

SPECIAL EVENT MANAGEMENT:
A MODEL OF TEMPORARY ADMINISTRATION
by
Charles Brannan Isgar

A Dissertation Presented to the
FACULTY OF THE GRADUATE SCHOOL
UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA
In Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
(Public Administration)

May 1989

Copyright 1989 Charles Brannan Isgar

UMI Number: DP31243

All rights reserved

INFORMATION TO ALL USERS

The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted.

In the unlikely event that the author did not send a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.



UMI DP31243

Published by ProQuest LLC (2014). Copyright in the Dissertation held by the Author.

Microform Edition © ProQuest LLC.

All rights reserved. This work is protected against unauthorized copying under Title 17, United States Code



ProQuest LLC.
789 East Eisenhower Parkway
P.O. Box 1346
Ann Arbor, MI 48106 - 1346

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA
THE GRADUATE SCHOOL
UNIVERSITY PARK
LOS ANGELES, CALIFORNIA 90089

Ph.D.
Pu
289
I78

343801.79

This dissertation, written by

..... Charles Brannan Isgar

*under the direction of his..... Dissertation
Committee, and approved by all its members,
has been presented to and accepted by The
Graduate School, in partial fulfillment of re-
quirements for the degree of*

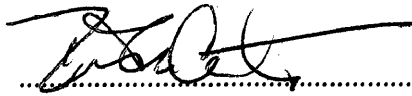
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY



.....
Dean of Graduate Studies

Date May 5, 1989

DISSERTATION COMMITTEE



.....
Chairperson



ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to thank the special event managers who have given their time and knowledge to this study. Their participation provided the expertise to develop a framework for understanding this form of temporary administration. Their candid and forthright statements were the anecdotal windows for exploring the special event management experience. These managers displayed an enthusiasm for this research and were true professionals in their commitment throughout the process. Hopefully, one day this research can be of benefit to these and future special event managers.

It is with sincere appreciation that I thank my Dissertation Committee: Professors Robert Carter (Chairman), Catie Burke, and Warren Bennis. Each committee member made significant contributions to the process and the product. Along with the committee, Professors Gerald Caiden and Robert Biller were instrumental in providing a road map for tackling this research project. Working with this group of professionals who have supported my research interests from day one, has been a rewarding and satisfying experience.

My deepest appreciation is also extended to the Endowed Doctoral Fellowship program at the School of Public Administration from which I was awarded the Neely

Gardner Fellowship. Neely Gardner was truly a charismatic teacher and public servant. I hope that my studies and work at USC reflect highly in his honor. This fellowship gave me the opportunity to pursue and complete my degree, which would not have been possible otherwise.

There are many individuals who played important roles in the Ph.D. process. In particular, I would like to thank Sarah Kovoov for her patience and support throughout the program. I have spent many enjoyable hours with classmates and faculty exchanging ideas and experiences. The Public Administration staff were a continual source of friendship and help during my stay, and the International Public Administration Center always had their doors open to me as the "Representative from Durango." Because of all of these good people, I am able to graduate on time and in good spirits.

Finally, and most importantly, I thank my parents, Anne and Arthur Isgar, who taught me the value of education and always supported my academic pursuits.

ABSTRACT

This dissertation explores the common principles of Special Event Management in order to build a descriptive theory of this administrative phenomenon. The focus of this study is on the one-time event organization that is created to produce a special program with the minimal influence or benefit of an institutional memory or established operating system.

A panel of Special Event managers representing a variety of special events was interviewed. These expert interviews provided anecdotal data to conduct an inductive analysis identifying emerging principles of Special Event management. The identified principles were presented in a questionnaire to Special Event managers to solicit their response to this focused set of descriptive statements. From the interviews and questionnaire, general patterns of special event management emerged providing a framework for understanding this model of temporary administration.

Nine themes were identified that represent the Special Event Management experience:

1. Built Around a Mission - These organizations are designed to fit the mission of the event with a relaxation of traditional bureaucratic controls and processes. This tailoring provides for adaptability,

spontaneity, and a rapid learning curve for these temporary organizations.

2. Emerging Systems - These organizations have a permeable structure that allows systems to emerge within the auspices of the event to solve problems and deliver programs.
3. Sense of Urgency - Because of imminent time constraints and the untried administrative structure, these organizations experience a heightened importance and immediacy in completing tasks.
4. Campaign Feeling - Special Event workers create excitement and enthusiasm for an event due to their commitment to the mission and association in a dynamic organization.
5. Managing Uncertainty - A special event manager has an ability to cope with and create entrepreneurial opportunities out of a state of uncertainty.
6. Community of Interest - Special Events gain an implied authority to act through an adoption of their mission by a community of interest.
7. No Alternative to Success - A Special Event manager gets one chance to deliver a peak performance on time.
8. Natural Termination - These temporary organizations are terminal by design. They have a certain deadline

to produce their one-best effort and are disbanded upon completion.

9. Intuitive Evaluation - Special Events have an experiential quality that is intuitively assessed at the time of the event.

CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	ii
ABSTRACT	iv
INTRODUCTION	1
CHAPTER 1: Theoretical Problem	
Special Event Management as a Model of Temporary Administration	6
Special Event Management Defined	14
Boundaries of Special Event Research	16
Background of Special Event Management	19
CHAPTER 2: Methodology	
Building a Descriptive Theory of Special Event Management	24
Expert Interviews	27
Survey Questionnaire	36
CHAPTER 3: Findings: Special Event Manager Interviews	
Exploratory Interviews	39
I. Planning	
Developing A Theme	40
Emerging Systems	45
II. Structure	
The Adaptive Organization	48
Build the Organization Around People	50
Managing Momentum: "A Sense Of Urgency"	53

III.	Workers	
	Creative Job Fit	60
	Campaign Feeling	63
IV.	Leadership/Management	
	Managing Uncertainty	69
	Leadership Profile: "No Alternative to Success"	74
V.	Evaluation	
	Threshold Of Success	78
CHAPTER 4:	Findings: Special Event Management Survey	
	Survey Results	83
	Questionnaire Response and Analysis	
	Category I: Agreement	96
	Category II: Neutral	106
	Category III: Disagreement	113
	General Principles	
	Category I: Plan with a Concept	115
	Category II: Manage with Flexibility	116
	Category III: Sense of Urgency	117
	Category IV: Let the Workers Take Initiative and Have Fun	118

CHAPTER 5:	Summary, Conclusions, Paradox of Special Event Studies, Recommendations for Future Research	
	Summary	121
	Conclusions	125
	Paradox of Special Event Studies	133
	Recommendations for Future Research	134
REFERENCES		139
APPENDIX A:	Special Event Management Questionnaire	149
APPENDIX B:	Telephone Interview Worksheet	158
APPENDIX C:	Profile: Special Event Managers' Experience	163

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1:	Special Event Management Questionnaire	84
Table 2:	Special Event Management Questionnaire: Survey Results Segregated by Type of Respondent	91
Table 3:	Special Event Management Questionnaire: t-test for Difference Between Means	92
Table 4:	Key Differences Between Traditional and Special Event Organizational Models	127

INTRODUCTION

This dissertation explores the common principles of Special Event Management in order to build a descriptive theory of this administrative phenomenon. Building on a larger theory of temporary administration, this study focuses on the "one-time" event organizations that are created to produce a particular program with a terminal management system. This lack of institutional memory or established operating system demonstrates distinct and interesting dynamics not experienced in traditional bureaucratic organizations.

Special Event Management: an Administrative Phenomenon

There is a void in the management literature recognizing and studying special event management as a method of delivering peak performances with a temporary organization. Research concerning project and crisis management have some similarities but do not capture the full special event experience. As terminal administrative structures, these organizations have successfully delivered event programs under severe time pressures in an uncertain environment. These organizations demonstrate an adaptability that makes them ripe for study as organizational life confronts a "temporary society" as described by Warren E. Bennis and Philip E. Slater (1968).

Empirical Research

This study examines empirically what, if any, common themes of special event management exist that can explain a perceived *ad hoc* management experience. To develop an exploratory data base, a panel of special event managers was selected on the basis of their experience and reputation, to participate in an interview. These interviews provided anecdotal data that is useful in identifying emerging themes common to these managers' experience. These emergent themes were focused to a descriptive set of statements to solicit further responses through a survey instrument. Through the expert interviews and questionnaire process certain consistent principles of special event management were identified, which are useful for building a descriptive theory of this management experience.

Structure of the Dissertation

This dissertation is divided into five chapters. Chapter 1 discusses the theoretical problems of special event management as a model of temporary administration, background data, and boundaries of this research. Chapter 2 presents the methodology utilized in this study to build a descriptive theory of special event management. Qualitative techniques of exploration and inductive

theory-building are utilized to establish a descriptive foundation for the study. From these interviews certain themes are identified and presented in a questionnaire to the original panel of experts and an outlying group of special event managers. Chapter 3, findings of the special event manager interviews, are reported in a framework of issue areas. These areas are planning, structure, workers, leadership and evaluation. Each area is analyzed, utilizing current management literature, and supporting anecdotal statements drawn from the expert interviews. Chapter 4, findings from a special event management survey, are reported here. This questionnaire asks special event managers to respond to a focused set of statements derived from the expert interviews. Original panel members and an outlying population are surveyed to provide comparative and cumulative data utilizing a Likert scale questionnaire. The survey results are analyzed by three categories according to their mean response: agreement, neutral, and disagreement.

A final area is included in the questionnaire surveying these managers' general principles of special event management. These general principles are discussed in four categories: 1) plan with a concept; 2) manage with flexibility; 3) sense of urgency; and 4) let the workers take initiative and have fun. Chapter 5 closes this dissertation with a summary, conclusions, and

recommendations for future research. In the conclusions nine themes of special event management are presented that are descriptive of these research findings. Also included in the conclusion is a discussion of an inherent paradox of studying these temporary organizations.

CHAPTER 1

THEORETICAL PROBLEM

Special Event Management as a
Model of Temporary Administration

This dissertation examines the characteristics of special event management as a model of temporary administration. Special events for this study are limited to those organizations that are designed to terminate upon the completion of their prescribed program. These organizations are created and produced for the completion of one event and do not benefit from an institutional memory or established operating system. This restriction helps delineate the characteristics of these temporary event systems by avoiding the established bureaucratic structure of many perennial events. A gray zone that exists between the one-time events and those that are repeated on a regular basis is the Olympiads or a world exposition, for example. These organizations, even though they are repeated on a regular basis, through change in sponsorship and community, create a special event of a temporary nature. These organizations operate under a certain time deadline and develop a management system to fit the particular mission of the event.

In this study of temporary administration, the advance knowledge and design of a terminal special event produces many organizational dynamics that are not

experienced in traditional bureaucratic structures as described by Max Weber. Weber's bureaucratic model is based on employees making a career within the organization, a system of management that utilizes files and institutional memory and impersonal treatment of employees as a model of administration to achieve the organization's goals (Gerth & Mills, 1946). Weber was concerned with "continuous administration," the design and operation of organizations to provide control, stability and efficiency. This model gained such dominance in the literature that the perpetual life of an organization became an assumed goal. This indefinite longevity of bureaucracies gained dramatic attention by industrial observers when they recorded the preservation of antiquated businesses not prone to terminate or adapt (Ackoff, 1981; Reich, 1983). In government, because of the same resilience of bureaucracies to perpetuate their existence, a campaign has been waged to refocus national agencies' responsibilities to state jurisdictions during the Reagan term of office (Palmer & Sawhill, 1982). It is understood that most organizations are formed to accomplish a specific mission when chartered, and that through time these entities develop agendas that perpetuate their existence long after the original goals are accomplished.

Daniel Katz and Robert Kahn (1966) recognize a focus of management studies on the growth, expansion and

development of organizations with little attention on the breakdown, decline and death of these organizations. These researchers have observed a strong power of organizational endurance: "In our organizational society it seems easier to start than to terminate an organization, for many more are born each year than perish" (p. 81).

With temporary administration the organizations are terminal by design, limiting the impulse of these agencies to claim legitimacy beyond the original objectives. Also, these temporary organizations have an established deadline that demands completion of their work and diminishes expectations from their constituencies of continual support or existence. Special events terminate upon completion of the mission for which they were created, while bureaucracies can rarely be formed without a mission they can perpetuate themselves long after the original goals are accomplished.

Arguably, many organizational activities could benefit from an alternative model of temporary administration. Frederick C. Mosher (1978) describes the operating environment of government in a temporary society that will have a growing need for task-oriented systems: "As the interconnection and interdependence of social problems is increasingly perceived, there will be growing reliance upon *ad hoc* problem-solving machinery--task forces, commissions, special staffs to executives,

interagency committees, and institutionalized though ad hoc mechanisms within agencies" (p. 380). A larger concept of special event management as a model of temporary administration could be applicable to assume greater responsibilities of these activities beyond the usual festivals and celebrations. One of the keys to success for special events is what they don't do; expend resources on an organization after the original goals and objectives are accomplished. This concept of termination is critical to project management as defined by Dennis P. Slevin and Jeffrey K. Pinto (1987): "Project-based work tends to be very different from other organizational activities. Projects usually have a specific goal or goals, a defined beginning and end and a limited budget" (p. 33). Slevin and Pinto also recognize a project life cycle as a framework for staging and budgeting organization resources. They identify four distinct phases:

Conceptualization. The initial project stage. Top managers determine that a project is necessary. Preliminary goals and alternative project approaches are specified, as are the possible ways to accomplish these goals.

Planning. The establishment of formal plans to accomplish the project's goals. Activities include scheduling, budgeting, and allocation of other specific tasks and resources.

Execution. The actual "work" of the project. Materials and resources are procured, the project is produced, and performance capabilities are verified.

Termination. Final activities that must be performed once the project is completed. These include releasing resources, transferring the project to clients, and, if necessary, reassigning project team members to other duties. (p. 33)

The identification of phases allows the manager of a temporary organization to determine resource allocation and anticipate planning needs, peak performances and activities leading to termination. Along with planning and the identification of phases leading to termination, special event management share similarities in their concentration on goal achievement, team orientation and time constraints (Martin, 1976). However, both of these temporary management systems have distinct differences due to their respective organizational environment and organic purpose. Special events develop in an uncertain environment without a prescriptive institutional philosophy, while projects are spawned under the auspices of a parent organization. These parent organizations have standard operating procedures and ongoing activities that continually influence the project. A project manager must also compete with other departments for resources and other managers for authority. This in-house competition and control force project managers and workers to constantly worry about a dual agenda of project completion and their personal interest within the parent organization. (Meredith & Mantel, 1985) Consequently, special event

management is able to enjoy a much more open operating system that can adapt to the mission of the event without being encumbered by a parent organization's standard operating procedures. Coupled with this bureaucratic independence is a commitment by workers and managers to the special event organization and its purpose and not as a vehicle to gain political favor in the parent organization. Finally, special event organizations have a natural termination upon the completion of the mission, while projects resist termination even after their original objectives have been completed (Meredith & Mantel, 1985).

The future of temporary administration is providing a proper fit between the goals and objectives of organizations that could benefit by utilizing a terminal structure. This emphasizes the importance of the conceptualization and understanding of what one is setting out to accomplish. For many events, like a city's centennial celebration or world's fair, a special event organization is a natural fit; however, a potential growth of temporary administration will be in the domain of traditional organizational structures, that have missions that can be completed within a time deadline and do not require a residual structure.

This concept of termination does assault many bureaucratic notions of existence and authority. Bernstein and

O'Hara (1979) point out that "Adherence to bureaucratic rules could become the organization's sole reason for existing. Reliability would give way to inflexibility as rules eclipsed task on the scale of bureaucratic values" (p. 42). The concept of temporary administration will be in constant struggle with the bureaucratic notion to control and endure. The essence of special events requires a focusing on the product and service delivery without future expectations of an organization or its workers that is terminal by design.

A full understanding of temporary administration may strain traditional paradigms of bureaucracy as an ideal type. Even Max Weber recognized bureaucracy as an instrument that could endanger the human spirit because of their functional advantages (Bernstein & O'Hara, 1979). The productivity of special events may provide an answer to this paradox as they are proven to be successful delivery systems. Of course, temporary administration would not replace all forms of traditional management, especially those organizations that carry out daily service functions on a continuous basis. Temporary administration could carve out its own niche as a management discipline on an equal standing and not as a bifurcated form of the sponsoring organization's form of administration.

The present and future of organizational life are taking a dramatic turn, opening doors for alternative organizational structures. Warren Bennis (1966) outlines the following changes for the 1990's (as summarized by Szilagyi and Wallace, 1987):

1. The *environment* will show rapid technological change with a large degree of instability or turbulence.
2. Because of a better educational background, people will want more involvement, participation, and autonomy in their work.
3. The *tasks* of organizations will be more technical, complicated, and unprogrammed. There will be a need to group specialists together in a project design arrangement.
4. Organizational structures will be more temporary, adaptive, and organic. These adaptive organizational structures will gradually replace bureaucracy as described by the classicists. (p. 564)

Along with Warren Bennis (1966), Rensis Likert (1967) also discussed changing environments and the need for adaptable organizations. Likert compares traditional systems to a more flexible and responsible structure. Likert's focus is on new ways to design the continuous organization. Many of his principles would support a theory of temporary administration as an alternative management system. His recognition of work groups allows for a model of organizational design that is described as people-oriented and responsible to the natural pressures of change induced by the environment.

The organizational designers have continually tried to reinvent the wheel with organizational structures that are in competition with today's bureaucracy. A contingency theory of organizational design encourages existing organizations to adapt more relevant systems when they do not fit the required task. This approach allows an organization to change without requiring a total metamorphosis, or commitment to "one best way" of designing organizations (Lorsch, 1969). Temporary administration provides an actual mechanism that is adaptive to the organizational environment that is not in constant conflict with logical rules of bureaucratic management. Both temporary and perpetual management systems have a natural mission and constituency that is appropriate for each respective model.

Special Event Management Defined

Special event management is the art of leading workers to accomplish a mission that is terminal by design. This form of administration is outside of routine bureaucracies and is created to accomplish a specific task. A special events existence is tied to this mission and it has the integrity to design an organization to accomplish its particular objectives. These organizations are defined for this study as an organization that is

created to accomplish a special task and is terminated upon its completion. These organizations operate with a designated time deadline and develop an operating system specific for the assigned mission.

This directed form of management is most commonly used to deliver a "peak performance" such as a Statue of Liberty celebration, World's Fair, or a city's Centennial Celebration. These events require a collaboration of efforts to produce an event with community interest in a confined period of time. Each of these events would strain the work load of any established department and compete for resources if an independent body is not created. Special events are created to deliver a program outside a parent organization's structure. For example, a Statue of Liberty celebration is a special event producing a peak performance over a given period of time, comprised of a series of events, and terminating at a specific time. These special events can be brought about for various reasons but share common characteristics of a distinct form of management that will be discussed in this dissertation.

This study will focus on the special events of a one-time nature. This restriction is necessary to construct a theory of special event management as distinct from the continuous bureaucratic characteristics of organizations that produce the same event on a regular basis and benefit

from an internal institutional memory. Even though some of the continuous events are produced just one time a year, they have permanent support and production systems that deviate from the concept of special event management as utilized in this research.

Boundaries of Special Event Research

This study is primarily concerned with special events of a one-time nature. To provide a framework of understanding these events within a general theory of temporary administration, it is necessary to associate the terminal concept with the design of the special event organization. Many continuous programs with established organization structures may appear to fall within the purview of special events because of their activities, but belong in the domain of perpetual administration. To capture the greatest symmetry with temporary administration, this study focuses on special events that must create an operating structure to produce a one-time program and terminate at a specified time. This demarcation is important to understand the most dynamic qualities of these management systems that are distinct from our traditional bureaucracies.

The sorting of these special events is not presented as a classification of special events, but gradation of

their organizational structure from a given baseline. In this study the purest special event is the one-time presentation, such as a Statue of Liberty celebration. Also included are special events that may appear that they are a continuous organization structure but actually have to create a new operating structure of their own--for example, the Olympics or World's Fair. Given the change in venue and lapse of time between events, these organizations essentially must be created and terminated like any other temporary organization. Surprisingly, little information is passed on from the previous scheduled event to the next sponsor concerning management issues or techniques. The organizations that deviate from a pure model of temporary administration are those that have operating systems that provide an organizational format from one scheduled event to the next without terminating the operating structure. Even though these organizations may share some of the overt characteristics of special events, a determination must be made of the degree of dependence upon temporary administration in developing their operating structure. To discover the essence of special events will require this distinction from traditional organizations as we understand them in the management literature today (Szilagyi & Wallace, 1987).

The current phenomenon is the utilization of special event organizations to accomplish specified goals without

recognizing a unique form of management. An obvious question is if special events do not have a unique delivery system, then why are they selected to tackle certain projects? There is an obvious and not well-studied linkage of the use of special events to complete temporary administration missions. These organizations have proven to be successful deliverers of programs under tremendous time pressures and lack of resources. A recent example is the second presidential debate in the fall of 1988 between George Bush and Michael Dukakis in Los Angeles, California. Two weeks before the debate deadline, the original hosts aborted the program and new sponsors had to be found to present the program. The Commission for Presidential Debates delivered the debate on time, with over 1,000 guests, and a major network audience. The first inquiry from a management perspective is, what are the principles of this success, and the second is, if these principles are random occurrences or demonstrate consistent elements that can be used to develop a descriptive theory of special event management that can be studied and utilized in other events. This dissertation will study both of these characteristics and their consistency as theories of special event management.

Background of Special Event Management

As a management topic, special event administration has very little reference in the literature and no common treatise on the subject. These temporary organizations have been recognized for their work product but not for their methodology of accomplishing these goals. Why haven't researchers spent more time investigating this relationship? First, it is often assumed that a special event organization does not have a unique management style but adopts the system of their sponsors; secondly, these organizations are temporary in nature and do not easily lend themselves to observation; and finally, these organizations lie outside the established power base and are often considered a dead-end for research and consulting. However, the increase in interest and sophistication of special events will surely draw more attention to their procedures and processes in the future. Currently we are observing a growing use of special event organizations to deliver a variety of internationally significant programs such as the Los Angeles Olympics which had 6 million visitors and took in \$725 million in revenues; Expo 1986 in Vancouver, with 22.5 million visitors; or the Pan Am Games at the University of Indiana that managed 947,000 visitors for a \$178 million in benefits (Price, 1988, p. 11).

The production of special events can be traced back more than 3,000 years to early festivals, and as early as 776 B.C. the Olympic Games of Greece were being held (Hill, 1988). These festivals were cultural performances that laid a foundation for early special event productions as Milton Singer (1955) describes:

Indians and perhaps all peoples, think of their culture as encapsulated in such discrete performances, which they can exhibit to outsiders as well as to themselves. For the outsider these can conveniently be taken as the most concrete observable units of the cultural structure, for each performance has a definitely limited time span, a beginning and end, an organized program of activity, a set of performers, an audience, and a place and occasion of performance. (p. 25)

Singer's reference to time, program, and occasion are still fundamental concepts in producing both cultural and social festivals. Concurrently with the production of festivals, trade fairs were also being presented for thousands of years with the introduction of industrial expositions in Paris in 1798, and the first international exhibition at the Crystal Palace in England in 1851 (Walters, 1939).

To understand our modern day fascination with attending events, it is necessary to understand the growth of leisure time in modern societies. This free time is considered a reward for working, and is an opportunity to enjoy the fruits of labor. These workers are not only seeking a comfortable way of life, but are eager to

purchase experience and to observe or participate in something unique (Manning, 1983a & 1983b). This growth of disposable income and leisure time increases the demand for special event productions. Americans have a work clock and fun clock, week and weekend, work and vacation, and are prepared to celebrate the contrast (Falassi, 1987). The history of why audiences enjoy special events is persuasive, but how we produce them is an age old phenomenon that is not as clear. Managers have successfully and unsuccessfully produced events and campaigns for centuries, passing down an unwritten tradition of special event management. Now, the dramatic influx of new events and one-time productions calls upon the transference of management knowledge through a more expeditious medium. Consequently, there is a significant growth in the number of consultants who will offer their expertise to design and produce a temporary organization. However, this expertise is still grounded in its vocational roots and has little recognition in organizational theory.

Special events are increasing in their use by both private and public entities. These organizations are becoming nationally significant in delivering monumental programs such as the Statue of Liberty Celebration:

The four-day Liberty Weekend requires a litany of superlatives: it will feature the biggest fireworks display in U.S. history, the

largest street fair ever in America, the greatest massing of Coast Guard and auxiliary vessels for a single event since World War II, the biggest security mobilization in New York City history. (Stengel, 1986, p. 18)

The mystery of this system of management is linked to a lack of research studying the characteristics of this form of temporary administration. Today a manager of special events or management researcher has little literature to refer to in understanding the creation and operating dynamics of a special event organization. This study will take a first step in providing a management information base by developing a general theory of special event management as a model of temporary administration.

CHAPTER 2

METHODOLOGY

Building a Descriptive Theory of
Special Event Management

Traditionally, special events have received an *ad hoc* treatment without consideration of wider theoretical application. This view perceives these events as a random or chance occurrence of management skills coming together in undetermined ways to deliver a particular program. The antithesis to this *ad hoc* theory relies on consistent characteristics of special event management that are applicable to a variety of special events. The use of *ad hoc* here is not to be confused with "Adhocracy" as used in a project-type structure of an organization that operates in a dynamic and changing environment (Mintzberg, 1979; Mintzberg & McHugh, 1985), which will be discussed later in this research.

This study will explore if there are consistent characteristics of this management experience which are consistent across a variety of special events. If a set of management themes emerge, they will be used as a foundation for constructing a general theory of temporary administration (Patton, 1980). The research process of developing and testing this hypothesis will follow a "Rational Model" as described by Martin (1981):

"1) Formulate a theoretical problem; 2) select appropriate research method(s); design and conduct study; 3) analyze and interpret results; and 4) use results to confirm/deny theory" (p. 17).

The theoretical problem of this dissertation is to build a descriptive theory that explains a perceived phenomena of special event management as a model of temporary administration. The first step in designing this exploratory study is to select a research technique that is appropriate for conducting a pioneer inquiry into the management of special events. After an investigation of quantitative and qualitative techniques, it became apparent that qualitative research is more insightful for this particular type of theoretical investigation. This holistic view of qualitative problem description and investigation is described as an inductive approach by Patton (1980).

A qualitative research strategy is inductive in that the researcher attempts to make sense of the situation without imposing preexisting expectations on the research setting. Qualitative designs begin with specific observations and build toward general patterns. Categories or dimensions of analysis emerge from open-ended observations as the researcher comes to understand organizing patterns that exist in the empirical world under study. This contrasts with the hypothetical-deductive approach of experimental designs which require the specification of main variables and the statement of specific research hypotheses *before* data collection. A specification of research hypotheses based on an explicit theoretical framework means that general principles provide the

framework for understanding specific observations or cases. The researcher must then decide in advance what variables are important and what relationships among those variables are expected. The strategy in qualitative designs is to allow the important dimensions to emerge from analysis of the cases under study *without presupposing in advance what those important dimensions will be.* (p. 40)

When a researcher has little information about a problem, it is logical to first develop a framework for constructing a descriptive theory to identify patterns of organization. This use of quantitative techniques allows a researcher to observe the general phenomenon and inquire into what one does not know without relying upon an *a priori* theory of established variables. This naturalistic inquiry is defined by Lincoln and Guba (1985) as:

When working within the naturalistic paradigm, however, the investigator typically does *not* work with either a priori theory or variables; these are expected to emerge from the inquiry. Data accumulated in the field thus must be analyzed *inductively* (that is, from specific, raw units of information to subsuming categories of information) in order to define local working hypotheses or questions that can be followed up. (p. 203)

A process of a theory emerging antecedent to data collection instead of theory driving the data collection is popularly considered a Grounded Theory. Important criteria for determining the use of a grounded theory is establishing a natural association with the topic studied. For special event management, it is critical to ask what is important before one presumes what is important and

tests for significance. The first step in this research is to gather a base of information that allows common characteristics of special event management to emerge from this field of study without prompting a defined answer. This process of allowing commonalities to solidify into focused realities will provide the researcher insights to identify the key elements from which a more comprehensive theory can be grounded in the data gathered (Dubin, 1969; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Jones, 1984). In developing a theory of special event management that will be applicable to a variety of these organizations, it will be essential to identify variables that explain the common phenomenon (Blalock, 1982). This study will utilize both inductive theory development to identify the characteristics of special event management, and a focusing instrument to measure the level of agreement with the identified variables that will be described later in the special event management questionnaire.

Expert Interviews

The selection of special event experts as a data base to study this form of administration is supported by Helmer and Rescher (1960):

For the expert has at his ready disposal a large store of (mostly inarticulated) background knowledge and a refined sensitivity to its relevance, through the intuitive application of

which he is often able to produce trustworthy personal probabilities regarding hypotheses in his area of expertness.... The informed expert, with his resources of background knowledge and his cultivated sense of the relevance and bearing of generalities in particular cases, is best able to carry out the application of quasi-laws necessary for reasoned prediction in this field. (p. 21)

The experts selected for this study all have considerable experience in special event management representing a variety of special event programs. In selecting this panel, it was necessary to rely upon recommendations by other experts, experience, reputation and publications to identify prospective members. This process provided a pool of special event managers who represented a variety of activities, different geographical regions and private, public and non-profit event organizations (Harman & Press, 1975).

Similar to Delphi panels, this group was composed of a panel of members who are not in communication with each other and subject to peer conformity (Dalkey & Helmer, 1962). Each of the ten members was interviewed by phone and a recording and transcript of each interview was made. Considering the geographical dispersion of the members, this method gives the researcher an opportunity to receive a greater breadth and quality of experts, not being restricted to a certain region (Van De Ven & Delbecq, 1974). In the first round of the interview process a

letter was mailed to each member confirming his or her phone interview. Previously, each member had been contacted in the recruitment process of getting them to agree to participate on the panel, during which time no special questions about special events were asked. Included with each letter of confirmation was a "work sheet" of ten general questions about special events, designed to stimulate the members' thinking, but not to limit the scope of the interview (Appendix A). This type of interview is described by Patton (1980) as an Interview Guide Approach and has the following characteristics, strengths and weaknesses:

Characteristics

Topics and issues to be covered are specified in advance, in outline form: interviewer decides sequence and working of questions in the course of the interview.

Strengths

The outline increases the comprehensiveness of the data and makes data collection somewhat systematic for each respondent. Logical gaps in data can be anticipated and closed. Interviews remain fairly conversational and situational.

Weaknesses

Important and salient topics may be inadvertently omitted. Interviewer flexibility in sequencing and wording questions can result in substantially different respondents, thus reducing the comparability of responses.
(p. 206)

Before this methodology was selected, a more informal open-ended approach was tested that had no predetermined

guideline of questions or topics. The advantage of that approach was to allow the expert to go in any direction he thought important and to build upon what emerged. The trade-off was a potpourri of topics that were interesting to that particular expert but that would not give the researcher a method of comparing results with the other panel members (Patton, 1980). The adjustment in favor of the interview guide approach guaranteed that a certain set of general topics would be discussed while at the same time each panel member was encouraged to expound on anything that he thought relevant to each topic (Baily, 1982). All interviews were closed with an open question, asking each panel member to discuss anything concerning special events that he felt was important and had not already been covered.

To provide consistency during the interview, a work sheet was utilized to provide a routine for the process (Appendix B). Each interview was started with the following procedure:

- A. Notification that the conversation is being recorded.
- B. Encourage each member to elaborate on all questions, and to discuss any topics they thought important.
- C. Requested any written information that they may use in managing special events.

D. Informed participants of the working definition of special events for this study, and requested that they concentrate their comments to "one-time" events.

Next, while being recorded on tape, the experts were asked about their special event background and asked to define their role in working with special events. After the preliminary background data was collected, the interviews started with ten topical questions, allowing the participant to elaborate on each issue. The interview was concluded with three questions: the first asking about any trends that they have observed in special events; the second, asking the participants if there are any questions that they would like to ask about special events that were covered; and, the final question, asked if there is any topic that they would like to discuss that was not yet discussed in this interview. A continual and delicate concern in obtaining accurate information in this process is that the interviewer does not improperly influence the interview by encouraging or probing for a particular response (Hyman, Cobb, Feldman, Hart & Stember, 1975).

It was found that the length of these phone interviews varied between 30 minutes to over one hour in length. Coates (1986) has a similar experience with this type of structured interview: "In the telephone interview it is difficult to hold someone for more than thirty

minutes. Sixty minutes is a really ultimate limit." Coates believes that the phone interview is a more productive process because of the structure: "With the telephone, one is often much more crisp in having a series of points that one can go over. Just the fact that it is in a more structured medium permits one to introduce more structure into the telephone interview than the face-to-face." (p. 76) A constant balance of structure and openness must be maintained to survey the potential elements of this type of management. Comparing the test interviews and final interviews, the balance between a guided approach and an informal conversational interview proved satisfactory.

During the interviews, notes were taken utilizing a separate work sheet for each participant. Even though the interview was being recorded, Patton (1980) brings out the importance of taking notes. In this process:

Notes can serve at least two purposes: (1) notes taken during the interview can help the interviewer formulate new questions as the interview moves along, particularly where it may be appropriate to check out something that was said earlier; and (2) taking notes about what is said will facilitate later analysis, including locating important quotations from the tape itself. In addition, note-taking is one of the nonverbal behaviors that helps pace the interview. Note-taking becomes a kind of nonverbal feedback to the interviewee about when something sufficiently important to have written down has been said; conversely, the failure to take notes will often indicate to the respondent that nothing of particular importance is being said. (p. 247)

These notes were utilized to formulate new questions to ask the participants after they completed the topic areas. This is beneficial to be able to explore tangential interests without sacrificing the focus on certain systematic questions. All designed topic areas were discussed with each panel member, and special interests of the particular panel members were also explored. The worksheet questions were broad enough that by the completion of the last question the participants had a chance to consider most issues of importance to them.

After the completion of the interviews, each tape was transcribed verbatim. This is a preferred method to analyze the interview data than working back and forth through the audio tapes. These transcripts are useful for developing comprehensive analyses of the panel's comments and gathering anecdotal data. The total transcription of the ten interviews is approximately 250 pages double spaced. From these transcripts, consistent themes of special event management were identified from the interviews. Similar to "action research", this methodology allows us to inquire about the primary concerns of this form of management without allowing the research instrument to control the information obtained (Comfort, 1985).

From this transcribed data, the next step is to develop a set of themes that emerges from similar comments of the various panel members. This narrowing process is essential in theory-building to identify a set of elements that have plenary descriptive qualities. Similar to content analysis, the primary findings will be developed through systematic review of a form of communication. Williamson, Kays, Dolphi and Oray (1988) recommends content analysis as a method to develop descriptive themes:

Words and pictures are valuable sources of social science data. The primary intent of content analysis is to uncover themes in these sources of communication--themes that are representative of an entire culture, a specific group of people, or the life of an individual. In some studies the discovery of these themes may be accomplished through the tabulation of specific words. Alternatively, the thematic content in sentences, paragraphs, or perhaps an entire essay or book may be ascertained. Regardless of the particular unit of analysis employed, the underlying goal of the research remains constant: to find a logic in the themes uncovered such that the characteristics of authors or their audiences may be better understood. (p. 278)

From the analysis of the panel's transcripts, certain consistent themes were identified. Since these common principles emerged from the interviews, it would be impossible to have sequentially asked all panel members about the same characteristics during the interview process. Once the exploratory interview of this research was completed, the next step was to focus on a set of

discrete variables. This categorization in theory-building is a necessary step in comprehending a multitude of possibilities as described by Glaser and Strauss (1967).

The universe of data that the constant comparative method uses is based on the reduction of the theory and the delimitation and saturation of categories. Thus, the collected universe of data is first delimited and then, if necessary, carefully extended by a return to data collection according to the requirements of theoretical sampling. Research resources are economized by this theoretical delimiting of the possible universe of data, since working within limits forces the analyst to spend his time and effort only on data relevant to his categories. In large field studies, with long lists of possibly useful categories and thousands of pages of notes embodying thousands of incidents, each of which could be encoded in a multitude of ways, theoretical criteria are very necessary for paring down an otherwise monstrous task to fit the available resources of personnel, time, and money. Without theoretical criteria, delimiting a universe of collected data, if done at all, can become very arbitrary and less likely to yield an integrated product; the analyst is also more likely to waste time on what may later prove to be irrelevant incidents and categories. (p. 113)

At this time, a trade-off is made between generalizability for simplicity and precision (Blalock, 1982). It is essential to identify categories that describe some properties of special event management. Lincoln and Guba (1985) recognize the need for a process of full definition:

That is, the comparison shifts from a more or less intuitive "look-alikeness" or "feel-alikeness" judgment to a judgment of whether a new incident exhibits the category properties that

have been tentatively identified. The process not only becomes more rule-oriented but at the same time tests the properties; if new incidents fail to exhibit some of the properties, perhaps they ought not to be used to define the category, perhaps a subcategory is needed, or perhaps the category needs to be redefined. It is this dynamic working back and forth that gives the analyst confidence that he or she is converging on some stable and meaningful category set.... This process of making category properties explicit not only facilitates the task of rule definition but also enables the investigator to begin on the task of category integration. (p. 342)

Survey Questionnaire

After engaging in this process of identifying special event properties, 6 categories and 24 themes were developed (Appendix A). This identification of certain management principles is grounded in the interview data. Some themes have greater frequency in the transcript, while others may explore issues that integrate a variety of observations. To give every member of the panel an introspective opportunity to respond to the common themes, a survey questionnaire is designed to focus their responses to a set of key themes (Harman & Press, 1975). This questionnaire solicits a response from each expert about the principles of special event management, utilizing an attitude scale. This method allows each participant to respond with varying degrees of intensity. This instrument has a numerical range of 1 to 7, with 1

representing "strongly disagree," 4 a neutral response, and 7 a response of "strongly agree." This scale allows each participant to register his agreement or disagreement with each statement (Isaac & Michael, 1981).

As in the original interview, each respondent is requested to concentrate on special events of a one-time nature. This questionnaire also asks each participant the years that he has been associated with special events and the type of special events he is most familiar with. To allow for additional information and clarification, a space is provided for comments in each section. Finally, the survey closes with an open-ended question inquiring if they had any personal management principles or "rules of thumb" that they consistently use with various special events. If they responded yes, they are requested to list their primary rules. This ordinal scale will allow the use of nonparametric statistics to analyze this survey data (Miller, 1983). Later in the chapter of survey results, the relationship and significance of the survey statements will be tested and conclusions made as to their nonparametric measure or correlation.

CHAPTER 3

FINDINGS: SPECIAL EVENT MANAGER INTERVIEWS

Exploratory Interviews

The expert interviews were exploratory in trying to develop a descriptive theory of special event management. Each manager was allowed to discover what he felt was the fundamental characteristics and dynamics of his respective special event management experience. Analyzing this data across the entire panel, certain themes emerge as consistent principles of this form of temporary administration. Utilizing both content analysis (Williamson, Kays, Dolphi & Oray, 1982) of frequent responses and anecdotal data (Helmer & Rescher, 1960), this research develops a framework for understanding and building a descriptive theory of this management system.

All of the expert interviews were recorded and transcribed. From this transcript one is able to identify and categorize organizational issue areas as a structure for analyzing this data. Five special event organizational issue areas emerged from this data: Planning, structure, workers, leadership and evaluation. Each of these areas will be discussed as it relates to the management experience of this type of temporary organizational manager. From this research larger theoretical implications of temporary administration can be made as a descriptive theory of special events is drawn from these

findings. Anecdotal data and discussion is useful in building this descriptive foundation for the management characteristics of these organizations from which a more holistic understanding of special event management can be made.

Each of the following categories will be discussed as an issue area with certain themes of special event management emerging in each. These issue areas are not independent and exclusive of the others, but are a useful way of putting a massive amount of information in a reasonable order to study the management principles of these temporary organizations.

I. Planning

Developing a Theme

In developing a strategy for producing a special event, it is composed of two phases--first the conceptualization or creating of a theme and secondly, a planning process emerges around this theme. This theme can be described as the "core mission" or "reason for being" of a particular organization as it sets out to accomplish its goals (Dyer, 1984).

Regardless of city size, special events provide a civic focus. The theme related structures of these events become permanently fixed in the public's mind as symbols for the host city and often remain to provide a point of

reference for local residents and future visitors. For example, the Eiffel Tower--for nearly a century Paris's consummate symbol--was built for the 1889 exposition. Similarly, Seattle's space Needle, symbol of the 1962 "Century 21" Exposition, still serves as a landmark in a city fractured by hills and waterways. (Dungan 1984, p. 83)

Similar to project management, special events pass through a conceptualization phase that empowers their work and defines their boundaries (Aptman, 1986; Hahn, 1987). The first phase of this process truly defines the necessity of a project (Slevin & Pinto, 1987) or as in a special event develops a community of support for its implementation. This conceptualization product is not always a rational package of costs and benefits, but often considers emotional issues of community pride, image, entertainment, participation, and social purpose. These special attributes produce intrinsic qualities which help develop a sense of purpose and importance for these programs. This underlying theme provides a common thread for connecting all parts of the organization to the mission of the organization as found in these special event managers' comments.

***** "I think that it's really important in developing a major special event or promotion or whatever, to have a thread that runs through, that is real connecting, whether it's a color theme, whether it is, of course, a logo, the

verbal theme, and that almost everything that you do, then, you keep using that, and you keep using that, and you keep using that, so at the end, if you put together all your pieces that you either had printed or that you've written, or whatever, and you laid them all out on the big conference table, you would see that everything kind of related, that there wasn't one thing that jumped out that was really different, that you stayed with the same color. If you decided to have a very simplistic approach, you see very clean lines, but that--it is everything--everything verbal, written, printed, whether it be pins, patches, stationary, letterhead, promotional items. Whatever it is, they all look the same. They all kind of complement one another, and, you know, as I say, you can do that through a theme, you can do it through color, you can do it through a logo, but that there is a continuity that keeps that together. So that almost people can just see--glance across the room and maybe it's not the same T-shirt, but it is another item that totally--people know that it belongs to this particular event. . . . You create an identity."

***** "Everything was designed very carefully, painstakingly, to make sure that a certain image was personified."

***** "The really interesting thing is that because they [special events] are one-time only events, you've got to go without knowing for sure how your event will be

perceived. You've got to do what seems right to you and to your board, and if you have the right kind of board, you'll have enough of a range of sensitivities that you won't make big mistakes."

***** "Yeah. I've probably spoken--oh, probably between sixty and seventy times in the last six months, which is way more than I ever did in my other job, and I find myself speaking to people at the grassroots level--at the in-house staff. But the boosters, the supporters, the alums--anybody that's even remotely identified with the university--I usually find myself in front of them getting to give my pitch for the Centennial."

Because of the mission of these organizations and their conceived purpose, they often have an effect beyond their own organizations and gather interest and scrutiny from an external community. Special events can be adopted by this "community interest" to empower them beyond the founding entity. A natural consequence of this empowerment is a loss of control as a host community exercises domain over the conceived event. Travis Dungan (1984) describes the multitude of input involved in conceptualizing an event: "Identifying and refining a theme can take a substantial amount of work. Every member of the organizing entity and many in the community will have an opinion on the choice and interpretation of

potential event concepts" (p. 85). A decision must be made by planning committees on how much community participation and control they would find effective. The Los Angeles Olympic Games of 1984 struggled with planning issues as public opinion surveys were conducted and public referendums were threatened (Willens, 1984). On occasion a special event can be used by the community of interest to spearhead divergent issues. When these issues are not aligned with the mission of the event, they distract the planning process and solicitation of support necessary to produce the event. More commonly, a special event brings a community together and provides a sense of excitement within the community of interest. In fact, a special event often is the impetus for a community to make improvements beyond the needs of the event as experienced by the Pasadena Rose Bowl during the 1984 Olympics which was not able to be renovated because of Proposition 13, but found \$4.4 million in improvements because of the Olympic Games (McIntyre & Cohen, 1984). These events usually have many positive effects on a community that are not direct products of the program but collateral benefits that are apparent long after their completion.

"Emerging Systems"

The planning style of a special event fits a model of adhocracy (Mintzberg, 1979) and strategy formation presented by Mintzberg and McHugh (1985). Because these impermanent organizations operate in an environment that is dynamic with prototype demands, utilize temporary work teams, rely upon informal structures and have complex and unpredictable work requirements, they will develop a specialized strategy model similar to the grassroots model described by Mintzberg and McHugh (1985):

Grassroots Model

1. Strategies grow initially like weeds in a garden; they are not cultivated like tomatoes in a hothouse.
2. These strategies can take root in all kinds of strange places, virtually wherever people have the capacity to learn and the resources to support that capacity.
3. Such strategies become organizational when they become collective, that is, when the patterns proliferate, to pervade the behavior of the organization at large.
4. That process of proliferation may be conscious but need not be; likewise, it may be managed but need not be.
5. The pervasion of new strategies, which themselves may be emerging continuously, tends to occur during distinct periods of divergence that punctuate distinct periods of convergence of established, prevalent strategies.
6. To manage this process is not to pre-conceive strategies but to recognize their

emergence and intervene when appropriate.
(pp. 194-195)

The following special event managers' comments allude to this "grassroots" planning that allows the flexibility for an organizational plan and structure to emerge around the concept:

***** "So conceiving of the event itself and what it is you are trying to accomplish is the first step, and that would obviously be unique to any event, but after that the kind of management system, the strategy, the tactics, the board, what role the board plays, what role the staff plays, and how you manage that is something that just--it just kind of follows as you put a management system of internal controls and plans in place."

***** "First of all, don't procrastinate. Don't put off anything at the last minute that you could do today."

***** "Before the special event, the governing body, so to speak, whichever it is, tells you as a professional manager what they want to accomplish and the various goals and objectives, and then you build a very loose management structure and put it in place to achieve those objectives."

***** "Clearly, your planning time and your planning documents are never as well adhered to as they are in,

like, say, a full time staffing situation. And so much is placed on trust and faith and momentum."

The Los Angeles 1984 Olympics planning process was criticized as "make shift" (Fulton, 1984) because of these emergent qualities that do not demonstrate one clear plan from one established planning department. This type of organization experiences a dramatic learning curve due to the freshness of their activities that precludes definitive creation of the delivery organization and required activities during the initial planning stages (Trist, 1978). These events are complex with diverse constituencies, resource needs, and peak performances that have a close fit with a continuum of planning as described by T. J. Cartwright (1987):

. . . complex and meta-problems both require strategies that entail a succession of ameliorating actions rather than a single solution. Moreover, these problems also require a heuristic approach, i.e., that the planner modify successive decisions in the light of analyzing and evaluating the effects of earlier ones. In other words, for complex and meta-problems, planning cannot be separated from implementation. Each is 'input' for the other. Thus, the rational approach to planning for such problems is to monitor results and adapt actions accordingly. (p. 97)

Special events relying upon these ameliorating actions often plan beyond their immediate resources. The Knoxville Worlds Fair struggled with developing plans that went beyond the current capacity of the organization,

expecting the local community to provide resources and solutions (Evans, 1982). Special events use this planning process as a strategy to solicit participation and support, by leaving a void that cannot be filled by internal resources, but opening doors for emergent ideas and contributions from not yet identified sources.

II. Structure

The Adaptive Organization

Special event organizations have a flatter hierarchal structure to manage a rapidly changing and dynamic environment. Lawrence and Lorsch (1969) refer to a straightforward task-oriented approach to deal with this type of uncertain, changing environment. In these adaptive organizations a traditional reliance on a rigid set of rules gives away to a more responsive organizational design, allowing a relaxation of behavioral controls and resistance by workers (Berkley, 1971; Mouzelis, 1967). Lawrence and Lorsch (1969) recognize the need for fluid communication policies that would not be served by a standard set of rules:

Formal rules cannot be formulated that will be suitable for any appreciable time period, so it seems better not to rely heavily on them. More of an All-to-All communications pattern is indicated which can keep environmental clues moving throughout the unit for interpretation at

all points instead of just through superior-subordinate channels. (p. 240)

This enhanced communication process is commonly found in the matrix organizational structure which is acutely responsive to an uncertain external environment (Davis & Lawrence, 1977). These matrix structures try to break down barriers between specialists and allow a mixing of talents to solve problems (Morgan, 1986). Special event organizations escape the functional control of the host bureaucracy while utilizing the cross-communication of the matrix organization. This matrix structure fits with a model of Adhocracy (Mintzberg, 1979) that involves project teams to perform a task and dissolves upon completion of the task. This matrix structure, like the model of Adhocracy, is particularly appropriate for complex tasks in an uncertain environment that require an ability to adapt as described by Gareth Morgan (1986): "Matrix organizations typically increase the adaptability of organizations in dealing with their environments, improves coordination between functional specialists, and makes good use of human resources" (p. 59). Because of this organizational structure and its task requirements (Steiner, 1965), this type of organization is conducive to innovation. These organizations are not set into a rigid set of rules and regulations since they often must develop a unique and never before presented program. This *de novo*

start-up without dependence on established bureaucratic controls and policies is a natural advantage for inspiring creativity (Koprowski, 1972). Both by design and procedure these temporary management organizations develop a working atmosphere that fosters innovation, participation, and satisfaction.

Build the Organization Around People

In creating a special event organization, a consistent theme emerged of an organization that was adaptable to the people involved. Special event development starts with the recruitment of people for whom an organization will be designed to fit them and the mission. This customization of administrative structures allows these events to be people-focused, relying on personnel to deliver the end product instead of an established bureaucracy. These "output focused" systems are concentrated on the event and not an internal struggle of personnel trying to fit to an awkward organizational structure (Weisbord, 1978).

The strength and continuity of a special event are the people who can operate in this uncertain environment with a spartan organizational structure. This minimalization of structure follows an axiom of--only create the organizational support systems as needed to accomplish the

mission and do not overdevelop an administrative structure that has a terminal life. The following expert comments are insightful to understanding the creation of a special event structure contingent on the personnel selected:

***** "You've got to build an organization that's going to self-destruct in a short-time period. There is a tendency to fashion your structure after standard organizational practices. And there is a mistake in--going back to what I said earlier--in most of these events that are successful, where you may have a structure, you really develop it around people. You don't necessarily have to worry about good organization being in place in five or six years."

***** "[In special events] you develop a kind of culture, the organizational culture, which tends to be a lot more like a political campaign. Rush, rush, rush. Hurry, hurry, hurry. Work long hours. You know, that kind of thing, whereas in an ongoing corporation, you are looking to hire somebody who will fit in with an already existing corporate culture. That's a very important quality. That's a very important criterion when you are hiring somebody in your corporation. Will they fit in with our corporate culture? And you don't really think about that in an organization that doesn't have a corporate culture yet when you are hiring."

***** "Well, the structure in every one I have worked with has been that there has been very little structure. Basically, what you use in special event organizations, as far as I have seen and experienced, is you build before the special event a loose network of management people with specific assignments and then you turn them loose and give them very little supervision."

***** "I think most of them start off with an organizational plan that stays intact for the most part, but typically what happens is that you end up relying on people that you know can get the job done. So you end up building the organization around the people."

This contingency approach to organizational design lends itself to the dynamic environment, goal orientation, and uniqueness of special events. The contingency approach is not looking for one best design but analyzes each event as to its particular needs. There is no "one best way" for designing this fluctuating model of temporary management systems. Kast and Rosenzweig (1973) provide a good summary of this contingency approach:

A *contingency* approach attempts to understand the interrelationships within and among organizational subsystems as well as between the organizational system as an entity and its environments. It emphasizes the multivariate nature of organizations and attempts to interpret and understand how they operate under varying conditions and in specific situations. The approach strives to aid managers by

suggesting organizational design strategies which have the highest probability of succeeding in a specific situation. The success criteria revolve around the accomplishment of organizational goals. (p. 313)

Every special event has a unique set of situations that affects how it goes about achieving its goals. This combination of an uncertain environment and lack of historical operating structure necessitates the creation of an organization that is people-centered with administrative support system development as needed by a particular event. This ambiguity is beneficial to the creative potential of these organizations to develop towards their objectives (Sweet, 1987). These emergent structures must be able to rapidly adapt as the special event organization becomes increasingly aware of their administrative needs, while operating within a dynamic environment.

Managing Momentum: "A Sense of Urgency"

A sense of urgency is a natural consequence of the severe time constraints placed upon special event organizations. These time constraints are magnified by the lack of experience and confidence in the organizational delivery system in an *a priori* event. A general feeling that you can't do too much too early or start too soon pervades these newly created special events.

The environmental factors associated with this feeling of "urgency" are similar to certain issues in crisis management. Lewis (1988) describes this crisis environment as follows: "It is characterized by change, uncertainty and a sense of urgency in which communications and decision-making systems may break down and standard operating procedures may not apply" (p. 174). Lewis identifies management characteristics of emergency events of which three are particularly applicable to this "sense of urgency":

1. Fluidity - changes in the character of the event, the information available concerning the character of event, the response demands placed upon the system, the identity and objectives of participants.
2. Action Orientation - the need and/or the desire on the part of participants to take action that will affect the outcome(s) of the event in a positive way.
3. Timing - limitations in the time available that creates a sense of urgency for the officials who must analyze the problem and act to influence the event. (p. 167)

There are many differences between crisis and special event management, but both share a compressed time schedule, an "escalation of intensity" and management of risk and uncertainties (Fink, 1986). These organizations operate on parallel paths with key differences in planning, mission and evaluation. Special events have a valuable organizational dynamic that is linked to this "escalation of intensity" creating a momentum for the

program. This momentum gains strength in a rapid growth pattern as it approaches the time of the event.

It must be cautioned that this momentum can also push an organization into an escalation situation that makes it difficult to change from a previous commitment in programming as experienced in the 1986 Vancouver "Expo" (Ross & Staw, 1986). Momentum is a mechanism that helps these organizations to achieve their goals in a confined time period, but it does not guarantee that the goals are correct.

This momentum forces special events to rely upon people to provide an administrative continuum when the organizational structure cannot keep pace. A sense of urgency can help a manager to make decisions that lead to rapid adaptation, experimentation, and learning (Peters, 1987). Because of this rapid movement coupled with a sense of mission, these organizations and personnel rise above petty details to deliver the program. These events have a known final performance that focuses this momentum into developing a structure that controls outputs to provide a peak performance (Ouchi, 1977).

The following special event managers' comments exemplify those experiences that are demonstrative of this "sense of urgency" and organizational momentum.

***** "People understand the sense of urgency. People begin to concentrate, decisions are made and, generally speaking, they are good decisions. Even though they are made under pressure, they are made based on some past experiences that you have encountered, and things begin to happen and the event becomes a lot more fun. To be involved with up front, you know, you've got so many things, and you keep putting things off to the side and we'll say we'll wait to see what happen there, and you feel as though no decisions are being made. And so that's why there is a need for good leadership in that regard that can force some of those decisions early and take the risk. You know, for the most part you can still change direction as you move along in these things."

***** "You have more variables and it is--as much as we try to structure, there are so many spontaneous--and things, unexpected things that hit you that you have to be able to accomplish them. You can't say, wait a minute, wait a minute. This is off track. You've got to be able to go, shift gears midstream. You've just got to be able to have that quality."

***** "What I've found is that the leaner the organization, the better the communication. You can imagine, as these things begin to build up steam and you've got more work to do, and if you continue to add a lot of people, it

becomes very difficult to communicate because the train has already left the station. So if you can develop a cadre of people that can take on a lot of responsibility, I think you are better off in the long-run, because then you've got people you can rely on to get the job done and something that has to be done, you can turn to someone and get it done a lot easier than trying to recruit and bring people up to speed, and by that time the event is here and gone."

***** "The difference is that you know you are on a short rein. And perhaps it may have to do with--if you're with IBM, you know you're going to have to work with these people for a long time. You work out your differences. When you are on a short reign, two to three years if you've got some major differences, those ride. They stay with you because you don't have time to really spend to change those attitudes."

***** "In fact, the time line becomes so pat, and particularly is, during the course of the campaign, when you are truly building momentum. When you are into the climb towards the finality of the campaign, you're going to have many layers of events, which means you have colliding time frames."

***** "It becomes an organizational tightrope. You have to be constantly overlapping your events. Your event

planning time line is the only thing between you and insanity."

A special event organization is action-oriented and not burdened by rigid operating procedures. These organizations are highly flexible and adaptive to the environment, quick to capitalize on opportunities and respond to problems. Burns and Stalker (1961) would describe this type of operating structure as an organic model that is liberated of many of the controls of a mechanistic organization: "The organic form is appropriate to changing conditions, which give rise constantly to fresh problems and unforeseen requirements for action which cannot be broken down or distributed automatically arising from the functional roles defined within a hierarchic structure" (p. 121).

Burns and Stalker characterize this organic organization as one that has a sharing of responsibility, a speed of commitment, a community of interest, and consolidation of information instead of command. These characteristics of an organic organization hold true for special event structures as they have a natural fit with a changing environment. This breakdown of dependencies on a hierarchical structure of information fosters lateral relations and communication avenues. This allows effective informal organizations within the organization to solve problems

and build networks of expertise and interest (Galbraith, 1973). An outcome of these informal communication channels within a special event organization is an ability to manage the organizational momentum working under eminent deadlines by allowing resources and information to flow to the area where it is most needed with the least bureaucratic resistance.

III. Workers

Special events require a variety of workers with different skills for a terminal assignment. Some of these workers are part of a labor force referred to as the temporary help industry. This employment group has experienced a rapid growth of 104% from 1978 to 1985, which is over three times the growth rate for all service industries (Sacco, 1986, p. 57). Sacco believes this boom in temporary help is due to a management philosophy of keeping organizations lean by designing more temporary positions and by the industry's ability to match the right person with the right job. This growth of the temporary help industry provides special events a valuable indicator that there is a work force that is available and interested in temporary work assignments.

Special event workers may be drawn to special events for a variety of reasons. The most obvious is the mission

of the event and opportunity to participate in an important project. More subtle attractions include the satisfaction of working in an open and creative organization that allows a worker to fit his talents with the work requirements. Both of these topics will be discussed here as "Creative Job Fit" and "Campaign Feeling."

Creative Job Fit

Not every job in special events requires an unusually high level of creativity or initiative. In fact, some are dull and monotonous, i.e., passing cups to runners in a marathon. The main reason that these workers are happy with their tasks is one of selection and expectations as described by Lawler (1974): "Given accurate information, people are able to determine with some precision whether particular job situations will fit their needs and abilities. Further, they develop realistic expectations about the nature of the job and disappointment is minimized. This helps both the individual and the organization, since it reduces turnover and increases satisfaction" (p. 26). When a special event worker volunteers for four hours to work at a marathon, his expectations are not to be in a management position. When a worker participates over a period of time, these expectations and importance of job fit increase. Because

of the open organizational structure, special events give these workers greater opportunities to seek out the best fit of jobs with their skills and interests. This natural sorting is enticing to the creative personality who wants to work on projects that are not bogged down by a bureaucratic hierarchy.

***** "You really have to have creative people, and I think the biggest tendency in terms of error is to over-control it and to try to direct these people because we are used to our bureaucracies and our management systems and accountability, and you really just got to get out of their way and let them do it, and trust them that they'll do it."

***** ". . . for one-time event management you really have to have creative people, but you don't stifle and control with management systems. . . . You need strong, creative people and then you have to get out of their way."

***** "[Special event workers are] people who show a lot of initiative and who can see what needs to be done or who can, and taken together, have different kinds of perspectives so that they are capable of telling you something that you don't already know, or coming up with an idea that would never occur to you. Whereas in ongoing organizations you are looking for people who have very

specific skills to fill a very specific job, and you're not really as interested in the reach ability . . . the ability to reach beyond what they have done before, as you are in one of these organizations."

The atmosphere within these special events is informal with open communication networks and an active interest in the individual's contribution that is akin to organizational "Democracy" as described by Bennis and Slater (1968) as a system of values:

1. Full and free communication, regardless of rank and power.
2. A reliance on consensus, rather than on the more customary forms of coercion or compromise, to manage conflict.
3. The idea that influence is based on technical competence and knowledge rather than on the vagaries of personal whims or prerogatives of power.
4. An atmosphere that permits and even encourages emotional expression as well as task-oriented acts.
5. A basically human bias, one which accepts the inevitability of conflict between the organization and the individual but which is willing to cope with and mediate this conflict on rational grounds. (p. 4)

A recognition by special event managers that workers have the capacity and interest to "reach" beyond their current role is fostered by a democratic environment. These workers will have a greater latitude, freer communication in an expressive atmosphere to energize their creative

spirit. These events maintain a climate that fosters and rewards the workers whose satisfaction is derived from their feeling of participation and accomplishment of tasks in highly effective work groups (Likert, 1961).

An open operating structure with a nominal hierarchical authority promotes individual freedom that leads to an innovative atmosphere--as described by Thompson (1969):

"In a centralized system, only those with authority at the center can legitimately innovate.... Innovation, however, is a byproduct of freedom--a true freedom in which the individual has such a sense of personal security that he is not afraid to make choices. It is by innovation, indeed, that we recognize freedom in an organization. The free person is one who is not afraid to do something different--something not dictated by authority, the group, tradition, or personality." (p. 99)

These temporary organizations are conducive to this creativity, by breaking loose of bureaucratic traditions and a command for conformity and control (Berkley 1971). This lack of rigidity and necessity for lateral communication promotes creativity and expression by the special event worker.

Campaign Feeling

Special events develop a campaign feeling that helps focus the workers' efforts towards the established theme and objectives. This campaign feeling is coupled with a "sense of urgency" because of time constraints and the

intrinsic belief in the importance of the event. A key characteristic to understand this "campaign" mentality is to study why individuals want to associate with a temporary event. Schindler (1975) in studying volunteerism recognizes some key forces from "Inside the Self" that inspires one to participate: "It sounds like fun, I want to be where the action is, I want to get out of my 'box' away from the daily routine boredom, what they are doing is very important, they really need and want me. . . ." (p. 49).

An organization that can instill a sense of purpose that utilizes the intrinsic motivational factors of the workers for a particular event has the key element to promote a "campaign feeling." This campaign feeling enfranchises workers to feel it is their organization and they are capable of creating and shaping the outcome (Kiefer & Stroh, 1984). Kiefer and Stroh describe this purposeful organization as "metanoic" (a fundamental shift of mind) with the ability to produce an inspired performance:

Organizations capable of inspired performance appear to have several key elements: 1) a deep sense of purpose often expressed as a vision of what the organization stands for or strives to create; 2) alignment of individuals around this purpose; 3) an emphasis on both personal performance and an environment that empowers the individual; 4) effective structures that take the systemic aspects of organization into account; and 5) a capacity to integrate reason and intuition. (pp. 171-172)

The primary ingredient to produce this inspired performance is to ensure that the workers understand the mission of the event and feel that they are participating in a once-in-a-lifetime experience of which their contribution is important to its success.

***** "[Special events have the] same thread running through them involving people and having them feel like they have either accomplished something or have been happy to be involved in it."

***** "They must understand the objective or theme. What we're going after."

***** "I would think that the key characteristics [of special event workers] are that they can quickly grasp what the overall objective is, that they can grasp what the key concepts are. . . . So, first of all, get the understanding of what you want to achieve--we want to entertain, dazzle and wow these folks."

***** "[Getting workers involved] in the very early stages--a very good recruitment and orientation program. I'm talking about getting people to understand and buy into the philosophy by which this special event came about--making them feel a part of this tradition--the fact that they are going to participate in the one-time, once-in-a-lifetime experience--understanding how it developed

and how they play a key part of it. Whether they're taking a ticket or they are the president of an organizing committee, each has a role to play and their absence or their not fulfilling their responsibility has a tremendous impact on the outcome."

***** "You always . . . have a kind of campaign mentality and everybody is working very long hours very, very hard and trying to do more with less. And, incidentally, . . . you always try to do too much with too few staff and end up working in a sort of campaign-like atmosphere."

This campaign feeling provides a sense of association to workers, often symbolized by insignias, logos, T-shirts, etc. (Pell, 1977). Many of these symbolic items are meaningful rewards for performance because of the workers' strong identification with the event. These workers often embody the event even when they go home, carrying the campaign to their neighborhoods. The mementos of these events are reminders of a period of time in a special event worker's life that was particularly exciting and meaningful because of his participation.

Because of this sense of excitement from working in a special event, workers can experience a tremendous letdown when they return to their routine work life. The "sense of urgency" and "campaign feeling" of these events are

personally challenging to these workers and not easily forgotten after the event.

***** "Once [special event workers] have done this [worked in an event], and they've had this success--it's a high for life because you were once part of a once-in-a-lifetime experience. There is a tendency, because of the total immersion and involvement in putting these events on, that when they are over, there is a tremendous letdown. You've come so far, so fast, and you have built to this thing, and boom, it's over. I mean the Olympics is two and a half weeks, and it's over. The World's Fair is only six months, and then it's over. And there is this tremendous downer, if you will, once these things happen, and then it takes awhile for people to get back up and get back into the swing of things."

The termination of special events is sharp with little association or communication after the peak performance. Essentially a worker may often walk away from working in the final production of an event and not have any formal contact or association with the organization again. Many of the venues of the Los Angeles Olympics within weeks were dismantled and one would hardly recognize that a major event had taken place (Malnic, 1988). Some of these workers never adjust upon their return to their previous

jobs: One such worker, Ed Smith, left his firm of 20 years after being a ticket manager at the 1984 Los Angeles Olympics and is described as follows:

The nomadic Games came and went, and so did Smith. Today, on the fourth anniversary of the Opening Ceremonies of the Los Angeles Games, he remains absent from the button-down world - an itinerant organizer, migrating from one special event to another in pursuit of the rush that comes, he says, "from trying to create something out of nothing." (King, 1988, p. 1)

This feeling of being involved in an important project that is a life-long memory has also affected other Olympic workers.

Smith is not alone. Many former Olympic workers have not yet made full peace with what they call "the real world." Some have bounced from job to job, frustrated by their inability to rediscover the sense of shared mission that fired the Los Angeles Olympic Organizing Committee. Others have become event junkies. Even those who put the Games behind them and forged ahead with conventional careers--and by now they likely are the majority--came away from the triumph of 1984 changed. (King, 1988, p. 1)

The production of temporary events is benefited by people like Ed Smith who are committed to pursuing the excitement of special events, providing a core of experienced workers who will be valuable to future productions.

IV. Leadership/Management

Managing Uncertainty

A constant challenge to special event leadership is the dynamic environment and operating uncertainty. Peter Ueberroth (1985) describes his experience with the 1984 Los Angeles Olympics as an organization in constant flux:

Crisis management had been the order of the day from the very beginning. We had to be quick to stay one step ahead of the issues, not to mention the IOC, the sports federations, government, law enforcement, the media, and the public. Our organization charts were cast in sand: The one we created in the morning was outdated by the end of the day. (p. 161)

What Ueberroth referred to as crisis management needs to be clarified to a manageable state. Special event leaders deal well with what may appear to be a crisis situation and interpret it as a serious challenge and avoid a panicked decision process (Tjosvold, 1984). This ability to manage developing management systems within a changing environment is essential to special event leadership. These organizations change overnight and live on a rapid growth curve that accelerates the learning process, and also accelerates responsibility and seniority. Ard Lazzeretto, a member of the Los Angeles Olympic Organizing Committee, describes his experience in an emerging special event system:

From a management standpoint, this has been a very exciting and interesting experience. The

LAOOC staff began as an embryonic organization which, almost daily, subdivides and grows. "Old timers" on the staff are people who have been on the job more than three months. (Interview, Public Management, 1984, p. 12)

This type of rapid growth and acceleration of the organizational process is referred to as "fast tracking" by Lawrence H. de Bivort (1984). The Olympics and other special events experience a "fast tracking" that promotes the development process as rapidly as possible to complete the prescribed objectives. This model places a high value on time and recognizes it as a resource in short supply. de Bivort characterizes this type of manager as one with evolutionary management skills that can bring an organization to extraordinary levels of achievement within a short period of time. Special event organizations commonly accomplish herculean goals in a period of time that astounds notions of traditional management.

This rapid growth of a developing organizational structure magnifies this uncertainty for special event managers. Unlike traditional managers of conventional organizations, these special event chiefs cannot rely upon established and tested systems. This lack of organizational history provides little confidence in established systems and places a greater degree of dependence and expectations upon the informal organization to provide a coherent working unit (Barnard, 1978). Management in a special event type of adhocracy requires a manager to

mobilize workers through his leadership abilities instead of relying upon formal organizational controls. Mintzberg and McHugh (1985) refer to this loss of formal control as follows: "The dilemma of leadership in managing adhocracy lies in trying to exercise influence without being able to rely on formal controls" (p. 192). This loss of authority and control in an air of challenge and autonomy provides a natural sorting of managers:

Given that we found an institutionalization of strong demands for conformity, it follows that the leaders' personalities that were incorporated into organizational standards for social interaction had an aversion to the delegation of authority and a need to dominate or control others with whom they had relationships. The resulting cultural development that was characterized by these strong demands for conformity would not only attract security-interested managers, it would naturally repel independent and autonomous types of managers. It is more likely that these latter individuals would gravitate toward organizations whose cultures signaled a belief in managerial autonomy and challenge. (Feldman, 1985, p. 354)

These emergent organizations are learning to operate as a system while rapidly approaching a predetermined peak performance. Some special event managers find it helpful to practice the event, or simulate problems. However, the manager still lives with the uncertainty that he will not know if his event organization will be successful until the time of the production.

***** "One of the things that [a special event] does become is a great big huge fish bowl of watching people learn how to be organized."

***** "The special concern is that you'll get to that date in a fashion where, when the curtain goes up, that you'll have a performance on the field or on the stage, and that's what you think about all the way through."

***** "Until you actually do open do you know the crunch on all of your services. So the key to that is to do a number of training exercises and practice missions. . . . In the case of the worlds fairs--the Knoxville Fair--we ran I think about a month before we opened--we ran a number of practice nights where we had the employees, we had contractors come out and test out the facilities. So, you end up with a plan that includes a pre-opening practice session, if you will. The Olympics also had a practice session for security. In other words, we had situations, cases that took place. What if this happens? What if that happens?"

Special event managers are faced with a duality of focusing on strategic goals while providing efficiency in eliminating errors in the preparation process. Because of the organizational uncertainty, these organizations must participate in a reconstructive learning process to

develop an appropriate management system. The organic development of these emerging systems requires double loop learning that questions traditional standards and norms of evaluation (Friedlander, 1983). These events are prototype in design and must conduct continual learning, implementation, and evaluation processes to allow the organization to develop a system to deliver its objective. These systems do not methodically stamp out events, but are tailored to fit a particular program as it continually grows to maturation in a peak performance. These organizations are in a fluid state of change that requires a special management style, coined by Linda S. Ackerman (1984) as "managing in the flow state." Ackerman describes this "flow state" manager as one who "is a true agent of change, smoothly facilitates the release and channelling of energy" (p. 122). This manager works with the system and designs the structure to allow the organization to release its natural energies, while removing barriers that hinder this progression. A special event manager in dealing with organizational uncertainty must be aware of these emerging contributions and allow them to make a positive impact. Special events are often like a "stew"; you put in whatever you can find, and what you do find can enrich your final product beyond your original plans. These organizations start out resource-poor and

are flavored by the material and intellectual contributions of the community and participants.

Leadership Profile: "No Alternative to Success"

Warren Bennis and Burt Nanus (1985) identified a quality of leaders as how they responded to failures. This quality of focusing their energies on success was referred to by Bennis and Nanus as the "Wallenda Factor" after the great tight rope aerialist. A successful leader of a special event has a positive disposition to the challenges of the organization as described by Bennis and Nanus: "For successful leadership to occur there has to be a fusion between positive self-regard and optimism about a desired outcome" (p. 79). This positive self-regard is often referred to as a "strong personality" by special event managers. Considering the lack of supporting organizational systems, and the navigation of a dynamic and changing environment to accomplish a mission under pressing time constraints, these leaders must make a statement of confidence in the face of uncertainty.

***** "You can't do a special event without a strong personality because there is no acceptable alternative other than success, they have to just move through it

despite the odds and despite the things pulling them in different directions."

***** "I think special event management is terrific because . . . you have a mission, you have passion, you have vested interest, you have no alternative but success, and you can make decisions in a capsule that you can't do in the real world. People accept those decisions and they don't criticize you for going beyond your regular authority."

***** "In regular management systems and day-to-day administration you can choose Alternative A or Alternative B, and if you don't go with A, you can put it off for two weeks or reconsider. In special event management, there is no choice. You just do it. Failure or delay is not an acceptable alternative."

***** "If you have weak leadership, you won't get anywhere because this isn't a run of the mill type thing. If you're going to do something extraordinary like this, you need somebody extraordinary to direct it."

***** "You [special event leader] have to be a person of kind of low tension. You can't let the crisis mentality be at your heels all of the time. If you're a person who doesn't handle last minute crises calmly, you are in the wrong business."

***** "Well, you need strong leadership. I think in

most of these [events] you always have some sort of visionary leader who leads the charge."

The success or failure of special events depends upon the leadership, especially since these events do not have established operating systems that can be relied upon to produce results regardless of who is the top manager. A special event leader must lead the charge to the objectives of the event and provide the necessary organizational support to accomplish the goal. This multitude of event situations and demands on a leader requires a fitting of the best leader with the right situation. Fred E. Fiedler (1961) suggested that jobs be engineered to fit the manager to allow a manager the best circumstances possible to be successful. Special event managers often have the opportunity to alter their operating structure and rules to suit their style. These managers in recognizing the uncertainty of the operating environment, can constructively utilize this ambiguity in their organizational design. This ambiguity can help justify looser organizational controls in these situations to allow the process of information development to evolve (Pascale, 1979). This management in an adhocracy minimizes regularized and systematic channels of communication and allows a manager the latitude to listen and consult with who he wants, when he wants to (Porter, 1980). This

organizational uncertainty is not overburdened with formal communiques and obligations and allows a strong leader to move directly towards the accomplishment of an objective. This flexibility is important for these strong personalities to have the freedom to empower their leadership style with the least bureaucratic interference. The general rule of special events is success, and whatever path or organizational structure a leader chooses is generally acceptable to the community of interest if it leads to the accomplishment of the mission while providing the resources required.

A special event manager recognizes a visionary quality of leadership that mobilizes workers, managers and a community to work towards an objective that is not fully in view. This elevation of the motives and goals of followers to the collective purpose of the event is the practice of transformational leadership (Burns, 1978). These leaders must transform a general interest in an event's mission into organizational action. Not all special events are born with support; many leaders must sell the program to a community of interest and have them adopt the event as their own. This requires a commitment of time and energy in educating and inspiring support for a particular event. Support for these events must come from a belief in the mission and not an organization that was not in existence before the conceptualization of the

event. A special event leader must be able to generate a commitment through identification with the purpose of the organization. This leadership style pulls workers towards the ideals of the organization to adopt the vision as purposeful (Bennis & Nanus, 1985).

V. Evaluation

Threshold of Success

An inherent difficulty in evaluating special events is setting a standard to measure the success of a one-of-a-kind program. Traditional methodology would be frustrated in trying to find an objective basis for judging the performance of these unique productions (Gibson & Prather, 1984; MacAloon, 1984). Much of the success of special events is difficult to quantify or survey since it is experiential. The audience, participants and community of special events have many emotional personnel and symbolic attachment to an event that elude measurement. C. West Churchman (1982) refers to the difficulty in measuring an aesthetic experience: ". . . the experience is largely inarticulate: One at best can use symbols and analysis rather than 'operationally defined' terms" (p. 84). Special event managers have an initial threshold feeling for a qualitative success or failure, instantly

knowing if the program achieved its expected peak performance.

***** "If you make people walk away with a smile on their face, humming a tune, or just saying, 'Wasn't that great!'"--whether you did that twenty years ago or right now in 1988--that's your bottom line."

***** "Special events are emotional and you can't give people a form, at least I don't believe you can give people a form and have them evaluate it because then you deflate the emotion. As they are walking out of the stadium you want them to be excited and remember it for the rest of their lives, and you can't put them through an evaluation process without destroying that."

***** "It's one of those things that--it's like an entertainer on stage. I think an entertainer on stage can tell when they have given just a knock-out performance or when they were pretty average that night."

Beyond the experiential product, special events have goals and objectives that are useful for analyzing the overt accomplishment of the intended mission. This study of effectiveness should not ignore the qualitative impacts, but study the entire attributes of the process and its output. The measurement of a special event's effectiveness is complicated by multiple constituencies

that have different expectations and purposes (Mitroff, 1983) for an event which are difficult to coalesce into one clear definition of success. Katz and Kahn (1966) recognize this definitional problem of effectiveness: "To define effectiveness in terms of goal attainment, however, is to exchange one difficult definitional problem for another" (p. 239).

Special event goals are moving targets that inflate and deflate during the course of the event depending on the resources committed to the program. Depending on these variables, the original goals may not be applicable for later evaluation. Like the community "stew," you continually add new contributions into the event mix. Throughout the event the theme remains the same, but the actual production is often dependent on emerging resources that were not available or even recognized in the planning stages. A problem associated with goal setting is whether an event should establish very high goals, providing a challenge to the community to fill a resource void. Donald Campbell (1969) recognizes this as a potentially dangerous "over advocacy trap" of selling an event's mission beyond the organization's ability to deliver the program. This event salesmanship does present an initial challenge but for political reasons may scare special event managers away from an evaluation process that would calculate a failure (Tichy, 1983). Here, the evaluation

process is an organizational tightrope for special event managers who often plan beyond their resources to accomplish a purposeful mission and consequently become advocates for a program for which they cannot guarantee the outcome.

Finally, program evaluation is most often used to determine the effectiveness of a program as compared to other alternatives for future implementation (Quade, 1982). For these terminal special events, it may appear a waste of effort to evaluate effectiveness of a one-time production that is not going to become better or worse. Since the clock cannot be turned back and these organizations are terminal by design, there is little effort expended in formal evaluation. The lessons learned from special events are typically carried in the minds of these managers as conventional wisdom and are not committed to a comprehensive understanding of this form of temporary administration.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS: SPECIAL EVENT MANAGEMENT SURVEY

Survey Results

This questionnaire is designed to focus the expert interviews into a set of descriptive statements concerning special event management (see Table 1). These statements are derived from the original interviews and are used to both confirm developing consensus and explore areas that appear ambiguous. This confirmation process allows the respondent to look at a statement on paper and express his degree of agreement. Following each issue area is a space for comments to solicit additional information that may be pertinent to a statement, allowing clarification and expanded depth in this exploratory process.

The author selected a "Likert"-type format that allows a respondent to express a great degree of variance on a summated rating scale (Isaac & Michael, 1981). This technique utilizes standard response categories, as is this case, a scale of 1 to 7 with a 1 signifying "strongly disagree" and 7 indicating "strongly agree." This is a useful technique for index construction in scoring a given variable in a consistent pattern (Babbie, 1979). The numbers utilized to evaluate these statements are rank values and do not claim that the distances between each number is necessarily equal. Since this is ordinal data, it is important to view it in a framework of its relative

Table 1

Special Event Management Questionnaire

Survey Results

Please refer to the scale on the right in interpreting the responses.

Strongly Disagree Strongly Agree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

number of responses for each position

percentage of responses for each position

Mean = average number of responses for all positions combined

N=12 (See table 2 for breakdown of respondents.)

1) Special events are planned around a central theme.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>Mean</u>
	0	0	0	0	1	2	9	6.66
	(00.0%)	(00.0%)	(00.0%)	(00.0%)	(8.33%)	(16.6%)	(75.0%)	
2) Few changes in plans can be made once preparation for a special event begins.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>Mean</u>
	3	6	0	1	1	1	0	2.50
	(25.0%)	(50.0%)	(0.00%)	(8.33%)	(8.33%)	(8.33%)	(0.00%)	
3) An alternative(s) course of action is essential to this planning process.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>Mean</u>
	1	0	2	1	2	4	2	4.91
	(8.33%)	(0.00%)	(16.6%)	(8.33%)	(16.6%)	(33.3%)	(16.6%)	
4) These events establish realistic goals and objectives.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>Mean</u>
	0	1	0	1	2	3	5	5.75
	(0.00%)	(8.33%)	(0.00%)	(8.33%)	(16.6%)	(25.0%)	(41.6%)	

Table 1 (Continued)

5) These organizations develop an open operating structure allowing open communication between workers and managers.

<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>Mean</u>
0	0	0	2	3	3	4	5.75
(00.0%)	(00.0%)	(00.0%)	(16.6%)	(25.0%)	(25.0%)	(33.3%)	

6) These organizations are characterized by a sense of urgency, due to the time constraints.

<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>Mean</u>
0	0	0	0	2	3	7	6.41
(00.0%)	(00.0%)	(00.0%)	(00.0%)	(16.6%)	(25.0%)	(58.3%)	

7) These organizations are responsive and quick to react to new problems and opportunities.

<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>Mean</u>
0	0	0	2	0	4	6	6.61
(00.0%)	(00.0%)	(00.0%)	(16.6%)	(00.0%)	(33.3%)	(50.0%)	

8) Error in small details is tolerated due to the frenetic pace of these organizations.

<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>Mean</u>
1	2	1	1	0	4	3	4.75
(8.33%)	(16.6%)	(8.33%)	(8.33%)	(00.0%)	(33.3%)	(25.0%)	

9) Workers in special events have a "campaign" feeling; a sense of belonging to an important project.

<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>Mean</u>
0	0	1	1	0	2	8	6.25
(00.0%)	(00.0%)	(8.33%)	(8.33%)	(00.0%)	(16.6%)	(66.6%)	

10) These workers are highly motivated and require little supervision.

<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>Mean</u>
1	2	1	4	2	2	0	3.83
(8.33%)	(16.6%)	(8.33%)	(33.3%)	(16.6%)	(16.6%)	(00.0%)	

Table 1 (Continued)

11) These workers value participation more than monetary rewards.

<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>Mean</u>
0	0	1	3	2	5	1	5.16
(00.0%)	(00.0%)	(8.33%)	(25.0%)	(16.6%)	(41.6%)	(8.33%)	

12) These workers are creative people with little tolerance for bureaucratic detail.

<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>Mean</u>
1	0	2	3	2	4	0	4.41
(8.33%)	(00.0%)	(16.6%)	(25.0%)	(16.6%)	(33.3%)	(00.0%)	

13) A special event manager must tolerate a great amount of uncertainty working with temporary organizational structures.

<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>Mean</u>
1	0	2	0	1	2	6	5.50
(8.33%)	(00.0%)	(16.6%)	(00.0%)	(8.33%)	(16.6%)	(50.0%)	

14) The leadership in these organizations is characterized by strong personalities.

<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>Mean</u>
0	0	0	1	2	2	7	6.25
(00.0%)	(00.0%)	(00.0%)	(8.33%)	(16.6%)	(16.6%)	(58.3%)	

15) High quality decisions are made by special event managers under the given time constraints.

<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>Mean</u>
0	0	0	4	2	2	4	5.50
(00.0%)	(00.0%)	(00.0%)	(33.3%)	(16.6%)	(16.6%)	(33.3%)	

16) Special event managers can rely upon the organization to carry out the mission in their absence.

<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>Mean</u>
2	2	0	4	2	0	2	3.83
(16.6%)	(16.6%)	(00.0%)	(33.3%)	(16.6%)	(00.0%)	(16.6%)	

Table 1 (Continued)

17) A manager can immediately evaluate a special event as a success or failure at the time of the event.

<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>Mean</u>
0	0	3	1	1	3	4	5.33
(00.0%)	(00.0%)	(25.0%)	(8.33%)	(8.33%)	(25.0%)	(33.3%)	

18) Special events accomplish their original goals and objectives.

<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>Mean</u>
0	1	1	2	1	6	1	5.08
(00.0%)	(8.33%)	(8.33%)	(16.6%)	(8.33%)	(50.0%)	(8.33%)	

19) Special events require more resources to produce than originally planned.

<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>Mean</u>
0	0	1	3	3	2	3	5.25
(00.0%)	(00.0%)	(8.33%)	(25.0%)	(25.0%)	(16.6%)	(25.0%)	

20) The productivity of special events is increased because of the time constraints.

<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>Mean</u>
0	2	0	4	0	4	2	4.83
(00.0%)	(16.6%)	(00.0%)	(33.3%)	(00.0%)	(33.3%)	(16.6%)	

21) Special events are becoming more technically sophisticated and difficult to manage.

<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>Mean</u>
0	0	0	1	3	4	4	5.91
(00.0%)	(00.0%)	(00.0%)	(8.33%)	(25.0%)	(33.3%)	(33.3%)	

22) Plenty of qualified workers are available for temporary work in a special event.

<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>Mean</u>
0	3	2	4	1	1	1	3.83
(00.0%)	(25.0%)	(16.6%)	(33.3%)	(8.33%)	(8.33%)	(8.33%)	

Table 1 (Continued)

23) The demand for special events in your particular field is increasing each year.

<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>Mean</u>
0	0	0	0	2	6	4	6.16
(00.0%)	(00.0%)	(00.0%)	(00.0%)	(16.6%)	(50.0%)	(33.3%)	

24) The audience of special events are expecting bigger and better productions each year.

<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>Mean</u>
0	0	0	0	0	5	7	6.58
(00.0%)	(00.0%)	(00.0%)	(00.0%)	(00.0%)	(41.6%)	(58.3%)	

25) When you are working with special events do you have any personal management principles or "rules of thumb" that you consistently use with various events.

<u>YES</u>	<u>11</u>	<u>NO</u>	<u>1</u>
	(91.6%)		(8.33%)

(If the respondent answered yes he was requested to list his primary rules of special event management. These comments will be discussed in the section titled "General Principles.")

Years of special event management experience:

(The respondents were all asked to state the number of years they have been associated with the management of special events.)

The twelve respondents ranged between 5 and 35 years, with an average of 14.2 years.

The individual responses are as follows:

5 5 6 8 8 9 13 15 17 20 30 35

Mean = 14.25

strength in reference to particular properties (Nachmias & Nachmias, 1976).

The respondents to this survey were from two different groups. The first group is composed of the original expert panel members; the second is an outlying population of comparable special event managers who were invited to participate. The purpose of adding the outlying group was to test if the focused statements were derived from true expert special event management experiences and not subject to interview bias in the original interviews. An additional benefit of the inclusion of this new population is the increased number of respondents for aggregate expert opinion to these particular statements. The same criteria was utilized to select this outlying expert population as used in establishing the original panel.

The comparative significance of the above population is reported in Table 2 and analyzed using a statistical t-test in Table 3. Since no *a priori* predictions were made with respect to the two groups of experts, all tests were two-tailed. Only the comparison for question No. 22 was statistically significant at the .05 level ($t = -2.776$ is $>$ the critical value of -2.228). However it must be looked at with reservation since it is reasonable to expect 1 out of 24 comparisons to be significant largely by chance at the .05 level. For this reason this

author recalculated all 24 comparisons at the .01 level and found no statistically significant relationships for any of the 24 questions including the previously significant question No. 22 (Miller, 1983). Consequently, this author was able to retain the null hypothesis that there is not a significant difference in responses to the special event management questionnaire between the original panel of experts and the outlying group of experts.

The purpose of this selection of outlying experts and comparison to the original panel is exploratory. When focused interviews are conducted with particular experts, it is important to determine that the observations and responses of these experts are genuine and not influenced by the interviewer (Bailey, 1982). One method to insure that the original panel's comments are not inspired or cultivated by the interview process is to compare the panels and selected group of outlying experts' comments to a survey that was derived from the panel interviews. Since the outlying population was not privy to the interview process, their comments would not be influenced by an interviewer's opinion. In this analysis the researcher did not find a statistically significant difference between these populations and concludes that the panel of experts' comments are consistent with a group of outlying experts.

Table 2

Special Event Management Questionnaire

Survey Results Segregated by Type of Respondent

Panel of Experts
8 of 10 responding

Outlying Experts
4 respondents

	<u>Individual Responses</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Individual Responses</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Total Mean</u>
1)	7 7 7 7 7 5 7 6	6.62	7 7 6 7	6.75	6.66
2)	1 5 6 2 2 1 2 2	2.62	4 2 1 2	2.25	2.50
3)	7 1 5 6 5 3 3 6	4.50	6 4 7 6	5.75	4.91
4)	7 7 6 4 7 2 5 6	5.50	7 6 7 5	6.25	5.75
5)	7 5 5 7 7 5 4 6	5.75	6 4 7 6	5.75	5.75
6)	7 7 7 7 5 6 6 5	6.25	7 7 7 6	6.75	6.41
7)	7 7 6 7 7 6 4 6	6.25	7 4 7 6	6.00	6.16
8)	1 7 6 7 2 6 3 2	4.25	6 6 7 4	5.75	4.75
9)	7 7 7 7 7 4 3 6	6.00	7 7 7 6	6.75	6.25
10)	5 6 3 5 4 2 2 4	3.87	6 1 4 4	3.75	3.83
11)	7 6 6 5 4 6 6 4	5.50	6 3 4 5	4.50	5.16
12)	4 6 6 6 4 5 3 5	4.87	6 4 1 3	3.50	4.41
13)	6 3 7 7 3 7 6 5	5.50	7 7 1 7	5.50	5.50
14)	6 7 7 7 7 6 4 5	6.12	7 7 7 5	6.50	6.25
15)	7 6 5 7 7 4 4 5	5.62	6 4 7 4	5.25	5.50
16)	7 4 4 2 7 5 2 5	4.50	4 1 1 4	2.50	3.83
17)	4 6 7 3 7 6 3 6	5.25	3 7 7 5	5.50	5.33
18)	6 6 6 6 6 2 3 6	5.12	7 4 4 5	5.00	5.08
19)	6 4 3 7 5 7 5 4	5.12	7 5 4 6	5.50	5.25
20)	7 4 6 6 4 2 4 2	4.37	7 6 4 6	5.75	4.83
21)	5 6 4 7 7 6 5 5	5.62	6 6 7 7	6.50	5.91
22)	4 3 2 4 4 2 2 4	3.12	5 6 7 3	5.25	3.83
23)	7 5 7 6 7 6 5 6	6.12	6 6 7 6	6.25	6.16
24)	7 7 7 6 7 6 6 6	6.50	7 6 7 7	6.75	6.58

Table 3

Special Event Management Questionnaire

t-Test For Difference Between Means

A two tail t-Test was used to determine if there is a significant difference between sample means of the two types of respondents from Table 2.

A t-Test is conducted for each survey question at both the .05 and .01 levels of significance. Only the .01 test is reported in this table. All significant relationships at the .05 or .01 level are discussed on page 91.

	<u>Sample 1</u>	<u>Sample 2</u>
	Panel of Experts n = 8	Outlying Experts n = 4
1)	s = .744 t = -0.3121 < the critical value of -3.1690	s = .500
2)	s = 1.84 t = 0.3586 < the critical value of 3.1690	s = 1.25
3)	s = 2.00 t = -1.1290 < the critical value of -3.1690	s = 1.25
4)	s = 1.77 t = -1.29931 < the critical value of -3.1690	s = 0.95
5)	s = 1.16 t = 0.0000 < the critical value of 3.1690	s = 1.25
6)	s = 0.88 t = -1.0332 < the critical value of -3.1690	s = 0.50
7)	s = 1.03 t = 0.3527 < the critical value of 3.1690	s = 1.41
8)	s = 2.49 t = -1.1170 < the critical value of -3.1690	s = 1.25
9)	s = 1.60 t = -0.8963 < the critical value of -3.1690	s = 0.50
10)	s = 1.45 t = -0.1182 < the critical value of -3.1690	s = 2.06

Table 3 (Continued)

	<u>Sample 1</u>	<u>Sample 2</u>
	Panel of Experts n = 8	Outlying Experts n = 4
11)	s = 1.06 t = 1.4401 < the critical value of 3.1690	s = 1.29
12)	s = 1.12 t = 1.5166 < the critical value of 3.1690	s = 2.08
13)	s = 1.69 t = 0.0000 < the critical value of 3.1690	s = 3.00
14)	s = 1.12 t = -0.5717 < the critical value of -3.1690	s = 1.00
15)	s = 1.30 t = 0.4432 < the critical value of 3.1690	s = 1.50
16)	s = 1.92 t = 1.7511 < the critical value of 3.1690	s = 1.73
17)	s = 1.66 t = -0.2347 < the critical value of -3.1690	s = 1.91
18)	s = 1.64 t = 0.1244 < the critical value of 3.1690	s = 1.41
19)	s = 1.45 t = -0.4420 < the critical value of -3.1690	s = 1.29
20)	s = 1.84 t = -1.3375 < the critical value of -3.1690	s = 1.25
21)	s = 1.06 t = -1.5263 < the critical value of -3.1690	s = 0.57
22)	s = 0.99 t = -2.77623 < the critical value of -3.1690	s = 1.70
23)	s = 0.83 t = -0.2832 < the critical value of -3.1690	s = 0.50
24)	s = 0.53 t = -0.7790 < the critical value of -3.1690	s = 0.50

Questionnaire Responses and Analysis

In analyzing the responses to this questionnaire it is necessary to sort the statements as to their level of agreement. Each respondent was asked to indicate his choice on a scale of 1 to 7, with 1 being "strongly disagree" and 7 "strongly agree." On each page a space was provided for comments to any statement that a respondent wanted to expound upon. (See Appendix A)

The statements from this survey are broken down into three categories: The first is "agreement" (a mean response of 5.0 to 7.0), second is "neutral" (a mean response of 3.0 to 4.9), and the third is "disagreement" (a mean response of 1.0 to 2.9). The 24 statements distribution by mean response per category is as follows:

Category I: Agreement

Statement #'s 1, 4, 5, 6, 7, 9, 11, 13, 14, 15, 17,
18, 19, 21, 23, 24.

Category II: Neutral

Statement #'s 3, 8, 10, 12, 16, 20, 22

Category III: Disagreement

Statement # 2

The following discussion indicates the mean response for each statement by category with an interpretation of each statement as it relates to special event management

augmented by respondent comments from the questionnaire.
(See Table 2)

Category I: Agreement

(Mean Response of 5.0 to 7.0)

#1. Special events are planned around a central theme.

Mean = 6.66

The structural glue of a special event is the theme that focuses the organization towards a prescribed mission. These new fledged entities utilize this theme to communicate a sense of identity and purpose that cannot readily be achieved through traditional organizational structures. An apparently loose temporary administrative system can rapidly coalesce through this symbolic imagery:

***** "A central theme may be communicated through a slogan, color, logo, or combination thereof. A theme pulls all aspects together for instant recognition."

Special events can gain an immediate sense of importance and direction by communicating a particular theme. An important and sometimes zealous aspect of understanding an organization that is built around a central concept is that these temporary entities are born with and for a

mission, and their existence is linked to this purposeful objective.

#4. These events establish realistic goals and objectives.

Mean = 5.75

These organizations are under pressure to complete projects by certain deadlines with a newly assembled organization. This dynamic environment, coupled with a high sense of purpose, could influence special event planners to establish unattainable goals. However, these respondents believe that these organizations establish realistic objectives and are willing to adjust when necessary.

***** "As one begins to carry out plans for a large event, realism sets in and unrealistic goals have to be modified. If they are not, the individuals or organization falls quickly behind and risks jeopardizing the overall event."

#5. These organizations develop an open operation structure allowing open communication between workers and managers.

Mean = 5.75

The demarcation between workers, managers, departments and functions in these temporary organizations is less formal, allowing for freer communication. Many of the workers are participating because of the mission. Consequently, this commitment increases the demand for information that requires disclosure of the event's plans and procedures:

***** "Strong communication is one of the key elements for success. Everyone involved should have a copy of the total plan as well as the outline of everyone's responsibilities. Any change should be communicated immediately."

#6. These organizations are characterized by a sense of urgency due to the time constraints.

Mean = 6.41

This sense of urgency is one of the key ingredients to a special event's dynamic nature. This characterization as urgent portrays an air of purposefulness in meeting the established deadlines. Depending on the size and type of event, it is important that managers be able to understand this sense of urgency:

***** "The sense of urgency is key but often is not realized by those new to special events planning. The sense of urgency comes from a good understanding of the scope of the undertaking or special event."

#7. These organizations are responsive and quick to react to new problems and opportunities.

Mean = 6.61

Special events foster an entrepreneurial and opportunistic disposition. Primarily because of time constraints, these organizations must not be rigid but be willing to adjust quickly, seize new opportunities, and solve problems immediately. This responsiveness is essential to maintain the momentum of a temporary organization operating under a time deadline.

#9. Workers in special events have a "campaign" feeling, a sense of belonging to an important project.

Mean = 6.25

This feeling of importance and meaningful association is one of the key attributes that separates temporary events from traditional organizations. This campaign feeling adds a sense of purpose and excitement to the work.

***** "It is important to make staff and volunteers feel
like they are contributing to this important effort."

An intrinsic reward of these events is the opportunity to participate. When workers view these tasks as a privilege and believes in the mission of the organization, they will provide the campaign atmosphere critical to the morale of these organizations.

#11. These workers value participation more than monetary rewards.

Mean = 5.16

Special events can capitalize on this feeling of participation in an important project by saving on personal costs and benefits. Since these workers value their association with the mission, symbolic rewards that communicate this theme can be highly appreciated such as T-shirts, hats, etc. Since many of these workers are often participating in this type of special event for the first and possibly only time, it is not viewed as financial opportunity as much as an existing hiatus from their current routines.

When an event requires a longer period of time to produce, this hiatus may start to feel like a regular job,

then monetary rewards could become increasingly important as the thrill of participation diminishes.

***** "During a long (one year or more) event some dissatisfaction with low pay (and long hours) surfaces."

If measured properly, a manager can utilize this participation honeymoon and try to avoid the long term routinization of these activities for a majority of the workers.

#13. A special event manager must tolerate a great amount of uncertainty working with temporary organization structures.

Mean = 5.50

Unlike traditional organizations, these special event structurers do not have established support, communication, and delivery systems. A special event manager must be able to look to individuals to accomplish missions and not totally rely upon the newly created organizational structure. The uncertainty inherent in these young, dynamic organizations is a challenge that special event managers can handle well, while other managers may be frustrated by this lack of formal structure and control.

#14. The leadership in these organizations is characterized by strong personalities.

Mean = 6.25

This statement focuses on the organizational environment discussed in Question 13 and which type of manager performs well in these hi-flux systems. These special event organizations are developed around these strong personalities, to take an immediate course of action. Considering the dynamic pace, prototype organizational structure, and time pressures, a special event manager must provide an image of strength in an uncertain environment. An accommodation for these special event managers is that the open structure of these organizations is amenable to their strong personalities and provides the least bureaucratic resistance to their leadership style.

#15. High quality decisions are made by special event managers under the given time constraints.

Mean = 5.50

These managers continually must make decisions under severe time constraints and often with limited time for gathering supporting information. This statement inquires: Is a natural consequence of the given operating pressures a deterioration of the quality of decisions? One aspect of these special event managers is an ability to utilize limited information and make timely decisions in an uncertain and changing organizational environment.

#17. A manager can immediately evaluate a special event as a success or failure at the time of the event.

Mean = 5.33

There is very little formal evaluation used in special event management. Due to the one-time nature of these events, few managers see a necessity in retaining a base of information for improving a terminal organization. Most of these events require a peak performance with experiential qualities that make it difficult to measure these unique productions. Most special event managers have a "threshold" feeling of success for these events at the time of production. After the event, very little information is sought or exchanged to go beyond the previous gut feeling of success or failure.

#18. Special events accomplish their original goals and objectives.

Mean = 5.08

Special events have a reputation for accomplishing what they set out to achieve. A perceived problem in fulfilling their established goals is the untested operating structure and over-ambitious planning to meet the importance of the mission. However, these goals have proven to be active references to challenge and remind the organization of its original purpose.

***** "The goals and objectives are 'walking guidelines' kept in front of all involved and reviewed frequently. They are not something that is prepared at the beginning and then filed."

These organizations are good at focusing upon their goals and objectives simply because their organizational existence is staked on completing a particular mission.

#19. Special events require more resources to produce than originally planned.

Mean = 5.25

Because of the unique and untried structure of these organizations challenged with ambitious goals, there is a tendency to not fully account for all resources required. However, these organizations are quick to acquire new resources and community support. Special event managers advise that good planning will account for this uncertainty.

***** "Not if you plan correctly and anticipate all costs and add 'padding' to each cost beforehand."

***** "A good manager will always have a contingency

line in the budget that, with correct planning and spending, will cover all expenses."

This resource safety cushion is important for special event organizations which operate against a deadline and do not have the luxury of shopping for lower prices or changing plans as traditional organizations enjoy. In planning these events, it is inherently difficult to account for all details that will become necessary for a unique program that has never been produced before.

#21. Special events are becoming more technically sophisticated and difficult to manage.

Mean = 5.91

These events are continually utilizing and reflecting the technology and complexity of modern society. As these special productions become more sophisticated, so will the demand for sophisticated management systems to deliver these programs. A consequence of this phenomenon is the growth of consulting companies specializing in special event management. This type of temporary management is not a static science, but is particularly sensitive to new technologies and innovations that can assist in event production.

#23. The demand for special events in your particular field is increasing each year.

Mean = 6.16

Special events is a growing industry experiencing an increase in demand across a variety of fields. As organizations, they are gaining a reputation for timely delivery and goal accomplishment. Private business, government and non-profit organizations are looking to temporary organizations to take a larger role of their scheduled agenda. This growing of special event management systems should also generate a demand for management information commensurate to satisfy the needs of these temporary organizations.

#24. The audience of special events is expecting bigger and better productions each year.

Mean = 6.58

The increase in sophistication and glitter of special events is resulting in the cultivation of an insatiable expectation for the "spectacular" in special event audiences. As one event out does another with a grandiose performance, audiences soon set new and higher standards for special event productions:

***** "Everyone comes to expect bigger, better, more emotionally inspiring events."

***** "The difficulty, I believe, is that the 'audiences' are becoming more sophisticated and expect greater glitz and more celebrities."

A possible consequence of this escalated competition is an abandonment of smaller yet potentially effective events to concentrate efforts on the "spectacular." Eventually the audiences for special events could become jaded to expect the mentioned celebrities and glitz and not patronize a smaller community event. This demand creates a competition that could move these events away from their original themes in an effort to top another event for the audience's attention.

Category II: Neutral

(Mean Response of 3.0 to 4.9)

#3. Alternative(s) course of action is essential to this planning process.

Mean = 4.91

This statement explores if special event managers are committed to one plan, succeed or fail, or if it is common practice to develop an alternative course of action. Since these programs are linked to a particular theme, some respondents may feel that alternative plans could not deliver the desired results, while other respondents

indicate that this is a necessary and precautionary part of their planning.

***** "Only if Plan A (or aspects thereof) runs into a problem. Early planning allows enough time if Plan B is to be as effective as Plan A if that should become necessary."

#8. Error in small details is tolerated due to the frenetic pace of these organizations.

Mean = 4.75

Because of the compressed time frame within which these organizations work, it is possible that a trade-off exists between accuracy in detail and overall mission.

***** "Tolerated but still not desirable, we tend sometimes to run short of time and human resources and must sometimes sacrifice to get the overall job done."

Since these events are short term, just the opposite emphasis on detail is purported by some respondents:

***** "Because special events are usually short-term in nature, attention to detail takes on even greater

importance. If a small detail is overlooked, you often don't have the time to recover."

Many of these organizations base their success on being able to deliver to the smallest detail, while other special event working environments are fast-paced and more willing to improvise as they go along. This difference of opinion is not only related to the perceived importance of small details, but the interrelationship of each area with the success of other components to produce a successful event.

#10. These workers are highly motivated and require little supervision.

Mean = 3.83

This question would be better worded if it defined supervision as providing direction or motivation. There is a feeling by respondents that the work force is motivated but does need direction.

***** "The work force is generally highly motivated but certainly needs that energy to be directed.

***** "Motivated, but they do require supervision. One downfall is when you, for lack of time, send people off on a task without proper direction and things are not completed as had been envisioned. The risk is

misunderstanding, hurt feelings, and sometimes embarrassment for all involved"

Given these highly motivated workers does not necessarily mean that they will be self-managing and require little leadership. A manager must provide direction to ensure that tasks are accomplished and that this intrinsically motivated work force is efficiently utilized.

#12. These workers are creative people with little tolerance for bureaucratic detail.

Mean = 4.41

This is a two-part question that should be separated to a) test if workers are creative people and b) if they have little tolerance for bureaucratic detail. From the respondents' comments it can be learned that a variety of creative and not-creative people are involved in these organizations with different levels of tolerance for bureaucratic detail.

***** "Some are; some are not. Many workers want to be told exactly what to do. Both types of workers are important."

The intent of this question is to explore the temporary nature of the organization and if the dynamic environment attracted a certain type of worker who is trying to escape bureaucratic detail. However, one respondent's comments allude to a scenario in which the workers have a tendency to create unnecessary bureaucratic controls:

***** "Depends on the area of involvement. Operations and finance, for example, tend to be control-oriented. While controls are important for obvious reasons, there is often a tendency to 'organize' as though the special event is going to be in business forever. This can result in unnecessary paperwork and time-consuming delays."

#16. Special event managers can rely upon the organization to carry out the mission in their absence.

Mean = 3.83

This statement investigates the organizational dependence of a dominant personality coupled with the lack of an established formal operating structure. Often these organizations have an informal operating system with a high dependence on top personnel:

***** "Seldom do the details work as well when the manager is absent. There are so many details that never get written down that often the manager is the only one who can make the call or pull the right string."

The respondents' comments also indicate that if good people are available and a proper delegation is made then the organizations can rely on the organization to carry on in their absence:

***** "Depends on how well the manager has organized, delegated responsibility, and informed workers of all necessary details [while the manager is absent] that must be accomplished."

- ***** "- Structured correctly
- Ongoing communication has been established
 - Everyone understands their responsibility and how it relates to coworkers.
 - Respect established
 - A sense of mission established."
-

The ability to be able to carry out the mission in the absence of key managers appears to be proportional to the formalization of the special event organization.

#20. The productivity of special events is increased because of the time constraints.

Mean = 4.83

This statement studies the productivity of an organization that has pressing and imminent deadlines. Because of these time constraints, certain problems in delivery are encountered and productivity may vary. It is possible that some respondents confused the delivery constraints with organizational ability to produce. For those respondents who focused on productivity there is a scenario that these deadlines increased the overall effectiveness and encouraged heightened individual performance.

***** "With deadlines running up, workers tend to be much more productive in a single day than they would be on a normal work day"

#22. Plenty of qualified workers are available for temporary work in a special event.

Mean = 3.83

The respondents' comments to this statement indicate that it depends on the nature of the event and the length of commitment. This statement's intent was to survey the availability of a temporary work force. However, one must

be more specific in distinguishing between paid, volunteer, length of service, and technical needs. The relationship between the worker and organization and commitment to its mission is another important variable for many special events, particularly the nonprofit.

Category III: Disagreement

(Mean Response of 1.0 to 2.9)

#2. Few changes in plans can be made once preparation for a special event begins.

Mean = 2.50

Because of the time constraints it was explored that once plans were established that few alterations could be made. The disagreement with this statement reinforces the flexibility and the fast-paced learning process inherent in these temporary organizations. In this case "urgency" does not mean a general loss of flexibility. At some stage, however, flexibility must give away to certainty:

***** "Flexibility is key, but once a certain point is reached changes must be halted. Special example: Los Angeles Olympics, in which the Vice President of Site Development and Construction held a special ceremony in which all the planners were called together, a giant pencil was brought in and the V.P. had a break-the-pencil

ceremony signifying the end of changes--"things must go on."

General Principles

At the end of the focused questionnaire each manager was asked if he had any management principles or "rules of thumb" that he consistently used with various events. Eleven managers (91.6%) responded yes and one manager (8.33%) responded no. For the managers who responded yes, they were asked to list their primary principles for producing these events. Even though the primary areas of special event management had been covered previously in the questionnaire, this was a chance for these managers to include what they believe are the secrets to their success.

These comments were analyzed and separated into categories with similar principles. Out of this pool of general rules four consistent themes emerged: I. Plan with a concept. II. Manage with flexibility. III. Understand the sense of urgency. IV. Let the workers take initiative and have fun. Supporting these themes are managers' comments and analysis of how these operating guidelines are utilized in special event organizations.

Category I: Plan with a Concept

***** "A tight concept that meets all project goals must be created before any real work begins."

***** "Know what is a reasonable goal. Know what is the right concept. Don't have flashes."

A special event organization is built and centered around this concept. The fabric of this type of planning is the conceptual theme that permeates the entire special event. From this focal point each element of the organization is linked to the central purpose through a symbolic bridge. These events are loaded with emotional energy and it is critical to develop a concept that directs this energy to the strategic goal, avoiding mini-agendas and "flashes." This commitment to the project must be harnessed to a conceptual theme that is practical for the organization and not just a spectacular show without purpose. The correct concept will provide this sense of meaningful participation in a purposeful event.

Category II: Manage with Flexibility

***** "Stay flexible but focused."

***** "Expect delays. Stay flexible."

***** "Never be closed to a good idea that will enhance
the overall program."

Since these events are carrying out a particular program for the first time, there is not a rigid set of rules and expectations. The freshness of a temporary organization fosters a "manage with flexibility" mentality in order to capitalize on the creative and spontaneous opportunities of these events. A special event managers can deal well with uncertainty while leading the organization towards its primary objective. Since the organization is learning to operate as an entity while it concurrently producing a program, this flexibility is essential to foster a rapid and positive internal learning curve. It is this recognition of uncertainty that keeps these organizations from adopting rigid rules and guidelines that would hinder mid-course adjustments. These events understand their planned objective and their current resources, but the process that delivers the event is a discovered and customized program to fit the particular event.

Category III: Sense of Urgency

***** "Instill a sense of urgency with your staff and other departments. Opening day comes awfully fast."

***** "Follow simple 'one minute manager' rules. If someone is doing a good job, let them know it as soon as it occurs to them; and in the reverse, if someone is screwing, tell them immediately. Time is too short to let anything - good or bad - stew."

***** "Do NOT put off until tomorrow what you can do today, because each tomorrow has the potential for all hell breaking loose!"

***** "Produce time line and responsibility outlines early."

***** "A time schedule guided by the leader must be held to at all times."

Special events maximize their limited time for preparation and production through this sense of urgency. These events have a feeling of excitement and importance that is heightened by the eminent deadline that comes closer each day. A key advantage in using this "sense of urgency" as a management tool is to motivate workers when the deadlines are not so near and it appears that there is plenty of time to prepare for the event. Rarely is there

extra time, and the opening day is fixed. Consequently, this sense of urgency will grow as the date for the peak performance comes closer.

This recognition of time as a scarce resource also provides momentum for a program that can help focus attention on objectives and responsibilities. This momentum can be utilized to quickly resolve problems and find solutions while raising the level of interest in the organization in concert with the general mission, and avoiding petty disputes. A risk associated with this momentum is not noticing important concerns and brushing over them until they reach crisis proportions. A sense of urgency can prompt action without thought if it is managed in a reactive mode. However, this organizational momentum is an aspect of these events that can often be beneficial if harnessed correctly.

Category IV: Let the Workers Take Initiative and Have Fun

-
- ***** "Let your people loose and insure that they can reach you any hour of the day or night."
 - ***** "Let people have fun. In fact, plan it in the schedule, in organizing these events."
 - ***** "Surround yourself with good people."

***** "Get people to work on the event that want to work on the event."

***** "Be creative, have fun."

***** "Don't ask volunteers to do just the menial work and don't ask them to do anything you wouldn't do."

***** "Include others in the exiting plan and when things get tough, you can pull them in to help, too."

The working atmosphere of a special event is entertaining and open for creative thought. Many workers in these organizations are not there for the particular job but the association with the event and people. There is an event within an event as these workers interact and accomplish tasks often under a sense of time pressure in an air of excitement. Even though some of the work activities may be tedious or boring if considered a long term job, it can be fun and entertaining during the temporary event.

Since many of these participants are attracted to the event because of its mission, they want to be informed of its progress and new plans even if it doesn't immediately affect their assigned duties. The participants within these organizations need to be allowed to take initiative and follow their creative ideas. The end result is a team spirit with a positive attitude for tackling difficult tasks and having fun in the process.

CHAPTER 5

**SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, PARADOX OF SPECIAL EVENT
STUDIES, AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH**

Summary

Olympiques Canada Olympics (OCO) '88, the games' organizing committee, is headed by a small group of Calgary businessmen, most of whom made their money in the oil boom of the 1970s. Since winning their bid for the Olympics in 1981, the Young Turks - as the European press dubbed them back then - have painfully discovered that creating an instant company to manage a \$542-million international event is nothing like building a little oil company into a bigger one. In running the games, you start from scratch and learn on the job, your every move watched by the world. And you only get one chance to succeed. (Zwarun, 1986, Canadian Business, p. 56)

Special event managers have been recognized for their capability to deliver programs with a developing management system under time pressure, but not the methodology used to deliver these programs. The Canadian Olympic Committee discovered that special event management requires a management structure quite different than the traditional organizations they were accustomed to. There is a void in the management literature studying these temporary organizations that produce a "peak performance" with a terminal management system. This lack of research of this form of temporary administration is the basis for this dissertation as an exploratory study: testing a hypothesis if special event management is an *ad hoc* experience or if there are common themes of this form of administration that are consistent with a variety of

events. This hypothesis inquires into what may appear to be a random management system and draws out the descriptive characteristics of this particular management phenomenon. Because of the void in the literature and the pioneer nature of this study, one must look to the field to find the necessary data. To develop a knowledge base to understand these organizations, a panel of special event experts is chosen. These experts have accumulated special event management experiences and have useful insights into the field. As experienced managers, these experts have an intuitive base of information that is relevant and important to the discovery process (Helmer & Rescher, 1960). This panel of experts is designed to represent a broad array of special event experiences. That will be beneficial to study the more plenary principles of this form of management by not restricting the study to one type of event (Van De Ven & Delbecq, 1974).

Each manager was interviewed by phone with a recording of the conversation transcribed for later analysis. The interviews allowed the managers to respond to certain general questions and elaborate on issues they believed were important. From these transcripts a content analysis (Williamson, Kays, Dolphi & Oray, 1982) was made to identify emerging themes of special event management. From this analysis anecdotal data was collected to be used in developing the descriptive characteristics supporting

these emerging themes of special event management (Williamson, Kays, Dolphi, & Oray, 1982).

The next step utilized in analyzing this qualitative data is to develop focused statements that refine expert judgement into a meaningful description of special event properties (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Patton, 1980). Twenty-four statements representing six issue areas were drawn from those interview data. For practical reasons of time and convenience of panel members, a written questionnaire was chosen to solicit the expert panel's response to these focused statements. A questionnaire was mailed to each panel member requesting him to rate his level of agreement using a Likert Scale (Isaac & Michael, 1981) for each of the twenty-four statements. Within each section a space for comments was provided to allow experts to elaborate upon these statements or add any additional information they thought was important. The questionnaire ends with an open-ended question that encourages the experts to elaborate on any personal principles of special event management that they follow. This broad question is designed to allow these managers to include their own "rules of thumb" and discuss issue areas that may not have been covered in the previous statements.

To test for possible interview bias and expand the pool of experts, an outlying population of special event experts was identified to respond to the same

questionnaire. This outlying group of experts' responses was compared with the original panel's using a student T-test to explore if a significant variance existed between the means of each population, indicating a possible interviewer bias. Each statement was tested at the .05 and .01 level of significance with only one statement reporting a statistically significant deviation at the .05 level and zero statements reporting a significant variance at the .01 level. It was concluded that the statements were not significantly different and to retain the null-hypothesis: "There is not a significant difference in responses to the special event management questionnaire between the original panel of experts and the outlying group of experts."

Each statement was analyzed by its mean response to determine aggregate agreement with a particular statement. The Likert Scale for this questionnaire was scaled from 1 to 7 with 1 being "strongly disagree" and 7 "strongly agree." The aggregate mean responses were grouped into three categories for purposes of analysis: 1.0 to 2.9 (disagreement), 3.0 to 4.9 (neutral) and 5.0 to 7.0 (agreement). The statements were separated into their respective categories and analyzed, supported by written comments from the questionnaire.

To discuss the general findings, five categories emerged representing identified issue areas: Planning,

Structure, Workers, Leadership, and Evaluation. These broad areas of special event management provided a more manageable framework for studying and referencing the descriptive characteristics by issue area. Within each category area anecdotal data is brought forth to capture and represent the expert's interpretation of these special event characteristics. Each issue area and its theme is derived from the interviews and grounded in the cumulative experiences of this expert pool. These themes are brought forward in the light of the current management literature and available articles relating to these topics. From this analysis a larger and more complete theory of special event management can be constructed as a model to provide a framework for understanding these temporary administrative organizations (Dubin, 1969; Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

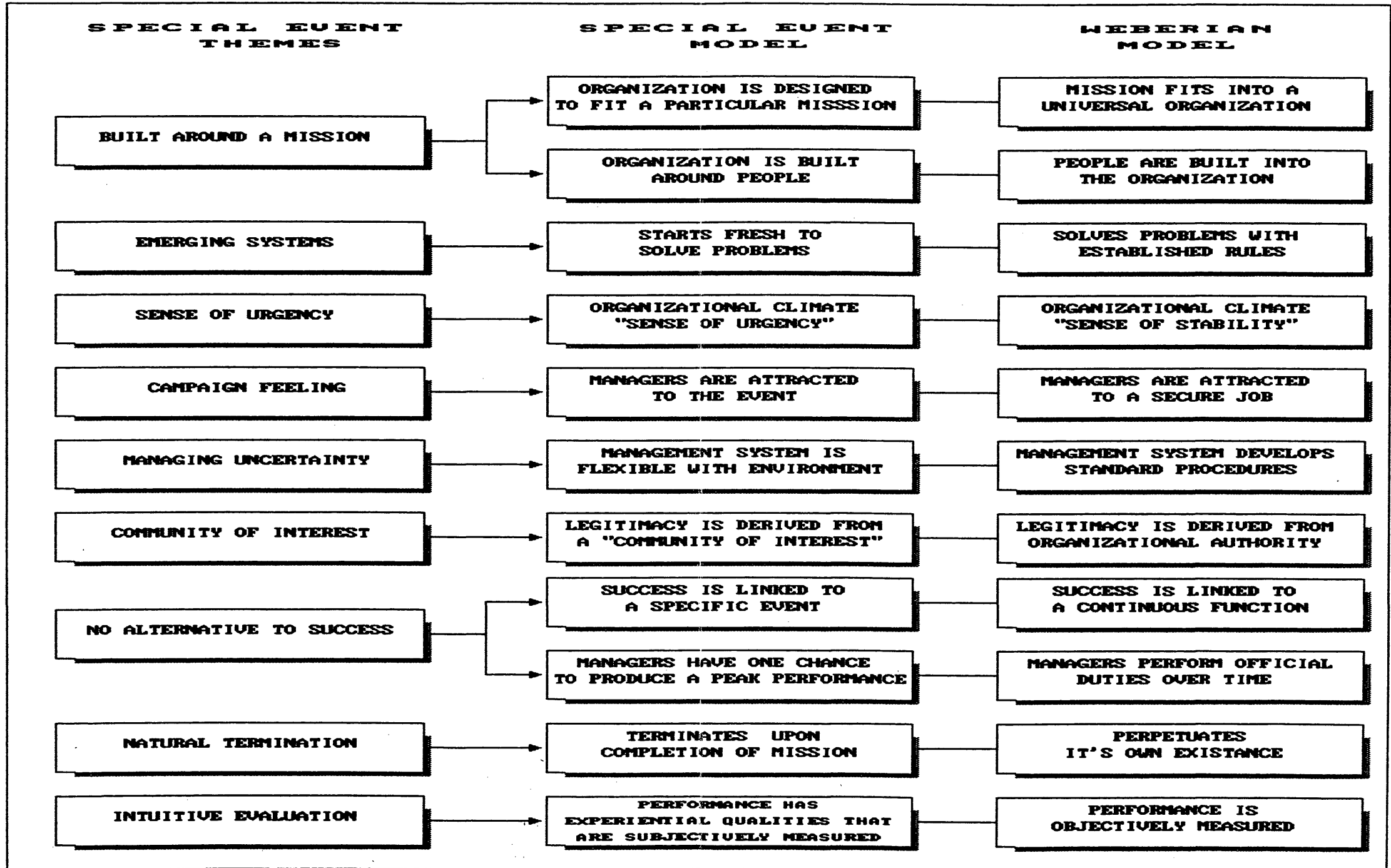
Conclusions

As an inductive analysis, this study was able to identify key characteristics of special event management experience. These descriptive themes provide a framework for understanding this temporary administrative phenomenon from the special event manager's perspective. Currently special event management is treated as an *ad hoc* system of administration that doesn't demonstrate consistent

management principles. Because of the uniqueness of these events and lack of literature, special event managers have relied upon conventional wisdom to create and manage these terminal organizations. This study proposes a hypothesis that: "Special event management has consistent characteristics of administration" which were found to be positive. These identified characteristics are useful windows for understanding a model of special event management as compared to a Weberian bureaucratic ideal-type of organizational design (Gerth & Mills, 1946). From this comparison certain general insights can be made into the dynamic nature of these temporary administrative event management systems (Table 4). The common characteristics identified in this study probe issue areas of special events that are recurring and consistent with the experiences of the managers surveyed in this study. The nine primary descriptive characteristics of this type of management found in this research are as follows:

1. *Built Around a Mission* - Special event organizations are designed to fit the particular mission of an event. This customization of structures and processes provides the adaptability and spontaneity for these organizations to experience a rapid learning curve in developing a management system for a particular event. This tailoring of an organization to accomplish a specific purpose reduces

Table 4: KEY DIFFERENCES BETWEEN WEBERIAN AND SPECIAL EVENT ORGANIZATIONAL MODELS



cumbersome administrative constraints while focusing its energies on the established objectives. This relaxation of bureaucratic control is emphasized by the terminal nature of these entities and a futility in activities that provides security or longevity beyond the special event.

2. *Emerging Systems* - These organizations have a permeable structure that encourages rapid growth and adaptation of the management system. Systems continually emerge within the auspices of the event to solve problems and deliver programs that may not have been conceived during the planning stages. This sprouting of new systems allows events to grow to their potential and not constrained by their original design. These "emerging systems" are recognized by special event managers as a method of inclusion of new resources and evolution of the current system to assist an event in navigating a changing course in a dynamic and uncertain environment.

3. *Sense of Urgency* - Within a special event a "sense of urgency" is generated because of the imminent time constraints and uncertainty of the delivery system. This sense of urgency helps to heighten the importance and immediacy of completing tasks under time pressure. If managed correctly, a "sense of urgency"

can be utilized to generate an internal momentum to accomplish the peak performance of an event. If managed incorrectly, this state of urgency can turn into a crisis orientation and distract the organization from a posturing of managing to reacting to its own event production. A characteristic of these events is an air of excitement and purposefulness that is enhanced by the urgent atmosphere within these organizations as they recognize time as a primary resource in short supply.

4. *Campaign Feeling* - Special event workers develop a spirit and enthusiasm for a given program because of their commitment to the mission and association with an event organization. This feeling of purposefulness generates an excitement that is intrinsically rewarding to workers who view their participation as a temporary hiatus from their normal routine. Special event work is not a neutral job commitment that only requires performance, but is inextricably tied to the theme of the event. The culture of special event workers requires more than a bland feeling of work obligation, but escalates participation to a meaningful and entertaining activity above and beyond the demands of the particular assignments. Associated with the importance of the work is the fun and excitement of being associated

with a dynamic event organization. Special event managers cultivate this sense of excitement and commitment to develop a "campaign feeling".

5. *Managing Uncertainty* - A special event manager has an ability to cope with and create entrepreneurial opportunities out of a state of "uncertainty". This state of uncertainty is created by the developing management systems operating in a changing environment with one opportunity to deliver a peak performance under a certain time deadline. This lack of reliance in an established event management system is transferred into a fluid position of flexibility and adaptability to adjust to a fluctuating course of action. These managers turn their lack of organizational control into windows of opportunity to allow new systems to grow and continue to the final production. This state of uncertainty provides the latitude for managers to allow these organizations to emerge to accomplish the needed work activities instead of implementing a prefabricated model.

6. *Community of Interest* - Special events are adopted by a population that views the event's existence as effecting their own interests. This community of interest becomes the watch dogs, standard setters, volunteers, critics, and authorities of the developing event organization. Because of the mission of

these events, they cannot be created in a vacuum devoid of this observation. The empowerment of a special event is from the adoption of the event by this community of interest as a purposeful program. This adoption process closes the loop between special event organizational planning and objectives to a manifestation of importance of the event's mission. This endorsement of mission gives these events an implied authority to act on behalf of a larger population than their immediate organization.

7. *No Alternative to Success* - A special event manager has a fixation on the successful completion of the event. Once the program begins these managers realize that you cannot turn the clock back and must follow their special event vision to its conclusion. Implicitly, a commitment to begin is a commitment to finish. A special event manager gets one chance to succeed during this peak performance. Because of the time deadlines and expectations upon the event, a special event manager cannot be tentative about its completion. As leaders, these managers demonstrate an ability to develop a feeling of optimism in the face of uncertainty necessary to inspire their workers to deliver a peak performance on time.
8. *Natural Terminations* - Special event existence is linked to the accomplishment of a certain mission,

within a limited amount of time. These organizations are designed to program their one best effort in producing a peak performance and terminate upon its completion. These workers and managers understand the temporary nature of their duties and do not expect future employment or association. This known, limited life span of special events focuses these organizations to concentrate on their mission avoiding a bureaucratic tendency to perpetuate themselves.

9. *Intuitive Evaluation* - Special event managers have an immediate comprehension of success or failure for the special event at the time of production. The intuitive orientation of this evaluation captures the difficult to quantify attributes of the special event experience. Special events are unique productions that often appeal to emotions and passion. Even though there are also quantifiable variables of events such as ticket sales or funds raised which can be linked to original goals and expectations, they are not the sole measure of success. Since these events are only produced once and are experimental by design, their evaluation is not comparative, but must be viewed in light of the original objectives, purpose, and experience of a particular event.

Special event management's terminal nature has not lent itself to systematic study. Each event is unique, creating little comparison or demand for this type of research. These descriptions of special event characteristics is not intended to diminish the uniqueness of these programs, but provide a framework for special event managers to better understand the dynamics of these organizations. Special events are increasingly producing larger and more sophisticated productions demonstrating a greater role as a management system. As an organizational model, special events make significant accomplishments that have proven worth studying. The study of this organizational systems has identified common management threads that are significant and consistent across a variety of events. The consistent themes found in this exploratory research are useful in understanding this phenomenon of temporary administrations by providing a foundation for building a descriptive theory of special event management.

Paradox of Special Event Studies

One of the vital characteristics of special events is how they approach organizational development and problem-solving with a fresh and unencumbered approach. Part of this freshness is because of the vagueness in how to go

about developing special event management systems. Consequently, these organizations allow a system to emerge to fit the mission without turning to a "one best" blueprint for event management. If special event studies produce an ideal model type, they will, like traditional bureaucracies, squelch some of the key attributes that make these organizations adaptable under severe time pressures while instilling a purposeful campaign feeling for the workers. The paradox of special event research is if the event is studied, will it soon become formatted into one ideal event management model? The answer is procedural in that if special event managers understand the dynamic characteristics of these organizations, they can better manage the process while understanding the organization as an emerging system. The end product should not be greater bureaucratic control or an ideal model of these organizations, but a more comprehensive perspective for managing the special event experience.

Recommendations for Future Research

The purpose of this study is to develop a descriptive theory of special event management. It is not within the scope of this dissertation to explain variance of organizational models or formal testing of a number of hypotheses which is rich terrain for future studies. This

study objective is to bring into focus some key characteristics of special event management that provide a frame of reference for understanding this management phenomenon. From this frame of reference there are several issue areas that would provide useful research topics in understanding not only special events, but a larger theory of temporary administration. Some suggested topics would include:

1. Special event management and its role in a temporary society. This research would study the interrelationships of modern society's work force and organizations, and special event management as a product of a changing society. (See Bennis & Slater's work, The Temporary Society, 1968.)
2. Special event management as a bureaucratic alternative. This study would investigate a model of special event management that displaces work functions of traditional organizations in favor of the terminal event management system. Unlike the natural fit that special event organizations have with their current mission, this research would inquire if this management style would not be appropriate to absorb certain functions of traditional bureaucracies.
3. A comparative study of special event management and crisis management. As noticeable in this framework there are issue areas that are parallel to concerns in crisis management, and there are also divergent

issues. A comparative study could bring greater depth to common management concerns of operating under a "sense of urgency."

4. Comparative study of special event management and intra-organization project management. As a comparative study, a researcher can hypothesize the use of special event management within an organization as a modification of the project management structure. This research, like in the crisis model, can study parallel issue areas and divergent characteristics. This analysis will need to study parent organizational constraints on temporary operating systems and the independence/bureaucratization dynamics of these terminal management systems.
5. Effectiveness of special event management systems. These organizations are exciting, goal-oriented, with a high degree of success in completing their mission, but it is difficult to measure their degree of effectiveness as evaluated by the amount of resources utilized to deliver the event. As previously discussed in the evaluation section, there are many qualitative features to special events that do not easily lend themselves to measurement. However, there are significant amounts of hard resources utilized to produce this aesthetic project. A researcher could make important observations that

will argue the effectiveness/ineffectiveness of special event management as a preferred system to assume greater work responsibilities.

6. Special event management as a model of "emerging management systems." These organizations can be studied as embryonic systems that develop to fit a particular event. This contingency theory can be observed to monitor a changing organizational environment that produces systems outside of a traditional bureaucratic model. These event organizations could be studied as a new adaptable and evolving species of organization.

From this descriptive framework there are also many themes of special event management that could prove interesting research as comparative management issues which are not only applicable to temporary administration. Some of the management issues that are useful descriptors for special events that have broader applications are: "Sense of urgency," "campaign feeling", "no alternative to success," "natural termination," "emerging systems," and "intuitive evaluation." Not unlike many research projects, this dissertation promotes a series of inquiries and a host of possible future research topics. As a first step in understanding special event management, this exploratory study develops a descriptive theory to provide

a model of understanding and inquiry into this administrative phenomenon.

REFERENCES

REFERENCES

- Ackerman, Linda S. (1984). The Flow State: A new View of Organizations and Managing. In John D. Adams (ed.), Transforming Work: A Collection of Organizational Transformation Readings (pp 114-137). Alexandria, VA: Miles River Press.
- Ackoff, Russell L. (1981). Creating the Corporate Future. New York, NY: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.
- Aptman, Leonard. (1986, September). Project Management: Criteria for Good Planning. Management Solutions, Vol. 31, 22-26.
- Babbie, Earl. (1979). The Practice of Social Research. (2nd ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Company, Inc.
- Bailey, Kenneth D. (1982). Methods of Social Research. (2nd ed.). New York, NY: The Free Press.
- Barnard, Chester I. (1978). Informal Organizations and Their Relation to Formal Organizations. In Jay M. Shafritz and Albert C. Hyde (eds.), Classics of Public Administration (pp. 48-52). Oak Park, IL: Moore Publishing Company, Inc.
- Bennis, Warren G. (1966). Changing Organizations. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill Book Co.
- Bennis, Warren G. and Philip E. Slater. (1968). The Temporary Society. New York, NY: Harper and Row.
- Bennis, Warren G. and Burt Nanus. (1985). Leaders: Strategies For Taking Charge. New York, NY: Harper and Row, Publishers.
- Berkley, George E. (1971). The Administrative Revolution. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc.
- Bernstein, Samuel J. and Patrick O'Hara. (1979). Public Administration: Organizations, People, and Public Policy. New York, NY: Harper and Row Publishers.
- Blalock, Hubert M. Jr. (1982). Conceptualization and Measurement in the Social Sciences. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.

- Burns, James MacGregor. (1978). Leadership. New York: Harper and Row, Publishers.
- Burns, Tom and G.M. Stalker. (1961). The Management of Innovation. London, BK: Butler and Tanner Limited.
- Campbell, D. T. (1969). Reforms As Experiments. American Psychologist, Vol. 24, No. 4, 409-429.
- Cartwright, T. J. (1987, April). The Lost Art of Planning. Long Range Planning, Vol. 20, No. 2, 92-98.
- Churchman, West C. (1982). Thought and Wisdom. CA: Intersystem Publications.
- Coates, Joseph F., Vary T. Coates, Jennifer Jarratt and Lisa Heinz. (1986). Issues Management. Mt. Airy, MD: Lomond Publications.
- Comfort, Louise K. (1985). Action Research: A Model for Organizational Learning. Journal of Policy Analysis and Management, Vol. 5, No.1, 100-118.
- Dalkey, Norman and Olaf Helmer. (1963, April). An Experimental Application of the Delphi Method to the Use of Experts. Management Science, Vol. 9, 458-467.
- Davis, Stanley M., Paul R. Lawrence, and Michael Beer. (1977). Matrix. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co.
- de Bivort, Lawrence H. (1984). Fast-tracking the Transformation of Organizations. In John D. Adams (ed.), Transforming Work: A Collection of Organizational Transformation Readings (pp. 244-252). Alexandria, VA: Miles River Press.
- Dubin, Robert. (1969). Theory Building. New York, NY: The Free Press.
- Dungan, Travis P, Jr. (1984, May). How Cities Plan Special Events. The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly, Vol. 23, No. 1, 83-88.
- Dyer, William. (1984). Strategies for Managing Change. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company. Inc.
- Evans, Michael. (1988, May). Planning for the World's Fair: How to House 5 Million Guests. Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administrative Quarterly, Vol. 23, No. 1, 31-34.

Falassi, Alessandro. (1987). Festival: Definition and Morphology. In Alessandro Falassi (ed.), Time Out of Time. (pp. 1-10). Albuquerque, NM: University of New Mexico Press.

Feldman, Steven P. (1985). Culture and Conformity: An Essay on Individual Adaptation in Centralized Bureaucracy. Human Relations, Vol. 38, No. 4, 341-356.

Fiedler, Fred E. (1984). Engineer the Job to Fit the Manager. In Louis E. Boon and Donald D. Bowen (eds.), The Great Writings in Management and Organizational Behavior (pp 299-313). New York, NY: MacMillan Publishing Co., Inc.

Fink, Steven. (1986). Crisis Management. New York, NY: American Management Association.

Friedlander, Frank. (1983). Patterns of Individual and Organizational Learning. In Suresh Srivastva (ed.), The Executive Mind (pp. 192-220). London: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Fulton, William. (1984, May). Los Angeles Plans a No-Frills Olympics. Planning Journal, Vol. 50, No. 5, 4-10.

Galbraith, Jay. (1973). Designing Complex Organizations. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co.

Gerth H. H. and C. Wright Mills (eds. and trans.) . (1946). From Max Weber: Essays in Sociology. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Gibson, Frank K. and James E. Prather. (1984). Management of Program Evaluation. GA: Carl Vinson Institute of Government University of Georgia.

Glaser, Barney G. and Anselm L. Strauss and L. (1967) The Discovery of Grounded Theory. Chicago, IL: Aldine Publishing Co.

Hahn, Ron D. (1987, February). Ideas to Action: A Project Blueprint. Personnel Journal, Vol. 66, 68-77.

Harman, Alvin J. and S. James Press. (1975). Collecting and Analyzing Expert Group Judgement Data. Santa Monica, CA: The Rand Corp.

- Helmer, Olaf and Nicholas Rescher. (1960). On the Epistemology of The Inexact Sciences. Santa Monica, CA: The Rand Corp.
- Hill, Kathleen Thompson. (1988). Festivals U.S.A.. New York, NY: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.
- Hyman, Herbert with William J. Cobb, Jacob J. Feldman, Clyde W. Hart and Charles Herbert Stember. (1954). Interviewing In Social Research. Chicago IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Isaac, Stephen and Michael B. William. (1981). Handbook in Research and Evaluation. (2nd. ed.) San Diego, CA: EdITS Publishers.
- Jones, Charles O. (1984). Doing Before Knowing: Concept Development in Political Research. In Herbert B. Asher, Herbert F. Weisberg, John H. Kessel, and W. Phillips Shively (eds.), Theory-Building and Data Analysis in the Social Sciences (51-64). Knoxville, TN: University of Tennessee Press.
- Kast, Fremont E. and James E. Rosenzweig. Contingency View of Organization and Management. Chicago IL: Science Research Associates, Inc.
- Katz, Daniel and Robert L. Kahn. (1978). The Social Psychology of Organizations. New York, NY: John Wiley and Sons.
- Keifer, Charles F. and Peter Stroh. (1984). A New Paradigm for Developing Organizations. In John D. Adams (ed.), Transforming Work: A Collection of Organizational Transformation Readings (pp. 171-184). Alexandria, VA: Miles River Press.
- King, Peter H. (1988, July 28). An Olympic Army Waits for New Call. Los Angeles Times, Vol. 28, pp. 1, 3, 27.
- Koprowski, E. J. (1972). Creativity, Man and Organizations. Journal of Creative Behavior, Vol. 6, No. 1, 49-54.
- Lawler, Edward E. (1974, Summer). For a More Effective Organization - Match the Job to the Man. Organizational Dynamics. Vol. 3, 19-29.
- Lawrence, Paul R. and Jay W. Lorsch. (1969). Developing Organizations: Diagnosis and Action. Menlo Park, CA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co.

- Lawrence, Paul R. and Jay W. Lorsch. (1978). Organization-Environment Interface. In Jay M. Shafritz and Philip H. Whitbeck (eds.), Classics of Organization Theory (pp. 238-242). Oak Park, IL: Moore Publishing Company, Inc.
- Lewis, Ralph G. (1988). Management Issues in Emergency Response. In Louise K. Comfort (ed.), Managing Disaster. (pp. 163-179). Durham NC: Duke University Press.
- Likert, Rensis. (1961). New Patterns of Management. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill Book Co.
- Likert, Rensis. (1967). The Human Organization: Its Management and Value. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill Book Co.
- Lincoln, Yvonna S., and Egon G. Guba. (1985). Naturalistic Inquiry. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.
- MacAloon, John J. (1984). Cultural Performances, Cultural Theory. In John J. MacAloon (ed.), Rite, Drama, Festival, Spectacle (pp. 1-15). Philadelphia, PA: Institute of Human Issues.
- Malnic, Eric. (1988, July 28). All's Quiet Where Athletes Once Vied for Olympic Glory. Los Angeles Times, Vol. 28, pp. 3, 27.
- Manning, Frank E. (1983a). Abstract. In Frank E. Manning (ed.), The World of Play: Proceedings of the 7th Annual Meeting of the Association of the Anthropological Study of Play. (pp. 50-65). West Point, NY: Leisure Press.
- Manning, Frank E. (1983b). Cosmos and Chaos: Celebration in the Modern World. In Frank E. Mannings (ed.), The Celebration of Society: Perspective on Contemporary Cultural Performance (pp. 3-30). Bowling Green, OH: Bowling Green University Popular Press.
- Martin, Charles C. (1976). Project Management: How to Make It Work. New York, NY: American Management Associations.

- Martin, Joanne (1982). A Garbage-Can Model of the Research Process. In Joseph E, McGrath, Joanne Martin, and Richard A. Kulka (ed.), Judgement Calls in Research. (pp. 17-39). Beverly Hills CA: Sage Publications.
- McIntyre, Donald F. and Abbe Cohen. (1984, June). A Host City Gears Up for the Olympiad. Public Management, 13-14.
- Meredith, Jack R. and Samuel J. Mantel, Jr. (1985). Project Management: A Managerial Approach. New York, NY: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.
- Miller, Delbert C. (1983). Handbook of Research Design and Social Measurement. (4th ed.). White Plains, NY: Longman, Inc.
- Mintzberg, Henry. (1973). Strategy Making in Three Modes. California Management Review, Vol. 16, No. 2, 44-53.
- Mintzberg, Henry. (1979). The Structuring of Organizations: A Synthesis of the Research. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc.
- Mintzberg, Henry and Alexandra McHugh. (1985, June). Strategy Formation in an Adhocracy. Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 30, 160-197.
- Mitroff, Ian I. (1983). Stakeholders of the Organizational Mind. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Morgan, Gareth. (1986). Images of Organization. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.
- Mosher, Frederick C. (1978). The Public Service in the Temporary Society. In Jay M. Shafritz and Albert C. Hyde (eds.), Classics of Public Administration. (pp. 373-390). Oak Park, IL: Moore Publishing Co., Inc.
- Mouzelis, Nicos P. (1967). Organization and Bureaucracy. Chicago: Aldine Publishing Company.
- Nachmias, David and Chava Nachmias. (1976). Research Methods in the Social Sciences. New York, NY: St. Martin's Press, Inc.
- Ouchi, William G. (1977, March). The Relationship between Organizational Structure and Organizational Control. Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 22, 95-111.

- Palmer, John L. and Isabel V. Sawhill. (1982). Perspective on the Reagan Experiment. In John L. Palmer and Isabel V. Sawhill (ed.), (pp. 1-28). The Reagan Experiment, Washington DC: The Urban Institute Press.
- Pascale, Richard Tanner. (1979). Harvard Business Review (ed.), On Human Relations. (pp. 125-139). New York, NY: Harper and Row, Publishers.
- Patton, Michael Quinn. (1980). Qualitative Evaluation Methods. Beverly Hills CA: Sage Publications.
- Pell, Arthur R. (1977). Recruiting, Training and Motivating Volunteer Workers. New York, NY: Pilot Books.
- Peters, Tom. (1987). Thriving on Chaos: Hand Book for a Management Revolution. New York, NY: Harper and Row, Publishers.
- Porter, Lyman W. (1973). Turning Work into Nonwork: The Rewarding Environment. In Marvin D. Dunnette (ed.), Work and Nonwork in the Year 2001 (pp. 113-133). Monterey, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Company, Inc.
- Porter, Roger B. (1980). Presidential Decision Making. Cambridge, BK: Cambridge University Press.
- Powell, Don. (1984, June). City Managers' Expertise Aids Olympics. Interview conducted by the Public Information Office, Santa Fe Springs, CA. Public Management, Vol. 66, No. 6, 11-12.
- Price, Harrison (1988, March). Measuring the Economic Impact of Events. Presented to the International Events Group Conference on Sponsorship, Chicago, IL.
- Quade, E. S. (1982). Analysis for Public Decisions. (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Elsevier Science Publishing Co., Inc.
- Reich, Robert B. (1983). The Next American Frontier: A Provocative Program for Economic Renewal. New York, NY: Penguin Books.
- Ross, Jerry and Barry M. Staw. (1986, June). Expo '86: An Escalation Prototype. Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 31, 274-297.

- Sacco, Samuel R. (1986, September). A Bright Outlook for Temporary Help Industry. The Office, Vol. 104, No. 3, 57-60.
- Schindler, Eva. (1975). Volunteer Community. La Jolla, CA: University Associates.
- Singer, Milton. (1955, November). The Cultural Pattern of Indian Civilization. Far Eastern Quarterly, Vol. 15, No. 3, 23-36.
- Slevin, Dennis P. and Jeffrey K. Pinto. (1987, Fall). Balancing Strategy and Tactics in Project Implementation. Sloan Management Review, Vol. 29, No. 1, 33-41.
- Steiner, G. A. (ed.). (1965). The Creative Organization (pp. 1-24). Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Stengel, Richard. (1986, July 7). The Party of the Century. Time Magazine, Vol. 128, 18
- Sweet, Edward A. (1987). Festivals of Value: Toward a Modern Theory of Urban Celebration. Unpublished Bachelors Thesis, Brown University, Providence, RI:
- Szilagyi, Andrew D. Jr. and Marc J. Wallace Jr. (1987). Organizational Behavior and Performance. (4th ed.). Glenview, IL: Scott Foresman Co.
- Thompson, Victor A. (1969). Bureaucracy and Innovation. Alabama: University of Alabama Press.
- Tichy, Noel M. (1983). Managing Strategic Change. New York NY: John Wiley and Sons, a Wiley-Interscience Publication.
- Tjosvold, Dean. (1984). Effects of Crisis Orientation on Managers' Approach to Controversy in Decision Making. Academy of Management Journal, Vol. 27, No. 1, 130-138
- Trist, Eric L. (1978). Developing an Adaptive Planning Capability in Public Enterprise and Government Agencies. In John W. Sutherland (ed.), Management Handbook for Public Administrators (pp. 389-471). New York, NY: Litton Educational Publishing Co.

- Ueberroth, Peter, Richard Levin, and Amy Quinn. (1985). Made In America: His Own Story. New York, NY: William Morrow and Company, Inc.
- Van De Ven, Andrew H. and Andre' L. Delbecq. (1974, December). The Effectiveness of Nominal, Delphi, and Interacting Group Making Process. Academy of Management Journal, Vol. 17, No. 4, 605-620.
- Walters, H. W. (1939). History of Fairs and Expositions. London, Ontario: Reid Brothers and Company.
- Weisbord, Marvin R. (1978). Input-Versus Output-Focused Organizations on a Contingency Theory of Practice. In W. Warner Burke (ed.), The Cutting Edge: Current Theory and Practice in Organization Development (pp. 13-46). La Jolla, CA: University Associates, Inc.
- Willens, Michele. (1984, February). The Three Scenarios for the L.A. Olympic Games. California Journal, Vol. 15, 41-44.
- Williamson, John B., David A. Kays, John R. Dolphi and Paul S. Oray. (1982). The Research Craft: An Introduction to Social Research Methods. (2nd ed.). Boston, MA: Little, Brown Publishing.
- Zwarun, Suzanne. (1987, November). Gluttons for Punishment. Canadian Business, Vol. 60, No. 11, 54-66.

APPENDIX A

SPECIAL EVENT MANAGEMENT SURVEY

SPECIAL EVENT MANAGEMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Thank you for your participation in this research project. Your participation is important to study the management of special events.

In responding to the following statements please focus on special events of a one-time nature, as opposed to events that have established organizations and are repeated on a regular basis.

Name:

Organization:

Years associated with special events:

Type of special events you are most familiar with:

PART 1: PLANNING AND PRODUCTION

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements with "1" indicating that you strongly disagree, "4" indicating a neutral response, and "7" indicating that you strongly agree.

Optional: Below each section a space for your comments is provided. Please make any clarifications or additions that you feel are important.

	Strongly Disagree							Strongly Agree
1) Special events are planned around a central theme.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
2) Few changes in plans can be made once preparation for a special event begins.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
3) An alternative(s) course of action is essential to this planning process.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
4) These events establish realistic goals and objectives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

Comments: _____

PART 2: STRUCTURE

Strongly
Disagree

Strongly
Agree

5) These organizations develop an open operating structure allowing open communication between workers and managers.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6) These organizations are characterized by a sense of urgency, due to the time constraints.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

7) These organizations are responsive and quick to react to new problems and opportunities.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

8) Error in small details is tolerated due to the frenetic pace of these organizations.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Comments: _____

PART 3: WORK FORCE

Workers (anyone who works in a special event, paid or unpaid)

Strongly Disagree

Strongly Agree

- | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 9) Workers in special events have a "campaign" feeling; a sense of belonging to an important project. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 10) These workers are highly motivated and require little supervision. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 11) These workers value participation more than monetary rewards. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 12) These workers are creative people with little tolerance for bureaucratic detail. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

Comments: _____

PART 4: LEADERSHIP/MANAGEMENT

	Strongly Disagree							Strongly Agree
13) A special event manager must tolerate a great amount of uncertainty working with temporary organizational structures.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
14) The leadership in these organizations is characterized by strong personalities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
15) High quality decisions are made by special event managers under the given time constraints.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
16) Special event managers can rely upon the organization to carry out the mission in their absence.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

Comments: _____

PART 5: EVALUATION

	Strongly Disagree							Strongly Agree
17) A manager can immediately evaluate a special event as a success or failure at the time of the event.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
18) Special events accomplish their original goals and objectives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
19) Special events require more resources to produce than originally planned.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
20) The productivity of special events is increased because of the time constraints.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

Comments: _____

PART 6: CURRENT TRENDS

	Strongly Disagree							Strongly Agree
21) Special events are becoming more technically sophisticated and difficult to manage.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
22) Plenty of qualified workers are available for temporary work in a special event.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
23) The demand for special events in your particular field is increasing each year.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
24) The audience of special events are expecting bigger and better productions each year.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

Comments: _____

APPENDIX B

TELEPHONE INTERVIEW WORKSHEET

TELEPHONE INTERVIEW WORKSHEET:

(used by this researcher to provide a consistent framework for conducting interviews)

SPECIAL EVENT MANAGERS

name
position
company

TIME OF INTERVIEW _____ am/pm _____ date

A. GIVE INSTRUCTIONS

- 1) Notify that interview is recorded.
- 2) Allow them to elaborate on questions.
- 3) Request any written information they use in managing special events.
- 4) Inform participants of the boundaries of special events as used in this study. (Request that they concentrate their comments to "one-time" events.)

B. BACKGROUND DATA OF PARTICIPANT

- 1) What type of special events are you involved with?

- 2) How would you define your role at these special events?

C. DISCUSS GENERAL QUESTIONS THEY RECEIVED IN THE MAIL.

- 1) How would you describe the structure of Special Event management systems that you have worked with?

- 2) How are goals and objectives usually established for these events?

- 3) What are the special concerns of producing peak-load events in a confined time period?

- 4) What are the characteristics of the workers in these temporary organizations?

- 5) What are the most common errors in planning and producing these events?

6) What are some of the special leadership concerns of this form of management?

7) Are these Special Events particularly sensitive to clientele opinion?

8) How do you evaluate the success of a Special Event?

9) How, if at all, are these Special Event management systems different from other organizations that you have participated in?

10) From your experience in managing these temporary organizations, have you been able to develop a system that can guide you in producing other special events?

D. CLOSING INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

- 1) What, if any, changes have you observed in the management of Special Events? (Ask time references.)

- 2) What are some of the questions that you would ask that have not been covered in this interview?

- 3) Is there any other information that you would like to include which we have not covered?

- 4) Remind the participants to watch for the written questionnaire to be received in the mail (approximately the first week of September).

APPENDIX C

PROFILE OF SPECIAL EVENT MANAGERS' EXPERIENCE

Panel Members' Areas Of Special Event Experience

Participant # 1

Political Campaigns
Conventions
Public Forums

Participant # 2

Worlds Fair
United States Department of Commerce (Impact Evaluation of
Events on Sponsoring Communities)

Participant # 3

Olympic Games
World's Fair
Theme Park Special Events

Participant # 4

City Centennial Celebration
Olympic Games
Disaster Recovery (for comparative analysis)

Participant # 5

Fund-Raising
Political Campaigns

Participant # 6

Corporate Events
Olympic Games
United States Bicentennial

Participant # 7

Professional Sports Team Events
University Athletic Centennial Event

Participant # 8

Statue Of Liberty Celebration
Metropolitan Opera Special Events
Carnegie Hall Special Events
Television Events

Participant # 9
Disneyland Special Events Company
(internal and external special events for Disneyland)

Participant # 10
Major Sports events
Community Events
Exhibitions

Outlying Special Event Managers
(participated in the written survey only)

Participant # 11
International Conferences
International Sports Festival
Music Productions

Participant # 12
Special Event Consulting
(large variety of ceremonies, shows and events)

Participant # 13
World's Fairs
Olympic Games
State Fairs

Participant # 14
Statue Of Liberty Celebration
Olympic Games
Super Bowl Half Time Show
Movie Productions