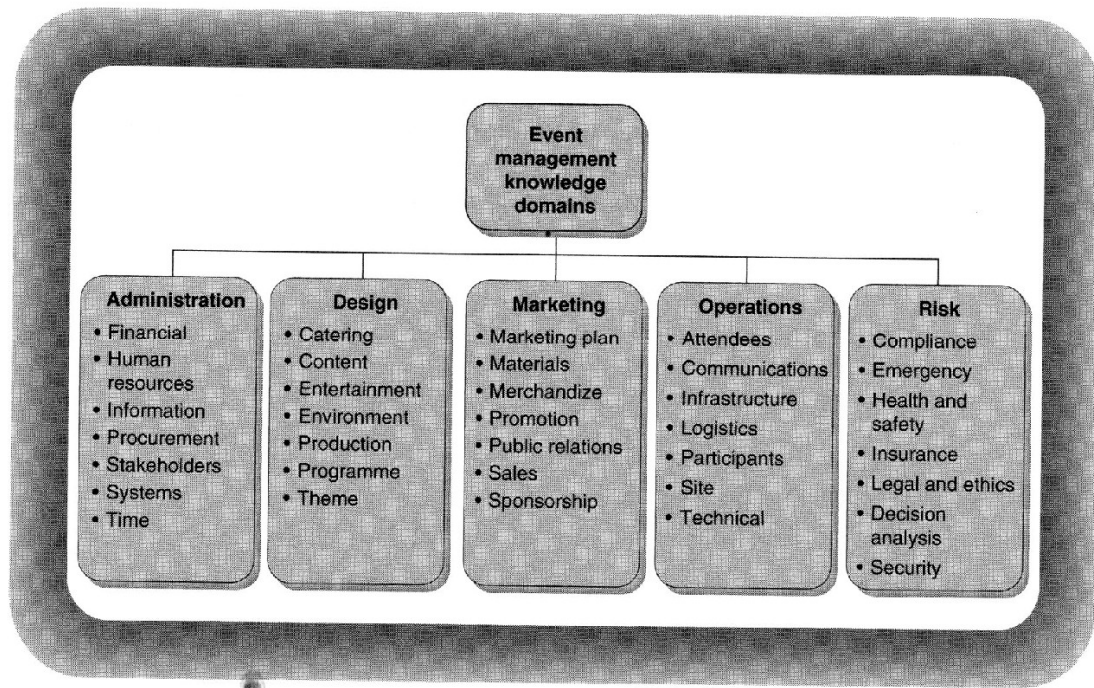
Source: Getz, 2007: 2

Each knowledge domain outlines areas of research that could be explored. Within these domains, the researcher could choose to examine a topic as it relates to the industry as a whole or to a particular stakeholder. As can be seen from this model, risk is a separate knowledge domain that has its own special research needs. In order to understand what these research needs are, it is necessary to understand risk and risk perception as a whole, as it applies to tourism, and specifically to the event industry.

2.2 *Risk and Risk Perception*

Risk is a common term; however, risk means different things to different people at different times. This has led to so much controversy surrounding the term "risk" that a consensus on a general definition is lacking (Clarke and Short Jr, 1993; Fischhoff, et al,

2004; Tierney, 1999). The reality, however, is that risk is part of everyday life and of every decision that is made (Trimpop, 1994).

Each academic discipline has its own view of risk (Table 2). Historically, economics dominated risk research (Althaus, 2005; Cole and Withey, 1981) and has influenced the manner in which other disciplines have developed their theories of risk. Economic theory suggests that within risk there is a concept of "loss". The idea of loss occurs frequently within the literature (Reisinger and Mavondo, 2005; Sonmez and Graefe, 1998b; Trimpop, 1994; Tsaur, et al, 1997; Yates, 1992). Kaplan, Szybillo, and Jacoby (1974) developed a taxonomy of risks in terms of losses: financial loss, performance loss, physical loss, psychological loss, social loss, and time loss. Yates (1992) has suggested that the elements of risk include the potential of loss, the significance of loss, and the possibility of loss. Risk was believed to be defined through a cost/benefit analysis, closely linked to economic theory (Renn, 1998), with measurement strategies that contain mathematical concepts (e.g. Weber, et al., 2002). However, these mathematical concepts and measurements do not account for individual differences such as motivation, experience, education, and societal influence.

Table 2. Disciplines and Risk Perception

Discipline	How It Views Risk
Logic and Mathematics	Risk as a calculable phenomenon
Science and Medicine	Risk as an objective reality
Anthropology	Risk as a cultural phenomenon
Sociology	Risk as a societal phenomenon
Economics	Risk as a decisional phenomenon, a means of securing wealth or avoiding loss
Law	Risk as a fault of conduct and a judicable phenomenon
Psychology	Risk as a behavioural and cognitive phenomenon
Linguistics	Risk as a concept
History	Risk as a story
The Arts (literature, music, theatre, etc)	Risk as an emotional phenomenon

Religion	Risk as an act of faith
Philosophy	Risk as a problematic phenomenon
Recreation *	Risk as an experience
Tourism *	Risk as motivation
Event Industry **	Risk as an objective and subjective reality to be negotiated

Source: Althaus, 2005: 569
* Adapted from: Lepp & Gibson, 2008
** Author's view

The concept of risk, in the social sciences, combines the ideas of what individuals value and uncertainty (Renn, 1988). Subjectivity clearly is a central consideration in this combination. Not only will individuals subjectively assign a value to a phenomenon, but will subjectively assess the likelihood of a detrimental versus favourable outcome. In the 1970s, there was an increasing interest in explaining human response to natural hazards (Slovic, 2000), which allowed social sciences to move to the forefront in risk research.

The emergence of social science perspectives in the field of risk research allowed new perspectives on defining, measuring, and explaining the concept of risk. Some of the new components of risk that were proposed included shock, threat, danger, lack of control, and uncertainty (Althaus, 2005; Law, 2006; Sjoberg, 2000b; Yates, 1992). Social science did not negate the economic concept of loss but, instead, incorporated it within a context related to the ideas of uncertainty and control (Althaus, 2005; Fischhoff, et al, 2004). These ideas outlined the manner in which risk is related to the human experience, in other words, its subjective nature. From this perspective, risk cannot be defined solely in terms of the activity or event, but must be viewed within the context of the person and social environment in which the event occurs (Althaus, 2005; Clarke and Short Jr, 1993; Sjoberg, 2000b; Tierney, 1999; Yates, 1992). This is a particularly important point to keep in mind when discussing risk perception, as perception is an even more individualized phenomenon

than risk. Perception is based not only on objective fact, but also on the individual's background, experience, and social group (Boholm, 1998; Cole and Withey, 1981; Rogers, 1997; Sjoberg, 2000b).

Risk perception research is an attempt to understand the differences in perceptions across individuals (Cole and Withey, 1981; Renn, 1998; Slovic, 2000). It is rooted in cognitive psychology and began as an attempt to discover the extent to which bias (personal beliefs) affected judgments of risk (Slovic, 2000). In recent years, the focus has shifted to an attempt to explain the discrepancy between expert and laypeople's perception of risk (Slovic, 2000). The field has been dominated by a few key personalities, namely Paul Slovic, Baruch Fischhoff, and Sarah Lichtenstein. These researchers have been conducting risk perception research since the 1960s (Slovic, 2000). Their research is based on the initial work done in 1969 by Chauncey Starr. Starr's research was an attempt to understand how people judged technical risks as "safe" (Starr, 1969). It is difficult to encounter any research or literature on risk or risk perception that does not refer to one, or all, of these researchers. Two central concepts of the risk perception research promoted by this group that have been supported by other researchers are heuristics (both affective and availability), and culture (Boholm, 1998; Cole and Withey, 1981; Johnson, 1993).

Affective heuristics relate to the "good" or "bad" feelings individuals associate with an event or activity (Slovic, et al., 2004). These responses occur automatically and are useful when dealing with the multitude of choices (and risks) that are a part of everyday life.   The biggest problem with affective heuristics is its susceptibility to manipulation by outside influences such as family, friends, media, and culture (Boholm, 1998; Slovic, et al., 2004). The concepts of "dread" and "unknown" have been found to be

common affective elements in individual's perception of risk (Slovic, et al., 1982). Dread risks are those events that invoke a strong emotional response of fear; these events are perceived to be uncontrollable, fatal, and involuntary. Unknown risks are those events that have not been experienced before and/or are delayed.

Availability heuristics are particularly important when considering individual risk perception. They suggest that the easier an event is to recall or imagine, the more effect it has on risk perceptions (Cole and Withey, 1981; Johnson, 1993; Renn, 1998). In fact, an event that is negatively sensationalized, like the September 11, 2001 terrorist attacks, tends to be judged as more of a risk even though it may involve fewer casualties than a more common event such as smoking, which accounted for 37,000 deaths per year in Canada in 2007 (Health Canada, 2007). Availability heuristics also assists in explaining the difficulty in changing an individual's perception that is based on experience and emotion (Slovic, et al., 1981). This suggests that a person's experience plays an active role in determining risk and not just the data or information that is being presented (Rogers, 1997).

Cultural influence is another common thread in the literature (Johnson, 1993; Renn, 1998; Rogers, 1997; Slovic, 2000). It has even lead to the association of something called "cultural theory" as an explanation for risk perception (Althaus, 2005; Boholm, 1998; Sjoberg, 2000b). In tourism risk perception research, "cultural theory" is prominent (Law, 2006; Reisinger and Mavondo, 2005; Rippl, 2002; Taylor-Gooby and Zinn, 2006). In cultural theory, individuals are categorized through a "group/grid" typology, with "group" referring to the extent an individual is incorporated into a particular social unit and "grid" referring to the degree of control this social unit exerts over the individual (Thompson, et al., 1990). At the core of this theory is the idea that "what matters most to people is how

they would like to relate to other people and how they would like others to relate to them"
(Thompson, et al., 1990: 97). This perspective suggests that people's interpretation of the
world is influenced by their cultural environment; which includes various institutions, such
as schools and political systems (Althaus, 2005; Rippl, 2002).

The group/grid typology identifies five groups or ways of life: egalitarian,
hierarchical, individualistic, fatalistic, and hermit (Sjoberg, 2000a; Thompson, et al.,
1990). These groups are important to developing an understanding of risk perceptions
because group affiliations are the foundation of individual preferences and cultural biases
(Boholm, 1998; Taylor-Gooby and Zinn, 2006; Thompson, et al., 1990). Risk is seen,
within the group, as a force that affects the group's way of life (Rippl, 2002). Table 3
summarizes the characteristics and associated risk perceptions of the five groups.

Table 3. Cultural Theory Groups, Characteristics, and Risk Perceptions

Way of Life	Characteristic	Risk Perception
Egalitarian	Strong group boundaries Minimal prescriptions	Safe inside group
Hierarchical	Strong group boundaries Binding prescriptions	Acceptable risk limits can be set
Individualistic	Neither group or prescribed roles	Risk as opportunity
Fatalistic	Binding prescriptions Exclusion from group	Risk is to be avoided
Hermit	Withdrawal from coercive or manipulative social involvement	Eager to accept myopically perceived risk

Source: Thompson, et al, 1990

Cultural theory suggests that an individual's perception of risk can be determined
through the process of determining his/her group. This theory predicts that an individual's
perception of risk is a function of social processes (culture and institutions) more than an
individual's autonomy, experience, and ability to adapt or learn.

Research in the fields of sociology and anthropology also contributed the idea that culture is important in forming an individual's risk perception (Althaus, 2005; Gardner, 2008). This view is based on the idea that individuals are influenced by the culture in which they were raised and that each culture can have a different view of the world and risk (Althaus, 2005; Boholm, 1998).

The literature also shows that gender can influence perceptions of risk. Women have a slighter higher perception of risk than men (Flynn, et al., 1994; Gustafson, 1998; Finucane, et al, 2000). Women tend to view risks that have the potential to harm those they care about as having a higher probability of occurring than do men, due to the fact that traditional gender roles ascribe women to a nurturing position (Finucane, et al., 2000). On the other hand, men, particularly Caucasian men, are involved in the creation of societal order to a greater extent and are presumed to have more control over social institutions (Finucane, et al., 2000). This makes them more familiar with potential risks and consequences which lessens the feeling of being out of control and/or unable to assess or manage these situations.

Johnson (1993) offers a comprehensive list of factors that potentially influence risk perception. They include:

1. Dread, Familiarity
   i. dread is characterized by a perceived lack of control, dread potential and perceived fatal consequences
   ii. familiarity refers to the amount of knowledge and/or exposure that an individual has regarding a risk
2. Likelihood of Occurrence
   i. individual determination of possibility of risk occurring
3. Hazard Outcome
   i. possible positive and negative outcomes
4. Social Networks, Religious Beliefs and Ideologies
   i. opinions from friends, family, religious teachings, or people in employment or neighbourhood networks

Johnson's categories have significant overlap with risk elements previously mentioned. For instance, Renn's (1988) "possibility of occurrence" is Johnson's concept of "likelihood of occurrence". In addition, the concepts of shock, threat, danger, lack of control, uncertainty, and social networks are also listed within Johnson's categories. Affective heuristics list "dread" and "unknown" as components that influence risk perception and the availability heuristic is incorporated in terms of ease of recall. The difference in Johnson's categories is that the focus is not on confined to negative experiences only; in fact, an individual's positive experience with an event often results in a lower perception of risk in future similar situations.

Johnson's categories could also be reduced to "dread" and "familiarity". Likelihood of occurrence and the perception of a hazardous outcome are both an individual's assessment that is determined by the dread factor. Social networks, religious beliefs, and ideologies (culture) are part of an individual's knowledge base that is part of familiarity. This, too, means that Johnson's original four categories can be condensed into two categories: dread and familiarity.

2.3   *Risk and Tourism*

Risk has always been part of the tourism experience, from the bandits on the roads to the more recent threats of terrorism, SARS, and avian flu yet people still travel. Risk perception takes as many forms as there are people; some see risk behind every corner, while others willingly engage in "risky" behaviour (rock climbing, sky diving, SCUBA). Tourism has specific characteristics that make engaging in it inherently risky (Huan, et al,

2004; Mansfeld, 1992): the intangible nature of the product, the uncertainty involved with destination information, and individual perceptions of risk (Roehl & Fesenmaier, 1992).

The potential for risk can be the motivation for travel (Lepp & Gibson, 2008; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005; Roehl & Fesenmaier, 1992; Sonmez & Graefe, 1998a). Various typologies have been developed that focus on tourist motivation. These typologies share some basic concepts such as stimulation, sensation seeking, and novelty (Agrussa, et al. 2008; Ariffin, 2008; Galloway, et al., 2008; Lepp & Gibson, 2008).

Stimulation assumes that each individual has an optimal, or preferred, level of stimulation, and will strive to maintain this level (Ariffin, 2008). Tourism, and especially meeting tourism, can provide a venue in which to do this.

Zuckerman's psychological theory of sensation seeking is defined as a "need for varied, novel and complex sensations and experiences and the willingness to take physical and social risks for the sake of such experience" (Zuckerman, 1979, as quoted in Lepp & Gibson, 2008:741). Tourism provides an outlet for individuals to achieve their desired level of sensation seeking through its diversity of options for travel. These include everything from travel that is completely organized by a third party (travel agent) to spontaneous trips.

Novelty is the final concept that occurs frequently in tourism literature as an explanation for differing risk behaviour. This is the desire to seek out new and different experiences through travel (Ariffin, 2008; Lee & Crompton, 1992). It can be motivated by a variety of factors such as boredom alleviation, a need for escape, thrill, adventure, surprise, or a desire for a change of routine. This demonstrates that risk can be both a motivation and a deterrent for tourism activities to be undertaken.

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2.4   Risk and the Event Industry

Risk perception in the event industry has not been specifically researched. Events, like tourism, contain elements of risk. Some of the many factors that come into play include crowd size, size and nature of event site, time of day, nature of event, consumables, age of crowd, weather conditions, and location of event (Tarlow, 2002a).

Although events are part of the tourism industry, they differ in the level of uncertainty contained within the experience. An individual planning a personal trip is responsible for all aspects of her/his experience, from the initial decision to travel to all the logistics, including the schedule. Events, on the other hand, are usually planned by others and the individual input is limited. This reduces the level of uncertainty, thereby lowering the perception of risk for the individual. Quite often an individual is responsible only for making the initial decision to attend the event. Individuals have an idea of what to expect when attending an event, be it a wedding, a conference, or a sporting event. Many times transportation and accommodation suggestions are also included in the invitation, further reducing the uncertainty surrounding attendance.

In addition to the reduction in uncertainty, events are familiar. Each culture contains events that become part of the lives of its members, such as weddings and graduations. Even if an individual has not attended a specific event in the past, there are elements that are common to each type of event. For instance, most weddings have a ceremony, then a meal function, and speeches. Sporting events are located at a specific venue, and have specific start and end times. Conferences contain a detailed schedule, often including social activities in the evenings.

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From the perspective of the individual attending the event, there is an expectation of attention to detail. For the event professional, numerous checklists exist that assist in determining the potential risks that could affect the success of the project (McLaurin & Wykes, 2003). Many of the educational programs offered for event planners now contain courses on risk (GWU Tourism, 2007; Ryerson, 2007). This is both an ethical obligation and a legal concern, protecting the attendee, the client, and the event professional.

Although there is limited research on risk perception and the event industry; risk itself has been a topic of several research studies and books, particularly on risk management strategies. Risk assessment is also a common theme; however, it begins with the assumption that risks have already been identified (EPMS, 2009; ICCA, 2005; Rutherford Silvers, 2008; Tarlow, 2002a). In order to assess risks event planners are encouraged to consider the likelihood/probability of occurrence and the potential consequences. These concepts are also included in the reference to a risk definition in addition to words such as control, danger, potential for harm, and threat (EPMS, 2009; ICCA, 2005; Toohey & Taylor, 2008)

Tarlow's book, *Event Risk Management and Safety* (2002a), was one of the first attempts to outline risk management strategies and plans for event planners. As can be deduced from the title, this book is concerned with risk management, not risk perception. However, it does contain a description of risk:

> We may state that 'risk' is a future event that we treat as if it had already happened. Thus, the event manager cannot actually observe risk. The best that he or she can do is to assume that a particular situation can result in the potential for harm. Thus, even in the most empirical of event cases, the event risk manager must rely on his or her own professional intuition from past events. (Tarlow, 2002a: 35).

Although Tarlow does not give a specific definition of risk, he does state that risk has the "potential for harm", which is mentioned in the general risk perception literature as a characteristic.

Another important aspect of Tarlow's book is his description of risk assessment. Here he outlines a probability matrix and the importance of collecting data from previous events. He also stresses that this empirical data are not sufficient to determine risk, but that the event professional must make decisions based on "past experience and personal intuition" (2002a: 37).

A book by Rutherford Silvers (2008) titled *Risk Management for Meetings and Events* is the most recent attempt at outlining risk management tools and strategies. This book is a large step forward in educating both practitioners and academics about risk and the event industry. There is a focus on physical (e.g., terrorism) and non-physical risks (e.g., financial), as well as references from numerous countries illustrating the diversity of risks and globalization of the event industry. The recognition of the diversity of risk types is key to developing risk assessment and risk management tools in that there is not one solution.

Rutherford Silvers offers an explanation and definition of risk:

Risk is the unknown, and the positive or negative outcomes that may be associated with the unknown. It is possibility – the possibility that something good or something bad might happen, the exposure to the possibility of loss, damage, or injury arising from an uncertainty. Risk is 'any' condition or occurrence that 'might' affect the outcome of an event or event activity and might expose an event organization to loss measured in terms of probability and consequences. Not all risk is bad. An event itself is a speculative risk; its production incurs liabilities yet has the potential for economic, political, and/or social rewards. One needs to look at the worst that can happen and the best that can happen in order to be prepared for anything in between.
Speculative risk: The possibility of loss and the possibility of gain.

Absolute risk: The possibility of loss and NO possibility of gain. (4)

Risk: An uncertain event or condition that, if it occurs, has a positive or negative effect on an event's objectives. (22).

Although there is the suggestion risk can be positive, she gives no examples. Instead, her focus is on the negative aspects of risk (loss, damage, injury), a view consistent with general risk literature. Uncertainty, unknown, potential, possibility, loss, probability, consequences – these are words found within the larger risk literature, indicating the opportunity to integrate and apply this research to the event industry.

Rutherford Silvers' definition and explanation go a long way to applying the concepts of risk to the event industry; however, it is grounded in academic research and not the experiences of event professionals. The assertion that risks can be positive or negative is supported by the literature; however, without understanding if event planners view risks in this manner, it is difficult to develop an event industry specific risk definition. Further, risk management tools and strategies that are based on the assumption that event planners view risk as positive and negative will not be as effective if this view is not empirically based.

2.5   Conclusions

It is apparent that there has been a great deal of research activity in the fields of risk and risk perception, as well as risk and tourism that can be applied to the event industry. To this point, the event industry has focussed on how to manage risk, and superficially how to assess it. Tarlow (2002a) stresses the importance of relying on empirical data and past experiences and professional intuition; however, novice event planners do not have this

background. This exploratory research will provide a foundation of event planner

experiences from which to base risk assessment, as well as empirically test the concepts

forwarded by event industry scholars (Rutherford Silvers, 2008; Tarlow, 2002a)

Within risk assessment, probability is mentioned frequently as is likelihood of

occurrence and impact. All these concepts are based in the risk perception literature, and

particularly in Johnson's (1993) categories. This makes these categories of factors

influencing risk perception crucial in ascertaining risk perceptions. It is proposed that by

condensing these categories into dread and familiarity, which contain all the concepts of

risk perception listed by other researchers, a model can be developed to illustrate the

process by which risk is conceptualized by event planners. Experience and/or education,

key components of risk assessment (Tarlow, 2002a), impact dread and familiarity

characteristics by providing the individual event planner with knowledge and exposure to a

risk element; further by gaining this experience and/or education, event planners can gain a

sense of control over the situation and a real-world basis for assessing the potential

outcome. Women are the dominant gender in the event industry. As mentioned in the risk

literature, women tend to judge risks at a higher level and differently than men (Finucane,

et al., 2000; Flynn, et al., 1994; Gustafson, 1998). Therefore it is important to recognize

that this may affect the type and level of perception of the various risks associated with the

event industry.

The individual characteristics of experience, education, and gender are further

influenced by culture (Boholm, 1998; Taylor-Gooby and Zinn, 2006; Thompson, et al.,

1990). Each culture can have a different view of the world and risk (Althaus, 2005;

Boholm, 1998; Gardner, 2008). For the purpose of this study, country of residence will

represent cultural influence. This is due to the fact that media, history, and institutions of a

country are an integral part of its culture (Althaus, 2005; Thompson, et al., 1990).

The following model (Figure 7) is proposed as a means of visualizing risk perception

in the context of the existing literature. This research will focus on the stages up to, and

including, risk perception.

Figure 7. Event Industry Risk Perception Model
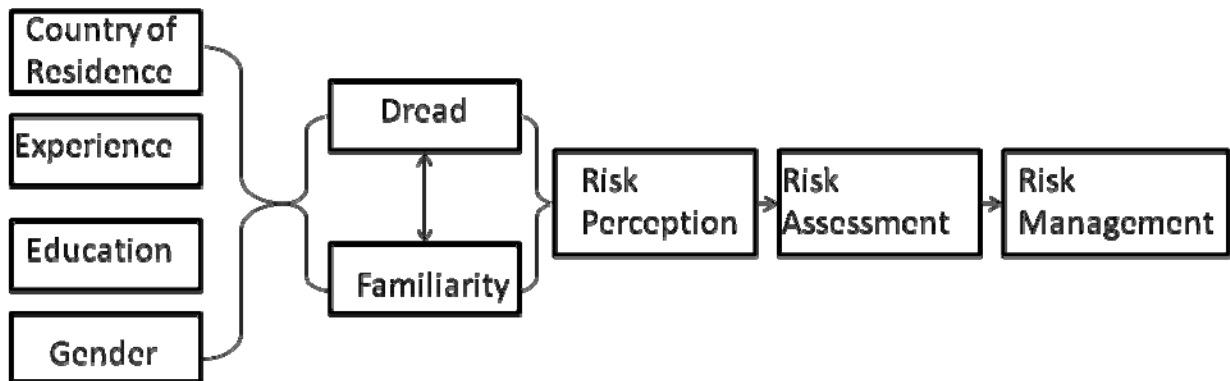
CHAPTER THREE

Methodology and Risk Definition

3.1   Introduction

As can be seen from the literature review, event industry scholars have focused on the

assessment and management of risk. The proposed strategies are based on concepts from

overall risk studies, but neglect to address risk perception and the individuality of the event

planners. Specifically for the event industry, the concepts of "dread" and "familiarity" are

particularly relevant. Dread encompasses the ideas of control and consequences, while

familiarity deals with experience, education, and social networks/culture. It is believed

that education, experience, gender, and country of residence can influence these concepts

and, by extension, the perception of risk of various event elements.

3.2   Research Questions

The purpose of this research was to explore the general question about how risk perception

is influenced by dread and familiarity, which in turn are influenced by education,

experience, gender, and country of residence. Differences in the perception of risk vary

based on education, experience, and gender because of the dual concepts of familiarity and

dread (Johnson, 1993; Slovic, et al., 1982). Country of residence influences the perception

of risk based on the concepts of familiarity and dread (Johnson, 1993; Slovic, et al., 1982),

as well as culture (Boholm, 1998; Taylor-Gooby and Zinn, 2006; Thompson, et al., 1990).

Based on a review of the influences on the perceptions of risk within and, outside, the

context of tourism and events, and the results from the in-depth interviews, the following

questions were proposed:

Question 1   Is there a relationship between event management education and risk perception?

Question 2   Is there a relationship between years of experience and risk perception?

Question 3   Does gender influence risk perception?

Question 4   Does the country of residence affect risk perception?

3.3   Approach and Analysis

This research was conducted using a mixed-methods, two-stage approach (Creswell, 2003; Veal, 2006). During the first stage, three rounds of in-depth, semi-structured interviews were conducted with the aim of developing a definition of risk specific to the event industry. Analysis consisted of verbatim transcription, memo-writing, and member-checking to validate the findings (Creswell, 2003).

The second stage of the research used an on-line survey. As the focus of the study was exploratory, cross-tabulations, Chi-square analysis, factor analysis and regression analysis were employed to examine the potential relationships between education, experience, gender, and country of residence and the 11 sources of risk (Babbie, et al., 2007). The risk-source categories were created based on the outcome of the in-depth interviews in which participants suggested examples of sources of risk that, in their opinion, were most common to events in general.

3.4   Considerations in Developing the Sampling Frame

Permission was received from MPI to survey their members. MPI maintains a list of all members (including the researcher) that is available upon request. Thus, access to the membership list did not violate rights to privacy.

Respondents could conceivably have felt uncomfortable answering questions about their perception of risk because event industry publications place substantial emphasis on developing risk management plans (Sturken, 2005) but not all event planners have done this. The confidentiality of the survey, in addition to the fact that it is being conducted electronically, may have alleviated these concerns.

There was a possibility of a low response rate. Nardi (2006) suggested that response rates for electronic surveys can be higher than for mail surveys. In addition, event planners may not be comfortable discussing their perceptions of risk, particularly if it is contrary to the event industry's view. Further, work in the event industry requires long hours and frequent travel, meaning that planners do not feel that they have the time to participate in the research. These limitations were addressed by producing a survey instrument that was short, limited to 18 questions. Finally, the researcher's reputation as an event manager was beneficial in dealing with understanding the demands of the industry and adding credibility to the research.

There was also a possibility that contact would be made with non-event planners because the MPI membership includes suppliers. The use of the following qualifying question eliminated this limitation.

> Event planners are people who are responsible for the research, design, planning, coordination, evaluation, and execution of events. Based on this definition, are you an event planner?

The final consideration was the high proportion of American membership. It was necessary to institute a target of 100 completed surveys from each country in order to avoid skewing the data (Creswell, 2003).

3.5   First Stage Methodology

3.5.1   Interviews

Interviews have been used extensively in the tourism field as well as in event industry

research ((Lee & Back, 2005; Riley, 1996). Dann, et al. (1988) conducted a meta-analysis

of *Annals of Tourism Research* from 1978-1986 that found that 40% of articles used

subjective research methods, primarily analysis of personal interviews. The focus of

interviews has generally been on the meanings of touristic experiences for individuals or

on how tourism decisions are made (Riley, 1996; Harrill and Potts, 2002). There are three

types of interviews available (Table 4), each with advantages and disadvantages. For the

purposes of this research, semi-structured was chosen as this type of interview allowed the

researcher to probe new topics and ideas introduced by respondents, while still providing a

framework of key questions.

Table 4. Advantages and Disadvantages of Interviewing

Type of Interview	Advantages	Disadvantages
Structured	Interviewees answer same questions, increasing the comparability of the responses Interviewer bias reduced Data easily analysed using statistical techniques	Very little flexibility and the standardised wording may inhibit responses Pre-determined questions may not be relevant
Semi-structured	Combines the flexibility of the unstructured interview with comparability of key questions	Bias may increase as interviewer selects questions to probe and may inhibit comparability of responses
Unstructured	Interviewer responds in a flexible way to the interviewee Interviewer's role is minimal allowing interviewee to express ideas in his/her own words	Comparability is much reduced and data analysis is more difficult Data quality depends on listening and communicating skills of the interviewer

Source: Finn, et al., 2000: 75

3.5.2 Operationalizing a Definition of Risk

In order to elicit responses from event planners regarding their perception of risks, it was necessary to develop an operational definition of risk. As mentioned, there is no consensus on the definition of risk (Clarke and Short Jr, 1993; Fischhoff, et al, 2004; Tierney, 1999). Although definitions of risk have been proposed for the event industry (Rutherford Silvers, 2008; Tarlow, 2002a), these are based on concepts lacking any empirical data from the event industry or event planners. For the purpose of this research, it was determined that in order to develop an operational definition of risk in the context of the event industry, interviews with event planners would be necessary. Thus, in-depth interviews were conducted with eight event planners from Canada and the United States (USA) and grounded theory procedures were applied to code and interpret the transcripts of the interviews (Glaser, 1978; Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

Participants were chosen using snowball sampling (Creswell, 2003), where the researcher initially contacted colleagues currently employed in the event industry, which then provided additional contacts. This method was chosen as the aim of the research was to develop a working definition of risk that would be used in the subsequent on-line survey rather than to develop a statistically representative set of responses. The participants were informed that they would be part of an expert panel where diversity of experience and education as well as differences in country of residence (USA and Canada) were the main criteria for inclusion. This was done to reflect the diversity of the event industry and to develop a definition that would be understandable and applicable for novice and experienced planners. Interviews were conducted using both telephone and Internet chat, with three phases. The first phase elicited responses from the panel to develop an initial

definition of risk as it applies to the event industry. The second and third phases were used to refine the definition to achieve consensus from the participants.

3.5.3   Respondent Profiles

Respondents 2, 3, 4, 5, and 7 (the numbers assigned reflect the order in which respondents were initially interviewed) were personal acquaintances of the researcher; with respondents 1, 6, and 8 referred to the researcher by the first five respondents. Respondents 1, 4, 6, and 8 are Canadian event planners; Respondents 2, 3, 5, and 7 are USA event planners. The Canadian event planners had no formal education (university or college) in event management, while the USA event planners all hold Masters degrees in event management. Respondents 1, 2, 3, and 7 are owners of event management companies. Respondents 1, 2, 3, and 5 are full-time event planners. Respondents 1, 2, 3, 5, and 7 currently possess the event industry designation of Certified Meeting Planner (CMP), obtained through Meeting Professionals International (MPI). The reason for the difference in formal education between Canadian and USA planners may be due to the fact that certificate courses offered in Canadian colleges are relatively new, where there are several event management programs offered in the USA (CHRIE, 2006).

3.5.4   First Interview

The first stage was an unstructured personal interview in which respondents were provided the question, "How do you define risk as it applies to the event industry?" prior to the interview. The question was sent by e-mail with a request to set up a time for either a

telephone or on-line interview. This was done in order to allow the respondents time to formulate their responses.

Interviews ranged from 30 to 45 minutes in length. Supplementary questions were asked about the need for a definition, the effect of experience versus education on a definition of risk, and the elements that were considered important to a definition (Appendix B). The researcher gave an explanation of the purpose of the interview at different times depending on the panel member's familiarity with the research. The researcher summarized the risk definition elements at the end of each interview and asked for confirmation/corrections/additions.

The interview with Respondent 1 was not recorded because of technical difficulties with the recorder. Instead, notes were made by the researcher and sent to the respondent for confirmation. The respondent made changes and sent them back to the researcher. Interviews with Respondents 4 and 5 encountered technical difficulties resulting in re-interviewing. Interviews with respondents 7 and 8 were conducted via an Internet chat function, which resulted in a verbatim transcription of the interview. Respondents 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6 were conducted using a digital recorder and transcribed, verbatim, by the researcher.

Initial analysis consisted of a content analysis using a software program called CATPAC. This is "a neural network program which has been designed to read and understand text of any kind" (Woelfel & Stoyanoff, 1998: c). This analysis consisted of designating the number of unique words required for results. Analysis was run on five occasions with each of the eight transcripts, with the first and second runs including 100 unique words. This was done in order to determine words that should be added to the

exclusion list, such as proper names, pronouns, agreement words, filler words ("though", "like", etc). In addition, the words "event", "events", "planning", "planner", and "industry" were also excluded as they occurred frequently but did not add to the definition (Appendix C). The third through fifth analyses included 30 unique words that captured those most descriptive in relation to the words "risk", "risks", "definition", and "defining" (the key words). The sixth analysis produced a frequency list of words and a dendogram that illustrated the position of these frequent words in relation to the key words (Appendix D). This information did not prove meaningful in developing a definition on its own, which led the researcher to use a coding strategy based on a grounded theory approach.

Analysis of the text using a grounded theory approach (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) consisted of using memo notes to record words and phrases that occurred when respondents were asked to define risk in relation to the event industry. Other memo notes recorded types of risks that could be used as examples, as well as the difference in defining risk based on education or experience. Further, respondents stated that a risk definition should be "broad", "general", and "applicable/practical", as well as include "examples", "categories", and "headings". They also stated that there should be one definition that applied to the event industry as a whole, instead of the various event types (meetings, conventions, special events, etc).

Respondents agreed that a definition of risk that applied to the event industry was needed for a variety of reasons. They believed that a definition would allow people to know what a risk is, would broaden perspectives, get people thinking about risks, raise consciousness and awareness, provide a foundation and frame for risk assessment and reduce inconsistencies in terminology.

Table 5 illustrates the words/phrases that occurred frequently throughout the eight interviews and were used as the basis for a working definition of risk as it applies to the event industry.

Table 5. Memo Note Analysis

Negative influence potentially	Threatens	Injury or Death
Interferes	Affect outcome	Health & wellness
Impedes success	Danger	Human element
Action	Loss	Hazard
Safeguard	Liability	Anything could go wrong
Damage	Exposure	Unpleasant
Uncertain	Unforeseen	Disorder
Harm	Legal	Situations

Source: In-depth Interview

Based on these words/phrases, the following definition was developed:

> Risk is anything that could potentially impede, threaten, influence, or interfere with the successful outcome of an event. Risk is the potential for loss and could be financial, physical, psychological, legal, or ethical. Some examples of risks common to the event industry are: theft, equipment failure, fire, terrorism, intoxication, contracts, and transportation strikes.

This definition was sent by e-mail to all members of the expert panel and a second interview was scheduled.

3.5.5 Second Interview

The second set of interviews involved semi-structured, open-ended questions (Appendix B). The purpose of the second interviews was to refine the definition. The discussion centred on tone, understanding, layout, and format of the definition. Interviews ranged from 10 to 15 minutes in length and were conducted by telephone and Internet chat. Interviews with Respondents 1, 2, 3, 5, and 6 were recorded telephone interviews; those

with Respondents 4, 7, and 8 were conducted on-line with MSN Chat and AIM Chat. Verbatim transcription followed the interviews, and memo notes were used to record additions, deletions, or revisions suggested by each respondent.

Respondent 1 was asked if this definition would be easy to understand for novice planners. This respondent replied that with 30 years of experience in the industry, this was not a determination that he/she felt comfortable making, instead he/she suggested that the researcher consult the event management students from her summer 2008 course. The working definition was sent to 11 undergraduate students enrolled in an event management course. They were sent an e-mail, asking if they would take the time to provide feedback on how easy the definition was to understand and if they could think of anything that would make it better. Six responses were received, all of which confirmed that the definition was easy to understand. There is the potential for bias in the student responses, as they were current students of the researcher and may have attempted to give the "correct" answer. The students were not personally interviewed, nor was there any follow-up to their replies.

Memo note analysis was conducted for this stage, wherein words and phrases were recorded for the following categories: overall impression; novice and experienced planner; reflection of view; human element; layout; examples; and, additions. These categories were based on the questions asked during the interview. Respondents felt that this definition was broad, easy to understand, encompassing, very clear, and applied to all types of events. In addition, it was felt that the examples made the definition "more concrete". Respondents felt that this definition was a good reflection of the view of risk as it applies to the event industry, in that it was broad and illustrated the variety of potential risks. The

list of examples was the area respondents commented on most frequently. There was

significant discussion of other types of examples that could be included (see Table 6).

However, there was agreement that the list needed to stay short, as it was impossible to

produce an exclusive list of examples.

Table 6. Risk Examples

Attrition	Cancellation	Currency exchange
Slips and falls	Licensing	Entertainment no shows
Speaker no shows	Labour strikes	Fuel prices
Poor customer service	Food poisoning	Food allergies
Dietary restrictions	Religious food restrictions	Mishandling of food
Food shortage	Sponsorship loss	Weather

Source: In-depth Interview

The working definition of risk was revised to read:

Risk is anything or anyone that could impede, threaten, influence, or
interfere with the successful outcome of an event. Risk is the potential for
financial, physical, psychological, legal, or ethical loss. Some examples
of risk that are common to the event industry are: theft, equipment
failure, fire, terrorism, intoxication, food poisoning, contracts, trips and
falls, transportation strikes, or labour disputes.

This definition was again sent to the panel by e-mail and a third and final interview

was scheduled.

3.5.6   Third Interview

The third stage of interviews involved semi-structured, open-ended questions based on the

second version of the definition (Appendix B). The purpose of this stage was to finalize

the definition. Respondents were asked to comment on the revisions and given the

opportunity to make any further suggestions or comments. Interviews ranged from 10 to

15 minutes in length and were conducted by telephone and Internet chat. Interviews with

respondents 1, 2, 3, 5, and 6 were recorded telephone conversations; respondents 4, 7, and 8 were interviewed using MSN Chat and AIM Chat. At the conclusion of the third interview, the researcher explained to the panel member that the definition would now be used in an on-line survey on risk perceptions.

The third interview began with a general question asking for the panel member's overall impression of the definition. Every member of the panel believed that this definition was clear, concise, and easy to understand. Each indicated that it reflected a broad overview of risk as it applies to the event industry. In order to ascertain their support of the definition, respondents were asked if they would be happy having their name associated with the definition; every member of the panel indicated that she/he would.

The next questions focused on the revision of each sentence. Every panel member approved of the change to the first sentence, stating that it made it better, more encompassing, and more succinct. The second sentence was more problematic. Specifically, the phrase "ethical loss" was a source of concern; some panel members felt that this rephrasing changed the meaning and focus of the definition. Other members felt that this restructuring made the sentence flow better. Four members of the panel preferred the first version of the sentence and four members preferred the second version. During the interviews the researcher was asked to give examples of ethical loss to six of the panel members. This indicated to the researcher that individuals who had not been involved with the development of the definition may have problems understanding what was meant by the second version. Based on suggestions made by panel members during the interviews the following definition of risk, as it applies to the event industry, was finalized:

Risk is anything or anyone that could impede, threaten, influence, or interfere with the successful outcome of an event. Risk is the potential for loss; financially, physically, psychologically, legally, or ethically. Some examples of risk that are common to the event industry are: theft, equipment failure, fire, terrorism, intoxication, food poisoning, contracts, trips and falls, transportation strikes, or labour disputes.

This definition was sent to the expert panel members in a thank you e-mail that also contained a gift certificate from Amazon (Appendix A).

The final definition was used in the next stage of data collection – an on-line survey. The first two sentences of the definition were used in conjunction with the type of event planned most often to give respondents a framework for ranking their perceptions of 11 potential sources of risk. The example portion of the definition was used to create the 11 categories of risk used in question 10 of the Likert-type scale (Appendix F).

CHAPTER FOUR

Risk Perception

4.1   Second Stage Methodology

4.1.1   Surveying

Surveying is one of the most popular forms of empirical data collection undertaken in

social science research (Dillman, 2002; Dillman, 2007; Fowler, 2002). Put simply,

surveying is a way to collect information about a subject by asking people questions,

collecting the data, and producing statistics that summarize the collected data (Fink, 2003;

Fowler, 2002). Even though it sounds simple, surveying involves numerous considerations

and procedures in order to produce results that can be said to be representative of a

population (Fowler, 2002). The most common types of survey methods are described in

Table 7.

Table 7. Questionnaire Types and Description

Type	Description
Household Survey	People are selected on the basis of where they live and are interviewed in their home
Street Survey (also called Intercept Surveys)	People are selected by stopping them in the street, in shopping malls, etc
Telephone Survey	Interviews are conducted by telephone
Mail Survey	Questionnaires are sent and returned by mail
E-Surveys	Surveys making use of the Internet and e-mail
User/on-site/visitor Survey	Users of a leisure or tourism facility, site or destination are surveyed on-site
Captive Group Survey	Members of groups, such as classes of school children, are surveyed

Source: Veal, 2006: 235-236

Table 8 lists the advantages and disadvantages of the various survey methods.

Table 8. Advantages and Disadvantages of Survey Methods

Data Collection Method	Advantages	Disadvantages
Personal Interviewing	1. Some sample designs implemented best by personal interview (area probability samples) 2. Most effective way enlisting cooperation 3. Interviewer can answer respondent questions and get additional answers 4. Multimethod data collection feasible (observations, visual cues) 5. Rapport and confidence building possible	1. More costly than other alternatives 2. Need trained staff of interviewers geographically near sample 3. Longer data collection period than telephone procedures 4. Some samples more accessible by other modes
Telephone Interviewing	1. Lower cost than personal interviewing 2. Random-digit-dialing sampling of general populations 3. Better access to some populations 4. Shorter data collection periods 5. Interviewer can answer respondent questions and get additional answers 6. Smaller staff needed; not necessary be near sample 7. Better response rate than by mail	1. Sampling limitations 2. Nonresponse association with RDD higher than personal interviews 3. Questionnaire or measurement constraints 4. Less appropriate for personal or sensitive questions
Self-Administered	1. Ease of presenting questions requiring visual aids 2. Asking questions with long or complex response categories 3. Asking similar questions 4. Respondent does not have to share answers with an interviewer	1. Careful questionnaire design required 2. Open questions not usually useful 3. Good reading and writing skills by respondents needed 4. No quality control from interviewer 5. No control over who answers questions
Mail Surveys	1. Relatively low cost 2. Minimal staff and facilities 3. Access to wider dispersion samples 4. Respondents have time to give thoughtful answers	1. Difficult enlist cooperation 2. Need good mailing addresses
Dropping off Questionnaire	1. Interviewer can explain study, answer questions and designate household respondent 2. Response rates similar to personal interview 3. Respondents have time to give thoughtful answers 4. Does not require trained interviewing staff	1. Costs as much as personal interviews 2. Field staff required
Internet Surveys	1. Low unit cost of data collection 2. Potential high speed of returns 3. All advantages of self-administered instrument 4. All advantages of computer-assisted instrument 5. Respondents have time to give thoughtful answers	1. Limited to samples of Internet users 2. Need for good addresses 3. Difficult enlist cooperation

 Source: Fowler Jr. 2002: 71-74

For researching issues facing event industry planners, based on the information in Tables 7 and 8, e-mail and Internet surveys provide the most efficient and effective method of reaching event industry planners. Most event planners rely heavily on computers and the Internet in the course of their daily responsibilities (research, marketing, advertising, on-line registration, and communication), making them familiar with the technical requirements of Internet and e-mail surveys. E-mail addresses could be gained through the industry associations who maintain membership information. All these reasons made a web-based survey the best method in terms of efficiency, time, and resources.

4.2   Risk Perception

Although there is a great deal of professional literature outlining how to develop terrorism plans and to implement risk management strategies (Diamond, 2001; Ito, 2001; Nelson, 2004; Spindel & Tesdahl, 2005; Sturken, 2005), there is limited information on the types of risks that are most common in the event industry (Rutherford Silvers, 2008; Tarlow, 2002a). In fact, there has not been any empirical research that examines this area of the event industry. As noted in the literature review, in order to develop risk assessment and management plans that reflect the event industry needs and the needs of event planners, it is necessary to explore event planner perceptions of potential sources of risk in events. These sources were based on the interviews described in Chapter 3. In order to measure these risk perceptions, an on-line survey with current MPI members from Canada, the USA, and the member countries of the European Union (EU) was conducted.

4.2.1 Sampling Frame

The population used for this research was individual event planners with current

membership in Meeting Professionals International (MPI). MPI maintains an electronic

membership list that is used for regular member communications. This membership list is

available to members for their use, as well as being available for purchase by non-member

researchers. The list facilitated the drawing of a random, representative sample.

MPI was chosen due to its international nature and large membership base. MPI has

chapters in Canada, the USA, and the EU. The e-mail list released to the researcher was

current as of September 2008, and numbered 10,852. This list contained all current

members of MPI, including suppliers, vendors, and students. The researcher sorted the list

alphabetically by country, and removed any members who did not reside in Canada, the

USA, or the EU. The researcher removed any member listed as a supplier, vendor, or

student. This resulted in a list of 688 Canadian event planner members, 810 EU event

planner members, and 8,898 USA event planner members. A census was conducted with

members from Canada and the EU and a random sample of 600 USA members was drawn.

In order to draw the random sample of 600 USA members, the Excel e-mail membership

list was first sorted alphabetically by last name, and then a blank column was created to the

left of the names. An Excel function (=RAND() * 9000) was entered on the first line and

copied to the remainder of the list. This formula randomly assigns numbers to each row of

the spreadsheet. Once this was complete, the researcher shuffled the list by selecting the

randomly assigned number column a total of 14 times (the age of the researcher's youngest

child). The first 600 names were then used in the survey.

Responses rates of 70% have been suggested as achievable for on-line surveys (Dillman, 2007) through use of the Tailored Design Method; however, Smith (personal communication, 2008) has noted that the tourism industry average for on-line surveys ranges from 15-20%. Therefore, a target of 100 completed surveys per country, for a total of 300 surveys, would satisfy this requirement.

The research instrument was an on-line survey (Appendix F). Closed-ended questions asked for the type of event planned, event venue, sources of information used, type of event management education, and the respondent's age. In addition, an "other" category was offered for type of event planned, event venue, and sources of information to provide respondents with the opportunity to offer responses that were not included in the proposed response categories. Questions relating to country of residence, number of events planned during 2007, length of time in events industry, and number of international trips taken were open-ended in order to allow respondents to provide precise answers. Likert-type scales were used to assess the individual planner's perception of a variety of risks common to the industry, as well as use of accepted risk management strategies. One open-ended question gave respondents the opportunity to describe their experiences dealing with any or all of the listed risks.

4.2.2 Pilot Survey

A test of a draft questionnaire is standard procedure for ensuring the clarity of questionnaires, as well as estimating response rates and completion times (Dillman, 2007; Veal, 2006). In order to ensure the survey would be easily understood, a pilot survey was undertaken. Twenty-eight respondents were contacted: the four members of the

researcher's doctoral committee, seven graduate students from the researcher's department, thirteen event planners who are personal acquaintances of the researcher, and four personal friends of the researcher. The committee members and graduate students were chosen for their expertise in academic research surveys. The event planners were chosen as representative of the survey population. The personal friends were chosen to provide general comments on the survey.

Based on pilot survey comments, there were grammatical changes made to ensure consistency. Substantive changes were made to questions 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, and 15 (Table 8). Questions 5 and 6 were changed from a choice of a range (1-5, 6-10, etc) to an open-ended question. This was done to allow respondents to enter an actual number to permit the calculation of means. Question 7 was split into two questions to make answering easier. The revised first question determined whether the event planner focused on domestic events or international events. The subsequent question determined the venue in which the event planner held events most often. Categories were chosen based on those used in research studies conducted by MPI (Meeting Professionals International and American Express, 2007). Categories were added to questions 9 and 10 in order to be more inclusive of the information sources used by event planners. The scale was changed in question 11 in order to make choices easier for respondents. Question 15 was changed to reflect the variation in education that was possible.

Table 9. Survey Revisions from Pilot Survey

Original	Revision
Q7.	Q7.
Domestically (in the country where you work)	Between January – December 2007, where did
- Urban within 30 minutes of international airport	most of your events occur? Please choose only one.
- Rural more than 30 minutes from	Domestically – in the country of your primary

international airport Internationally (in any country where you do not work) - Urban within 30 minutes of international airport - Rural more than 30 minutes from international airport	office Internationally – outside the country of your primary office Q8. Between January – December 2007, what type of venue did you use for the event you plan most often? City Hotels Resort Hotels Airport & Suburban Hotels Conference Centres & Universities Convention Centres Restaurants, Country Clubs & Unique Venues Other
Q8 & 9. None Industry publications (e.g., The Meeting Professional, Smart Meetings) Academic publications (e.g., Convention and Event Tourism, Journal of Event Management) Newspapers Magazines Internet Sites	Q9 & 10. None Previous Experience Word-of-Mouth Industry publications (e.g., One + One, Smart Meetings) Academic publications (e.g., Convention and Event Tourism, Journal of Event Management) Newspapers Magazines Internet sites Other
Q10. Rated on scale of 10 with labels of: - No chance of occurrence - Poor chance of occurrence - Moderate chance of occurrence - High chance of occurrence - Virtual certainty of occurrence	Q11. Rated on scale of 7 with labels of: - Low chance of occurrence - Moderate chance of occurrence - High chance of occurrence
Q14. What level of education do you have? Choose all that apply. - None - Diploma - College/University certification - Undergraduate degree - Graduate degree (Masters, Doctorate)	Q15. Please indicate the highest level of education that you have achieved. - Some High School - Graduated from High School - Diploma - College/University certification - Undergraduate degree - Graduate degree (Masters, Doctorate)

Changes were made to the survey as comments were received from respondents. This

allowed those who had not responded to see an updated version of the survey. Responses

were received from 24 participants. When all changes had been made, the survey was sent

to the researcher's committee and five event planners for comment. The final on-line version of the survey (Appendix F) went live on October 15, 2008 using SurveyMonkey.

4.3   Survey Procedures

An e-mail invitation was sent to prospective respondents on October 15, 2008. A total of 148 e-mails were returned as undeliverable. Corrections were made to these addresses and the invitation was re-sent on October 16, 2008. A total of 2,062 invitations were sent out; 667 to Canadian event planners, 599 to USA event planners, and 796 to EU event planners.

SurveyMonkey allows potential respondents to "opt-out" of all surveys. This function resulted in two opt-outs from the EU and two opt-outs from the USA, for a total 2,058 e-mail invitations for the initial invitation. Reminder e-mails were sent until the targeted 100 completed surveys were received. Forty out-of-office responses, on average, were received with each mailing. This was expected because the period between September through December are busy months for event planners. A total of 1,947 e-mail addresses were valid, with a total of 329 completed surveys received (116 from Canada, 102 from the USA, and 111 from the EU), which resulted in an overall 17% response rate.

Canadian planners were sent the initial invitation on October 15th. A total of 639 e-mail addresses were valid, with 116 completed surveys returned for a response rate of 18%. USA planners were sent the initial invitation on October 15th. A total of 568 e-mail addresses were valid, with 102 completed surveys returned for a response rate of 18%. EU planners were also sent the initial invitation on October 15th. A total of 740 e-mail addresses were valid, with 111 completed surveys returned for a response rate of 15%.

CHAPTER FIVE

Results

5.1   Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the on-line survey. A total of 329 respondents from the

three regions (Canada, USA, and EU) completed the questionnaire. The chapter begins

with a brief description of the demographics of the respondents, followed by an overview

of the types of events planned by the respondents as well as other professional

characteristics. The results of the questions described in Chapter 3 are then presented.

5.2   Respondent Demographics

Industry literature suggests that women are the dominant gender among professional

meeting planners (Grimaldi, 2004; Grimaldi, 2005), a generalization supported by this

research. A total of 238 of 301 respondents, or 79%, indicated they were women. A

plurality of planners fell into the 35-44 years of age category (35%), with the 45-54 years

of age category following closely (30%). Seventy-one percent of respondents held post-

secondary level certification and undergraduate degrees; however, only 18% of

respondents had event management education at the same level. Forty-seven percent of

respondents had taken individual event industry courses, with 31% obtaining industry

certification; however, 23% had no event management education of any kind. Table 10

illustrates respondents' demographic information.

Table 10. Respondent Information

Characteristic	Percentage
Gender	
Female	79.1
Male	20.9
N=301	
Age	
18-24	1.0
25-34	21.3
35-44	35.7
45-54	30.3
55-64	10.0
65 or over	1.7
N=300	
Education	
Some High School	2.7
Graduate High School	11.7
Diploma	11.0
College/University certification	34.7
Undergraduate degree	36.0
Graduate degree (Masters, Doctorate)	14.7
N=300	
Event Management Education	
None	22.6
Individual industry courses	46.8
Diploma	8.1
Industry certification	31.0
College/University certification	8.4
Undergraduate degree	4.7
Graduate degree (Masters, Doctorate)	4.0
N=297	

Respondents were asked how many years of experience they had. The answers

ranged from none to 40, with a median of 10 years. For the sake of clarity, responses were

grouped by lustra (five-year categories, except for the first group, which covers six years

because of the inclusion of zero years) (Table 11). A plurality of respondents had six to

ten years of experience, with 51% having 10 years of experience or less. Seventy-two

percent have 15 years of experience or less. Only 13% have more than 20 years of

experience.

Table 11. Years of Experience

Years of Experience	No. of Respondents	Percentage
0 – 5	54	17.5
6 – 10	105	34.0
11 – 15	64	20.7
16 – 20	46	14.9
21 – 25	25	8.1
26 – 30	10	3.2
31 – 35	4	1.3
36 – 40	1	0.3

N=309

Table 12 illustrates that those respondents in the 0-5 and 6-10 years of experience categories were most likely to obtain event management education of some type. It is interesting to note that these same categories also contain the highest percentage of respondents with no event management education.

Table 12.   Event Management Education and Years of Experience

Years of Experience	No Education	Industry Education	Formal Education	Industry & Formal Education
0-5	30.3	15.2	20.0	10.5
6-10	33.3	30.9	36.0	39.5
11-15	21.2	22.4	28.0	10.5
16-20	7.6	16.4	12.0	23.7
21-25	6.1	10.9	0	5.3
26-40	1.5	4.2	4.0	10.5

N=294

5.3   Respondent Professional Practices

Every respondent reported she or he planned meetings and conferences; further, 91% of respondents also noted that meetings and conferences were the type of event planned most often. This was expected because the sampling frame was the MPI membership – MPI focuses on meetings, conferences, and expositions. A strong majority of planners (83%) worked on domestic events rather than international events – also an expected finding.

City hotels were the preferred venue for events (56%), with resort hotels, convention centres and unique venues being chosen by less than 15% of planners. The number of events planned during 2007 ranged from 5 to 1200, with a median of 20 events. As with experience, planners were asked to give precise numbers for this question. Categories were created in groupings of 10 (Table 13). A plurality (about one in three) planned 10 or fewer events in 2007. Fifty-three percent planned 20 or fewer events.

Table 13. Number of Events Planned

No. of Events Planned	No. of Respondents	Percentage
0 – 10	100	32.3
11 – 20	64	20.6
21 – 30	34	11.0
31 – 40	23	7.4
41 – 50	28	9.0
51 – 60	11	3.5
61 – 70	3	1.0
71 – 80	5	1.6
81 – 90	7	2.3
91 – 100	10	3.2
101 +	25	8.1

N=310

Previous experience, Internet sites, and word-of-mouth recommendations were the most common resources for choosing potential destinations and venues for events (Table 14). Information from convention and visitor bureaux and destination management organizations were chosen by over 80% of planners. Research journals, magazines, and newspapers respectively were used by less than 50% of planners; however, industry publications were used by 40%. Only 3% of planners did not use any resources when researching potential destinations and 1% when researching potential venues.

Table 14. Resources Used

Resource Used	No. of Resp.	%		No. of Resp.	%
Destination			**Venue**		
None	10	3.0	None	4	1.2
Previous Experience	267	81.2	Previous Experience	257	78.1
Word of Mouth	197	59.9	Word of Mouth	222	67.5
Industry Publications	137	41.6	Industry Publications	140	42.6
Research Journals	55	16.7	Research Journals	56	17.0
Newspapers	21	6.4	Newspapers	23	7.0
Magazines	78	23.7	Magazines	82	24.9
DMOs	97	29.5	DMOs	112	34.0
CVBs	169	51.4	CVBs	171	52.0
Internet	222	67.5	Internet	237	72.0
Third Party	14	4.3	Other	28	8.5
Other	19	5.8			

N=302   *N=306*

When resources used were cross-tabulated with country of residence, there was relatively little variation among the three regions. One difference, though was that EU respondents were more likely than North American respondents to cite DMOs as a source. However, this difference may reflect terminology more than anything else (Table 15).

Table 15. Resources Used by Country

Resources Used	No. of Resp.	%	Resources	No. of Resp.	%
Destination			**Venue**		
Industry Pub.			Previous Experience		
Canada	57	51.8	Canada	94	85.5
USA	45	45.0	USA	75	75.8
EU	35	35.4	EU	88	88.0
Newspapers			Word of Mouth		
Canada	6	5.5	Canada	84	76.4
USA	3	3.0	USA	66	66.7
EU	12	12.2	EU	72	72.0
Magazines			Industry Publications		
Canada	24	21.8	Canada	58	52.7
USA	23	23.2	USA	44	44.4
EU	31	31.3	EU	38	38.0
DMOs			Newspapers		
Canada	28	25.5	Canada	7	6.4
USA	29	29.3	USA	4	4.0
EU	40	40.4	EU	12	12.0

CVBs			DMOs		
Canada	66	60.0	Canada	31	28.2
USA	57	57.6	USA	33	33.3
EU	46	46.5	EU	48	48.0
Internet			CVBs		
Canada	83	75.5	Canada	69	62.7
USA	65	65.7	USA	51	51.5
EU	74	74.7	EU	51	51.0
			Internet		
			Canada	90	81.8
			USA	67	67.7
			EU	80	80.0

N=302   *N=306*

Several event management textbooks refer to four types of risk management strategies (Goldblatt, 2008; Allen, et al., 2002; Fenich, 2005). Planners were asked to rate their use of these four risk strategies (avoidance, reduction, transference, and retention) (Rutherford Silvers, 2008) (Table 16). Avoidance is the removal of event elements that are considered a risk liability or hazard, such as removing pyrotechnics from a program. Reduction involves the implementation of loss prevention methods and strategies to lessen the potential impact, likelihood, and/or consequences of a potential risk, such as hiring security officers to patrol exhibitions for theft. Transference is the reallocation of liability for, and impact of, a risk to a third party, such as taking out insurance. Retention is the conscious acceptance of a risk, with no special effort to control it, and acceptance of the potential liability. None of the strategies were consistently used by more than 27% of planners; in fact the "occasional use" category garnered the largest percentages in the categories of avoidance (38%) and retention (38%). When strategies were examined by country, transference was "always" used most often by Canadian planners (36%); whereas both USA and EU planners "always" used reduction most often. Canadian planners demonstrated the highest "always" use in all four strategy categories.

Table 16. Risk Strategies

Risk Strategy	Never Use (%)	Occasionally Use (%)	Regularly Use (%)	Always Use (%)	Rating Average	Number
Avoidance	71 (24.1)	112 (38.0)	79 (26.8)	33 (11.2)	2.25	295
Reduction	29 (9.8)	75 (25.4)	111 (37.6)	80 (27.1)	2.82	295
Transference	57 (19.4)	77 (26.2)	82 (27.9)	78 (26.5)	2.62	294
Retention	102 (34.9)	111 (38.0)	59 (20.2)	20 (6.8)	1.99	292

5.4   Events Industry Risk Perception

A Likert-type scale was used to ask planners to rate 11 potential risk elements as to their

likelihood of occurrence. This scale was created using the examples from the in-depth

interviews. As this scale was used to measure the risk perception and is central to all seven

hypotheses, its internal consistency was tested using Cronbach's Alpha (Table 17).   An α

of 0.7 indicates acceptable reliability, and 0.8 or higher indicates good reliability (Allison,

1999). As can be seen the scale achieved an α of 0.821 indicating good reliability. In

addition, the individual elements of the scale also displayed good reliability. Thus, the

eleven proposed sources of risk are deemed to represent an internally consistent scale for

assessing perceived probabilities of risk in events.

Table 17. Cronbach's Alpha

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.821	11

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Food and Beverage	17.5000	14.330	0.538	0.802
Transportation	17.0576	14.711	.471	.809
Contracts	17.2122	14.529	.475	.808
Financial	17.0144	15.083	.363	.820
Health	17.5396	14.827	.525	.804
Alcohol	17.5468	14.610	.474	.808
Terrorism	17.7086	15.348	.397	.815

Accidents	17.5000	14.410	.578	.799
Weather &/or Nat. Hazards	17.3957	14.688	.490	.807
People	17.4065	14.675	.512	.805
Crime	17.7014	14.571	.575	.800

Planners were asked to rate 11 potential sources of risk in terms of their probability of occurrence (Table 18). Finances were rated as the most likely source by 31% of the respondents, followed by transportation at 25%, and contracts at 21%. None of the other sources of risk were cited as having a high probability of occurring by more than 12% of respondents. Crime was rated by 60% of respondents as having a low chance of occurrence – the form of risk most widely seen as having a low probability of occurring. Terrorism (59% of respondents), alcohol (50%), and food and beverage (46%) were also seen as not very likely to be sources of risk.

Table 18. Risk Perceptions

Risk Element	Low	Moderate	High
Food and Beverage	45.5 % (122)	44.8% (120)	9.7% (26)
Transportation	16.0% (43)	58.6% (157)	25.4 (68%)
Contracts	25.5% (67)	53.2% (140)	21.3% (56)
Financial	16.5% (43)	52.1% (136)	31.4% (82)
Health	45.1% (120)	50.8% (135)	4.1% (11)
Alcohol	49.6% (130)	40.8% (107)	9.5% (25)
Terrorism	58.6% (156)	36.8% (98)	4.5% (12)
Accidents	42.7% (114)	50.9% (136)	6.4% (17)
Weather/Natural Hazards	34.3% (92)	54.1% (145)	11.6% (31)
People	33.7% (90)	56.2% (150)	10.1% (27)
Crime	60.3% (161)	35.2% (94)	4.5% (12)

N=267

The 11 potential sources of risk were rated on a 7-point scale (1 = poor probability of occurrence, 7 = high probability of occurrence) reflecting the probability of occurrence (Table 19). The distribution of responses is shown in Figure 8, and indicates a positively skewed distribution, with a symmetrical curve.   The highest means were associated with

finances (4.40), transportation (4.30), and contracts (3.92). This indicates a general

perception by respondents of only a moderate chance of their occurrence. Terrorism

(2.57), crime (2.58), and health (2.97) had the lowest rating averages, indicating a

perception of low chance of occurrence. The remaining risk elements (food and beverage,

alcohol, accidents, weather and/or other natural hazards, and people) had averages of 3.00

to 3.42, indicating a perception of low-to-moderate probability of occurrence.

Table 19. Mean Probability Ratings of Risk Sources

Risk Element	Mean	Number
Food and Beverage	3.10	304
Transportation	4.30	304
Contracts	3.92	299
Financial	4.40	297
Health	2.97	301
Alcohol	3.00	297
Terrorism	2.57	299
Accidents	3.11	303
Weather and/or Natural Hazards	3.39	304
People	3.42	303
Crime	2.58	303

(1= low probability; 7 = high probability)

Figure 8. Histogram of Risk Element Scale
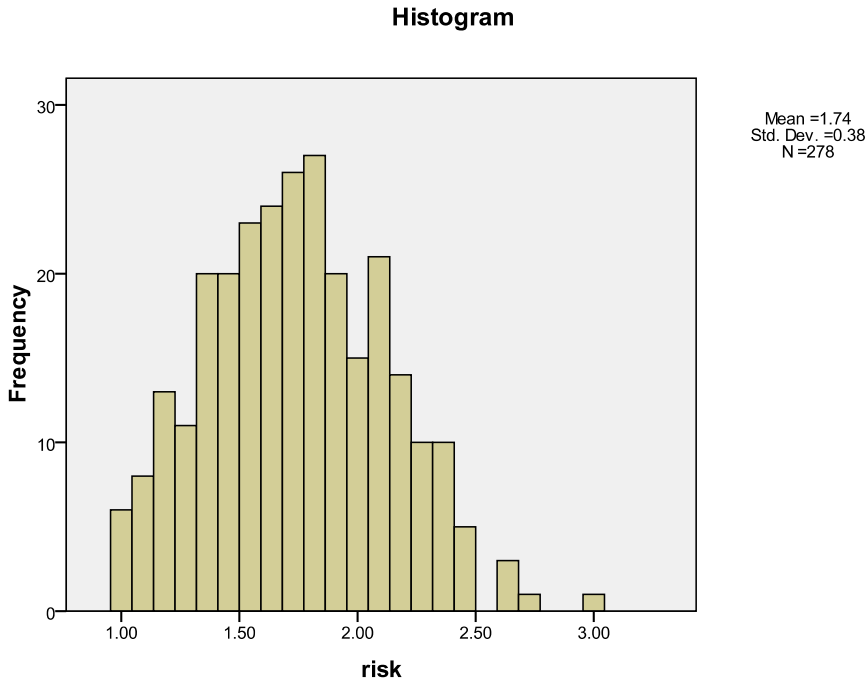
5.5   *Dimensions of Risk*

An exploratory factor analysis was undertaken to assess whether the sources of risk might be reflections of a smaller number of hidden or latent factors. In other words, are there some common dimensions or structures among the 11 risk sources identified in this research? The following addresses the results of an analysis intended to answer this question.

The analysis was conducted for the combined data set (all respondents) as well as for the three geographical subsets (Canada, EU, and USA). Because the results were similar for all four sets, only results for the combined set is shown here.

Two initial tests were conducted to determine whether the data set was a reasonable candidate for factor analysis. The first was the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of

Sampling Adequacy. KMO is based on correlation and partial correlations measures for each variable, and provides a preliminary indication of whether a set of variables could potentially provide an interpretable factor analysis. It reflects, in part, the degree of multicollinearity among individual variables. Individual KMO statistics are calculated from each variable and then summed for the entire data set. The KMO for a set of variables being tested will range from 0.0 to .10. A rule-of-thumb for the results of a KMO test is to use a set of variables in a factor analysis only when the overall KMO is $\geq$ 0.6.

Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (BTS) was also conducted. BTS is a measure of the degree to which the bivariate correlation matrix of the variables differs from an identity matrix – that is, a matrix in which the main diagonal has values of 1.0 and all other cells have values of 0.0. BTS is a form of Chi-square test, where the null hypothesis is that the correlation matrix is not an identity matrix. In other words, if the results of a BTS are significant (probability values ≤ 0.05), one can conclude the correlation matrix may be appropriate for a factor analysis.

The results of these two tests are shown in Table 20. Both KMO and BTS met the levels expected for a successful factor analysis, so such an analysis was undertaken.

Table 20. Results of KMO and BST

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0.851
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	844.348
	df	55
	Sig.	0.000

The factor analysis was conducted using the conventions of varimax rotation and an eigenvalue threshold of 1.0. The analysis was conducted for the combined data set (all respondents) as well as for the three geographical subsets (Canada, EU, and USA).

Table 21 presents the extracted communalties. While there is some debate about the minimum value of communalities required to conduct a meaningful factor analysis, MacCallum, et al. (1999:96) suggest that every communality should be greater than 0.6, or the mean value of all communalities should be at least 0.7. A review of the extracted communalities in Table 20 reveals that they fall substantially short of either criterion. Only three are above the minimum of 0.6. This indicates that there is little underlying coherent structure within the responses to the perceptions of probability of risk occurring in the 11 possible sources. As a result, any useful factor structure was unlikely to emerge. Still, to test this speculation, a factor analysis was conducted.

Table 21. Communalties

	Extracted Communality
Food and Beverage	0.444
Transportation	0.408
Contracts	0.706
Financial	0.642
Health	0.503
Alcohol	0.322
Terrorism	0.311
Accidents	0.659
Weather and/or Natural Hazards	0.420
People	0.401
Crime	0.576

The rotated solution for the factor analysis of the complete data set is shown in Table 22. Two factors emerged with eigenvalues above 1.0, explaining 38.9%, and 12.1%

of variance, respectively. The first factor has highest loadings in accidents, crime, health, and weather and/or natural hazards. These factors are related in that they are external forces over which an event planner would have little control or influence.

The remaining risks (food and beverage, transportation, alcohol, terrorism, and people) are a combination of external and internal forces. Food and beverage and alcohol are generally contracted out to suppliers, effectively transferring the responsibility for managing these risks to a third party. Transportation and terrorism are external forces for which an event planner may institute strategies for managing potential risks; however they are largely out of their control. The risk of people is also an external force; however, as events rely on the gathering of people, this is an element for which event planners must exercise due diligence in ensuring as safe an environment as possible.

However, the fact remains that a factor analytic approach failed to identify a clear latent structure in the entire data set or in the subsets of each geographical sub-sample, so further comment is not warranted.

Table 22. Factor Solution

	Factor	
	1	2
Eigenvalue	4.0566	1.355
Variance explained (%)	38.875	12.139
Food and Beverage	0.520	0.417
Transportation	0.326	0.549
Contracts	0.123	0.831
Financial	0.007	0.801
Health	0.706	0.072
Alcohol	0.474	0.312
Terrorism	0.548	0.105
Accidents	0.808	0.080
Weather and/or Natural Hazards	0.610	0.217

People	0.479	0.414
Crime	0.747	0.131

5.6   *Regression Analysis*

A series of regression analyses was employed to test the ability of four independent

variables (gender, education, country of residence, experience) to "predict" both the risk

perception scale (Table 23) and the 11 individual risk elements. The risk scale scores were

averaged in order to create the same metric as used for the individual risk elements.

Education and country of residence were recoded as a series of dummy variables, with

each of the possible responses coded as "1" or "0" except for a referent category. For

education, the category of "none" was chosen as the referent category. Included in the

category of "industry" were individual industry courses and industry certification, "formal"

included diploma, college/university certification, undergraduate, and graduate education,

and "both" included responses that indicated a combination of industry and formal

education. Canada was the referent category for country of residence, with the USA and

EU representing the coded variables.

Table 23. Risk Perception Scale Regression

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	0.149[a]	0.022	-0.004	0.37646	1.922

a.   Predictors: (Constant), both, EU, Yrs of Experience, formal, Gender, USA, ind
b.   Dependent Variable: risk

ANOVA[b]

Model	Sum of Square	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	0.830	7	0.119	0.839	0.558[a]
Residual	36.565	258	0.142		
Total	37.394	265			

a.   Predictors: (Constant), both, EU, Yrs of Experience, formal, Gender, USA, ind

b. Dependent Variable: risk

Coefficients[a]

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients B	Unstandardized Coefficients Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.
Constant	1.703	0.094		18.134	0.000
Gender	0.040	0.065	0.043	0.623	0.534
Yrs of Experience	0.003	0.003	0.062	0.947	0.344
USA	0.017	0.057	0.021	0.293	0.770
EU	-0.042	0.061	-0.052	-0.680	0.497
ind	-0.050	0.062	-0.066	-0.803	0.423
formal	-0.045	0.092	-0.035	-0.488	0.626
both	0.072	0.085	0.066	0.852	0.395

The predictor variables were entered as a block in a stepwise regression because there were no *a priori* expectations or questions about the relative importance of the independent variables. The results (see Appendix H) indicate that only one of the dependent variables, weather and/or natural hazards as a source of risk, was significantly correlated ($p = 0.031$) with any of the independent variables (Table 24). In this case, it was positively correlated with USA residence (yes/no). In other words, USA residents were more likely to perceive weather and/or natural hazards as a source of risk compared to Canadians. However, the R-square was only about 0.05, which probably is not practically meaningful. As a result, it was concluded that further regression analysis of the gender, education, country of residence, and experience was not warranted, and that simpler nonparametric cross-tabulation were appropriate for testing the questions.

Table 24.   Weather and/or Natural Hazards Regression

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	0.299[a]	0.052	0.029	0.63123	2.022

    a.   Predictors: (Constant), both, EU, Yrs of Experience, formal, Gender, USA, ind
    b.   Dependent Variable: risk

ANOVA[b]

Model	Sum of Square	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	6.246	7	0.892	2.239	0.031[a]
Residual	113.162	284	0.398		
Total	119.408	291			

    a.   Predictors: (Constant), both, EU, Yrs of Experience, formal, Gender, USA, ind
    b.   Dependent Variable: risk

Coefficients[a]

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients B	Unstandardized Coefficients Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.
Constant	1.537	0.149		10.325	0.000
Gender	0.124	0.104	0.078	1.197	0.232
Yrs of Experience	0.006	0.005	0.073	1.195	0.233
USA	0.180	0.091	0.132	1.1972	0.050
EU	-0.080	0.099	-0.058	-0.808	0.420
ind	0.053	0.098	0.041	0.544	0.587
formal	-0.070	0.150	-0.031	-0.465	0.642
both	0.108	0.138	0.056	0.781	0.436

5.7   Education, Experience, and Gender Questions

Question 1:   Is there a relationship between event management education and risk perception?

Frequency tables revealed that only a small portion of respondents had no formal event management education (17%); a plurality (47%) had taken industry courses; and approximately one in four (24%) had obtained industry certification (Table 25).

Table 25. Event Management Education

Type of Education	No. of Respondents	Percentage
None	66	17.1
Industry Courses	154	46.8
Diploma	24	6.2
Industry Certification	92	23.8
College/University Certification	25	6.5
Undergraduate	14	3.6
Graduate	12	3.1

N=297

The categories of industry courses and industry certification were combined into an "Industry" category; diploma, college/university certification, undergraduate, and graduate categories were combined into a "Post-Secondary category". Some event planners had both industry and post-secondary education, which is illustrated by the Industry/Post-Secondary category (Table 26). These categories were then analyzed using cross-tabulations and Chi-square analysis.

Table 26. Education and Risk Perceptions

Risk Element	Low	Moderate	High	χ^2	df	p=
Food and Beverage				7.616	6	0.268
None *(N=66)*						
Observed	37	23	6			
Expected	30.2	28.9	6.9			
Percentage	56.1	34.8	9.1			
Industry *(N=167)*						
Observed	71	79	17			

Expected	76.5	73.1	17.4			
Percentage	42.5	47.3	10.2			
Post-Secondary *(N=26)*						
Observed	15	8	3			
Expected	11.9	11.4	2.7			
Percentage	57.7	30.8	11.5			
Industry/Post-Sec. *(N=38)*						
Observed	13	20	5			
Expected	17.4	16.6	4.0			
Percentage	34.2	52.6	13.2			
Transportation				8.343	6	0.214
None *(N=66)*						
Observed	11	36	19			
Expected	10.9	37.8	17.3			
Percentage	16.7	54.5	28.8			
Industry *(N=167)*						
Observed	29	101	37			
Expected	27.6	95.6	43.9			
Percentage	17.4	60.5	22.2			
Post-Secondary *(N=26)*						
Observed	1	17	8			
Expected	4.3	14.9	6.8			
Percentage	3.8	65.4	30.8			
Industry/Post-Sec. *(N=38)*						
Observed	8	16	14			
Expected	6.3	21.8	10.0			
Percentage	21.1	42.1	36.8			
Contracts				3.882	6	0.693
None *(N=63)*						
Observed	15	31	17			
Expected	16.0	34.5	12.5			
Percentage	23.8	49.2	27.0			
Industry *(N=165)*						
Observed	40	95	30			
Expected	41.8	90.4	32.8			
Percentage	24.2	57.6	18.2			
Post-Secondary *(N=26)*						
Observed	9	13	4			
Expected	6.6	14.2	5.2			
Percentage	34.6	50.0	15.4			
Industry/Post-Sec. *(N=38)*						
Observed	10	21	7			
Expected	9.6	20.8	7.5			
Percentage	34.6	55.3	18.4			
Financial				4.076	6	0.666
None *(N=64)*						
Observed	11	30	23			
Expected	11.0	33.3	19.6			
Percentage	17.2	46.9	35.9			
Industry *(N=162)*						
Observed	27	84	51			

Expected	27.9	84.4	49.7			
Percentage	16.7	51.9	31.5			
Post-Secondary *(N=26)*						
Observed	6	16	4			
Expected	4.5	13.5	8.0			
Percentage	23.1	61.5	15.4			
Industry/Post-Sec. *(N=38)*						
Observed	6	21	11			
Expected	6.6	19.8	11.7			
Percentage	15.8	55.3	28.9			
Health				7.014	6	0.320
None *(N=65)*						
Observed	29	30	6			
Expected	28.1	33.8	3.1			
Percentage	44.6	46.2	9.2			
Industry *(N=166)*						
Observed	71	91	4			
Expected	71.7	86.4	7.9			
Percentage	42.8	54.8	2.4			
Post-Secondary *(N=26)*						
Observed	13	12	1			
Expected	11.2	13.5	1.2			
Percentage	50.0	46.2	3.8			
Industry/Post-Sec. *(N=37)*						
Observed	14	20	3			
Expected	16.0	19.3	1.8			
Percentage	37.8	54.1	8.1			
Alcohol				5.743	6	0.453
None *(N=64)*						
Observed	33	24	7			
Expected	31.8	25.6	6.6			
Percentage	51.6	37.5	10.9			
Industry *(N=162)*						
Observed	85	59	18			
Expected	80.4	64.8	16.8			
Percentage	52.5	36.4	11.1			
Post-Secondary *(N=26)*						
Observed	10	15	1			
Expected	12.9	10.4	2.7			
Percentage	38.5	57.7	3.8			
Industry/Post-Sec. *(N=38)*						
Observed	16	18	4			
Expected	18.9	15.2	3.9			
Percentage	42.1	47.4	10.5			
Terrorism				10.677	6	0.099
None *(N=64)*						
Observed	38	26	0			
Expected	37.7	23.0	3.3			
Percentage	59.4	40.6	.0			
Industry *(N=164)*						
Observed	96	59	9			

Expected	96.6	59.0	8.4			
Percentage	58.5	36.0	5.5			
Post-Secondary *(N=26)*						
Observed	14	11	1			
Expected	15.3	9.3	1.3			
Percentage	53.8	42.3	3.8			
Industry/Post-Sec. *(N=38)*						
Observed	24	9	5			
Expected	22.4	13.7	2.0			
Percentage	63.2	23.7	13.2			
Accidents				4.203	6	0.649
None *(N=66)*						
Observed	30	31	5			
Expected	27.4	33.4	5.1			
Percentage	45.5	47.0	7.6			
Industry *(N=166)*						
Observed	70	86	10			
Expected	69.0	84.1	12.9			
Percentage	42.2	51.8	6.0			
Post-Secondary *(N=26)*						
Observed	11	12	3			
Expected	10.8	13.2	2.0			
Percentage	42.3	46.2	11.5			
Industry/Post-Sec. *(N=38)*						
Observed	12	21	5			
Expected	15.8	19.3	3.0			
Percentage	31.6	55.3	13.2			
Weather/Natural Hazards				6.759	6	0.344
None *(N=66)*						
Observed	28	30	8			
Expected	22.7	35.6	7.8			
Percentage	42.4	45.5	12.1			
Industry *(N=167)*						
Observed	50	97	20			
Expected	57.4	90.0	19.7			
Percentage	29.9	58.1	12.0			
Post-Secondary *(N=26)*						
Observed	12	13	1			
Expected	8.9	14.0	3.1			
Percentage	46.2	50.0	3.8			
Industry/Post-Sec. *(N=38)*						
Observed	12	20	6			
Expected	13.1	20.5	4.5			
Percentage	31.6	52.6	15.8			
People				12.254	6	0.057
None *(N=66)*						
Observed	26	35	5			
Expected	23.0	36.8	6.2			
Percentage	39.4	53.0	7.6			
Industry *(N=166)*						
Observed	60	93	13			

Expected	57.8	92.5	15.7			
Percentage	36.1	56.0	7.8			
Post-Secondary *(N=26)*						
Observed	8	17	1			
Expected	9.0	14.5	2.5			
Percentage	30.8	65.4	3.8			
Industry/Post-Sec. *(N=38)*						
Observed	9	20	9			
Expected	13.2	21.2	3.6			
Percentage	23.7	52.6	23.7			
Crime				3.340	6	0.765
None *(N=65)*						
Observed	39	24	2			
Expected	39.1	23.1	2.9			
Percentage	60.0	36.9	3.1			
Industry *(N=167)*						
Observed	103	56	8			
Expected	100.4	59.2	7.3			
Percentage	61.7	33.5	4.8			
Post-Secondary *(N=26)*						
Observed	15	11	0			
Expected	15.6	9.2	1.1			
Percentage	57.7	42.3	.0			
Industry/Post-Sec. *(N=38)*						
Observed	21	14	3			
Expected	22.9	13.5	1.7			
Percentage	55.3	36.8	7.9			

Finances and transportation were perceived as having the highest probability of occurring by event planners regardless of whether or not they have formal event management education. All event planners viewed terrorism as having a low probability of occurrence, with over half of those with no education and those with both industry and post-secondary education ranking its probability as low. Crime was also seen as having a low chance of occurrence with all event planners. There were similarities in perceptions from event planners with no education and those with industry education; with the same sources of risk chosen as being highly probably (financial, transportation, contracts), or having low probability (crime, terrorism, accidents), and two of the same sources of risk at the moderate level (contracts and transportation).

Event planners with both industry and post-secondary education also assessed crime, terrorism, and accidents as being "low" sources of risk, while they identified transportation and finances as being a high source of risk. The Chi-square analysis illustrates the lack of any statistically significant relationships; although the risk element of "people" was almost significant.

Even though the Chi-square analysis did not demonstrate a statistical significance for the various risk elements, an examination of the expected and observed values does reveal some interesting information. At all levels of education, the variance between the expected and observed values occurred in a +/- 5 level. In the "None" category of education, food and beverage and weather and/or other natural hazards had more responses at the low probability level and fewer responses at the moderate probability level than expected. Event planners with industry education demonstrated differences between expected and observed values at the moderate level. Specifically, there were more responses than expected for food and beverage, transportation, contracts, health, and weather, and/or other natural hazards. Alcohol as a source of risk received fewer responses than expected at the moderate level and more at the low level than expected. Weather and/or other natural hazards had fewer responses than expected at the low probability category. The responses for transportation were less than expected at the high probability level. Post-secondary education only demonstrated a difference between expected and observed values in the alcohol risk category, with more responses at the moderate probability level. Finally for those event planners with both industry and post-secondary education, transportation received fewer responses than expected at the moderate probability level.

Question 2:   Is there a relationship between experience and risk perception?

Cross-tabulations and Chi-square analysis were used to examine patterns relating to experience level and risk perception (Table 27). Respondents were asked to provide their years of experience; these data were analyzed to ascertain if experience had any effect on risk perception. The categories of 26-30, 31-35, and 36-40 years of experience were combined due to low respondent numbers in each individual category. These three categories had only 15 respondents in total; the remaining 86 respondents had experience of 25 years or less. Generally speaking, 50% (+/- 5%) of respondents with 25 years of experience or less felt transportation, contracts, finances, health, accidents, weather and/or natural hazards, and people were moderately likely sources of risk. In contrast, 46%-60% of respondents with 26 years of experience or more felt that all sources of risk had a moderate chance of occurring, with the exception of accidents. Only 33% of these respondents believed that accidents had a moderate chance of occurring. Finances as a source of risk had the highest rating with 31%, followed by transportation with 27%.

Chi-square analysis did not indicate any significant relationship between years of experience and risk perception.

Table 27. Risk Perception and Years of Experience

Risk Element	Low	Moderate	High	χ^2	df	p=
Food and Beverage				6.558	10	0.766
0-5 Yrs *(N=55)*						
Observed	23	23	9			
Expected	24.9	24.3	5.8			
Percentage	41.8	41.8	16.4			
6-10 Yrs *(N=99)*						
Observed	46	42	11			
Expected	44.7	43.7	10.5			
Percentage	46.5	42.4	11.1			

11-15 Yrs *(N=62)*						
Observed	30	29	3			
Expected	28.0	27.4	6.6			
Percentage	48.4	46.8	4.8			
16-20 Yrs *(N=46)*						
Observed	20	22	4			
Expected	20.8	20.3	4.9			
Percentage	43.5	47.8	8.7			
21-25 Yrs *(N=24)*						
Observed	12	10	2			
Expected	10.8	10.6	2.6			
Percentage	50.0	41.7	8.3			
26-40 Yrs *(N=15)*						
Observed	5	7	3			
Expected	6.8	6.6	1.6			
Percentage	33.3	46.7	20.0			
Transportation				5.097	10	0.885
0-5 Yrs *(N=55)*						
Observed	7	30	18			
Expected	9.3	31.1	14.6			
Percentage	12.7	54.5	32.7			
6-10 Yrs *(N=99)*						
Observed	17	56	26			
Expected	16.8	55.9	26.3			
Percentage	17.2	56.6	26.3			
11-15 Yrs *(N=62)*						
Observed	14	33	15			
Expected	10.5	35.0	16.5			
Percentage	22.6	53.2	24.2			
16-20 Yrs *(N=46)*						
Observed	8	25	13			
Expected	7.8	26.0	12.2			
Percentage	17.4	54.3	28.3			
21-25 Yrs *(N=24)*						
Observed	3	17	4			
Expected	4.1	13.6	6.4			
Percentage	12.5	70.8	16.7			
26-40 Yrs *(N=15)*						
Observed	2	9	4			
Expected	2.5	8.5	4.0			
Percentage	13.3	60.0	26.7			
Contracts				7.661	10	0.662
0-5 Yrs *(N=54)*						
Observed	10	30	14			
Expected	13.5	29.2	11.3			
Percentage	18.5	55.6	25.9			
6-10 Yrs *(N=98)*						
Observed	24	51	23			
Expected	24.5	53.0	20.5			
Percentage	24.5	52.0	23.5			
11-15 Yrs *(N=61)*						

				χ²	df	p
Observed	20	33	8			
Expected	15.3	33.0	12.8			
Percentage	32.8	54.1	13.1			
16-20 *(N=45)*						
Observed	11	25	9			
Expected	11.3	24.3	9.4			
Percentage	24.4	55.6	20.0			
21-25 Yrs *(N=23)*						
Observed	4	15	4			
Expected	5.8	12.4	4.8			
Percentage	17.4	65.2	17.4			
26-40 Yrs *(N=15)*						
Observed	5	6	4			
Expected	3.8	8.1	3.1			
Percentage	33.3	40.0	26.7			
Financial				12.308	10	0.265
0-5 Yrs *(N=53)*						
Observed	7	31	15			
Expected	9.2	27.2	16.6			
Percentage	13.2	58.5	28.3			
6-10 Yrs *(N=98)*						
Observed	13	50	35			
Expected	17.0	50.3	30.7			
Percentage	13.3	51.0	35.7			
11-15 Yrs *(N=60)*						
Observed	16	28	16			
Expected	10.4	30.8	18.8			
Percentage	26.7	46.7	26.7			
16-20 Yrs *(N=46)*						
Observed	9	26	11			
Expected	8.0	23.6	14.4			
Percentage	19.6	56.5	23.9			
21-25 Yrs *(N=22)*						
Observed	2	9	11			
Expected	3.8	11.3	6.9			
Percentage	9.1	40.9	50.0			
26-40 Yrs *(N=15)*						
Observed	4	7	4			
Expected	2.6	7.7	4.7			
Percentage	26.7	46.7	26.7			
Health				13.913	10	0.177
0-5 Yrs *(N=55)*						
Observed	24	28	3			
Expected	23.8	28.6	2.6			
Percentage	43.6	50.9	5.5			
6-10 Yrs *(N=98)*						
Observed	38	58	2			
Expected	42.4	51.0	4.6			
Percentage	38.8	59.2	2.0			
11-15 Yrs *(N=61)*						
Observed	27	28	6			

Expected	26.4	31.7	2.9			
Percentage	44.3	45.9	9.8			
16-20 Yrs *(N=45)*						
Observed	24	20	1			
Expected	19.5	23.4	2.1			
Percentage	53.3	44.4	2.2			
21-25 Yrs *(N=24)*						
Observed	12	12	0			
Expected	10.4	12.5	1.1			
Percentage	50.0	50.0	.0			
26-40 Yrs *(N=15)*						
Observed	4	9	2			
Expected	6.5	7.8	.7			
Percentage	26.7	60.0	13.3			
Alcohol				9.041	10	0.528
0-5 Yrs *(N=52)*						
Observed	24	23	5			
Expected	25.6	21.0	5.3			
Percentage	46.2	44.2	9.6			
6-10 Yrs *(N=96)*						
Observed	50	36	10			
Expected	47.3	38.9	9.8			
Percentage	52.1	37.5	10.4			
11-15 Yrs *(N=62)*						
Observed	28	25	9			
Expected	30.6	25.1	6.3			
Percentage	45.2	40.3	14.5			
16-20 Yrs *(N=46)*						
Observed	24	18	4			
Expected	22.7	18.6	4.7			
Percentage	52.2	39.1	8.7			
21-25 Yrs *(N=23)*						
Observed	15	8	0			
Expected	11.3	9.3	2.3			
Percentage	65.2	34.8	.0			
26-40 Yrs *(N=15)*						
Observed	4	9	2			
Expected	7.4	6.1	1.5			
Percentage	26.7	60.0	13.3			
Terrorism				14.144	10	0.167
0-5 Yrs *(N=55)*						
Observed	40	14	1			
Expected	32.1	20.1	2.8			
Percentage	72.7	25.5	1.8			
6-10 Yrs *(N=98)*						
Observed	53	42	3			
Expected	57.3	35.8	5.0			
Percentage	54.1	42.9	3.1			
11-15 Yrs *(N=59)*						
Observed	30	25	4			
Expected	34.5	21.5	3.0			

Percentage	50.8	42.4	6.8			
16-20 Yrs *(N=45)*						
Observed	28	12	5			
Expected	26.3	16.4	2.3			
Percentage	62.2	26.7	11.1			
21-25 Yrs *(N=24)*						
Observed	15	8	1			
Expected	14.0	8.8	1.2			
Percentage	62.5	33.3	4.2			
26-40 Yrs *(N=15)*						
Observed	7	7	1			
Expected	8.8	5.5	.8			
Percentage	46.7	46.7	6.7			
Accidents				9.271	10	0.507
0-5 Yrs *(N=55)*						
Observed	26	26	3			
Expected	22.7	28.2	4.0			
Percentage	47.3	47.3	5.5			
6-10 Yrs *(N=98)*						
Observed	40	51	7			
Expected	40.5	50.3	7.2			
Percentage	40.8	52.0	7.1			
11-15 Yrs *(N=62)*						
Observed	26	30	6			
Expected	25.6	31.8	4.5			
Percentage	41.9	48.4	9.7			
16-20 Yrs *(N=46)*						
Observed	16	27	3			
Expected	19.0	23.6	3.4			
Percentage	34.8	58.7	6.5			
21-25 Yrs *(N=24)*						
Observed	9	15	0			
Expected	9.9	12.3	1.8			
Percentage	37.5	62.5	.0			
26-40 Yrs *(N=15)*						
Observed	7	5	3			
Expected	6.2	7.7	1.1			
Percentage	46.7	33.3	20.0			
Weather/Natural Hazards				3.421	10	0.970
0-5 Yrs *(N=55)*						
Observed	20	28	7			
Expected	18.6	29.8	6.6			
Percentage	36.4	50.9	12.7			
6-10 Yrs *(N=99)*						
Observed	34	56	9			
Expected	33.5	53.6	11.8			
Percentage	34.3	56.6	9.1			
11-15 Yrs *(N=62)*						
Observed	19	35	8			
Expected	21.0	33.6	7.4			
Percentage	30.6	56.5	12.9			

16-20 Yrs *(N=46)*						
Observed	17	22	7			
Expected	15.6	24.9	5.5			
Percentage	37.0	47.8	15.2			
21-25 Yrs *(N=24)*						
Observed	6	15	3			
Expected	8.1	13.0	2.9			
Percentage	25.0	62.5	12.5			
26-40 Yrs *(N=15)*						
Observed	6	7	2			
Expected	5.1	8.1	1.8			
Percentage	40.0	46.7	13.3			
People				4.808	10	0.904
0-5 Yrs *(N=55)*						
Observed	15	36	4			
Expected	18.9	30.6	5.5			
Percentage	27.3	65.5	7.3			
6-10 Yrs *(N=99)*						
Observed	36	52	11			
Expected	34.0	55.1	9.9			
Percentage	36.4	52.5	11.1			
11-15 Yrs *(N=62)*						
Observed	25	31	6			
Expected	21.3	34.5	6.2			
Percentage	40.3	50.0	9.7			
16-20 Yrs *(N=45)*						
Observed	13	27	5			
Expected	15.5	25.1	4.5			
Percentage	28.9	60.0	11.1			
21-25 Yrs *(N=24)*						
Observed	8	14	2			
Expected	8.2	13.4	2.4			
Percentage	33.3	58.3	8.3			
26-40 Yrs *(N=15)*						
Observed	6	7	2			
Expected	5.2	8.4	1.5			
Percentage	40.0	46.7	13.3			
Crime				10.306	10	0.414
0-5 Yrs *(N=55)*						
Observed	38	15	2			
Expected	33.0	19.6	2.4			
Percentage	69.1	27.3	3.6			
6-10 Yrs *(N=98)*						
Observed	57	38	3			
Expected	58.8	35.0	4.2			
Percentage	58.2	38.8	3.1			
11-15 Yrs *(N=62)*						
Observed	35	24	3			
Expected	37.2	22.1	2.7			
Percentage	56.5	38.7	4.8			
16-20 Yrs *(N=46)*						

Observed	32	12	2			
Expected	27.6	16.4	2.0			
Percentage	69.6	26.1	4.3			
21-25 Yrs *(N=24)*						
Observed	13	9	2			
Expected	14.4	8.6	1.0			
Percentage	54.2	37.5	8.3			
26-40 Yrs *(N=15)*						
Observed	5	9	1			
Expected	9.0	5.4	.7			
Percentage	33.3	60.0	6.7			

As with education, the observed and expected values were examined for differences with experience. The variance for experience was in a range of +/- 5-8, with +8 for the low probability level in connection with terrorism as a source of risk. For event planners with 0-5 years of experience, terrorism and crime had more responses than expected at the low probability level, less responses than expected at the moderate probability level for terrorism, and more responses than expected at the moderate probability level for people. This group of event planners were the only ones who responded less than expected at the moderate level for the risk element of terrorism. With 6-10 years of experience, health and terrorism demonstrated more responses than expected at the moderate probability level, and more responses than expected at the high probability level. Contracts and financial risks garnered more responses than expected at the low probability level for event planners with 11-15 years of experience. Event planners with 16-20 years of experience responded more than expected at the low probability level in the areas of health and crime, whereas those event planners with 21-25 years of experience responded more than expected at the high probability level for financial. Event planners with 26-40 years of experience demonstrated consistency in all observed versus expected responses (within 5%).

Question 3:   Does gender influence risk perception?

Cross-tabulations and Chi-square analysis were used to assess the potential relationship

between gender and risk perceptions (Table 28). The perception of food and beverage, and

weather and/or other natural hazards as sources of risk showed a strong gender-related

connection. Female event planners were more likely to view the probability of both these

sources of risk as having moderate to high probability of occurring, compared to their male

counterparts. Although not statistically significant, female event planners appeared to

believe that alcohol, terrorism, and people were more likely to be sources of risk than male

event planners.

Table 28. Gender and Risk Perception

Risk Element	Low	Moderate	High	χ^2	df	p=
Food & Beverage				9.577	2	0.008
Female *(N=239)*						
Observed	98	113	28			
Expected	108.8	104.8	25.4			
Percentage	41.0	47.3	11.7			
Male *(N=62)*						
Observed	39	19	4			
Expected	28.2	27.2	6.6			
Percentage	62.9	30.6	6.5			
Transportation				.759	2	0.684
Female *(N=239)*						
Observed	42	132	65			
Expected	40.5	135.0	63.5			
Percentage	17.6	55.2	27.2			
Male *(N=62)*						
Observed	9	38	15			
Expected	10.5	35.0	16.5			
Percentage	14.5	61.3	24.2			
Contracts				.508	2	0.776
Female *(N=236)*						
Observed	59	130	47			
Expected	60.6	127.6	47.8			
Percentage	25.0	55.1	19.9			
Male *(N=60)*						
Observed	17	30	13			
Expected	15.4	32.4	12.2			
Percentage	28.3	50.0	21.7			

Financial				.420	2	0.811
Female *(N=234)*						
Observed	42	119	73			
Expected	40.6	121.0	72.4			
Percentage	17.9	50.9	31.2			
Male *(N=60)*						
Observed	9	33	18			
Expected	10.4	31.0	18.6			
Percentage	15.0	55.0	30.0			
Health				1.589	2	0.452
Female *(N=236)*						
Observed	98	126	12			
Expected	102.2	122.8	11.1			
Percentage	41.5	53.4	5.1			
Male *(N=62)*						
Observed	31	29	2			
Expected	26.8	32.2	2.9			
Percentage	50.0	46.8	3.2			
Alcohol				3.144	2	0.208
Female *(N=233)*						
Observed	111	95	27			
Expected	115.7	93.5	23.8			
Percentage	47.6	40.8	11.6			
Male *(N=61)*						
Observed	35	23	3			
Expected	30.3	24.5	6.2			
Percentage	57.4	37.7	4.9			
Terrorism				1.836	2	0.399
Female *(N=236)*						
Observed	138	84	14			
Expected	138.7	85.3	12.0			
Percentage	58.8	35.6	5.9			
Male *(N=60)*						
Observed	36	23	1			
Expected	35.3	21.7	3.0			
Percentage	60.0	38.3	1.7			
Accidents				1.060	2	0.589
Female *(N=238)*						
Observed	99	119	20			
Expected	98.4	121.4	18.2			
Percentage	41.6	50.0	8.4			
Male *(N=62)*						
Observed	25	34	3			
Expected	25.6	31.6	4.8			
Percentage	40.3	54.8	4.8			
Weather/Natural Hazards				6.575	2	0.037
Female *(N=239)*						
Observed	77	129	33			
Expected	82.6	128.6	27.8			
Percentage	32.2	54.0	13.8			

Male *(N=62)*						
Observed	27	33	2			
Expected	21.4	33.4	7.2			
Percentage	43.5	53.2	3.2			
People				2.432	2	0.296
Female *(N=238)*						
Observed	79	134	25			
Expected	82.5	133.3	22.2			
Percentage	33.2	56.3	10.5			
Male *(N=62)*						
Observed	25	34	3			
Expected	21.5	34.7	5.8			
Percentage	40.3	54.8	4.8			
Crime				.411	2	0.814
Female *(N=239)*						
Observed	143	84	12			
Expected	142.6	85.2	11.2			
Percentage	59.8	35.1	5.0			
Male *(N=61)*						
Observed	36	23	2			
Expected	36.4	21.8	2.8			
Percentage	59.0	37.7	3.3			

When examining the observed versus expected responses for gender, food and beverage, and weather and/or other natural hazards reveal statistically significant differences between females and males. Female event planners responded less than expected at the low probability level for food and beverage, and weather and/or other natural hazards. They also responded more than expected at the moderate probability level for food and beverage and more than expected at the high probability level for weather and/or other natural hazards. Male event planners demonstrated the opposite pattern for these same risk elements and probability levels: more at the low probability level for food and beverage and weather and/or other natural hazards, less at the moderate probability level for food and beverage and less at the high probability level for weather and/or other natural hazards.

Although not statistically significant, female event planners responded less frequently than expected at the low probability level for health, and more than expected at the moderate probability level for health. Male event planners responded more than expected at the low probability level for health and alcohol.

5.8   *Country of Residence Questions*

Question 4:   Does the country of residence of the event planner affect risk perception?

Cross-tabulation and Chi-square were used to examine the relationship of country of residence to sources of risk (Table 29). Cross-tabulation indicated that the location of the respondents' residence had the greatest influence on risk perceptions in the moderate chance of occurrence category. Food and beverage, terrorism, and people showed the largest variation among geographic areas; whereas perceptions of risks associated with weather and/or natural hazards were generally similar across the three regions.

Canadian event planners perceived the potential risk sources of food and beverage, transportation, health, alcohol, and people as more likely to have a moderate chance of occurrence than European or USA planners. EU planners perceived contracts, financial, and crime risks as more likely to have a moderate chance of occurrence than did Canadians or USA planners. USA event planners perceived terrorism as more likely to have a moderate chance of occurrence than Canadian or EU planners. Chi-square indicated that there was a statistically significant relationship between geographic origin of planners and their perceptions of food and beverage, health, alcohol, and weather and/or other natural hazards as potential source of risk.

Table 29. Country of residence and Risk Perception

Risk Element	Low	Moderate	High	χ^2	df	p=
Food and Beverage				11.967	4	0.018
Canada *(N=109)*						
Observed	37	59	13			
Expected	49.5	48.0	11.5			
Percentage	33.9	54.1	11.9			
USA *(N=98)*						
Observed	45	43	10			
Expected	44.5	43.2	10.3			
Percentage	45.9	43.9	10.2			
EU *(N=97)*						
Observed	56	32	9			
Expected	44.0	42.8	10.2			
Percentage	57.7	33.0	9.3			
Transportation				5.472	4	0.242
Canada *(N=109)*						
Observed	13	71	25			
Expected	18.3	62.0	28.7			
Percentage	11.9	65.1	22.9			
USA *(N=98)*						
Observed	20	52	26			
Expected	16.4	55.8	25.8			
Percentage	20.4	53.1	26.5			
EU *(N=97)*						
Observed	18	50	29			
Expected	16.3	55.2	25.5			
Percentage	20.4	51.5	29.9			
Contracts				7.169	4	0.127
Canada *(N=109)*						
Observed	27	61	21			
Expected	27.7	58.7	22.6			
Percentage	24.8	56.0	19.3			
USA *(N=96)*						
Observed	22	46	28			
Expected	24.4	51.7	19.9			
Percentage	22.9	47.9	29.2			
EU *(N=94)*						
Observed	27	54	13			
Expected	23.9	50.6	19.5			
Percentage	28.7	57.4	13.8			
Financial				4.231	4	0.376
Canada *(N=106)*						
Observed	21	55	30			
Expected	18.2	54.6	33.2			
Percentage	19.8	51.9	28.3			
USA *(N=97)*						
Observed	12	48	37			
Expected	16.7	50.0	30.4			

Percentage	12.4	49.5	38.1			
EU *(N=94)*						
Observed	18	50	26			
Expected	16.1	48.4	29.4			
Percentage	19.1	53.2	27.7			
Health				9.926	4	0.042
Canada *(N=107)*						
Observed	34	68	5			
Expected	46.2	22.8	5.0			
Percentage	31.8	63.6	4.7			
USA *(N=97)*						
Observed	51	42	4			
Expected	41.9	50.6	4.5			
Percentage	52.6	43.3	4.1			
EU *(N=97)*						
Observed	45	47	5			
Expected	41.9	50.6	4.5			
Percentage	46.4	48.5	5.2			
Alcohol				11.948	4	0.018
Canada *(N=108)*						
Observed	47	50	11			
Expected	53.5	43.6	10.9			
Percentage	43.5	46.3	10.2			
USA *(N=94)*						
Observed	42	37	15			
Expected	46.5	38.0	9.5			
Percentage	44.7	39.4	16.0			
EU *(N=95)*						
Observed	58	33	4			
Expected	47.0	38.4	9.6			
Percentage	61.1	34.7	4.2			
Terrorism				6.908	4	0.141
Canada *(N=107)*						
Observed	72	32	3			
Expected	62.6	39.0	5.4			
Percentage	67.3	29.9	2.8			
USA *(N=96)*						
Observed	48	42	6			
Expected	56.2	35.0	4.8			
Percentage	50.0	43.8	6.3			
EU *(N=96)*						
Observed	55	35	6			
Expected	56.2	35.0	4.8			
Percentage	57.3	36.5	6.3			
Accidents				1.568	4	0.815
Canada *(N=108*						
Observed	41	57	10			
Expected	44.6	55.2	8.2			
Percentage	38.0	52.8	9.3			
USA *(N=98)*						

Observed	40	51	7			
Expected	40.4	50.1	7.4			
Percentage	40.8	52.0	7.1			
EU *(N=97)*						
Observed	44	47	6			
Expected	40.0	49.6	7.4			
Percentage	45.4	48.5	6.2			
Weather/Natural Hazards				13.128	4	0.011
Canada *(N=109)*						
Observed	37	59	13			
Expected	37.3	58.8	12.9			
Percentage	33.9	54.1	11.9			
USA *(N=98)*						
Observed	26	53	19			
Expected	33.5	52.9	11.6			
Percentage	26.5	54.1	19.4			
EU *(N=97)*						
Observed	41	52	4			
Expected	33.2	52.3	11.5			
Percentage	42.3	53.6	4.1			
People				6.778	4	0.148
Canada *(N=109)*						
Observed	29	67	13			
Expected	37.4	60.8	10.8			
Percentage	26.6	61.5	11.9			
USA *(N=97)*						
Observed	41	46	10			
Expected	33.3	54.1	9.6			
Percentage	42.3	47.4	10.3			
EU *(N=97)*						
Observed	34	56	7			
Expected	33.3	54.1	9.6			
Percentage	35.1	57.7	7.2			
Crime				5.475	4	0.242
Canada *(N=109)*						
Observed	68	35	6			
Expected	65.1	38.9	5.0			
Percentage	62.4	32.1	5.5			
USA *(N=98)*						
Observed	64	30	4			
Expected	58.5	34.9	4.5			
Percentage	65.3	30.6	4.1			
EU *(N=96)*						
Observed	49	43	4			
Expected	57.3	34.2	4.4			
Percentage	51.0	44.8	4.2			

Cross-tabulations indicated that terrorism was not viewed as a high source of risk by event planners from any country of residence, and the Chi-Square analysis did not indicate a statistical significance. Although planners from each country perceived terrorism as having only a low chance of occurrence; event planners from the USA tended to perceive terrorism as having a moderate chance of occurrence more often than planners in the two other jurisdictions who tended to give terrorism an even lower probability of occurring.

Contracts are seen as being a high source of risk more often for event planners from the USA, than those from Canada or the EU. Although the results tentatively suggest USA planners are somewhat more likely to view contract risks as having a higher probability of occurring, the differences among the three jurisdictions are not statistically significant.

Although European event planners perceived transportation as having a high chance of being a source of risk more often than planners from Canada or the USA, Canadian event planners perceived this source of risk as having a moderate chance of occurrence with a larger frequency than either EU or USA planners. The Chi-square value indicates a non-significant relationship between transportation and country of residence, meaning that any observed differences are likely due to chance only.

The expected versus observed values demonstrate some results that are important to outline. For example, Canadian event planners had differences between the expected and observed values in the elements of food and beverage and health (which were statistically significant) and at the low and moderate levels for all risk elements. Only terrorism had more responses than expected at the low probability level and less at the moderate probability level than the USA or European event planners. In addition, health had the

largest variance for all event planners and risk elements, at the moderate probability level with a 46 more responses than expected.

USA event planners responses differed with more responses than expected at the high probability level. For example, contracts, financial, alcohol and weather and/or other natural hazards had more responses than expected at the high probability level. Contracts, health, and people received fewer responses than expected at the moderate probability level, while terrorism received more responses than expected at the same probability level. At the low probability level health, people and crime had more responses than expected, whereas terrorism and weather and/or other natural hazards had less responses than expected.

European event planners had fewer than expected responses at the high probability level than Canadian or USA event planners in the risk elements of contracts, alcohol, and weather and/or other natural hazards. Food and beverage, transportation, and alcohol had less responses than expected at the moderate probability level, whereas crime had more responses. Food and beverage, alcohol and weather and/or other natural hazards had more responses than expected at the low probability level and crime had fewer responses than expected.

5.9   *Summary*

Chapter 6 discusses the results of the survey, makes conclusions related to the model of risk perception, and suggests avenues for future research in this area.

CHAPTER SIX

Discussion, Conclusions, and Future Research

6.1   Discussion

The following discussion is an interpretation of the results in Chapter 5 and presents

comments from the open-ended questions that were part of the on-line survey. These

comments are provided to add richness to the patterns. It is not surprising that, based on

the curve illustrated by the histogram (Figure 8, page 60), the majority of the variation in

the results occurs in the moderate level.

6.1.1   Education and Experience

As mentioned in the literature review, familiarity (Johnson, 1993) is the idea that the

knowledge or exposure an individual has to an event or situation, has an influence on risk

perception. If a negative experience has occurred, such as an allergic reaction, then the

event planner is likely to perceive food and beverage as a higher risk in future events. On

the other hand, if the event planner had developed a risk strategy that was successful, such

as supervision of articles left in the meeting room resulting in no thefts, then the event

planner is likely to view crime as a lower risk in future events as the strategy for dealing

with the risk was sufficient to overcome it. Dread, the second concept influencing risk

perception, is characterized by a perceived lack of control and the potential for fatal

consequences (Johnson, 1993). In this study, dread was difficult to separate from

familiarity as sources of risk that demonstrated dread characteristics, such as terrorism,

accidents, and crime, were also influenced by education, social networks and experience

(familiarity). For example, terrorism has been a frequent topic in event management

education since the September 11, 2001 attacks. Event planners with event management education (all categories) did not view terrorism as having a moderate or high probability of occurrence, as they were likely exposed to management strategies in the course of their instruction. On the other hand, event planners' perception of the risk of terrorism having a high probability of occurrence showed a decrease through the first three age categories, and then an increase in the final three age categories (Table 30).

Table 30. Experience and Risk Perception Levels

	0-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	21-25	26-40
Food & Beverage	16.4	11.1	4.8	8.7	8.3	20.0
Transportation	32.7	26.3	24.2	28.3	16.7	26.7
Contracts	25.9	23.5	13.1	20.0	17.4	26.7
Financial	28.3	35.7	26.7	23.9	50.0	26.7
Health	5.5	2.0	9.8	2.2	0	13.3
Alcohol	9.6	10.4	14.5	8.7	0	13.3
Terrorism	1.8	3.1	6.8	11.1	4.2	6.7
Accidents	5.5	7.1	9.7	6.5	0	20.0
W NH	12.7	9.1	12.9	15.2	12.5	13.3
People	7.3	11.1	9.7	11.1	8.3	13.3
Crime	3.6	3.1	4.8	4.3	8.3	6.7

Over 50% of event planners in this study had gained practical knowledge of event industry risks through a combination of experience, events planned, and resources utilized. Fifty-four percent of planners had six to 15 years of experience, only 17% had zero to five years of experience. In addition, 33% of respondents planned between 11-30 events in 2007. Finally, 47% of planners had taken industry courses. One could speculate that those event planners with 0-5 years experience would likely have event management education, leading to a higher risk perception as they have not been exposed to many risks. Those event planners with 6-10 and 11-15 years experience also likely have event management education as well, resulting in a lower perception of the 11 risk elements. When moving to

the 16-20 and 21-25 years of experience categories, there is a possibility of less event management education, meaning that they were not instructed in the risk management strategies of the more novice event planners. Finally the 26-40 years of experience category demonstrates an increase in risk perception. For this group, it is speculated that they possibly have little event management education and/or are employed in a more supervisory role, removing them from the consequences of risks.

The above speculation needs to consider that overall the risk perceptions of event planners had a mean of 1.74, suggesting that overall risk is an accepted part of planning events. This is illustrated through the responses collected from an open-ended question in the on-line survey. Respondents were provided with the opportunity to comment on their experiences with any of the 11 sources of risk. A total of 178 comments were made; many of which support the argument that familiarity reduces risk perception.

> *Injuries and health issues have occurred at many events. Weather as well. But nothing major.*
>
> *Flight delays and no shows are pretty common with corporate events.*
>
> *I believe that all planners have tried to see customers break a contract or foreign no-shows. Furthermore we have in all countries seen strikes in airports...*
>
> *Transportation – every program has at least one delay it seems Contracts – every contract has the potential for cancellation or attrition*
>
> *delayed/cancelled flights are a occupational hazard*
>
> *Have experienced all of the risks checked above the moderate level.*
>
> *basic problems such as injuries during team building activities, heavy drinking, flight delays and airports changes*
>
> *No shows are a common occurance at most conferences*

Not in any serious way; we've had delegates become ill onsite but they were treated and there was no risk to us/our client

The risks are always there regardless of the year or type of conference. It's how you handle it that makes the difference.

Event planners with formal event management education are exposed to both knowledge and culture influences. Instruction in risk addresses assessment and management strategies, thereby increasing their exposure to the potential consequences associated with terrorism. The same argument applies to the risks associated with accidents and health, in that emphasis is placed in event management education on first aid certification, as well as providing safety and security for attendees. Although event planners with formal event management education are likely to develop strategies and plans to address these "dread" risks because they have been trained to do so; they are also more apt to perceive them as likely to happen due to the emphasis placed on their inability to entirely prevent these risks. Experience would also lead planners to develop strategies and plans to address these "dread" risks if they had encountered them in past events. Again comments made by respondents support this premise.

> *Outbreak of the Iraq War and SARS during a conference we organised in Brunei. We involved the help of a local travelagency. We organised a desk at the premises, in order for delegates to change flights etc Hurricane Katrina during a conference in the Netherlands, where 50% of the delegates were from New Orleans and Houston. We placed TV screens all over the hotel with CNN connections for delegates to watch and check on the situation at home. And again a travelagency at the premises.*

> *We have had in the past food allergy emergencies and are very careful now to get the proper information from our delegation and either pass them on directly to the cooks for all venues that we are using for hospitality or pass on the information ourselves.*

During a formal event I planned, we had a handful of people drink too much. A few threw up on the dance floor and two passed out at tables. We had transportation standing by, so we were able to take them home.

Each event planner has to ensure that sensible steps are taken to secure rooms, no equipment / confidential information is left lying around etc

Attendee was having a heart attack during a meeting, but didn't want to let the 'rest of the team' down. Refused medical attention. Company policy is that if he refused attention, we were not to force it. I did check on him as did his manager and other team members. We flew him home early and when he went to the doctor, he found out he had an anurisym. Good thing he made it home.

In contrast, the perception of the probability of risk associated with contracts and financial risks was lower for event planners with formal event management education than those with no formal education. This is likely due to the fact that contracts and financial planning topics are addressed regularly within event management courses. The Masters of Tourism Administration program at George Washington University, for example, requires students to plan and execute an on-line conference that includes developing a budget and negotiating a speaker contract (George Washington University, 2008). In this case, education provides event planners with a sense of control over the situation.

As mentioned in Chapter 5, only 23% of event planners surveyed had no event management education of any kind, this makes it difficult to separate education and experience as suggested in the initial Event Industry Risk Perception model (Figure 7).

6.1.2   Gender

The results from Chapter 5 suggest that female event planners are more likely than their male counterparts to assess food and beverage and weather and/or other natural hazards as risk elements that need to be managed. In addition, female event planners

tended to assess health as having a moderate probability of occurrence more often than male event planners. These sources of risk have the potential to cause harm to people, and as suggested in the literature, women's traditional gender as nurturers may make them more sensitive to these types of risk. Male event planners, as suggested in the literature, would have a greater confidence in the policies and procedures that are in place to protect people from harm due to poor food safety, or a lack of snow removal during snowstorms. This confidence is a result of their greater involvement and control within the social structure of that they have historically influenced.

6.1.3   Country of Residence

Chi-square analysis showed significant relationships between the risk sources of food and beverage, health, alcohol, and weather and/or natural hazards, and residence of event planners. Overall, Canadian event planners were more likely to perceive the probability of the various risk elements occurring than event planners from the USA or the EU. Only in the area of terrorism were Canadian event planners less likely to perceive a moderate chance of occurrence (Table 31).

Table 31.   Country of Residence and High Risk Perception

	Canada	United States	European Union
F&B	11.9	10.2	9.3
Transportation	22.9	26.5	29.9
Contracts	19.3	29.2	13.8
Financial	28.3	38.1	27.7
Health	4.7	4.1	5.2
Alcohol	10.2	16.0	4.2
Terrorism	2.8	6.3	6.3
Accidents	9.3	7.1	6.2
W NH	11.9	19.4	4.1
People	11.9	10.3	7.2
Crime	5.5	4.1	4.2

N=109   N=98   N=97

97

As illustrated by the Event Industry Risk Perception Model (Figure 7), in this study country of residence represents culture. Social networks, media, and institutions combine to increase the dread factor of the likelihood and severity of occurrence, as well as providing sensationalized information instead of factual data. September 11, 2001 is still quite recent and is only the second instance of a foreign terrorist attack on American soil in modern history (the first being Pearl Harbour). Historically, European countries have dealt with terrorism for many years, the various attacks and resulting deaths receiving media attention. The situations in the USA and EU expose event planners to the concept of terrorism and its potentially deadly consequences more frequently. Canadian planners, on the other hand, are removed slightly from exposure to both attacks and media attention, which would explain why terrorism was chosen as a low chance of occurrence by 67%.

USA event planners viewed contract-related risks as having a high chance of occurrence more often than Canadian and EU event planners. Contracts represent the potential for loss, primarily financially. Although signing a contract should represent a guarantee of a product, venue, or service, there is still the chance that the other party will not honour it. There have been instances in North America of hotels cancelling a conference when presented with the opportunity to book a larger one. This puts an event planner in a position of having to sue the hotel, which could result in large legal fees. Until recently, chain hotels were not commonplace throughout Europe. The researcher has held several conferences at a variety of hotels and venues in numerous European countries that did not have a legal contract.

Transportation-related risks are perceived by Canadian event planners as more likely to occur than USA or EU event planners, probably due to the risk of weather problems in Canada. Canadian cities (both as origins of event attendees as well as destinations hosting events) are more apt to experience severe weather conditions (snowstorms, freezing rain) resulting in delays and cancellations than are American or European cities.

6.2   Conclusions

Event management is a process by which an event planner researches, designs, coordinates, plans, and evaluates an event (Goldblatt, 2008). Risk management has its own process (Figure 8) and should be integrated into the overall event management process (Rutherford Silvers, 2008). Risk assessment and management are an integral part of an event planner's responsibilities when planning and executing an event. There are tools and strategies offered for use; however, these are only conceptual, with no grounding in empirical research conducted with event planners. As can be seen, there is no component that considers the individual event planner's risk perception prior to the process, nor what can influence this perception.

Figure 9. The Risk Management Process
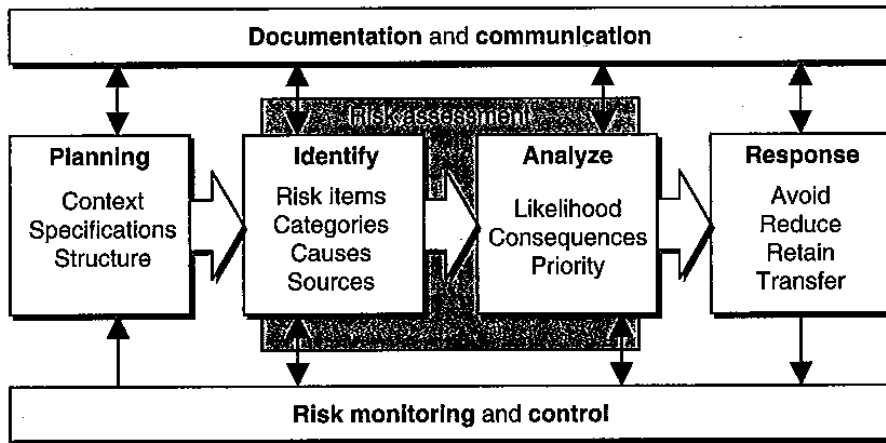
Source: Rutherford Silvers, 2008: 25

Risk assessment is concerned with identifying and ranking risk. Ideally, a risk is identified and then a determination is made as to its potential as an opportunity or a threat (Rutherford Silvers, 2008; Tarlow, 2002a). In ranking risks, both the probability of occurrence and the potential severity of the outcome (positive or negative) are determined. It is interesting to note that at this point risks can be considered positive; when conducting the risk definition interviews respondents were asked if risks could be positive. The responses were that the risk itself was viewed as the potential for a negative outcome; however, the strategies used to manage the risk offered the opportunity for a creative and positive experience.

Risk management is the next step in the process and deals with how each risk is negotiated and handled. Generally speaking, this is done through minimizing threats and maximizing opportunities. Risk assessment and risk management tools and strategies are flawed in their assumption that event planners are rational in their decision-making and behaviour; the risk perception literature indicate this is not the case (Gardner, 2008; Slovic,

et al., 2004). Emotions and intuitions are key components to an individual's identification

of a risk and their subsequent assessment and management.

The original Event Industry Risk Perception Model (Figure 7, page 31) was

designed as a result of the literature review that was conducted for this research. The

revised Event Industry Risk Perception Model (Figure 10) is based on the empirical results

of this study and illustrates the manner in which an individual's preconceived notion of

risk fits into the process of identifying, assessing, and managing risk in a more

comprehensive manner. Experience and education have now been combined into the same

box. The results of this study indicate that these variables act together as an influence on

dread and familiarity; whereas country of residence and gender were seen to influence

dread and familiarity individually. Dread and familiarity are now in the same box as these

concepts are difficult to separate. An arrow from Risk Assessment back to Risk Perception

indicates that once a risk has been assessed as part of the event planning process, a change

to perception can occur. Finally the arrow from the Risk Management Strategies back to

Dread and Familiarity, indicate that the success or failure of implemented strategies can

affect these concepts.

Figure 10. Event Industry Risk Perception Model
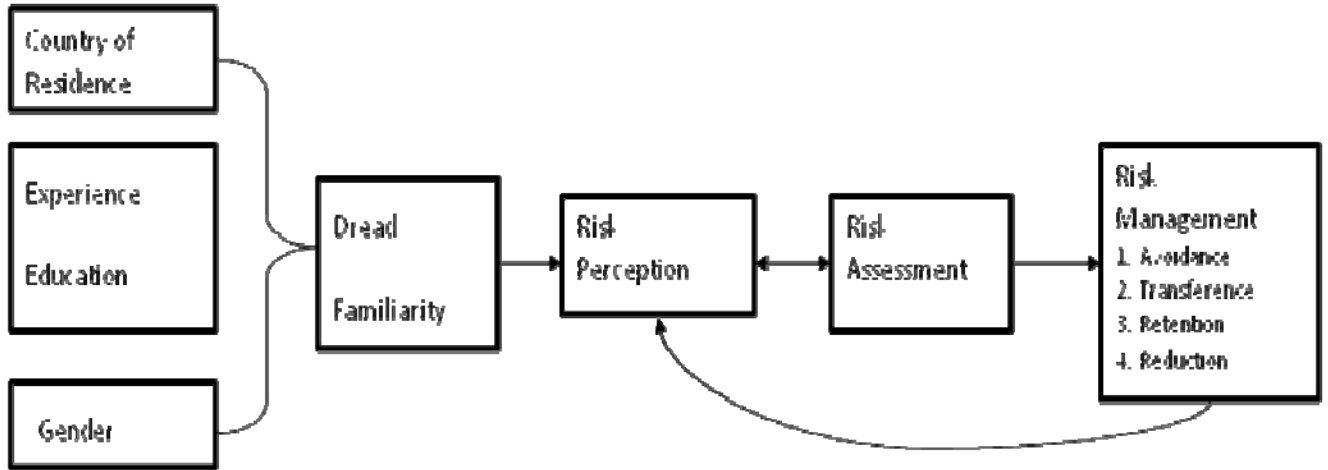
The flow of the model now proceeds as follows: individual variables of experience, education, gender, and country of residence influence the concepts of dread and familiarity; leading to an individual's definition of risk governed by familiarity and dread, resulting in an individual's risk perception; individual risk perception affects the assessment of risk, which can also change the perception; finally risk management strategies are employed based on the risk assessment, the success or failure of these strategies then affect the concepts of dread and familiarity in future situations.

By conducting this research risk assessment and management have been placed within the context of the individual. The risk management literature (Rutherford Silvers, 2008) suggests that risks should be seen as opportunities as well as threats; however, in the course of the in-depth interviews participants were asked if risk could be a positive. Their response was that it could not; instead, the manner in which the risk was managed could inspire creativity and positive outcomes.

Participants were asked if they felt it was necessary to define the concept of "risk". They all believed that it was. The reason for their concurrence was that an event industry-

specific definition would provide planners (both novice and experienced) with a starting

point for risk assessment as well as encourage them to think beyond their experiences.

EMBOK has been developed as a way for practitioners to formulate plans and

strategies for dealing with the various aspects of planning and executing events

(Rutherford Silvers, 2009). For scholars, this model suggests possible areas of research.

This model is meant to be a work in progress, a fact that Rutherford Silvers recognizes on

her website:

> Further development, improvement, expansion, and ratification of the Event
> Management Body of Knowledge Project depends on the review and input of a broad
> variety of industry practitioners, experts, certification bodies, and academicians from
> the full spectrum of event genres and industries. (Rutherford Silvers, 2009)

This research can be applied to the Risk Management Knowledge domain in order to

further develop the model. Specifically, the risk categories determined through the in-

depth interviews can be applied to the categories in this domain (Table 32).

Table 32. EMBOK and Risk Perception

EMBOK Risk Knowledge Domain Category	Risk Element
Compliance	Alcohol, Food and Beverage, Health
Emergency	People, Terrorism, Weather and/or Other Natural Hazards, Crime, Health
Health & Safety	Accidents, People, Food and Beverage, Health
Insurance	Contracts, Financial, Crime, Accidents
Legal & Ethics	People, Contracts, Transportation, Crime
Security Management	People, Crime, Transportation, Accidents

Source: Rutherford Silvers, 2009 & Researcher

6.3   Future Research

This survey was limited to MPI members, which means that the data and results can be

applied to only meetings and conferences. Conducting a similar survey for other event

types (festivals, sports, political, expositions, hallmark, and social life-cycle) would be the next logical step in order to determine if there is a difference in risk perception based on event type. Although all events are a "gathering of people" (Goldblatt & Nelson, 2001), the structure and objectives of these events could potentially affect risk perception. For example, a wedding event planner would not necessarily perceive the risks terrorism or crime as high as an event planner of an international conference. Even within the category of meetings and conferences, there are different types of events. Corporate events tend to be sponsored by a business with attendance required. Profit is not usually a consideration. Association events, on the other hand, are voluntary, with attendees paying a registration fee and absorbing other costs of attending such as transportation, accommodation, and food service. Profit or breaking-even is a consideration for these events. Finally, event lengths can vary greatly, from a few hours to a few days, which could also have an impact on risk perceptions.

There was an indication that, overall, Canadian event planners have different perceptions of risk than event planners from the USA or EU. Canadian event planners perceived five sources of risk as more likely to have at least a moderate chance of occurrence than USA or EU planners. Only in the area of terrorism were Canadian event planners less likely to perceive a moderate chance of occurrence. Canadian culture is often anecdotally viewed as being more conservative; however, there are no data collected in this study to support this statement. Further research into the effects of culture could be beneficial in understanding risk perceptions.

Forty-seven percent of event planners had taken industry courses, possibly because event industry conferences position many of their sessions as "educational". Indeed, these

sessions do count toward the requirements for writing the Certified Meeting Planner (CMP) industry certification examination. The sessions tend to be no more than three hours in length, with some as short as 60 minutes. They are often informal, with no testing, and generally deal with a "hot" topic such as risk management planning. These sessions are generally led by other event planners, so the information is based on individual experiences and knowledge. In contrast, the CMP designation offered through the Convention Industry Council requires an event planner to have a combination of education, experience, and industry participation prior to applying to write the certification examination. The examination is written at the annual conference in January and is two-hours in length. It tests knowledge from across the industry, such as lighting specifications and risk management. Although this testing can result in a broader, more diverse group of professionals, some of the information tested is not applicable to the individual planner's daily job requirement. This may explain the lower percentage of event planners with industry certification. Further study into the reasons why event planners obtain, or do not obtain, the industry certification would allow industry associations to better tailor their educational offerings. It may also be useful for the industry associations to look at partnering with educational institutions to offer a more standardized curriculum. Another area of study within education could be an examination of why some event planners did not have any formal event management education. This could lead to better information dissemination regarding educational opportunities and their value.

As mentioned, there are four risk management strategies that are taught in event management textbooks (avoidance, reduction, transference, and retention). Respondents were asked to provide information as to the frequency of their use of each of these

strategies, as presented in Chapter 5; however, more information is needed concerning why different strategies were chosen, the event planner's understanding of what these various strategies involved, and the manner in which they were implemented. This would all be valuable information for educational purposes.

6.4   Final Remarks

Event planners are responsible for the planning and execution of successful events. Since September 11th, 2001, risk management has come to the fore of this job, and yet according to an industry study, almost half of planners surveyed do not have any risk management plan tailored to each of their meetings (Sturken, 2005).

Planners are expected to identify, assess, and manage the risks inherent in events. Risk assessment and management strategies have been developed; however, they were not grounded in the perceptions of event planners. The revised Event Industry Risk Perception Model inserts the individual into the process, taking into account the variables of country of residence (culture), education and experience, and gender and their influence on risk perception. This is an important first step in supporting and enhancing the existing assessment and management tools by identifying potential gaps, opportunities, and strengths.

Appendix A – Expert Panel Correspondence

<u>Expert Panel Invitation</u>
My name is Linda Robson and I am doing a PhD in the Recreation & Leisure Studies
Department at the University of Waterloo. I have also been an event planner since 1996. I
am a current member of MPI and PCMA.

I am conducting research into the perception of risk of terrorism at events from the
perspective of event planners. To do this, I need to develop a definition of risk as it relates
to the event industry, which I believe is best done by asking to event planners.

I am recruiting 12 event planners, who will become part of an expert panel. I will send out
an e-mail with a working definition of risk and then set up a time to conduct an on-line
chat. This will be an opportunity for you to comment on the definition, offer suggestions,
criticisms, etc I will do this with everyone on the panel, then integrate the results of these
interviews into a new definition of risk. This will again be sent out to you and we will
have another on-line chat. This process will be repeated one more time and a final
definition of risk will be constructed for use in the risk perception survey that will be
conducted over the summer. I will share this definition with the panel members if they
would like it. I am also happy to share the final results of my research with the panel
members. The on-line chat is being used so that your answers will be recorded in your own
words.

Your identity will not be revealed to any of the other panel members and you will only be
interviewed by me. I will be asking you questions about the amount of time you have been
an event planner, what type of education/certification (if any) that you have, and what type
of events you plan. This is being done to make sure that the panel reflects the diversity of
the industry itself. Your responses will only be seen by myself and possibly my committee
members (all professors). The on-line chats will be very informal, and will likely take 10
minutes. My aim is to complete these chats and develop the definition by the end of May.
This proposed research is currently being reviewed by the University of Waterloo's Ethics
Board and will not proceed without their approval.

If you agree to be a part of this Expert Panel, once Ethics has approved the research, you
will receive an official invitation to participate, along with the definition and a request for
an interview time. If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact me by e-
mail (lrobson@ahsmail.uwaterloo.ca) or by phone (519-831-1925). Thank you for your
time.

<u>Second Interview Invitation</u>
I hope you are enjoying the summer, even with all the rain we are getting. At long last
I have analyzed the results of the interviews and have compiled a very rough draft of a
working definition of risk in the event industry.

Risk is anything that could potentially impede, threaten, influence, or interfere with
the successful outcome of an event. Risk is the potential for loss and could be

financial, physical, psychological, legal, or ethical. Some examples of risks common to the event industry are: theft, equipment failure, fire, terrorism, intoxication, contracts, and transportation strikes.

What I need to do now is to have you look over this definition and provide me with feedback. I would like to set up a time to talk to you, either by phone, Internet chat, or e-mail to discuss what you think of the definition.

Thank you again for your assistance in this and I look forward to talking to you.

Third Interview Invitation
Thank you very much for taking the time to complete the second interview for this research. This has been a fantastic experience for me, I've learned so much about how others view risk. I have finished analyzing the second round of interviews and made some revisions to the definition.

Risk is anything or anyone that could impede, threaten, influence, or interfere with the successful outcome of an event. Risk the potential for financial, physical, psychological, legal, or ethical loss. Some examples of risk that are common to the event industry are: theft, equipment failure, fire, terrorism, intoxication, food poisoning, contracts, trips and falls, transportation strikes, or labour disputes.

What I would like to do now is schedule a time to talk to you once more. Can you please let me know when you would be available? This will be the last round of interviews and I expect that it will take approximately 10-15 minutes.

Again thank you very much for your time and input with this research.

Thank you
Thank you for your time and input on the Expert Panel. The result of your suggestions is the following definition of risk for the event industry.

Risk is anything or anyone that could impede, threaten, influence, or interfere with the successful outcome of an event. Risk is the potential for loss financially, physically, psychologically, legally, or ethically. Some examples of risk that are common to the event industry are: theft, equipment failure, fire, terrorism, intoxication, food poisoning, contracts, trips and falls, transportation strikes, or labour disputes.

This definition will now be used in an on-line survey asking MPI event planners from Canada, the United States, and the member countries of the European Union to rank their perceptions of different types of risks. The results of this survey will provide information related to the types of risks that event planners see as most commonly occurring, as well as possibly being able to connect risks with specific types of events, and/or geographic locations.

I would be happy to share my findings with you at the conclusion of my research, please let me know if you would be interested. As a small token of appreciation for your time, energy, and assistance, please accept this gift certificate for Amazon.

Thank you again, I could not have done this without you.

Appendix B – Expert Panel Questions

First Interview Questions
1. How do you define risk as it applies to the event industry?
2. What would you add to the definition?
3. What elements should be in a risk definition?
4. Do you think you can define risk without knowing what types of risks are part of the industry?
5. Do you think a theoretical or practical definition is better?
6. Do you think experience would affect the definition of risk?
7. Do you think education or industry certification would affect the definition of risk?
8. How do you think education vs experience will affect a definition of risk?
9. Who would have an easier time defining risk, those with education or experience?
10. Do you think risk definition applies to individual event elements or to the event as a whole?
11. Does it apply to all types of events?
12. Does each event type need a separate definition?

Second Interview Questions
1. What do you think of the overall definition?
2. Is it easy to understand?
3. Do you think this definition could be understood by a novice planner?
4. Do you think this definition could be understood by an experienced planner?
5. Do you think it reflects the view of risk as it applies to the event industry?
6. Do you think the tone is appropriate?
7. Does it apply to all types of events?
8. Should examples be after each category?
9. Do you think "human element" should be added as a category?
10. What do you think of the layout?
11. What would you add/change/remove from this definition?
12. Are there other examples of risk you think should be included?

Third Interview Questions
1. What do you think of the overall definition?
2. What do you think of the revisions?
3. Are there other examples of risk that you think should be included?
4. Do you have any changes?
5. Would you be happy having your name associated with this definition?

Appendix C - CATPAC Exclusion Words

USE	SHLL	BOTH	SO	MAKE
DID	NIETHER	STILL	WHO	DIDN'T
NOR	SUCH	WHAT	ISN'T	ALTHOUGH
TAKE	WHERE	WHEN	HOW	WHY
IT'S	ITS	THE	BUT	ANY
CAN	THIS	THAT	AND	HAVE
FOR	ARE	HAS	THEM	THESE
OUR	YOUR	YOURS	OURS	THEIRS
THEIR	WAS	HAD	WITH	ALSO
FROM	WERE	WHILE	THEN	NOW
HERE	THERE	CAME	INTO	DURING
THEY'D	AFTER	MRS	MISS	MISTER
THEY	MAY	SHE	THOUGH	THAN
HER	HIM	YET	GET	KEPT
GIVE	THUS	VERILY	GOES	GONE
ECT	GOT	MID	OWN	VERY
EVERY	EACH	SOME	MUCH	ONLY
GAVE	BEING	WHICH	HIS	HERS
BEEN	USING	HER'S	WENT	MADE
UNTIL	SAID	SAY	TRIED	TRY
EITHER	OTHER	MORE	LESS	ALL
ONTO	DONE	SAW	DOES	NOT
WOULD	COULD	SHOULD	ABOUT	BECAUSE
BECAME	OFF	EXCLUDE	A	AN
ANOTHER	AS	AT	BACK	BE
BEFORE	BESIDES	BETWEEN	BY	COME
DO	EWVEN	HE	HI	HIMSELF
IF	IN	IS	IT	JUST
LIKE	MANY	MOST	MUST	MY
NO	OF	ON	ONE	OR
OUT	S	SAME	SEE	SINCE
THOSE	THROUGH	TO	TOO	UP
WAY	WE	WELL	YOU	BEVERLY
LINDA	DON'T	DOING	DOESN'T	DOWN
ABLE	DEFINITELY	PLANNING	PLANNER	PLANNERS
I	I'VE	I'M	YOU'VE	YOU'RE
ELSE	GO	GOOD	GOING	GUESS
KNOW	ME	LOT	NECESSARILY	OKAY
PHONE	PLANNING	REALLY	THAT'S	THAT
THAT'LL	THERE	THERE'S	THEY'RE	THINK
US	WILL	WE'VE	AGAIN	ACTUALLY
GOD	I'D	MAYBE	OH	SURE
TALK	TELL	THEY'VE	WE'RE	WHAT'S
'OH	'THIS	ADD	AM	FAR
YEAH	YES	YEA	RIGHT	EXACTLY
O'LEARY	ASKING	SAYS	BECAUSE	CHAT
COM	ERIN	FINE	FIRST	GREAT
MEETINGS	MSN	OK	SORRY	SEND
TRUE	USED	ALWAYS	AREN	ASK
ASKED	ASSISTANT	BIT	CALL	COMES
DEPEND	DEPENDING	DON	ESSENTIALLY	FOLLOWED
HAPPEN	HAPPENED	HAPPENS	HAVE	K

L	KATRINA	M	RE	PERHAPS
T	VE	WOW	YOUNG	HAVING
MIGHT	PM	WATSON	WATSONWYATT	WOULDN
WYATT	ALMOST	ALONG	BRINGS	DIDN
EST	GETTING	GOTTEN	MARLENE	MEAN
MOVING	PLAN	POSSIBLE	POSSIBLY	SENT
WHETHER	WANT	ACROSS	AGAINST	BASICALLY
BELIEVE	COMING	FIND	FOUND	FURTHER
INC	ITSELF	KNOWING	LET	MARY
OBVIOUSLY	PUT	SEEMS	TRYING	MYSELF
MGMT	PLANNED	'TERM'	AMONG	ETC
EMAIL	EXCELLENT	GIVEN	GIVING	LINDALROBSON
LEGALHOTEL	ROBERT	THANKS	TRAVELADVOCATES	ALREADY
B	BIBACK	SANDY	CURRENTLY	IMAGINATIONMEETINGS
BECAUSE	C	MEETING	GIVES	SAYING
BEO	EVENT	INDUSTRY	INCLUDE	INCLUDES
INCLUDED	EVENTS	CONSIDERED	EVOLVES	LOOKING
LOOK	LOOKS	LOOKED	APPROXIMATELY	BASED
NEED	NEEDS	AWAY	COOKIES	DEPENDS
DINNER	ENOUGH	SCHOOL	BAR	POINT
PULL	REAL	FALL	INVOLVED	PLANE
VERSUS	WORD	EXITS	FIRE	HARD
PART	OCCUR	PROVIDE	APPROPRIATELY	WITHOUT
ACCORDINGLY	WHOLE	COUPLE	DEAL	NEVER
CONTINUE	COURSE	PROBABLY	SOMETIMES	WORKS
AMERICA	APPLY			

Appendix D – First Interview Dendograms

Respondent #1 – First Interview 30 Words
WARDS METHOD

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A S D O A I P D O N A E D H E P R A E C T L C D A R N W I E
F O E U F M E E R U T L E U X R I W D E I I E E N I R N V
F M C T F A O S G M T E F M P A S A U R M T R S Y S G O F E
E E I C E G P I A E E M E I A E K R C T E . L I G K A N L R
C T D O C L G N N N N E N N R T S E A I F . E F N . T G U Y
T H E M T . E N I R D N I . I I . N T F . E F N I A . V . E
. I . E S . . . Z S E T T . E C . E E I I . . I A N . E . N H
. N . . . . . . A . E S I . N A . S O C . . . E T G . E . N G
. G . . . . . . T . S . O . . C L . . S N . . D I . . . . E
. . . . . . . . I . . . N . . E . . . . . T . . O . . . . G
. . . . . . . . O . . . . . . . . . . . . I . . N . . . . .
. . . . . . . . N . . . . . . . . . . . . O . . . . . . . .
. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . N . . . . . . . .
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. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .
. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . ^ ^ ^ . . .
. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . ^ ^ ^ ^ ^ . .
. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . ^ ^ ^ ^ ^ ^ ^ .
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WARDS METHOD

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A D E E E B D C E N S B L T C E E E S S T C C C D R T M C R
R E D D X R E A F E O U H A H L M L A A H L O O I E A O I
E F U U P R F U F G M S O L N P E F F I I M N F I S R N T S
A I C C E A D N E A I I S N C M L M E G G N A T F F S A A K
. N A A A R I . . T N S . . G E E O N U U S T N A R . N . .
. E T T R D . I . I . . T I H E . . L N Y N U U . S A R . N .
. . I I . . . T . . . V . . I . . . T E T A A . Y C E . O M .
. . E E . . O . . . . I . . . E N S . . A . E S R R . . N . E
. . D D . . N . . . . . . . . N S . . . . T . S . D . . . T .
. . . . N C . N . . . . . . . . . G . . . I . . . . . . . L S
. . . . . E . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . O . . . N . . . O .
. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . N . . . G . . . N .
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Dendrogram (WARDS METHOD cluster tree)

WARDS METHOD

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A A B K R T P A D C H D R F T E T G C L E T D S E S T E R L
C C R I I H E N E E E I I I Y D H E I X H E O X O E X E E I
T T O N S I O Y F E L F N P U E E N R A P I F M A M X P C F
S U A D K N P T I E P F A E C D N E C S E S E O P M E E O E
. A D . . G L H N E I . E S N . A R R U R G N O T B R G .
. L . . . S E I E I . . R . C . T Y A M . E . I N L H O I .
. . . . . . . N . N . . E . I . I . O . . S T . I . E O K Z .
. . . . . . . G . . . . N . L . O . N . . T E . O . S N K E .
. . . . . . . . . . . . T . L . N . . . . A C . N . . . C . .
. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . N E D . . . . E . .
. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . C . . . . . . S . .
. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . E . . . . . . . . .
. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . S . . . . . . . . .
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WARDS METHOD

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A S B P S D T K T A D P P S A I I C U E E S C D R D S O Z P
C E I E U A N H H N E R E O S N N O N X X I O E I I O O E E
T N G R C N M O I M O Y F O R M T N T N C X T M F S U N P
I S . C C G E I N E W I F R E E R E N D A M U F I . T S . O
O E . C E E R . L G . N P S E B C R N A E P P A O K E I . P
N . . P S R . . E . . I E O . O T N A S E L L T R . R D . L
. . . T S . . . . D . N R N . D S A T E T E O I . H E . E
. . . I O . . . G . . G . . . . Y . I O A . N T T . I . .
. . . O N . . . E . . E . . . . . . O N D . . I . . N N .
. . . N . . . . . . . . . . . . . . N . . . . . O . . G .
. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . A . . . . . N . . . .
. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . L . . . . . . . . . .
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. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . ^^^^^^^ . . .
. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . ^^^^^^^^^ . .
. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . ^^^^^^^^^^^ . .
. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . ^^^^^^^^^^^^^ .
. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . ^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^
. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . ^^^ . . . ^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^
. . . . . . . . . . . . . . ^^^ . . ^^^ ^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^^
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116

Respondent #5 — First Interview 30 Words
WARDS METHOD

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A E K K P I T A W A D I N P A D B F E R S C D R M L S C E P
N X I N E M H P O R A M E O R I E O X I O O E I A A M R X E
A P N O R P I P R E N P G T E F V O A S M N F S N R A O A O
L E D W S O N L K A G A A E A F E D M K E T I K A G L W M P
Y R . L O R G I I . E C T N S E R . P S T R N . G E L D P L
S I . E N T S E N . R T I T . R A . L . H O I . E . . . L E
I E . D . A . S G . . . V I . E G . E . I L T . M . . . . E
S N . G . N . . . . . E A . N E . . . N . I . O . N . . . S .
. C . E . T . . . . . . L . T . . . . G . O . N . T . . . .
. E . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . N . T . . . .
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(Ward's method dendrogram — ASCII cluster diagram)

WARDS METHOD

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A A C T S P L M R A L E R S A B D D A F T H I C S E E E L L
C T O H O E I A I N I V I O R E I W O R A N O E X X I E
C T N I M O A J S I V I S M E R E I O R P C M N V X I A
U A I N E P B K I T T E S M E O F F A R A E E N S R A S R
R C I G B L I R . C L Y S T S A D N F E A N . N O E Y M P T N
A K N S O E L . . I E T . H . . I R . L I . T N . B R .
T . G . D . I . . P . H . I . . T E . . N . I . . O L .
E . E . Y . T . . A . I . N . . I N . . G . V . . D I .
. . N . . . Y . . T . N . G . . O C . . . . E . . Y E .
. . C . . . . . . E . G . . . . N E . . . . . . . . N .
. . Y . . . . . . . . . . . . . . S . . . . . . . . . C
. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . E
. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .
. . . ^ ^ . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .
. . ^ ^ ^ . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .
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Respondent #7 — First Interview 30 Words
WARDS METHOD

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A T A C C S D T D E I E F A P C A M B D E L O C D P R S N U
C H M O O P E E E X L D O D A O V I A E X E T I E R I E   N
T I O N N E F R F A . L U R D S M O . S D R A H R F O S N G F
U N R C C C I M I L . U M I . N P S A . T . O D A . K . B . A O
A G P E C I N . N U . S A T . P S A T . . . V . E I . . A . . R O
L H O . I F I . I . . T T . E L T T L . . . E . . E . . B . . E R
. . T . . . . . . . . R . E . I . I . . . K . . D N . . I . . . E
. . U . . . . . . . . A . . . O . O . . . E . . . C . . L . . . S
. . S . . . . . . . . T . . . N . N . . . S . . . E . . I . . . E
. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . S . . T . . . E
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Respondent #8 — First Interview 30 Words
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Appendix E – Announcement Letter

Dear [FirstName]

Event planners are in a unique position in that they work with suppliers, organizations, and participants to produce an experience that will be enjoyed by all. A large part of an event planner's responsibility centers around risk, yet no research has been done asking them what they see as risky.

You are invited to participate in a 10 minute on-line survey that will investigate what event planners perceive as risky. This study is being conducted by Linda Robson, under the supervision of Dr. Stephen Smith, of the Recreation & Leisure Studies Department, University of Waterloo, Ontario, Canada. This results of this research will be used to assist in developing tools and strategies for risk management plans.

The voluntary on-line survey can be accessed through the following link:

https://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx

In order to further protect your privacy you will need to enter the password "risky" to begin the survey.

If you have any questions, please feel free to contact Linda Robson (lrobson@ahsmail.uwaterloo.ca).

This study has been reviewed by, and received ethics clearance through, the Office of Research Ethics, University of Waterloo, Ontario, Canada.

Thank you for your time,

Linda

https://www.surveymonkey.com/optout.aspx

Appendix F – Survey Instrument

Information

Dear MPI Planner

A large part of an event planner's responsibility centers around risk. To date, no research has been done asking event planners about this topic.

You are invited to participate in a doctoral research study conducted by Linda Robson, under the supervision of Dr. Stephen Smith of the Department of Recreation & Leisure Studies, University of Waterloo, Ontario, Canada. The purpose of this study is to investigate event planner's risk perception and the factors that may, or may not, influence these perceptions. This information will be used to develop tools and strategies for developing risk management plans for the event planning industry.

As a member of MPI, I have been given permission to access the MPI membership list to conduct this study. MPI will receive a copy of the results when the study is completed, however the study is not being sponsored financially by MPI.

The survey takes about 10-minutes to complete. The questions focus on the type(s) of event(s) that you plan, your education, years of experience, and personal perception of different types of risks. Your participation in this study is voluntary. You may decline to answer any questions and withdraw at any time. There are no known or anticipated risks from participating in this study.

Any information that you provide is confidential. All of the data will be summarized and no individual could be identified from these summarized results. The web site is programmed to collect responses and not information that could potentially identify you (such as machine identifiers).

The data, with no personal identifiers, collected from this study will be maintained on a password-protected computer database in a restricted access area of the University of Waterloo in the Department of Recreation & Leisure Studies. Survey data will be electronically archived for two years and then deleted.

At the conclusion of the survey you have the opportunity to enter a draw for one of six $50 gift certificates (from such online sources as Amazon). In order to enter the draw you will be asked to provide your name and e-mail address. This information will be collected separately from the survey, keeping your responses anonymous. The draw will take place when the survey closes on December 12, 2008.

Should you have any questions about the study, please contact either Linda Robson (lrobson@ahsmail.uwaterloo.ca) or Dr. Stephen Smith (1-519-888-4567, ext. 84045, slsmith@ahsmail.uwaterloo.ca). To receive a copy of the study results contact either investigator.

Please be assured that this study has been reviewed and received ethics clearance through the Office of Research Ethics at the University of Waterloo, Ontario, Canada. However, the final decision about participation is yours. If you have any comments or concerns resulting from your participation in this study, please feel free to contact Dr. Susan Sykes, Director, Office of Research Ethics, at 1-519-888-4567 ext. 36005 or by email at ssykes@uwaterloo.ca.

Thank you for considering participation in this study.

Linda

Welcome

Event planners are in a unique position in the event industry; responsible to their client, suppliers, and attendees. Although risk management is a large component of our role, no prior research has been conducted in this area. This study will examine the process of understanding what factors influence an event planner's perception of risk.

* 1. This question is the only one that requires an answer in order to proceed through the remainder of the survey.

Event planners are people who are responsible for the research, design, planning, coordination, evaluation, and execution of events. Based on this definition, are you an event planner?

◯ Yes. Please continue to the next question.

◯ No. Thank you for your time.

Country of Employment

2. Which country is your primary office located in?

Perceptions of Risk at Events: A Planner's Perspective

3. What type of event(s) do you plan? Choose all that apply.

☐ Meetings and conferences (e.g., educational and networking opportunities)

☐ Social life-cycle events (e.g., weddings, anniversaries, baby showers)

☐ Civic events (e.g., parades, bicentennials)

☐ Expositions (e.g., trade shows)

☐ Fairs and festivals (e.g., agricultural fairs, art festivals)

☐ Hallmark events (e.g., Mardi Gras)

☐ Sport events (e.g., athletic games, tournaments)

☐ Political events (e.g., inaugurations, candidate rallies)

☐ Other

Other (please specify)

4. What type of event do you plan most often? Choose only one.

○ Meetings and conferences (e.g., educational and networking opportunities)

○ Social life-cycle events (e.g., weddings, anniversaries, baby showers)

○ Civic events (e.g., parades, bicentennials)

○ Expositions (e.g., trade shows)

○ Fairs and festivals (e.g., entertainment gatherings)

○ Hallmark events (e.g., Mardi Gras)

○ Sports events (e.g., athletic games, tournaments)

○ Political events (e.g., inaugurations, candidate rallies)

Other (please specify)

Perceptions of Risk at Events: A Planner's Perspective

5. How many events did you plan during the period January – December 2007?

6. How long have you been planning events? (Years and months)

Perceptions of Risk at Events: A Planner's Perspective

7. Between January - December 2007, where did most of your events occur? Please choose only one.

- ◯ Domestically - in the country of your primary office
- ◯ Internationally - outside the country of your primary office

8. Between January - December 2007, what type of venue did you use for the event you planned most often? Please choose only one.

- ◯ City Hotels
- ◯ Resort Hotels
- ◯ Airport & Suburban Hotels
- ◯ Conference Centres & Universities
- ◯ Convention Centres
- ◯ Restaurants, Country Clubs, & Unique Venues

Other (please specify)

9. What resources, if any, do you use to find information on potential destinations for your event(s)? Choose all that apply.

☐ None

☐ Previous Experience

☐ Word-of-Mouth

☐ Industry publications (e.g., One +, Smart Meetings)

☐ Research Journals (e.g., Convention and Event Tourism, Journal of Event Management)

☐ Newspapers

☐ Magazines

☐ Destination Management Organizations

☐ Convention and Visitors Bureaus

☐ Internet sites

Other (please specify)

_____

10. What resources, if any, do you use to find information on potential venues for your event(s)? Choose all that apply.

☐ None

☐ Previous Experience

☐ Word-of-Mouth

☐ Industry publications (e.g., One +, Smart Meetings)

☐ Research Journals (e.g., Convention and Event Tourism, Journal of Event Management)

☐ Newspapers

☐ Magazines

☐ Destination Management Organizations

☐ Convention and Visitor Bureaus

☐ Internet Sites

Other (please specify)

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Perceptions of Risk at Events: A Planner's Perspective

Risk is anything or anyone that could impede, threaten, influence, or interfere with the successful outcome of an event. Risk is the potential for loss financially, physically, psychologically, legally, or ethically.

11. A list of 11 risks are provided below. Based on the definition above, please indicate the chance of occurrence for each of these risks, within the next 5 years, as it relates to the type of event you plan most often.

	Low chance of occurrence			Moderate chance of occurence			High chance of occurrence
Food and Beverage (e.g., food poisoning, allergies, sanitation)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Transportation (e.g., labour disruptions, car accidents, delayed flights)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Contracts (e.g., negotiations, clauses)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Financial (e.g., budget, sponsors, suppliers)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Health (e.g., heart attacks, injuries, allergic reactions)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Alcohol (e.g., serving, intoxication)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Terrorism (e.g., bombings, hostage taking, threats)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Accidents (e.g., injuries)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Weather and/or Other Natural Hazards (e.g., hurricanes, floods, earthquakes, rain)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
People (e.g., labour disputes, troublemakers, no shows)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Crime (e.g., theft, mugging, fraud)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

12. Have you experienced any of the above risks? If so, please briefly describe your experience.

Perceptions of Risk at Events: A Planner's Perspective

13. There are 4 identified ways of dealing with risk. Please indicate how often, if at all, that you use each of the following?

	Never use	Occasionally use	Regularly use	Always use
AVOIDANCE: Removal of event elements that are considered a risk liability or hazards, such as removing pyrotechnics from a program.	○	○	○	○
REDUCTION: Implementation of loss prevention methods and strategies to lessen the impact, likelihood, and consequences of potential risk, such as hiring security officers to patrol exhibitions for theft.	○	○	○	○
TRANSFERENCE: Reallocation of liability for, and impact of, a risk to a third party, such as taking out insurance.	○	○	○	○
RETENTION: Conscious acceptance of risk, with no special effort to control it, and acceptance of liability.	○	○	○	○

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To end, I would like to ask a few background questions to get a better sense of the study respondents.

14. How many international trips have you made in the past 24 months?

[   ]

15. Please indicate the highest level of education that you have achieved.

☐ Some High School

☐ Graduated from High School

☐ Diploma

☐ College/University certification

☐ Undergraduate degree

☐ Graduate degree (Masters, Doctorate)

16. Please indicate any type of EVENT MANAGEMENT education that you have received. Choose all that apply.

☐ None

☐ Individual courses from industry

☐ Diploma

☐ Industry certification

☐ College/University certification

☐ Undergraduate degree

☐ Graduate degree (Masters, Doctorate) in an event management-related program

17. Gender

○ Female

○ Male

18. Age

○ 18 - 24 years

○ 25 - 34 years

○ 35 - 44 years

○ 45 - 54 years

○ 55 - 64 years

○ 65 years or over

Perceptions of Risk at Events: A Planner's Perspective

Thank you for participating in our Perceptions of Risk survey! As a thank you for taking part in this survey, we would like to enter your name in a draw for one of six $50 gift certificates. In order to enter the draw please provide your first and last name and your e-mail address below. This information is being collected separately from the survey, keeping your responses anonymous. Award winners will be notified by e-mail after the draw on December 12, 2008.

If you would like to receive a copy of the results, please provide your first and last name and e-mail address below. This information is being collected separately from the survey, keeping your responses anonymous. A copy of the results will be sent to you at the completion of the study, estimated March 2009.

As a reminder the purpose of this survey is to investigate event planner risk perception and the factors that may, or may not, influence these perceptions. This information will be used to develop tools and strategies for developing risk management plans.

Please remember that any data pertaining to you as an individual participant will be kept confidential. Once all the data are collected and analyzed for this project, I plan on sharing this information with the research and event industry communities through seminars, conferences, presentations, and journal articles.

If you have any general comments or questions related to this study, please contact Linda Robson, Recreation & Leisure Studies Department, lrobson@ahsmail.uwaterloo.ca.

As with all University of Waterloo projects involving human participants, this project was reviewed by, and received ethics clearance through, the Office of Research Ethics at the University of Waterloo, Ontario, Canada. Should you have any comments or concerns resulting from your participation in this study, please contact Dr. Susan Sykes (ssykes@uwaterloo.ca) in the Office of Research Ethics at 519-888-4567, Ext., 36005.

19. If you would like your name entered in a draw for one of six $50 (Cdn) gift certificates, please provide your first and last name and email address.

20. If you would like to receive a copy of the results, please provide your email address here.

Perceptions of Risk at Events: A Planner's Perspective

Thank you for your time and interest.

Appendix G – Reminder E-Mail

Dear [FirstName]

This is a reminder of your invitation to participate in a study being conducted to investigate event planner perceptions of risk in the event industry.

We would greatly appreciate your time and participation in this study. The on-line survey will take 10 minutes of your time and the results will be used to assist in developing tools and strategies for risk management plans.

If you would like to participate in the survey, please click on the following link:
https://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx

In order to protect your identity, a password has been set for this survey, please enter "risky" when prompted.

At the conclusion of the survey you will be provided with the opportunity to enter a draw for one of six $50 gift certificates. In order to enter the draw you will be asked to provide your name and e-mail address, this information will be collected separately from the survey, keeping your responses anonymous. The draw will take place when the survey closes on December 12, 2008. Winners of the draw will be able to choose a gift certificate from an on-line source such as Amazon.

Should you have any questions about the study, please contact either Linda Robson (519-824-4120, ext. 53760, lrobson@ahsmail.uwaterloo.ca) or Dr. Stephen Smith (1-519-888-4567, ext. 84045, slsmith@ahsmail.uwaterloo.ca). Further, if you would like to receive a copy of the results of this study, please contact either investigator.

Thank you for considering participation in this study.

Linda

https://www.surveymonkey.com/optout.aspx

Appendix H – Regression Tables

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.213[a]	.045	.022	.65614	1.853

a. Predictors: (Constant), both, EU, Yrs of Experience, formal, Gender, USA, ind

b. Dependent Variable: Food and Beverage

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	5.798	7	.828	1.924	.066[a]
	Residual	122.267	284	.431		
	Total	128.065	291			

a. Predictors: (Constant), both, EU, Yrs of Experience, formal, Gender, USA, ind

b. Dependent Variable: Food and Beverage

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Correlations		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Zero-order	Partial	Part
1	(Constant)	1.620	.155		10.469	.000			
	Gender	.139	.108	.084	1.292	.197	.149	.076	.075
	Yrs of Experience	-.004	.005	-.047	-.761	.447	-.049	-.045	-.044
	USA	-.126	.095	-.089	-1.328	.185	-.016	-.079	-.077
	EU	-.182	.103	-.127	-1.773	.077	-.140	-.105	-.103
	ind	.085	.102	.064	.836	.404	.042	.050	.048
	formal	-4.150E-5	.156	.000	.000	1.000	-.043	.000	.000
	both	.186	.144	.093	1.291	.198	.090	.076	.075

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Correlations		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Zero-order	Partial	Part
1	(Constant)	1.620	.155		10.469	.000			
	Gender	.139	.108	.084	1.292	.197	.149	.076	.075
	Yrs of Experience	-.004	.005	-.047	-.761	.447	-.049	-.045	-.044
	USA	-.126	.095	-.089	-1.328	.185	-.016	-.079	-.077
	EU	-.182	.103	-.127	-1.773	.077	-.140	-.105	-.103
	ind	.085	.102	.064	.836	.404	.042	.050	.048
	formal	-4.150E-5	.156	.000	.000	1.000	-.043	.000	.000
	both	.186	.144	.093	1.291	.198	.090	.076	.075

a. Dependent Variable: Food and Beverage

Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.122^a	.015	-.009	.65295	2.077

a. Predictors: (Constant), both, EU, Yrs of Experience, formal, Gender, USA, ind

b. Dependent Variable: Transportation

ANOVA^b

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1.837	7	.262	.615	.743^a
	Residual	121.081	284	.426		
	Total	122.918	291			

a. Predictors: (Constant), both, EU, Yrs of Experience, formal, Gender, USA, ind

b. Dependent Variable: Transportation

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations		
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part
1	(Constant)	2.186	.154		14.197	.000			
	Gender	-.011	.107	-.007	-.106	.916	-.012	-.006	-.006
	Yrs of Experience	-.003	.005	-.040	-.643	.521	-.045	-.038	-.038
	USA	-.044	.094	-.032	-.467	.641	-.041	-.028	-.028
	EU	-.010	.102	-.007	-.094	.925	.019	-.006	-.006
	ind	-.063	.102	-.048	-.624	.533	-.095	-.037	-.037
	formal	.148	.155	.064	.955	.341	.084	.057	.056
	both	.074	.143	.038	.515	.607	.051	.031	.030

a. Dependent Variable: Transportation

Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.156^a	.024	.000	.67010	2.005

a. Predictors: (Constant), both, EU, Yrs of Experience, formal, Gender, USA, ind

b. Dependent Variable: Contracts

ANOVA^b

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3.129	7	.447	.996	.435^a
	Residual	125.282	279	.449		
	Total	128.411	286			

a. Predictors: (Constant), both, EU, Yrs of Experience, formal, Gender, USA, ind

b. Dependent Variable: Contracts

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations		
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part
1	(Constant)	2.150	.160		13.409	.000			
	Gender	-.082	.111	-.049	-.740	.460	-.008	-.044	-.044
	Yrs of Experience	-.002	.006	-.026	-.412	.681	-.041	-.025	-.024
	USA	.105	.097	.073	1.075	.284	.113	.064	.064
	EU	-.122	.105	-.084	-1.154	.250	-.091	-.069	-.068
	ind	-.115	.106	-.085	-1.082	.280	-.017	-.065	-.064
	formal	-.200	.161	-.084	-1.242	.215	-.053	-.074	-.073
	both	-.111	.148	-.055	-.749	.455	-.021	-.045	-.044

a. Dependent Variable: Contracts

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.177[a]	.031	.007	.67520	2.010

a. Predictors: (Constant), both, EU, Yrs of Experience, formal, Gender, USA, ind

b. Dependent Variable: Financial

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	4.103	7	.586	1.286	.257[a]
	Residual	126.283	277	.456		
	Total	130.386	284			

a. Predictors: (Constant), both, EU, Yrs of Experience, formal, Gender, USA, ind

b. Dependent Variable: Financial

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations		
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part
1	(Constant)	2.308	.161		14.366	.000			
	Gender	-.152	.113	-.090	-1.348	.179	-.039	-.081	-.080
	Yrs of Experience	-.004	.006	-.050	-.794	.428	-.041	-.048	-.047
	USA	.164	.099	.114	1.665	.097	.121	.100	.098
	EU	-.027	.107	-.018	-.252	.801	-.049	-.015	-.015
	ind	-.030	.106	-.022	-.283	.777	.006	-.017	-.017
	formal	-.264	.161	-.110	-1.635	.103	-.101	-.098	-.097
	both	.037	.149	.018	.250	.803	.012	.015	.015

a. Dependent Variable: Financial

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.182[a]	.033	.009	.57578	1.890

a. Predictors: (Constant), both, EU, Yrs of Experience, formal, Gender, USA, ind

b. Dependent Variable: Health

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3.209	7	.458	1.383	.212[a]
	Residual	93.158	281	.332		
	Total	96.367	288			

a. Predictors: (Constant), both, EU, Yrs of Experience, formal, Gender, USA, ind

b. Dependent Variable: Health

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations		
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part
1	(Constant)	1.698	.136		12.449	.000			
	Gender	.098	.095	.068	1.035	.302	.079	.062	.061
	Yrs of Experience	.001	.005	.017	.268	.789	.005	.016	.016
	USA	-.202	.084	-.163	-2.406	.017	-.106	-.142	-.141
	EU	-.126	.091	-.101	-1.390	.166	-.039	-.083	-.082
	ind	-.097	.091	-.083	-1.070	.286	-.036	-.064	-.063
	formal	-.162	.137	-.079	-1.178	.240	-.051	-.070	-.069
	both	-.015	.128	-.009	-.117	.907	.069	-.007	-.007

a. Dependent Variable: Health

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.205[a]	.042	.018	.66409	1.968

a. Predictors: (Constant), both, EU, Yrs of Experience, formal, Gender, USA, ind

b. Dependent Variable: Alcohol

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	5.384	7	.769	1.744	.099[a]
	Residual	122.160	277	.441		
	Total	127.544	284			

a. Predictors: (Constant), both, EU, Yrs of Experience, formal, Gender, USA, ind

b. Dependent Variable: Alcohol

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Correlations		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Zero-order	Partial	Part
1	(Constant)	1.575	.158		9.968	.000			
	Gender	.088	.109	.053	.806	.421	.099	.048	.047
	Yrs of Experience	.004	.006	.047	.754	.452	.009	.045	.044
	USA	.087	.097	.061	.896	.371	.121	.054	.053
	EU	-.213	.105	-.147	-2.030	.043	-.177	-.121	-.119
	ind	-.092	.105	-.069	-.880	.379	-.034	-.053	-.052
	formal	.048	.159	.020	.300	.764	.012	.018	.018
	both	.020	.146	.010	.137	.891	.051	.008	.008

a. Dependent Variable: Alcohol

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.216[a]	.047	.023	.58869	1.953

a. Predictors: (Constant), both, EU, Yrs of Experience, formal, Gender, USA, ind

b. Dependent Variable: Terrorism

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	4.747	7	.678	1.957	.061[a]
	Residual	96.688	279	.347		
	Total	101.436	286			

a. Predictors: (Constant), both, EU, Yrs of Experience, formal, Gender, USA, ind

b. Dependent Variable: Terrorism

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations		
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part
1	(Constant)	1.062	.141		7.523	.000			
	Gender	.106	.098	.071	1.079	.282	.024	.064	.063
	Yrs of Experience	.009	.005	.117	1.893	.059	.106	.113	.111
	USA	.251	.086	.197	2.916	.004	.114	.172	.170
	EU	.193	.093	.150	2.071	.039	.038	.123	.121
	ind	.059	.093	.049	.633	.527	.004	.038	.037
	formal	.173	.141	.082	1.230	.220	.028	.073	.072
	both	.127	.130	.072	.976	.330	.030	.058	.057

a. Dependent Variable: Terrorism

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.149[a]	.022	-.002	.61363	1.982

a. Predictors: (Constant), both, EU, Yrs of Experience, formal, Gender, USA, ind

b. Dependent Variable: Accidents

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2.434	7	.348	.923	.489[a]
	Residual	106.563	283	.377		
	Total	108.997	290			

a. Predictors: (Constant), both, EU, Yrs of Experience, formal, Gender, USA, ind

b. Dependent Variable: Accidents

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Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations		
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part
1	(Constant)	1.677	.145		11.584	.000			
	Gender	-.047	.101	-.031	-.467	.641	.002	-.028	-.027
	Yrs of Experience	.005	.005	.058	.927	.355	.056	.055	.055
	USA	.001	.089	.001	.012	.991	.020	.001	.001
	EU	-.126	.096	-.096	-1.313	.190	-.077	-.078	-.077
	ind	-.036	.096	-.030	-.382	.703	-.054	-.023	-.022
	formal	.037	.146	.017	.255	.799	.008	.015	.015
	both	.169	.135	.092	1.258	.210	.109	.075	.074

a. Dependent Variable: Accidents

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.229[a]	.052	.029	.63123	2.022

a. Predictors: (Constant), both, EU, Yrs of Experience, formal, Gender, USA, ind

b. Dependent Variable: Weather and/or Natural Hazards

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	6.246	7	.892	2.239	.031[a]
	Residual	113.162	284	.398		
	Total	119.408	291			

a. Predictors: (Constant), both, EU, Yrs of Experience, formal, Gender, USA, ind

b. Dependent Variable: Weather and/or Natural Hazards

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations		
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part
1	(Constant)	1.537	.149		10.325	.000			
	Gender	.124	.104	.078	1.197	.232	.124	.071	.069
	Yrs of Experience	.006	.005	.073	1.195	.233	.053	.071	.069
	USA	.180	.091	.132	1.972	.050	.164	.116	.114
	EU	-.080	.099	-.058	-.808	.420	-.155	-.048	-.047
	ind	.053	.098	.041	.544	.587	.071	.032	.031
	formal	-.070	.150	-.031	-.465	.642	-.088	-.028	-.027
	both	.108	.138	.056	.781	.436	.048	.046	.045

a. Dependent Variable: Weather and/or Natural Hazards

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.195[a]	.038	.014	.61202	1.961

a. Predictors: (Constant), both, EU, Yrs of Experience, formal, Gender, USA, ind

b. Dependent Variable: People

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	4.182	7	.597	1.595	.137[a]
	Residual	106.004	283	.375		
	Total	110.186	290			

a. Predictors: (Constant), both, EU, Yrs of Experience, formal, Gender, USA, ind

b. Dependent Variable: People

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations		
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part
1	(Constant)	1.714	.145		11.863	.000			
	Gender	.073	.101	.048	.724	.470	.075	.043	.042
	Yrs of Experience	.001	.005	.010	.157	.875	.017	.009	.009
	USA	-.116	.089	-.088	-1.305	.193	-.072	-.077	-.076
	EU	-.077	.096	-.058	-.808	.420	-.042	-.048	-.047
	ind	-.006	.095	-.005	-.067	.947	-.061	-.004	-.004
	formal	.006	.146	.003	.044	.965	-.016	.003	.003
	both	.274	.134	.148	2.039	.042	.170	.120	.119

a. Dependent Variable: People

Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.148^a	.022	-.002	.57514	2.010

a. Predictors: (Constant), both, EU, Yrs of Experience, formal, Gender, USA, ind

b. Dependent Variable: Crime

ANOVA^b

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2.086	7	.298	.901	.506^a
	Residual	93.612	283	.331		
	Total	95.698	290			

a. Predictors: (Constant), both, EU, Yrs of Experience, formal, Gender, USA, ind

b. Dependent Variable: Crime

Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients	Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations

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