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UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHAMPTON

FACULTY OF SOCIAL, HUMAN AND MATHEMATICAL SCIENCES

Geography and Environment

**The Impacts of Small-scale Cultural Events on
Market Town Vitality**

by

Elaine Louise Rust

Thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

May 2017

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHAMPTON

ABSTRACT

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THE IMPACTS OF SMALL-SCALE CULTURAL EVENTS ON MARKET TOWN VITALITY

by Elaine Louise Rust

It is widely acknowledged that town centres in the United Kingdom currently face numerous challenges and are evolving at a time of prolonged economic uncertainty. Many are struggling for long-term survival, facing threats from changing patterns of consumer behaviour and increased reliance on internet retailing. In consequence, local policymakers are searching for solutions to these problems and various strategies aimed at reviving the fortunes of declining centres have been developed and implemented.

Cultural events such as fairs, festivals or markets are being used to increase town centre footfall in the hope that this will translate into improved economic activity for their, sometimes struggling, businesses. The staging of cultural or sporting events is a policy that has been used previously at city or regional level and much evidence exists of the impacts of these larger-scale or mega-events. Far less is known about impacts of smaller-scale cultural events hosted specifically in smaller settlements such as market towns. There is a pressing need, therefore, for such evidence so that informed decisions can be made.

This thesis employs case study methodology to examine the impacts of three small-scale cultural events staged in three different market towns in the Test Valley Borough Council area of the south of England. It reveals that although expenditure-related economic impacts are minimal, other contributory factors are evident and influence such activity. It concludes by proposing a framework for evaluating economic impacts more holistically.

This research makes a timely and important contribution to the ongoing British town centre and high street debate by providing evidence to illustrate the ways in which small-scale cultural events function within a market town setting. It also contributes to methodological knowledge by proposing that evaluating expenditure-related impacts in isolation is a narrowly-focused perspective, as it fails to account for other impacts and associated factors, such as the motivations behind visitor expenditure or the effect of both an event's and a town's reputation.

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DECLARATION OF AUTHORSHIP

I, ELAINE LOUISE RUST

declare that this thesis and the work presented in it are my own and has been generated by me as the result of my own original research.

The Impacts of Small-scale Cultural Events on Market Town Vitality

I confirm that:

1. This work was done wholly or mainly while in candidature for a research degree at this University;
2. Where any part of this thesis has previously been submitted for a degree or any other qualification at this University or any other institution, this has been clearly stated;
3. Where I have consulted the published work of others, this is always clearly attributed;
4. Where I have quoted from the work of others, the source is always given.
With the exception of such quotations, this thesis is entirely my own work;
5. I have acknowledged all main sources of help;
6. Where the thesis is based on work done by myself jointly with others, I have made clear exactly what was done by others and what I have contributed myself;
7. None of this work has been published before submission.

Signed:

Date:

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Definitions and Abbreviations

ACTM	Association of Town and City Management
AFM	Andover farmers' and crafts market (case study three)
BAFA	British Arts Festivals Association
BF	Beggars Fair, Romsey (case study one)
BID	Business Improvement District
CASE	Collaborative awards in science and engineering
CS1	Case study one (the Beggars Fair)
CS2	Case study two (Trout 'n About)
CS3	Case study three (Andover farmers' and crafts market)
DCMS	Department for Culture, Media and Sport
EIA	Economic impact assessment
ESRC	Economic and Social Research Council
HCC	Hampshire County Council
LED	Local economic development
MPP	Mean per person
NUTS	Nomenclature of units for territorial statistics
ONS	Office for National Statistics
RQ1	Research question one
RQ2	Research question two

RIBEN	Retail Industry Business Engagement Network
STMS	Scottish Tourism Multiplier Study
TCM	Town Centre Manager
TnA	Trout 'n About (case study two)
TVBC	Test Valley Borough Council

PART ONE

Chapter 1: Introduction

This PhD research explores the contribution made by small-scale cultural events to vitality in small towns, particularly market towns, by studying their impacts. The plight of the British town centre and high street is a matter of concern at central government level, with various attempts being made in recent years to revive those in need, for example, the much-publicised Portas Review of 2011 (Portas, 2011). These attempts have resulted in varying levels of success. It seems clear that different strategies are needed to meet a diverse mixture of problems faced by an equally varied assortment of town centres and high streets across the UK: 'one size does not fit all' (Wrigley and Lambiri, 2015, p92). The overall aim of this research is, therefore, to produce robust evidence on the way in which small-scale cultural events, which are a popular feature in many of these locations, perform in economic, social and cultural terms. In so doing, to broaden knowledge and understanding of this area of study, as well as to provide policymakers with evidence to support their decision-making processes. This specific field is currently under-researched and has a place within the broader study of economic and urban geography, as well as event impacts.

Since vitality is a pivotal word used in this thesis, an understanding of its meaning and the way in which it is used in contemporary urban studies literature is needed. Vitality is a word frequently associated with thriving town centres (see, eg: Coca-Stefaniak and Bagaeen, 2013; Wrigley and Lambiri, 2015) or aspirations to improve the fortunes of ailing places, for example, it is used as one of four key performance indicators ('diversity and vitality of place') by the Association of Town and City Management (ACTM), which are founded on Government planning policy (Coca-Stefaniak, 2013, p23). The dictionary definition is: 'the power or ability to continue in existence, live or grow' (Collins, 2017); and in the urban studies context, Ravenscroft (2000, p2534) has remarked that it 'refers to how busy an urban centre is at different times and locations.' Vitality, then, is used throughout this thesis to indicate a vibrant, well-functioning place, which has the ability at least to maintain its existing economic status.

This chapter is divided into five sections. The first discusses the current issues facing British town centres and high streets. The second is concerned with the ways in which cultural and sporting events are known to contribute economically, socially and culturally in different contexts. The third explains the funding source and its influences over the direction of the project. The fourth outlines the aims and objectives of the research and the final section sets out the structure of the remainder of the thesis.

1.1 British town centres and high streets: institutions worth saving

British town centres and high streets have been a focus for economic and urban geographers for some time and increasingly so since the most recent global economic crisis first began in 2008. Their ongoing welfare is also a topic of recurrent media interest, with frequent reports of fluctuating retail sales. The April retail sales release from the Office for National Statistics (ONS) reported the first three month on three month increase in sales volume, following three consecutive months of decline (ONS, 2017a). This drop, the first since December 2013, was partly attributed to increased fuel and food prices (ONS, 2017c) and uncertainty following the UK's decision to leave the EU, amid concerns over currency fluctuations (Wood, 2017). These reports, which use data from the ONS's Monthly Business Survey, illustrate the continuing unsettled nature of the British retail sector.

This is the latest in a series of significant problems encountered by the British town centre and high street during the last half-century. Initially, concerns over the growth of out-of-town retail parks sparked the 'town centres first' policy, which saw the introduction of the sequential test to prioritise town centre development (Wood *et al*, 2006). More recently, the rapid growth of online retailing has introduced a new threat to the viability of these spaces: the ONS has reported that in 2008, five pence in every pound spent in shops (physical or virtual) occurred online, but by 2015, this had increased to 13 pence in every pound (ONS Digital, 2016).

Another challenge faced by the British town centre and high street is the change to the way in which they are used by consumers (Wrigley and Lambiri, 2014a). Following an increase in service provision (eg: coffee shops), they are currently seeing a shift from a dependence on retail towards a more even mix

(Wrigley and Lambiri, 2014b). Clearly, the government deems these places to be worth saving and, to this end, it initiated a task force in 2013 – the Future High Streets Forum – to learn more about the problems they are facing and develop policies which will enable them to adapt and evolve in the face of these current challenges (Gov.UK, n.d.).

Much ground has also been covered by academic enquiry in recent years to understand how these places are recovering and adapting to the challenges, for example: Wrigley and Brookes (2014); Wrigley and Lambiri (2014a, 2014b); and Wrigley and Lambiri (2015). There remains, however, plenty of scope to explore this important field from a variety of perspectives, particularly since Wrigley and Lambiri (2015) have commented that study of high street performance has tended to focus on retail. Hart *et al* (2014, p1) have examined how consumers use town centres and high streets and have issued a stark warning that ‘the high street is likely to survive only for as long as consumers enjoy the town centre customer experience.’ One means of enhancing these experiences is by introducing special events, such as food festivals, or speciality markets, which is the focus of the current study.

1.2 Cultural events and their place in town centre vitality

Since deindustrialisation first emerged as a problem in the UK during the 20th Century, policymakers have attempted a variety of strategies to regenerate depressed areas and encourage economic development. These include retail developments, such as MetroCentre in Gateshead (Lowe, 1993), or cultural schemes, for example the European Capitals/City of Culture programme. Although the context is different, it seems that town centres and high streets are in danger of suffering from a similar decline and economic development strategies adopted by policymakers to address the consequences of deindustrialisation may offer an option to aid recovery – albeit scaled down from regional to local level.

One of these so-called ‘boosterist’ strategies is to host special events (Boyle, 1997, p1982), since they are viewed as a means of generating additional economic activity through visitor spending and sometimes infrastructure development. The Olympic Games is, perhaps, the most visible example of such an approach, however, it is seen as a high risk strategy (Andranovich *et*

al, 2001) and a feasible option only for a handful of the largest cities or city regions around the world. At the local level, and particularly in the context of market towns, fairs, festivals and markets have been popular features for centuries, serving numerous purposes for communities living within them or nearby. The permission to host such special events in the Middle Ages was granted by a highly desirable charter, owing to the economic benefits associated with them. Although this status has diminished over the centuries, cultural events like these are currently being used by many towns to drive up footfall in the hope that this will result in improved economic activity in the host town. There is currently very little concrete evidence on the impacts of these events, however, leading Dwyer *et al* (2005) to comment that there is plenty of scope for research in this particular field.

Some market towns have been successful at reinventing themselves for the 21st Century as visitor attractions (Powe and Hart, 2008), however, this is not the universal experience. Cultural events such as fairs, festivals or markets may have a role to play in contributing to revitalising those places in need. Since the local authority's or town centre management's on-going support – financial or in-kind – is often needed, either to initiate these small-scale events or to ensure their continuation, then understanding their impacts in such places is vital. For these reasons, an impact study that provides robust evidence is both timely and necessary. This research uses case studies of different cultural events from three market towns to develop an in-depth understanding of whether and how small-scale events contribute to their host communities; economically, socially and culturally.

1.3 Research funding

This PhD research was funded via a CASE¹ studentship from the ESRC² and RIBEN³, one of their capacity-building clusters. A condition of the funding was that there should be collaboration with an external non-academic organisation to ensure real-world applicability of the research. The partner in this case was Test Valley Borough Council (TVBC), a local authority neighbouring Southampton, which has previously commissioned retail research at the

¹ Collaborative awards in science and engineering

² Economic and Social Research Council

³ Retail Industry Business Engagement Network

University of Southampton and was keen to understand more of how its own cultural events contribute to the borough's economy. This collaboration influenced the overall aims and objectives, which now follow.

1.4 Research aims, objectives and questions

The aims of the research, as shown below, were agreed in conjunction with TVBC as project co-sponsor:

1. To provide TVBC with an understanding of how cultural events taking place within the borough contribute to its economy, with particular reference to the retailers and services located within its three main settlements, by conducting economic impact assessments (EIAs).
2. To develop an understanding of the broader contribution made by small-scale cultural events to market town vitality, beyond the economic (monetary) role, by exploring the social and cultural impacts.

These aims resulted in five key objectives, as follows:

1. To investigate how the EIA process has been undertaken in the field of events and, as a result,
2. To develop an appropriate methodology for this study;
3. To produce evidence of visitor spending patterns (ie: to identify the levels of expenditure made at the event stalls and in the host town's retail and service provision);
4. To examine the motivations for attendance at small-scale cultural events and attendees' attitudes and behaviours;
5. To explore the reasons for non-attendance.

The literature concerned with event impacts and town centres has provided a basis for this particular research, as discussed in Chapter Two. Although various theories have been developed in these broad fields, notably concerning economic impacts, theories specifically combining small-scale cultural events with their role in market town vitality are lacking. Two main research questions have emerged, each with a number of associated sub-questions as follows:

Research Question (RQ) 1: what is the economic impact of small-scale cultural events?

1(a) how much do event attendees and traders/performers spend, both on event stalls and in the host town's shops and services while they are visiting? Is more spent on the event stalls or in the host town's shops and services?

1(b) do these visitors travel to the towns mainly for the event, or for some other reason? Are they aware of the event prior to their visit?

1(c) where do these attendees come from? Are they local residents, or visitors from further afield? While at the event, how long do they stay?

RQ2: What other impacts do these events generate?

2(a) who attends these events (what are the characteristics of the people attending)?

2(b) why do people attend these events and what do they do while there?

2(c) who stays away from these events (what are the characteristics of the people who do not attend)?

2(d) why do some people stay away from these events?

Learning about the characteristics, attitudes and behaviours of the people who attend and stay away helps to broaden understanding of social and cultural impacts associated with small-scale cultural events. When combined with EIA, this results in a clear illustration of the overall impact generated by this type of special event.

By answering these questions, this research makes two major contributions: first, the research makes a methodological contribution by presenting empirical research concerned with the smaller-scale cultural event. Existing study in this field relates to much larger-scale events, which possess quite different characteristics, such as size of audience or duration of the event. Methods more commonly associated with estimating impacts of large-scale events were scaled down to a workable level more appropriate for small-scale cultural events. Second, the research makes a practical contribution, by producing evidence of the economic, social and cultural effects that emerged as a result of three small-scale, single day, cultural events: a fair, a festival and a market. Such events are typical of the type of activity planned by town centre managers (TCMs), local authority officers or Business Improvement District

(BID) managers with the aim of increasing footfall and, in so doing, economic activity. In this way, this research provides supplementary evidence to assist with the development of appropriate policies for small towns and adds to the current British town centres debate.

1.5 Thesis structure

This thesis is divided into three distinct parts. Part One includes this introductory chapter and two further chapters on the context for the research: the literature review (Chapter Two); and the research methodology and design (Chapter Three). Part Two consists of three chapters, which in broad terms, present the results of the research: the first (Chapter Four) gives a detailed overview of the TVBC area; the second (Chapter Five) presents the EIA; and the third (Chapter Six) presents the less quantifiable results. The final two chapters in Part Three are the discussion (Chapter Seven) and the overall conclusion (Chapter Eight). Figure 1.1 (overleaf) illustrates how each chapter relates to the overall thesis and an overview of each now follows.

1.5.1 Chapter Two: Literature Review

This review of the pertinent literature is divided into four main sections. The first identifies the need for local economic development (LED) policy following widespread deindustrialisation in the UK during the late 20th Century and discusses some of the policies that were implemented, along with their consequences. This broad review of LED policy leads into the second section, which focuses on how cultural events have been used in their various forms as a strategy for economic regeneration or revitalisation. This section additionally considers the economic, social and cultural impacts associated with an events-based strategy. The third section draws attention to the ongoing problem facing the British town centre and high street, identifying similarities between the difficulties faced by policymakers during deindustrialisation and those faced by local authorities attempting to revitalise their high streets and town centres today. The final section focuses attention on the smaller-scale, in terms of town (ie: market town rather than city) and event (ie: small rather than large-scale), following the observation that a large proportion of urban and event study has neglected these specific areas.

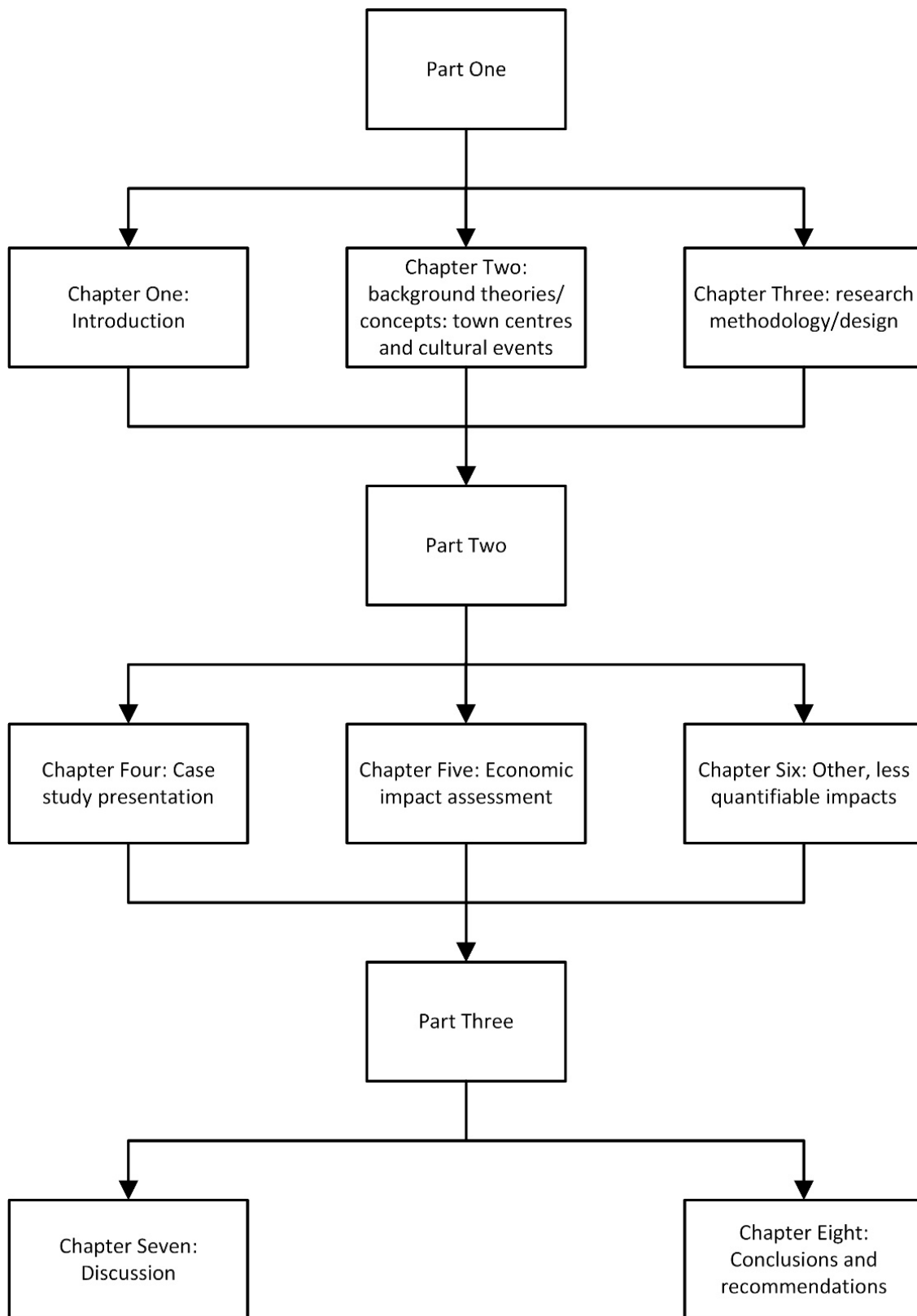


Figure 1.1: Thesis chapter structure

1.5.2 Chapter Three: Research Methodology and Design

This chapter initially discusses the methodological approach employed by this mixed methods study. It then continues by detailing the research design that was developed and how it was influenced by the co-sponsors, TVBC. As a

significant component of the study involved conducting EIAs, relevant terminology is explained, along with the process that was developed and implemented. The chapter then outlines the way in which qualitative data were interpreted using thematic analysis. Finally, limitations of the design are discussed.

1.5.3 Chapter Four: Case Study Presentation

The economic, social and geographical characteristics of the TVBC area are presented first in this chapter, to provide a detailed overview of the study area. This is followed by more specific information about the three case studies included in the research, illustrating the contextual background. It does this by initially describing the host towns, then each of the events, including their origins, how they are organised, structured and run, and finally, any issues pertinent to the study.

1.5.4 Chapter Five: Economic Impact Assessment

The main aim of this chapter is to present the EIA for each of the case study events and, in so doing, answer the first research question and associated sub-questions. It achieves this by working through the systematic process that was developed and explained in Chapter Three to calculate the direct, indirect and induced impacts of the case study events. Although predominantly a quantitative chapter, it includes a small amount of qualitative data where appropriate to elaborate on certain aspects, such as the local business perception of how the events affect their businesses.

1.5.5 Chapter Six: Towards an understanding of other (non-monetary) impacts

This chapter presents the remaining results, which address the second research question. Again, they are a mix of quantitative and qualitative data. The former help to identify the characteristics of the respondents, while the latter illustrate their opinions of and attitudes towards the case study events. By constructing a narrative associated with each of the case studies, based on the lived experiences of participants and non-participants, the chapter illustrates the underlying motivation for event attendance. It also highlights some of the negative perceptions and feelings associated with either the events or their host towns.

1.5.6 Chapter Seven: Discussion

The discussion is divided into three main themes that have emerged from the data analysis. The first concerns the appropriateness of EIA in relation to small-scale cultural events, since the process was found to be imperfect and numerous challenges were encountered during the study. It also identifies the failure of this approach to account for the drivers of expenditure that occurs as a result of these events completely. The second theme considers how these events contribute to market town performance; specifically examining the spending patterns reported by the research participants. The final theme explores the way in which small-scale cultural events generate experiential value and how this contributes to monetary impact, and so engages with the ‘experience economy’ literature (eg: Pine and Gilmore, 2011).

1.5.7 Chapter Eight: Conclusion

This final chapter summarises the key findings resulting from the study to evaluate the impacts of small-scale cultural events on market town vitality. It includes discussion of the limitations of the study, as well as scope for further work. Finally, it identifies original contributions made to methodological and practical debate, as well as outlining policy implications and transferability.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Cultural (and sporting) events, the broader policy context and contemporary town centres debate

‘Cultural events have become central to processes of urban development and revitalisation, as cultural production becomes a major element of the urban economy, and cultural consumption can dominate both the image of places and urban life in general’ (Richards and Palmer, 2010, p3).

This literature review comprises four sections, each of which considers an individual issue pertinent to the overall research, which explores the impacts of small-scale cultural events located in small towns, particularly market towns. The quote above illustrates that such activities have a place in the urban growth agenda, however, the particular setting of small towns has not been examined in this context to any great extent. By presenting each component of the research in an individual section, the overall argument can be constructed carefully before being amalgamated at the end of the chapter. The diagram shown at Figure 2.1 overleaf illustrates the structure of the chapter and how each part relates to the overall contribution.

As will be seen further in this chapter, cultural events have been used as a means of generating economic activity in various settings over time. To understand how this has emerged as a credible strategy, the first section of this chapter discusses the emergence of local economic development (LED) policy in broad terms. The aftermath of the economic crisis of the 1970s resulted in a shift towards a new mode of regulation, which favoured urban entrepreneurialism. As policymakers were faced with problems associated with deindustrialisation, such as mass unemployment and loss of traditional manufacturing, they sought different ways to boost their economies. A wide variety of increasingly entrepreneurial strategies (Harvey, 1989) subsequently followed, the main aim of which was to revitalise these depressed areas. Projects ranged from complete transformation of former industrial landscapes into retail and leisure parks, to capitalising on tourism potential or initiating cultural ventures. Strategies such as these are examined in this part.

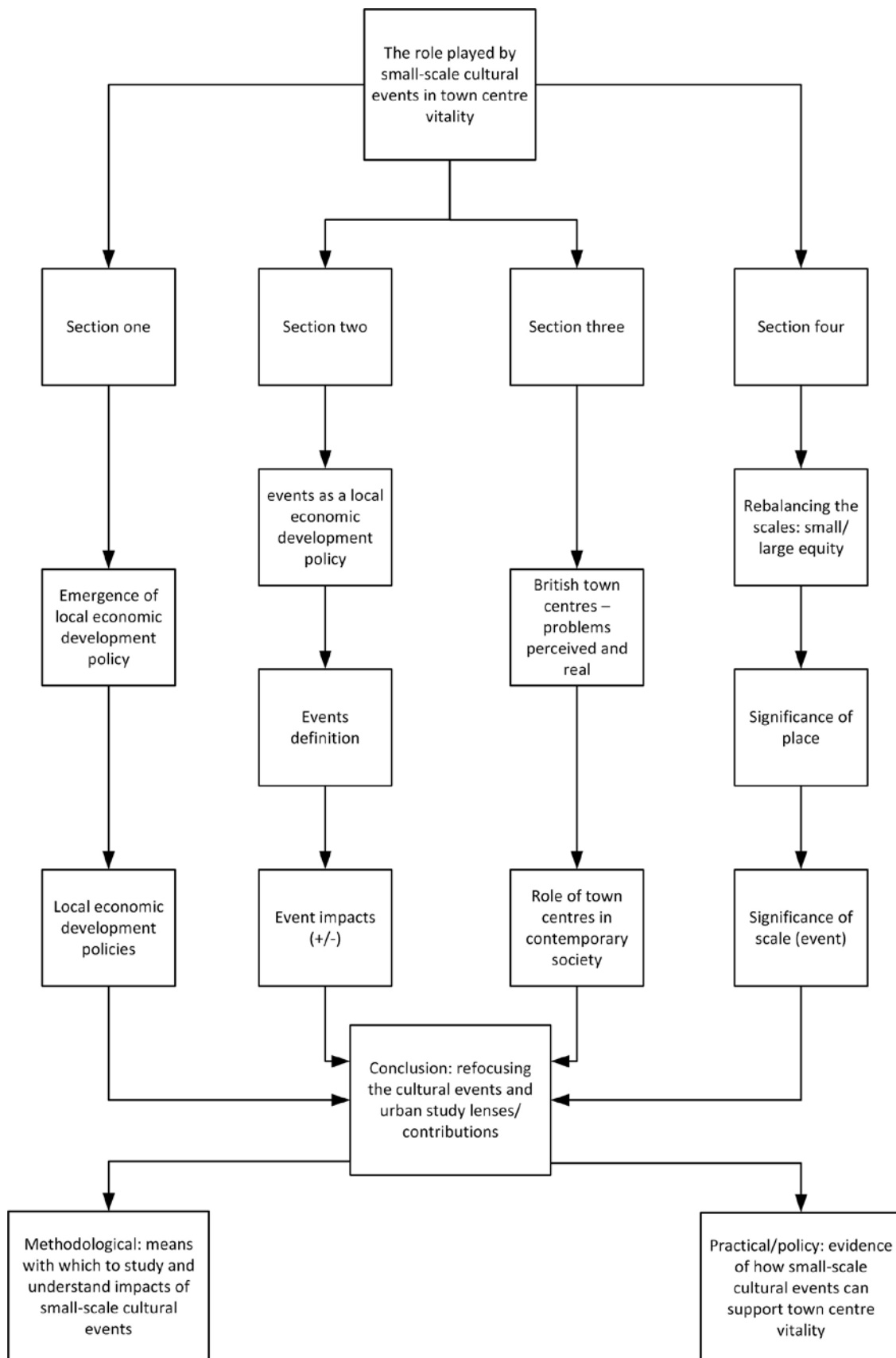


Figure 2.1: The structure of Chapter Two

Section 2 focuses attention on the literature concerned with the so-called 'civic-boosterist' (Boyle, 1997, p1982) policy of hosting events. Initially, a brief explanation of event definition terminology is provided for clarity, since there is some ambiguity in the literature. This particular section then proceeds to evaluate the literature concerned with economic, social and cultural impacts of events. Much of the study in this field relates to large-scale sporting events, such as Olympic Games, in global cities. In contrast, literature relating to impacts of small-scale cultural events is sparse, so in consequence, this section includes matter on both sporting and cultural events. There is a need to address this omission, since larger-scale events possess quite different characteristics to smaller-scale events, for example geographic spread, duration or audience. Their impacts are, accordingly, quite different to those generated by smaller-scale events. In practical terms, this leads to the potential for misinterpretation of impacts local level policymakers in search of strategies for economic growth.

Section 3 is concerned with the current British town centre and high street debate, which stems from the repercussions of the 2008 global economic crisis. There is a perception that such places are struggling, however, this may have been promoted through reports published by think tanks such as the New Economics Foundation (NEF). More rigorous academic research, such as that produced by Wrigley and Dolega (2011) has found that the reality is more complicated; some town centres are better placed to adapt to economic shocks than others and so have not suffered to the same extent. Regardless of this, there is an ongoing discourse of crisis, which has pressurised central government to take action and the Portas Review of 2011 provides one example of a response. At the local level, policymakers are seeking ways to revitalise their town centres and high streets, to make them more attractive, to both business and consumers, within a fragile economic landscape. The current problem of a perceived decline and need for LED policy interventions is reminiscent of the period of deindustrialisation during the last quarter of the 20th Century, as discussed in Section 2, where entrepreneurial strategies were used to stimulate economic regeneration or growth.

The final section discusses the way in which the study of urban geography has tended to focus its attention on the larger scale; the role and function of large cities or the impacts of mega-events. This focus neglects what is happening at the smaller scale but, in so doing, provides plenty of opportunity to study such

phenomena and contribute to the small body of extant work on smaller settlements and events. By refocusing attention in this direction, contributions can be made empirically, by providing observations pertaining to the smaller scale; methodologically, by adapting methods normally associated with the larger scale; and practically, by offering local level policymakers evidence to support future decision-making.

2.1 The local economic development policy context

The ‘regional problem’ (McCrone, 1971, p17), caused by severe deindustrialisation has been a persistent theme in geographic academic literature since the 1970s (Goodwin, 1993; Peck and Tickell, 1995; Brenner and Theodore, 2002). At that time, the country suffered from increasingly high levels of unemployment as industrial towns and cities lost their income base and large numbers of industrial sites fell into dereliction. On an individual level, however, some regions suffered more than others did and regional economic disparity became a serious concern. Government policy altered, reflecting a change in the mode of regulation towards a more entrepreneurial approach; an argument discussed at length by Harvey (1989). Strategies aimed at boosting local economic growth, emphasising private – rather than public – investment began to emerge. A review of those strategies most closely related to this research now follows for two reasons: firstly, to observe what can be learned from such LED policy after the crises of the late 20th Century; and secondly to situate the hosting of cultural events within the discourse of LED. Events are one of a number of options available to policymakers, sharing similarities with some but at the same time offering distinct benefits, and are particularly appropriate in the context of town centre and high street revitalisation. Each of the strategies presented here follows a chronological order relating to when they gained prominence. Table 2.1, overleaf and continuing on p16, summarises the main benefits and weaknesses of each of the policies reviewed in this section.

Table 2.1: Summary of LED policy benefits and weaknesses

Policy	Strengths/benefits	Weaknesses/consequences
Place promotion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> relatively simple, low-cost method for attracting inward investment (both commercial and consumer) no need for (costly) infrastructure development 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> manipulation of culture dependent upon location's existing historical resources/features dependent upon local marketing expertise/availability of resources
Festival marketplaces/ waterfront developments	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> regeneration of decaying buildings opportunities for independent retailers providing low-cost opportunities for emerging retail businesses (short-term cart rental rather than long-term retail unit commitment) creation of employment opportunities changing events calendar; encouraging return visits contributes to place promotion tourist attraction securitised environment (positive and negative) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> fabrication of reality/ manipulation of culture (as above) reliant on high footfall (in UK) securitised environment (positive and negative) exclusion of sections of society not successful everywhere
Retail-led regeneration (in-centre; edge of centre; out of town)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> regeneration of derelict industrial sites creation of employment opportunities; full and part time securitised environment (positive and negative) contributes to place promotion led to innovative in-centre development 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> drew consumers away from town centres (edge of centre/out of town) led to or hastened closure of in-centre stores (edge of centre/out of town) securitised environment (positive and negative) exclusion of sections of society option not achievable everywhere
Culture-led regeneration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> regeneration of decaying urban areas cultural activities enhancing urban competitiveness opportunities to benefit long-term from inward investment (eg EU funding associated with European City/Capital of Culture programme) attraction of cultural quarter to developers, business and consumers creation of employment opportunities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Not all locations in a position to compete (ie: non-cities – smaller urban areas) exclude some sections of society

Policy	Strengths/benefits	Weaknesses/consequences
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> increasing access to the arts across a wider section of society (but also exclusive – see next column) tourist attraction contributes to place promotion 	
Tourism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> generates inward investment in tourist-related infrastructure creation of employment opportunities residents may benefit from tourism-related infrastructure (eg leisure facilities) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> seasonality can create pressures on existing infrastructure (eg: environment, congestion) focus on tourism development can alienate resident population not an option available everywhere reliant on existing tourism-related attractions (eg, historic or geographic) or proximity to neighbouring attractions

2.1.1 Place Promotion/Marketing

During the 1970s and 1980s, the move towards more entrepreneurial activities created an increasingly competitive environment between cities and regions. Local authority actors sought progressively innovative ways to reinvent their urban spaces in an attempt to attract inward commercial investment, as well as visitors (Gold and Ward, 1994) and, in this way, benefit from new sources of income to boost their economies. Creating a positive image of a place by promoting its benefits and most attractive features to potential investors and visitors became a means of achieving this (Crompton, 2004). Thus the significance of place increased in importance (Sadler, 1993). Urban spaces began to be seen as a commodity to be sold to the consumer society (Philo and Kearns, 1993). In this way, Hall (1998, p28) observes that ‘place promotion is both an obvious manifestation and contributory cause of the heightened inter-urban competition associated with entrepreneurialism.’

At its simplest level, place promotion can be seen to have been implemented through simple sales techniques and rudimentary promotional material, such as the travel posters often seen at railway stations during the early years of the railway (Gold and Ward, 1994). Often these advertisements or brochures were not targeted at a specific market (Fretter, 1993), since the psychology behind marketing techniques was not widely understood. As inter-urban competition intensified, however, more sophisticated marketing practices were introduced

and places attempted to differentiate themselves in an increasingly saturated market. Seeking to capitalise upon a 'unique selling point' of the place, city branding became popular.

Philo and Kearns (1993, p2) refer to such marketing as 'manipulation of culture.' This manipulation extends to the stories created by city marketers in order to attract inward investment and tourists, for example the fabricated version of history created around the London Docklands development, to create demand based on the sanitised history of the dockworkers. Little emphasis was placed on the poor working and living conditions suffered by the inhabitants; instead a 'myth' of Victorian life was created (Goodwin, 1993, p147). In this way, post-industrial cities were rebranded to invite new visitors to discover industrial pasts in a manner much removed from the poverty-stricken reality.

Bradley and Hall (2006) argue that most place promotion activities are centred on a location's culture and environment; indeed the example already cited of London Docklands illustrates how working class culture was exploited in order to create an agreeable image for those targeted for inward investment. In this way, Bradley and Hall contend that cultural events perform a critical role in a location's place promotion activities and this is not confined to the large, post-industrial cities; smaller cities and towns are also benefiting from the strategy of place promotion.

Place promotion can be seen as a theme running through each of the following strategies, since they all require some element of promotional activity to be able to attract the inward investment needed for them to be considered successful. Indeed, for cultural events, which are the focus of this research, to attract sponsorship, traders and visitors, promotion of the place in which the event is to take place is essential.

2.1.2 Festival marketplaces and waterfront developments

Whereas place promotion is not solely reliant on the construction of physical structures, the following strategies are concerned with redevelopment of past industrial spaces or wasteland. Now familiar sights at former working harbours or trading halls around the world, festival marketplaces and waterfront developments were first seen during the mid-1970s in the USA. Faneuil Hall and Quincy Market in Boston, which opened in 1976, became the

first of these urban regeneration schemes, rapidly followed by the Inner Harbor at Baltimore (Hall, 2000a). Both saw disused working buildings transformed into shopping malls and entertainment spaces, which capitalised on their historic locations and former purpose (Goss, 1996; Eisinger, 2000; Wrigley and Lowe, 2002). Regeneration through retail development was a concept not thought to be viable until the Faneuil Hall project, which was undertaken amid much scepticism (Frieden and Sagalyn, 1991), however, its success led to the rapid appearance of many more festival marketplaces across the USA over the following decade; indeed their popularity led to the creation of the term 'Rousification', so-named after the architect who pioneered them, James Rouse (Hall, 2000a, p350).

These festival marketplaces and waterfront developments are characterised by a lack of traditional anchor store, which is a standard feature of other shopping malls (Wrigley and Lowe, 2002). Instead, they rely on their location and history to attract consumers, who are mainly tourists. The retail provision features a variety of high quality independent stores including gift or souvenir shops, cafés and restaurants. In addition to the static units, trading carts are placed along the walkway, which serve two purposes; the first to create a market-type atmosphere and the second to offer new or small businesses the opportunity to trade without the need to commit to a long-term contract (Frieden and Sagalyn, 1991). Entertainment provided by street performers and musicians, along with a calendar of events, are also characteristics of these schemes (Metzger, 2001).

The Festival marketplace concept initially struggled in the UK, mainly owing to a lower average consumer spend than in the USA; consequently the sites were reliant on high footfall to compensate for this (Gardner and Sheppard, 1989). Nevertheless, such schemes were developed with success over time, revitalising run-down waterfronts and former industrial sites around the UK; London's Covent Garden provides one such example (Hall, 2000a).

Although apparently successful, festival marketplaces and waterfront developments have their critics. As Hall (2000a, p351) has noted, these environments are fabrications of reality; resembling it but being 'hyperreal'. This is a similar argument to that of the place promotion activities discussed earlier with regard to London Docklands and the cleansed version of history presented to potential investors. Hyperreality is also experienced in other created environments, such as Walt Disney World. Zukin (1996, p69) has

named this 'Disneyitis', while Warren (1994, p90) coined the term 'Disneyfication', whereby the consumer sees a sanitised or controlled version of reality.

The festival market place and waterfront development model has not provided the hoped-for long-term economic solution in every location in which they have been developed. Some have struggled to survive challenging economic times and have experienced high turnover of businesses, while those located in smaller towns have closed altogether (Metzger, 2001). In fact, Metzger has noted that the Rouse Corporation ceased involvement in further schemes in 1988 as their weakened economic performance became apparent. The model shares links with both place promotion and cultural events; in terms of place promotion, the redeveloped locations are used as a tool to attract visitors. Performances and cultural events are a component of these spaces; both of which are used as place promotion activities. The performance spaces are integral to their design, as is the changing calendar of events. The calendar of events is used in promotional activities to enhance the offer. These characteristics are shared with town centres wanting to attract visitors with disposable income and overlaps with the following strategy.

2.1.3 Retail-led regeneration

Although retail development had been an ongoing process for a number of decades in the UK, as innovations from the USA and Europe such as covered shopping centres and the hypermarket concept were introduced (Guy, 1998), the particular use of such schemes as a means of economic regeneration came to prominence during the 1980s (Lowe, 2005). The service sector, particularly retailing, grew in importance following the shift away from manufacturing, providing new types of employment opportunities, such as part time hours (Dixon, 2005). This kind of regeneration project resonated with the entrepreneurial nature of the Thatcher-led conservative government of the time, which favoured private investment as a means of boosting local economic growth, since it reduced the need for state intervention. Planning guidance was consequently relaxed to expedite such developments across the UK, notably on derelict former industrial sites. MetroCentre in Gateshead, the first of these shopping centre projects, subsequently opened in 1987 with 1.8 million square feet of retail space (Gardner and Sheppard, 1989), quickly followed by Meadowhall in Sheffield, which opened in 1990 with one million

square feet of retail space (*ibid*). During the next few years, more developments appeared, such as edge-of-centre and out-of-town retail parks, as well as outlet villages, such as Bicester. In this way, retailing gradually became the leader of the consumer economy (Gardner and Sheppard, 1989).

These new shopping environments became the popular ‘cathedrals of consumption’ (Ritzer, 1999, p10) for the growing consumer society, as they not only offered a wider variety of goods but became places where people would increasingly spend their leisure time (Dixon, 2005). The action of drawing consumers away from the town centres and high streets led to serious consequences, however, as the retail parks began to threaten the livelihoods of many in-centre businesses (Thomas and Bromley, 2003). Guy (1998) illustrates this point by arguing that many off-centre developments either led to or hastened the closure of existing in-centre stores. The progressively deserted town centres and high streets began to struggle for survival (Wrigley and Lowe, 2002, p131); a situation not too dissimilar to that experienced by some town centres and high streets today, albeit for different reasons.

In attempting to reverse the feared decline of town centres, the government introduced new planning guidance in the mid-1990s, which introduced the sequential test (Lowe, 2005; Wood *et al*, 2006). Although the test ensured that town centres were prioritised when new retail developments were being considered, applications that were already approved meant that the effects of the restrictions were not felt until many years later in some locations.

Developers were no longer able to devise plans based on a blank canvas; instead, they were required to make best use of existing retail space within town centres. Innovative new in-centre developments followed but operating costs were often higher than for the out-of-town centres (Wrigley and Lowe, 2002). Ideas such as the ‘galleria’ – galleried, glazed arcades, reminiscent of those constructed in Paris in the late 19th and early 20th Centuries, featuring light, open spaces and atria (Goss, 1993) – were incorporated into designs. Other developments included office, hotel and convention centres within the retail offer. The ‘urban entertainment’ (Eisinger, 2000, p318) experience became a feature of other projects during the 1990s, in the USA, UK and Western Europe, which included multiplex cinemas, bars, cafés, sports complexes and theme retailing (for example Disney stores) (Pine and Gilmore, 2011), all designed to enhance consumption opportunities. Such schemes

continued towards the end of the 20th Century, centred on recreating the out-of-town experience in the town centre (Wrigley and Lowe, 2002).

Developers and retailers prospered during this time, along with the local authorities which granted the planning permission, since the developments often included additional plans to improve existing infrastructure (Lowe, 2005). The retail offering contributed to place promotion activities as towns and cities, already competing to attract more visitors, were able to promote themselves as shopping destinations and this contributed to urban tourism, in itself another regeneration strategy examined later in this chapter. The negative impacts of such developments, however, have been largely centred on problems linked to gentrification associated with the new buildings (Tallon, 2013); revitalised, once abandoned, spaces become sanitised environments in much the same way as the festival marketplaces, leading to social exclusion. On the surface, the centres offer a clean, safe and well-maintained environment designed for consumption and leisure (Zukin, 1996; Zukin, 1998), however, a much more controlled environment exists underneath. In order for the public to enjoy the experience, CCTV and security guards monitor behaviour, ready to question or exclude those who appear not to conform to standards expected of the visitors; an example of privatised public space (Zukin, 1996), which in some cases can contribute to the centre's attraction for consumers (Goss, 1993).

Regenerating areas in need through retail development has a place in economic development policy, however, it cannot provide a blanket solution for every location. Key considerations, such as catchment area, competition, availability of space, strong retail presence and a stable local economy influence the success rate significantly (Dixon, 2005). The next economic development strategy included here focuses on cultural provision, such as museums, galleries and public art, which, increasingly along with shopping, appeal as a leisure activity and contribute to destination image, thus leading to economic growth.

2.1.4 Culture-led regeneration

The idea that economic regeneration could be achieved through the implementation of cultural projects began to emerge during the 1980s (Miles, 2005), for example, Harvey (1989) observed that a cycle of urban decline might be broken by investing in cultural activities, which could enhance

opportunities for urban competitiveness. Zukin (1999) added that investment in cultural capital could help to counter the naturally cyclical effects of capitalism. Other theories concerned with the contribution of human capital to economic development emerged during this time (Florida, 2005), including Florida's thesis that 'creative people are the driving force in regional economic growth' (2005, p33). Over the two decades that followed, culture-led regeneration projects gradually moved from the periphery of urban regeneration dialogue to the mainstream (Wilks-Heeg and North, 2004).

As these theories spread, cities around the world began to embrace the concept that economic growth could be achieved by investing in the creative industries (Peck, 2005). Culture-led regeneration, or rather 'regeneration using cultural events and flagship projects' (Evans, 2005, p966), thus became a policy adopted by many cities and city regions. Culture was seen as the 'magic substitute for all the lost factories and warehouses' (Hall, 2000b, p640); if the city could be made more attractive to mobile capital and mobile professional workers, then inward investment should naturally follow. A prominent example of this activity is the European City/Capital of Culture programme run by the European Union, from which many cities across Europe have benefited. Glasgow, for example, was awarded the yearlong status in 1990. The city had been severely affected by the loss of traditional industry and was suffering from some of the worst social and economic conditions in Europe (Hubbard, 1998), however, the economic benefits brought about by the European City of Culture status have been widely acknowledged, so much so that it was used as a model for Liverpool 2008 (Garcia, 2005).

In her work concerned with circuits of cultural capital, Zukin (1999) has argued that cultural consumption contributes to capital accumulation; if areas of cities are set aside specifically for cultural projects – these areas are often renamed as the 'cultural quarter' – they become more attractive to developers, who regenerate such areas and, consequently, make them more desirable to businesses and consumers. These actions lead to increased property prices and so the spiral continues. An example of such activity has already been seen earlier in this chapter in the case of the Faneuil Hall/Quincy Market redevelopment. Zukin (1999, p296) refers to this setting aside of land as 'Landmarking'. These cultural quarters also become tourist attractions, drawing in additional visitors in a similar way that the festival marketplaces or retail parks have done (Miles, 2005).

Leisure and culture have, subsequently, become sources of income and of economic growth, spawning a new kind of industry never before imagined (Hall, 2000b). Arts have created interest in regeneration through their symbolic potential, for example, the development of a location-specific arts project to engage an often hard-to-reach segment of society (Evans, 2005). In the UK, projects such as the Baltic in Gateshead or the Lowry Centre in Salford have transformed depressed areas of cities (Wilks-Heeg and North, 2004).

Whilst the success of culture-led regeneration schemes has been acknowledged, this is not the story across the board. The 'aesthetic gloss' (Miles, 2005, p890) created by such projects disguises negative consequences, which are mainly concerned with the effects of gentrification and exclusion. In Salford, for example, the Lowry Cultural Quarter project redeveloped an area adjacent to an urban housing estate and this has caused tension with the residents, who feel excluded from the area (Evans, 2005).

These consequences are echoed by Scott (2006), who is critical of Florida's theory. Instead, he proposes that the mere existence of a creative class does not guarantee economic prosperity. In this way, argues Peck (2005), culture and the creative class cannot be seen to be the panacea for economic growth. He says that since the majority of the workforce is not employed in the creative industries, they are reliant on a 'form of creative trickle-down' (p759), so do not benefit directly from such an economic development policy. Peck maintains that such strategies emphasise inter-urban competition, gentrification, middle-class consumption and place-marketing; characteristics present in each of the LED policies included so far in this section of the chapter, some of which may be seen to be positive in terms of generating economic growth but also negative in terms of potentially alienating or excluding certain sections of society. The following LED policy – that of tourism – logically follows on from culture-led regeneration, since one of the purposes of cultural provision is to attract visitor spend.

2.1.5 Tourism

Tourism-related strategies can be seen to overlap with place marketing, since a certain amount of promotional activity is required to attract tourists to a destination. Whilst on the surface, generic place promotion activities in themselves might be considered relatively innocuous, in that usually only benefits of a location are publicised in order to attract external investment,

negative consequences can occur as a result of those initial actions. This is the case with tourism, for example exerting additional pressure on existing infrastructure unable to cope with seasonal influxes, as well as contributing to environmental damage. Given that local communities need to be able to welcome tourists yet manage the consequences of tourist activity, this is a fine balance, which can be easily upset.

It is generally acknowledged that tourism is a significant contributor to the global economy (Balaguer and Cantavella-Jorda, 2002) and this is also true of the UK; in fact recent data from the ONS indicates that over £1.7 billion was spent by overseas tourists in the South East alone during the first nine months of 2014. Include tourist spend in London and the figure rises to £10.6 billion (DCMS, 2015b), making tourism one of the UK's largest industries (DCMS, 2015a). At a national level, it is clear to see that economic growth can be generated through a tourism-based policy.

Investment in hotels, leisure facilities and convention centres has been viewed as a means of generating economic growth on two levels; initially from inward investment of the property development and secondly from the expenditure derived from visitors to the facilities. Tourism infrastructure requires people to operate it, thus creating employment in the host community. This additional employment in turn contributes to the local economy through salaries and tax revenue (Andereck *et al*, 2005). In this way, urban tourism developed significantly in the 1980s and 1990s and might also be viewed as another product of globalisation (Hall, 1996), as more and more international visitors were encouraged to visit destinations. Crouch and Ritchie (1999) have contended that it is only since global restructuring during the late 20th Century that the economic contribution of tourism has been better understood and appreciated by many destinations. This in turn has led to a heightened competitive environment as destinations vie with one another to attract visitors. As well as cities engaging in such activity, smaller urban centres, such as market towns, have been doing the same (Powe, 2006), although some have been more successful at attracting visitors than others (Powe and Hart, 2008).

Additional infrastructure development, which is designed to facilitate tourism, such as a leisure or entertainment park, can be a benefit to residents but this is not always readily acknowledged by them, particularly when negative consequences such as overcrowding or increased prices become a concern. Eisinger (2000) argues that such contemporary entertainment facilities are

designed to bring visitors into the city, rather than to provide amenities for the local community, which can lead to alienation of the resident population and resentment of the tourists.

2.1.6 Summing up the LED policy context

The LED policies reviewed here share similarities and differences. It is clear that they have all worked well in some places; redevelopment of derelict or depressed areas of former industrial cities has undoubtedly created jobs for the unemployed and attracted ample inward investment, both from developers and from consumer spend. It is also evident, however, that very similar negative consequences have emerged in almost all of the policies included. Gentrification and exclusion of certain social groups appears to be the most common.

A consistent theme throughout, in terms of project beneficiary, appears to be the city or city region; for example in culture-led regeneration, the European City of Culture programme presumes the larger, rather than smaller, urban settlement. By their very nature, waterfront developments require a location at a dockland or coastal site. In other words, the geography of the location appears to be a key factor. Further, it cannot be assumed that if a particular strategy worked well in one place, it will necessarily work as well elsewhere; as Dixon (2005) argued in his study of retail-led regeneration, external factors, such as existing economic structure, play an important role in determining how successful one strategy will be in a particular place.

Some strategies were successful at a certain moment in time and were a product of specific government priorities, for example, the Thatcher-led government of the early 1980s facilitated private investment in the development of out-of-town retail parks. Some policies were also implemented with external funding, such as European Union grants available for depressed areas. Clearly not all regions of the UK would be able to benefit from such support.

This study is not about regions or cities but towns, notably market towns. Although far smaller, the way in which economic development policy has evolved and been implemented on this larger scale informs these smaller places, since the effects of these policies would have filtered down to them.

The ways in which local-level decision-makers plan their future development policies are, therefore, influenced by what has gone before.

Now that the broader economic development policy context has been explored, it is easier to understand why local policymakers, such as local authority officers, might consider the hosting of cultural events to be a potential generator of economic growth in the town centre context. The next section now explores such a strategy.

2.2 The role of cultural events in local economic development

This section initially discusses the variety of event types and sizes, along with definitions used in the literature, since there is a distinct lack of clarity. It is easier to follow the terminology used here once this has been explained. Some of the ways in which cultural events have been used as a part of LED strategy follows. The cited literature mainly covers the work relating to mega-events, particularly sporting, as they have been researched extensively. As already noted, there is currently a lack of research exploring the impacts of small-scale cultural events, so the current research makes a valuable and timely contribution to the small body of existing work. Finally, a discussion of the economic and socio-cultural impacts that have been found in other research is included. This demonstrates the potential that may exist in small-scale events and, in consequence, illustrates how events may be a realistic option for local policymakers who are planning for town centre vitality.

2.2.1 Events definitions explained

The literature concerned with cultural, as well as sporting, events contains a variety of definitions concerned with size or category, with some different terms being used to mean the same thing. The result is inconsistency (Jago and Shaw, 1998) and this can lead to misinterpretation. Both Jago and Shaw (1998) and Getz *et al* (2012) have attempted to address the confusion by introducing an element of consistency to the definition of various event types. Figure 2.2 overleaf illustrates how different event categories relate to each other according to Jago and Shaw (1998), who conducted a review of event-specific literature in order to develop a typology. Definitions taken from the

literature follow. It is this understanding of events that will be adopted for the current study.

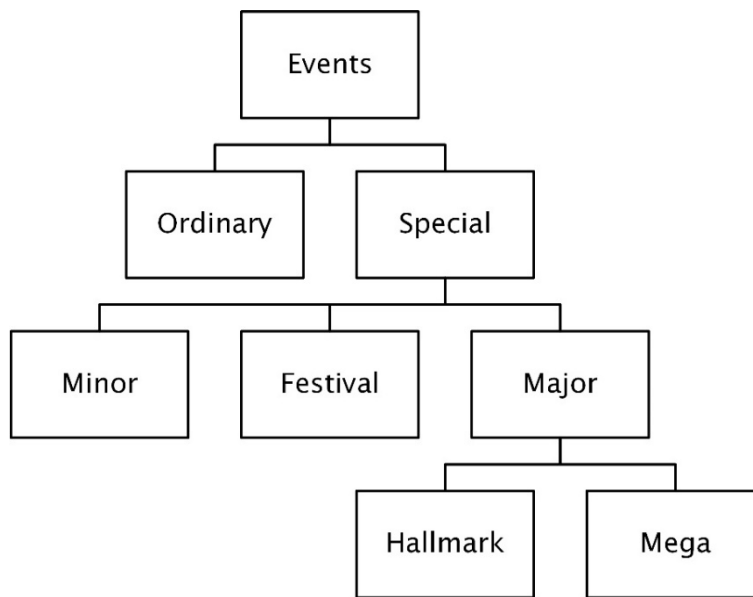


Figure 2.2: Jago and Shaw's (1998, p28) Diagrammatic Event Framework

The purpose of Jago and Shaw's (1998) literature search of 22 event-specific studies was to determine the ways in which different types of event were defined in an attempt to develop a typology of events. The resulting relationship diagram, shown in Figure 2.2 is explained as follows:

Events are either 'ordinary' in that they are regular or routine, or they are 'special.' Jago and Shaw (1998, p25) say that 'special' is used in a tourism sense; that this type of event can be considered a tourist attraction. Such 'special' events include minor events (small), festivals and major events (large). Major events are hallmark events or mega-events.

Jago and Shaw (1998) found that in different studies, some definitions were interchangeable; for example, a special event might be considered a major event by one author, but then another might determine it to be a festival. One author might define a hallmark event to be the same as a mega-event (eg: Chalkley and Essex, 1999), while another might describe it as a special event, for example Burns and Mules (1986) in their account of the 1986 Adelaide motor racing Grand Prix. Getz *et al* (2012) found that the different terms are applied in relation to both geographical scale and magnitude of impact, which are not the same thing.

The definition proposed by Roche (1994, p1) helps to clarify the meaning of a mega-event: 'mega-events (large scale leisure and tourism events such as Olympic Games and World Fairs) are short-term events with long-term

consequences for the cities that stage them.’ Roche expands this definition by adding that infrastructure development, often leading to long-term debt, and long-term management are features of mega-events. He adds that often they can project a new or renewed and ongoing positive image of the host city, often through national and international media. Long-term consequences, such as increased tourism and industrial inward investment, may subsequently follow. Getz (2008b) broadens this definition by proposing that mega-events are usually global in their reach, require some form of competitive bidding process and are often a one-off for the host location.

A hallmark event is, in many cases, a strategic response to seasonal variations in tourist demand according to Ritchie and Beliveau (1974). For Getz (2008b), a hallmark event is embedded in its host community and cannot exist independently of it. Chalkley and Essex (1999) suggest that hallmark events can command national or international attention for the host city, citing the 1851 Great Exhibition as an example. This view of hallmark events is supported by Gelan (2003) in his study of the British Open Golf Championship. Summing up the inconsistency, Getz *et al* (2012, p47) state that ‘there is neither clarity in the literature about what the term means nor the exact roles they should play within a community and tourism context.’

Cultural events are defined by Richards and Palmer (2010) as comprising a series of activities, being of limited duration, recurring regularly and having a celebratory element to them. They must have a cultural content of some sort, such as music, arts or food; they take place at specific locations at specific times; a public audience needs to witness the event and a number of stakeholders are both affected by the event and affect it in some way.

Festivals can be understood to be ‘themed public celebrations’ (Getz, 2007, p31). Ferdinand and Williams (2013, p202) suggest they are ‘integral to all societies’ and are a celebration of cultural heritage and identity. Gibson and Connell (2005, pp210-211) propose that festivals ‘provide places with “spectacle” and a sense of “uniqueness”’, while Hall and Sharples (2008, pp9-11) define them as ‘a celebration of something the local community wishes to share and which involves the wider public as participants in the experience.’ What actually constitutes a festival, according to Gibson *et al* (2011), is a contentious issue. So, in their research of rural Australian festivals, they included only those festivals that were either annual or biennial, had a celebratory focus, promoted or explored an aspect of local culture or ‘provided

an unusual point of convergence for people with a given cultural activity, or of a specific sub-cultural identification' (p5). The important points to carry forward are that festivals can provide places with the means by which they can differentiate themselves from other places; that they involve the local community as well as visitors; and they offer a pleasurable activity that is out of the ordinary.

An additional observation relates to linkages between other strategies that have been used to encourage economic development or regeneration, such as place promotion and tourism. A number of authors have referred to events in the context of tourism, for example Hall (1989), included above in relation to the definition of a hallmark event. Felsenstein and Fleischer (2003) note that local festivals are increasingly being used as a tourism development tool, while Andersson and Getz (2009, p200) suggest events can be considered 'tourist attractions' as well as having a role in place marketing and destination image making. This view is supported by Della Lucia (2013, p1), who contends that events have become 'tourist and place marketing investments' owing to cities and destinations assigning them a strategic role. This has enabled such locations to renew their image and, in so doing, to increase their competitiveness, notably over the last 20 years.

After consideration of the variety of event definitions and interpretations, Figure 2.3 illustrates a revised framework, adapted from Figure 2.2, to reflect the interpretation of cultural events applied in this thesis. Markets, whether weekly or monthly, are missing from the previous discussion, so are now included under 'ordinary', since they are not 'special', according to the definitions above. Food and music festivals have been positioned under 'special' as this is where they seem to fit naturally, according to the definitions above. As will become evident later in this thesis, and since they act as the case studies, the way in which these specific types of cultural event are defined needs to be understood. Following this, the next sub-section considers the development and implementation of events-based economic development policy.

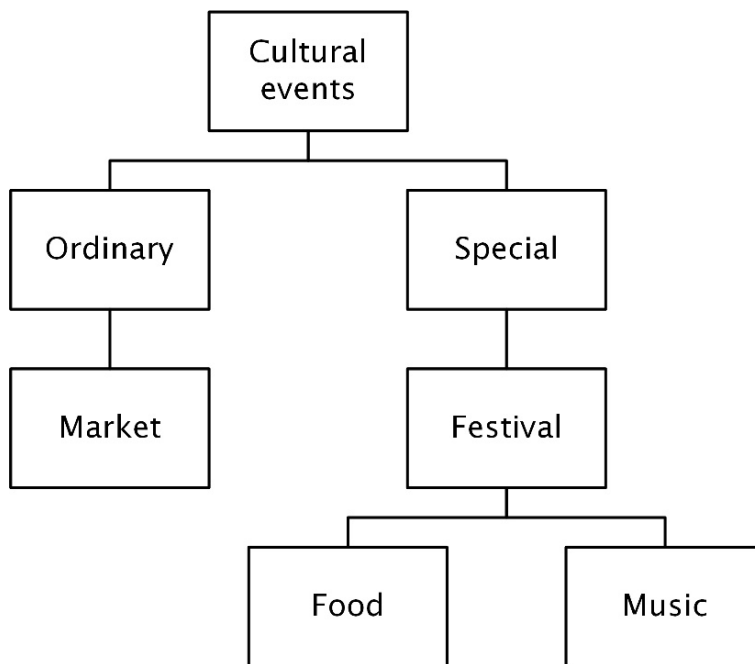


Figure 2.3: Revised event framework (after Jago and Shaw, 1998)

2.2.2 Cultural events as economic development policy

Cities have been using mega-events as an entrepreneurial strategy aimed at stimulating urban economic re-development for some time (Hiller, 2000; Andranovich *et al*, 2001; Smith and Fox, 2007) and is related to others mentioned in section 2.1., for example, culture-led regeneration, in terms of the European Capitals of Culture programme (Evans, 2005); place promotion, in that events can become a means by which a town or region is known, for example, Hay-on-Wye and its literary festival (Richards and Palmer, 2010); and tourism, as events can become major tourist attractions, or ‘motivators for tourism’ (Getz, 2008b, p403) and the terms ‘event tourism’ (Richards and Palmer, 2010, p156) or ‘festival tourism’ are used frequently in the literature (Quinn, 2010, p270). This observation illustrates the versatility of cultural (and sporting) events strategies and is shown diagrammatically in Figure 2.4, overleaf.



Figure 2.4: The relationship between cultural events and other entrepreneurial economic development policies

Whilst the literature contains an abundance of work concerned with mega-events, not enough is currently known or understood about how smaller-scale events function within their host locations, or how they are used by local policymakers within a wider economic strategy. This failing needs to be addressed so that local decision-makers can make informed choices when considering appropriate economic policy. It is the aim of this research to contribute to this area of study and it is timely to do so, since there is an ongoing debate concerning the future of British town centres, more of which follows in part three. The following material is, therefore, drawn from the existing literature to inform the study and includes a combination of literature concerned with both mega- and, where it exists, smaller-scale events.

Chalkley and Essex (1999, p369) argue that mega-events offer a ‘fast track’ means of implementing urban regeneration, for they can provide the impetus to mobilise embryonic or longer-term development plans. The example used in Chalkley and Essex’s argument is that of the Munich Olympic Games, held in 1972. The site used for the sports complex and Olympic Village was an abandoned former World War II airstrip that had been used as a refuse facility. There had been a 15-20 year development plan for the site but once the Olympic Games had been awarded, the redevelopment of the area was completed in five years. In terms of the Olympic Games, this ‘fast track’ regeneration occurs regularly; the London 2012 Olympic Games facilitated regeneration of areas of East London, including Newham which was the third most deprived of all the London Boroughs (Newman, 2007), as well as other

locations around the UK, including Weymouth. This major infrastructure development creates employment opportunities, both during the construction and operational phases.

Such major infrastructure development would often not be feasible without significant external investment and, in the case of mega-events, funding is often available from central government and public-private partnerships are forged, as was the case for the World Student Games held in Sheffield in 1991 (Roche, 1994; Bramwell, 1997). These partnerships may continue well after the mega-event for which they were created have ended, since once the infrastructure is in place, further opportunities to make use of the facilities may materialise, thus creating additional employment. In this way, mega-events are often associated with inner city renewal (Hiller, 2000). In their evaluation of the failed Manchester Olympic bids during the 1980s and 1990s, Cochrane *et al* (1996) observed precisely what has just been described; although Manchester was not successful in its bid to host the Olympic Games on two occasions, the partnerships created and efforts made laid the foundations for the city's successful bid to host the 2002 Commonwealth Games. The subsequent legacy programme which was implemented following the Games delivered a number of tangible and intangible benefits for the city and its residents (Smith and Fox, 2007), illustrating the ongoing benefits that may be achieved long after an event has taken place.

Whilst there are numerous economic benefits associated with a mega-events strategy, negative consequences are also possible. In the same way that other strategies for LED involving regeneration of wasteland or derelict sites can lead to concerns over gentrification and polarisation of communities, so can this mega-events strategy (Chalkley and Essex, 1999; Hiller, 2000). Hiller also argues that mega-events can be perceived to be nothing more than vast public relations exercises designed to mask the reality of urban decline. Evans (2005) adds that there is often only a short-term focus, with little or no concern over maintaining long-term benefits. A review of former Olympic Games venues serves to illustrate this point; some of those constructed for Sydney 2000 fell into administration after the Games (Sadd, 2009), while many of the sites constructed for Athens 2004 have since fallen into decay (Bloor, 2014). It now appears that the venues constructed for the Rio 2016 Games are following suit (Farand, 2017). Such a short-term focus has been observed with some culture-led regeneration projects too, characterised as they are by a 'reliance on (blind)

faith ... and constructed visions which appear not to look beyond the short-term physical impacts and landscapes they create' (Evans, 2005, p960).

Other criticisms relating to mega-events strategies concern the choice of host cities, which often already have an established tourist industry, such as London (Newman, 2007), so the strategy will have less of an overall impact than if the host city were less well-known globally. Also, additional employment is often short-lived and once the event has finished, many of the jobs created cease (Mills and Rosentraub, 2013). Following a mega-events strategy is, consequently, a high risk policy, since it can involve vast investment of resources and relies upon the location's ability to attract finance, media, visitors and to manage the infrastructure requirements, albeit for a limited period of time (Andranovich *et al*, 2001). Equally, there is no guarantee that political or other external influences may not adversely affect the success of the event; for example the boycotting of the 1980 Moscow Olympic Games (Chalkley and Essex, 1999). In addition, if infrastructure is not fully utilised post-event, this is a very costly exercise (Smith and Fox, 2007).

This discussion has so far referred to the ways in which mega-events contribute to LED. They have been shown to offer benefits that are similar to other LED strategies but there can also be negative consequences attached. In general, mega-events are hosted by cities or city regions, however, in the UK there are proportionately fewer cities than there are towns. As the focus of the current study is concerned with how to support town centre vitality, it is important to consider how smaller-scale events have been found to support their local economies. Events of all sizes have the potential to offer more than economic benefits alone, for example on a social level they can encourage community participation, which contributes both to the legacy effect and sustainability (Smith, 2010). The next part of this section is, thus, concerned with the smaller-scale.

Smaller-scale cultural events can provide benefits to smaller communities, as Gibson *et al* (2010) found in their study of festivals taking place in nonmetropolitan Australia. They compiled a database of over 2,000 local festivals, from which they obtained data relating to 480. The authors found that, broadly, cultural festivals have a 'significant cumulative impact on nonmetropolitan places and a definite, if more subtle, link to economic development' (p290). They also discovered that most of these festivals are small-scale and linked to their host communities in some way. Such festivals

can transform rural places and, with the benefit of place promotion, unknown towns can become branded by that festival. This is exactly what happened in a small rural town in South Western Australia. In their eight year study of the Parkes' Elvis Revival Festival, Connell and Gibson (2011) found that the town, which had faced various economic challenges over the previous 20 years and with an increasingly aging population, had managed to turn its fortunes around through the introduction of an Elvis Presley themed festival. From its difficult start in 1993, where it faced much criticism and opposition, by 2010 the festival had attracted 10,000 visitors to its 140 separate activities and drew in more tourists than there were town residents.

A branch of smaller-scale events that lends itself to the town centre location, especially market towns, concerns those that are food-related. Various authors discuss the contribution of this genre of cultural events to LED at the smaller scale, particularly in the tourism context, since food is associated with leisure and relaxation (Çela *et al*, 2008). Hall and Sharples (2008, pp6-7) summarise the benefits brought about by food-related festivals, including: increasing employment; improving local image (place marketing); enhancing the sense of community; adding value to existing food and rural products; reducing the impacts of seasonality by extending the visitor season and acting as a catalyst for economic development. It is for many of these reasons that TCMs are using such events, themed markets for example, to drive up footfall (Stubbs *et al*, 2002).

Many of these characteristics are also evident in other types of cultural event but the difference with those which are food-related is that they offer a means to connect consumers (whether they are visitors or locals) with local producers and, in this way, directly support local economic activity (Hall and Sharples, 2008). Woods and Thomas' (2008) research of a two-day annual food festival in Llangollen illustrates how benefits can be derived from such an event, devised primarily as an economic development strategy. In their study, they observed that there was strong local support for the event but that either the businesses did not report income accurately or that the visitors over-estimated how much they would spend. They remarked that further research on this type of event would be beneficial to test this discrepancy elsewhere.

Another, more regular type of food-focused event is the farmers' market, which can take place weekly, fortnightly, monthly or as a one-off special event (Holloway and Kneafsey, 2000). This type of event has been increasing in

popularity since first introduced into the UK in 1997 (*ibid*), primarily owing to growing public concern for the quality and safety of their food (Carey *et al*, 2011). Hall *et al* (2008) and Zukin (2008) suggest that a search for an 'authentic experience' may be another reason; authentic in a nostalgic sense (Holloway and Kneafsey, 2000), in that these markets are reminiscent of those held in town centres centuries ago, formerly a common sight across the UK. Also, 'authentic' here refers to how consumers can determine the quality and origin of produce they buy by interacting with the producer (La Trobe, 2001). Consumers can become immersed in the experience of this interaction by listening to the producers' stories (Arthur and Hracs, 2015) and, as a result, are buying more than the product alone.

Zukin (2008, p735) additionally argues that farmers' markets provide a 'traditional social space' which is an alternative to the 'standardised realm of mass consumption.' In this way, they become popular with visitors – both local residents and as a tourist attraction – and create opportunities for economic activity that remains in the area, provided that the stallholders live and work in the local area. The reason for the latter comment is that, according to the National Farmers Retail and Markets Association (FARMA, a UK membership organisation that provides accreditation for British farmers' markets), 'local' can be anything between 30 to 50 miles' radius from the town in which the farmers' market is being held and this can be extended to 100 miles in certain circumstances (FARMA, 2015). In economic terms, this is an important point, for if the producer lives outside the local area then income they receive from the market will leak out of the area.

Pugh and Wood (2004) argue that local authorities in the UK have been missing the opportunities presented by cultural events to deliver economic development goals. One reason for this, they suggest, is that provision of cultural events is not mandatory, so where they exist, there is no solid implementation strategy and very few post-event evaluations. Their full effect is, therefore, not really understood. Farmers' markets present a relatively low-cost, simple means of supporting economic growth for local authorities and Holloway and Kneafsey (2000) observe that local level institutions play a key role in their operation, since they grant the licenses and often provide the temporary space in which the market is located. As already noted in the context of food festivals, the investigation of such phenomena is needed in order to understand more about the role they play in local communities.

A benefit of a cultural events strategy over some of the other strategies discussed in this chapter is that cultural events do not necessarily require the development of major infrastructure; the farmers' market is a case in point, needing nothing but space for the stalls, thus avoiding the 'creative destruction' (Harvey, 1999, p16) that is a common criticism of other regeneration schemes, such as commercial development (see, for example, Hall, 2000a regarding London's Canary Wharf development during the 1980s-1990s). If cities and city regions can benefit from this kind of strategy at the mega-event level, then at the local level, proportionate benefits should be achievable. The following section examines these impacts – both positive and negative – in more detail.

2.2.3 Event impacts

Although the overall thesis is concerned with the impacts of small-scale cultural events located in market towns, there is scant literature on this precise topic. To this end, Wood (2009) makes a similar observation, stating that much of the impact research focuses on large-scale sporting events and has called for a refocusing of attention towards the smaller scale. Although this thesis is a response to Wood's call, an understanding of impacts in this area is needed. Consequently, the following section draws from the wider events impacts literature, which includes both larger-scale event impacts and those for sporting, as well as cultural, events.

Cultural events are used globally to achieve a range of economic, social, political and cultural objectives (Richards and Palmer, 2010). Inevitably, these objectives lead to consequences – or impacts – that may be both positive and negative. When considering an events-focused strategy in the market town setting, it is important to take account of these impacts for two reasons; firstly to establish the extent to which the event has made a difference to the local economy; and secondly, to achieve a broader understanding of the ways in which cultural events may be able to support local communities as well as the local economic base.

As Waitt (2008, p514) has observed, 'it is geographers' ability to critically address urban festivals as spatial phenomena that enables them to work across analytical divides of the "social", "political", "economic" and the "cultural" that would otherwise tend to mask crucial implications of such events.' These impacts are, therefore, innately interconnected and not mutually exclusive.

‘Economic’ could be understood in a number of ways other than simply expenditure or income; for example, economic in experiential terms as argued by Pine and Gilmore (2011). Further, Storper and Venables (2004) discuss how ‘buzz’ contributes to economic activity. Amin and Thrift (2007, p151) talk of ‘cultural buzz’, arguing that culture and economy cannot be seen to be independent from one another. These concerns are considered further in the subsequent sections, however, including them here briefly illustrates that the study of impacts is far more complex than it would seem on the surface. Exploring potential impacts of events involves more than simply separating each of them into discrete areas. The diagram shown in Figure 2.5 helps to illustrate this interconnectedness.

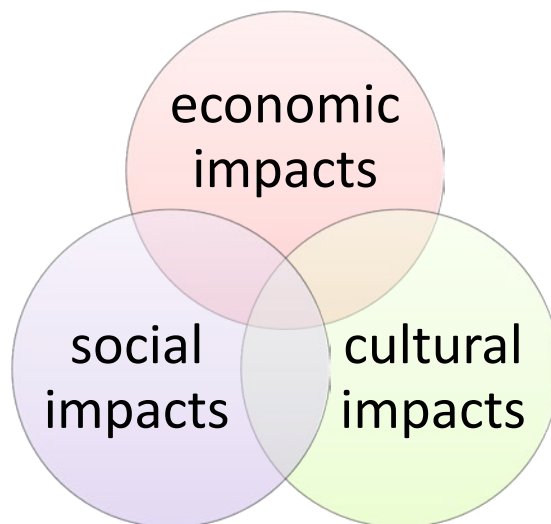


Figure 2.5: relationship between event impacts

Whilst it is acknowledged that exploring impacts of events is a complex venture, in order to review how impacts are generally treated in the literature, the terms ‘economic’, ‘social’ and ‘cultural’ are used below as heuristic devices. One disadvantage of presenting the impacts in this way is that there is a risk of obscuring or overlooking the relationships that exist between the impacts. This consideration is accounted for in the analysis later. Table 2.2 overleaf summarises some of the key positive and negative impacts associated with cultural events, from the economic and social/cultural perspectives. The following two sub-sections discuss these impacts. A more detailed review of the economic impact assessment literature is included in Chapter Three.

Table 2.2: Summary of event impacts

Impact	Positive	Negative
Economic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased business turnover leading to supplementary benefits • Employment opportunities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employment only temporary or seasonal • Inflated local prices • Leakage • Displacement
Social/Cultural	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Community engagement • Inclusion • Brings new or unusual experiences • Cultural 'buzz' • Psychic income 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Forum for anti-social behaviour • Exclusion of certain groups • Environmental problems: traffic congestions, noise, pollution

1) Economic impacts

Economic impacts are those relating to changes in economic activity brought about by a project or intervention, which in the case of this study would be a cultural event. It has been said that economic impact studies of events and festivals are now 'commonplace' (Getz, 2008a, p412), yet as observed by Gibson *et al* (2010), studies of the impacts of small-scale events in ordinary places are scarce. Crompton (2006) has suggested that most economic impact studies are commissioned to validate the project concerned and have political undercurrents, normally over-estimating the economic benefits in the process. A similar argument is made by Kim and Walker (2012), who contend that economic impacts have a tendency to be over-estimated, to justify a subsidy, at the expense of negative social consequences. This issue is explored further in the next chapter. When considering economic impacts generated by events, it is, therefore, important to account for the perspective and priorities of different stakeholders; for example, event organisers will want to illustrate additional revenue generation in the host location so that any negative consequences, such as noise pollution or traffic congestion, may be offset. Equally, organisers will want to demonstrate to sponsors that their investment has been well spent (Crompton, 2006).

Events are seen to increase local economic demand, even if only temporarily (Dwyer *et al*, 2005), through increased visitor spend in the host locality and, sometimes, increased employment. Expenditure by event visitors, both at the event and in the wider area, are seen as beneficial, particularly if this initial expenditure triggers further spending in the economy (Saayman and Saayman, 2006). In this way, local businesses and their employees, as well as

policymakers, benefit from increased income (the former) and increased tax revenue (the latter). Cultural events held in town centres should, by the very nature of their location, thus provide a relatively easy means for local businesses to capitalise on supplementary local spending by event visitors.

Whilst some events can generate significant income for local areas, for example the annual Australian Parkes Elvis Revival Festival (Connell and Gibson, 2011), a negative economic consequence is inflated prices experienced by residents as businesses seek to exploit the influx of visitors (Arcodia and Whitford, 2006). In addition, it can take some years before many smaller festivals are able to generate any economic benefit (Connell and Gibson, 2011) while they are establishing a positive reputation. This, therefore, requires commitment from all stakeholders from the outset.

It is the nature of events to be time-limited; consequently, they are unlikely to create long-term employment opportunities. Instead, temporary jobs are often taken up using the existing labour force, either through overtime or temporarily changing roles (Crompton, 1995). At best, perhaps one or two permanent jobs may be created for event planners (Gibson and Connell, 2011), so in this respect, the economic impact is minimal. Taking this argument further, small-scale events lasting perhaps only one day will generate a proportionately smaller economic impact than larger-scale events that may continue for a few days to perhaps a week or so. Again, this is explored further in the next chapter but is an important consideration for the current study.

Leakage and displacement are discussed in more detail in the next chapter, which examines the process of economic impact evaluation in detail. Since they have both been included in Table 2.2, briefly, they relate to how increased economic activity generated by a cultural event may not always benefit the host economy. Leakage occurs when expenditure is made on non-local goods, for example, a market stall selling items from another economic area.

Displacement relates to substituted activities, for example residents choosing to avoid an event when they might have ordinarily visited their local town, or visitors changing their travel plans to coincide with a particular event.

2) Social and cultural impacts

When considering social and cultural impacts in the context of cultural events, the theory of social capital provides a helpful foundation. Social capital is

discussed at length in relation to events and festivals in the literature (see, eg: Arcodia and Whitford, 2006; Getz, 2007; Quinn and Wilks, 2013). Getz (2007) suggests that reciprocity and trust are the central features of social capital: qualities, he says, that are found in all communities and societies, and can be developed both consciously and unconsciously. In their comparative study, Quinn and Wilks (2013) applied Putnam's (2000) bridging and bonding theory of social capital. Bridging refers to the forming of new relationships between different people, while bonding refers to the deepening of existing relationships among similar people. Perhaps unsurprisingly, the findings indicated that bonding social capital was strong among family and friendship groups, in other words groups where members are already known to one another, while bridging social capital was more evident among different sets of social actors, or groups not known to each other until the festival. Putnam *et al* (2004) observe that bridging social capital is the kind that is most necessary for integrated public life in an increasingly diverse society, yet it is harder to create than bonding social capital.

Arcodia and Whitford (2006) explored the degree to which festivals increase opportunities to develop social capital. The authors defined a festival as the celebration of a significant event or an event marking a special occasion. They found that festivals do play a key social role, although this varies depending on the local culture and society. Richards *et al* (2013) have observed that festivals provide the catalyst for collective identities and connections with place to be formed and re-formed. This indicates that festivals, being out of the ordinary, can alter behaviour; a view maintained by Gibson (2007, p212), in his work on music festivals, who noted that festivals provide 'an alternative space' where different forms of social interaction take place.

Cultural events provide a reason for people to come together, a notion discussed by Storper and Venables (2004) in their work on face-to-face contact in relation to the urban economy. They identify four main features of face-to-face contact: it is an efficient means of communication; it can develop trust in relations; it provides a medium for socialisation; and it provides psychological motivation. Connections are made that may otherwise have been difficult or impossible, thus the potential for innovation is increased. The effect of this face-to-face interaction is described as 'buzz' (p365), a phenomenon explored by Amin and Thrift (2007, p151) who refer to 'cultural buzz' in their work examining how culture and economy are inter-related. They argue that the two

cannot be viewed as being independent of one another and propose that urban economies should be seen from a 'cultural-economy' perspective (p145).

Cultural events have the potential to become symbols of a dynamic community by encouraging community participation and strengthening community ties, bringing groups together that otherwise might not meet (Harvey, 1989; Gursoy *et al*, 2004; Smith, 2010). In their work relating to markets as key public spaces, Watson *et al* (2006) and (Watson, 2009) observed that markets perform a variety of important social functions, both for consumer and trader, from providing a safe, caring space where marginalised or otherwise isolated members of the community can become actively involved, to providing the space for collective pleasurable encounters or knowledge sharing.

Some of the sports mega-events literature has identified the above characteristics as 'psychic income' (eg: Crompton, 2004; Kim and Walker, 2012; Gibson *et al*, 2014). In this context, psychic income has been assigned a variety of definitions, notably civic pride (eg: Burgan and Mules, 1992; Dwyer *et al*, 2000); increased community morale (Gibson, 1998) or quality of life (Crompton, 2004); or the 'feel-good factor' (Fredline *et al*, 2005; Gibson *et al*, 2014), which is further described by Fredline *et al* (2005, p4) as an 'amalgam of pride, excitement, entertainment and self-actualisation reported by the host community' and is experienced around the time of an event taking place.

Models have been developed to explain the concept of psychic income in relation to events impacts in more depth. The first, proposed by Crompton (2004) comprises seven elements, as shown in Figure 2.6, overleaf, however, as it was designed to account for sports mega-events (in this case, major league American football and baseball), some of these elements are not relevant for cultural events, such as 'emotional involvement "love affair" with team' (2); 'civic pride from being a "major league" city with a "can-do" attitude' (5) and 'enhanced collective self-esteem from a "winning" or respected team' (6). It is not difficult to reimagine these in the form of 'supporting' a local cultural event, however, since the way in which Crompton describes the emotions that contribute to psychic income are not unique to supporters of sports teams. Crompton writes, for example, of the increased sense of pride felt by residents as a result of increased visibility, even if only for a short period of time (factor 7 in Figure 2.6). He also describes the strengthened support for local decision makers displayed by residents when they feel that

efforts are being made to help rejuvenate areas seen to be in need, even if the intervention itself is not particularly successful (factor 4 in Figure 2.6).

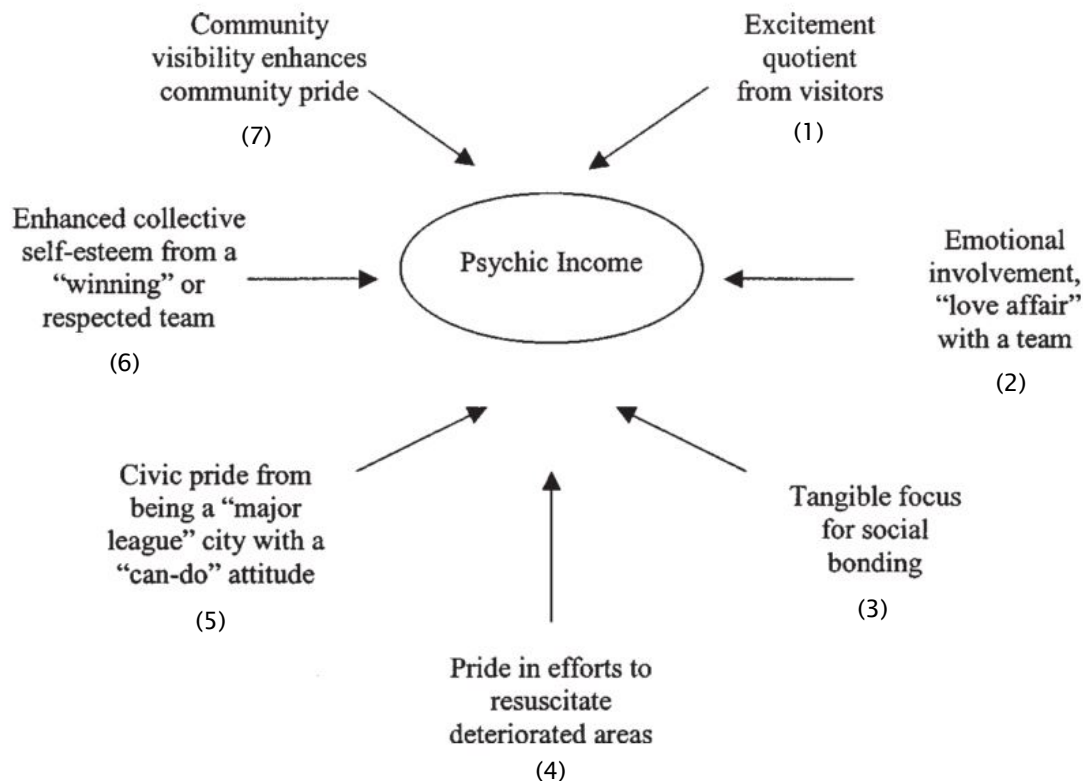


Figure 2.6: Crompton's (2004, p56) Psychic Income Paradigm

The remaining components of Crompton's psychic income paradigm are easily transferable to the context of cultural events. Crompton has given the term 'excitement quotient' to the feelings of anticipation that exist during the build up to and occurrence of a sporting event; yet again, this could be attributed to the feelings of anticipatory excitement experienced by residents when they see preparations for a cultural event, or even visitors, who come to an area specifically because a cultural event is soon to take place. Each component, according to Crompton, contributes to the overall psychic income, which, he says, is 'the new frontier' (Crompton, 2004, p55) of the study of event impacts and is preferable to the 'flawed economic rationales' (*ibid*) that are evident in classic economic impact studies.

Kim and Walker (2012) have revised and adapted Crompton's model in their study of the American football Super Bowl. Their model consists of five components: community pride as a result of enhanced image; community attachment; event excitement; community infrastructure; and community excitement, as shown in Figure 2.7. These revised components are perhaps more easily transferred to the context of cultural events and are less

cumbersome than Crompton's seven-element model, as some overlapping elements are merged; factors (3) and (6) become 'enhanced community attachment'; factors (5) and (7) become 'community pride as a result of enhanced image'; factor (4) becomes 'community infrastructure' and remains as described by Crompton; although factor (1) is broken down into 'event excitement' and 'community excitement' as Kim and Walker found that there was a difference between the two: the former relates to the event itself and includes residents as well as visitors, while the latter relates to the wider host community.

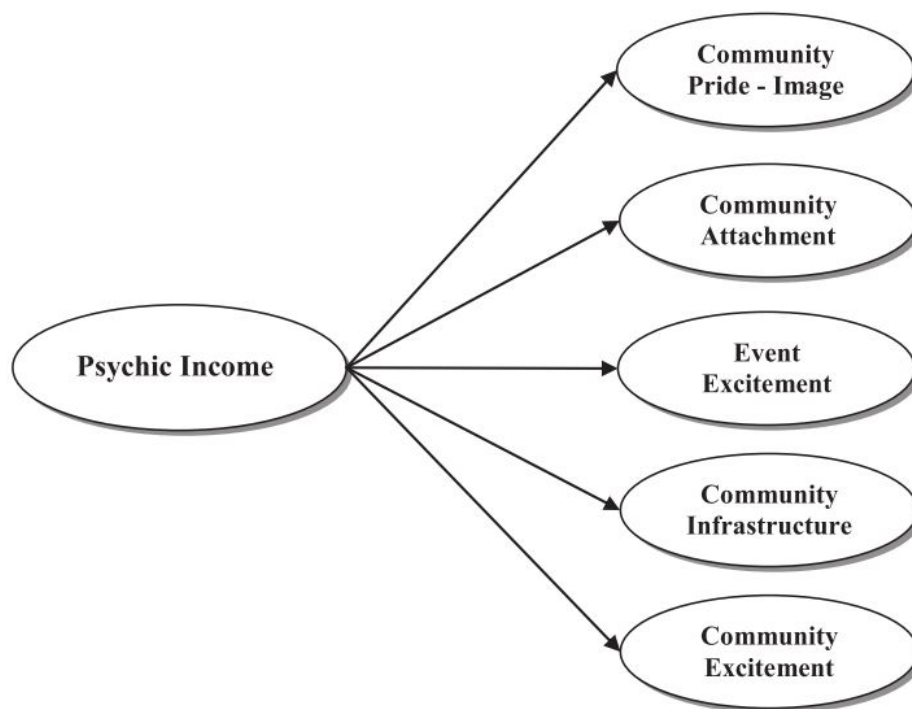


Figure 2.7: Kim and Walker's (2012, p101) Five-factor model of psychic income

Although useful means of explaining the non-tangible benefits that may be associated with, in these cases, sports mega-events, these models omit any negative aspects, such as traffic congestion, pollution, noise (Gelan, 2003) or other forms of disruption to local communities (Getz, 1991). Indeed, although the literature in this area discusses the strengths of assessing psychic income either alongside economic impact (eg: Fredline *et al*, 2005) or social capital (eg: Gibson *et al*, 2014); or alone (eg: Crompton, 2004; Kim and Walker, 2012), no significant attempt has yet been made to incorporate the negative aspects into such a model.

Another way to understand social and cultural impacts is to consider the motivations for attendance, which is what Nicholson and Pearce (2001) undertook in their research of four festivals in New Zealand: two food and wine

festivals; an air show; and a music festival. The study produced six motivational factors for attendance: (1) specifics/entertainment; (2) escape; (3) variety; (4) novelty/ uniqueness; (5) family; and (6) socialisation. These were derived from the answers to 18 statements, each with a Likert-scale response option. As the survey participants were provided with a choice of responses, the level to which they may have been influenced is not known. It is, nevertheless, a worthwhile perspective to include in this part of the thesis.

If, as already discussed, cultural events possess the potential to alter behaviour, attitudes and perceptions of place, then they also have the capacity to produce negative social impacts. Getz (1991) suggests that disruption to local communities is perhaps the most frequent of these. At least in terms of large-scale events this may be true, particularly if access is restricted for the duration of the event, as in the case of the Adelaide Grand Prix, the subject of Burns *et al*'s (1986) much-cited research. Feelings of exclusion or marginalisation may also result from the hosting of an event or festival that is predominantly aimed at attracting visitors in order that they may contribute to the local economy. This subject has been explored by Atkinson and Laurier (1998) in their observations relating to the 1996 Bristol International Festival of the Sea. In this particular analysis, the authors examine the removal of a group of travellers who were resident near to the event location in order that the visitor experience and associated expenditure would not be diminished. They refer to this as 'sanitisation' from the area of the 'blot on the landscape' (p200).

The spaces provided for events not only promise to bring communities together in a positive way, but may also attract those for whom the event or festival is perceived to be a springboard for protest or drug abuse (Gibson, 2007) or other transgressive or anti-social behaviour (Hubbard, 2013). Such behaviour has the potential to undermine any positive impact on a community that otherwise might occur following an event or festival (Deery and Jago, 2010), which can result in some residents avoiding such events, or the wider community removing their support for the event. This is an interesting problem, since alternative or deviant behaviour has been a feature of cultural events for hundreds of years. This 'temporary inversion of social order' (Ravenscroft and Gilchrist, 2009, p35) was characteristic of medieval fairs and carnivals (Bakhtin, 1968), where feudal society typically disintegrated for the duration of the event, and all members of the community were temporarily

regarded as equals. Along with language peculiar to the marketplace, Bakhtin (1968, p18) describes this as the ‘carnavalesque’ and argues that the temporary suspension of normality is necessary in order that social order can be maintained at other times.

In the 21st Century, there appears to be a boundary to acceptability in terms of this temporary suspension of social order, particularly in the context of excessive alcohol consumption and deviant behaviour, which often occurs as a result. Hubbard’s (2013, p277) reading of the ‘Carnage’ student night time events suggests that social groups who do not conform to ‘white, middle-class heteronormative ideals of embodiment and comportment’ are seen to be a threat and are unwelcomed by precisely that particular demographic. In the case of the Carnage events, many cities now refuse to host them owing to the debauched reputation they have acquired (Hubbard, 2013).

This discussion has shown that although elements of Bakhtin’s (1968, p18) ‘grotesque realism’ are evident at contemporary events, there appears to be a boundary to acceptability for alternative behaviour, despite it being rooted in tradition. Behind the facade of the carnivalesque, economic priorities appear to supersede the social; this mask is seen as a contribution to the ‘positive image of a place’ (Johansson and Kociatkiewicz, 2011, p393) and ‘a plausible narrative’ (*ibid*, p400) is fabricated, which bonds a cultural event to its location, no matter how tenuous or authentic the connection between the two (Ravenscroft and Gilchrist, 2009). The matter of authenticity, as well as the experiences created by events are now reviewed.

2.2.4 Experiences and authenticity

Much of the debate above refers indirectly to the connection between impacts and experiences, either positive or negative. The various ways in which experiences can create value have been explored in the literature, from a variety of perspectives. Notably, Pine and Gilmore (2011, p3)¹ argue that experiences are a ‘fourth economic offering, as distinct from services as services are from goods’ in their work on the ‘experience economy.’ Presenting their argument from a commercial viewpoint, they discuss how

¹ NB: this is the updated edition of Pine and Gilmore’s original 1999 book, ‘The Experience Economy: work is theatre and every business a stage.’ As a result, other associated citations appear to have been published earlier.

businesses can improve their competitive edge by enhancing the customer experience, which then becomes valued as part of an economic transaction over and above the actual purchase. Pine and Gilmore identify four means by which this added value may be delivered: *educational* – a learning experience, for example a masterclass offered by a restaurant; *aesthetic* – provision of themed surroundings suited to the brand on sale; *entertainment* – offer of additional activities; and *escapist* – an experience removed from reality. These concepts undoubtedly overlap and could be thought of as subjective, for an educational experience might also be considered entertainment, depending on the standpoint of the consumer.

Although largely aimed at how businesses might increase their competitive advantage, it is not overly difficult to transfer Pine and Gilmore's realms of experience to cultural events, a concept explored by Slater and Wood (2015), who use the vehicles of emotion and memory to understand experiences created by festivals and events. As a preliminary study, they observe an 'in-the-moment' experience; that is the experience of being at the festival or event. This 'in-the-moment' experience has been referred to by Carù and Cova (2006, p5) as 'immersion', which they define as 'becoming one with the experience.' This unity 'conveys the idea of total elimination of the distance between consumers and the situation,' where consumers are 'plunged in a thematised and secure spatial enclave where they can let themselves go' (*ibid*). Place thus becomes a significant component in relation to the quality of the immersive experience (Arthur and Hrac, 2015), as well as a vehicle for heightening competitive advantage through exclusivity (Hrac and Jakob, 2015).

In searching for opportunities to enhance consumer experiences, there is a risk that the activity or output could be seen as a fabrication of reality. This notion has already been touched upon earlier in section 2.1, however, here it relates explicitly to the authenticity of the experience, which, according to Jeannerat (2013, p378), is the result of a direct connection between 'market objects' and 'market actors' and is socially-constructed. Waitt (2000) adds that authenticity is influenced by the positionality of the person engaged in the experience. He argues that authenticity is not a simple question of what is real or fake, for these 'market objects' have narratives fashioned for them by marketers as a means of creating distinction. These narratives are interpreted in different ways, dependent upon the knowledge and understanding of the recipient

(Jeannerat, 2013) and so different versions of authenticity exist. Szmigin *et al* (2017, p10) illustrate this through the medium of established music festivals, such as Reading, which are both temporally and spatially transient in nature: ‘placeless place[s] ... devoid of “real” inhabitants and “real” communities.’ In such a case, authenticity emerges as a result of the festival-goers’ immersion, both in the festival and the place (Szmigin *et al*, 2017). Thus, authenticity is a subjective construct: an ‘imagined ideal’ (Carù and Cova, 2007, p7). Experiences can be considered to be authentic simply because they match prior expectations (Waitt, 2000).

The points raised in this section illustrate the many and varied economic, social and cultural impacts that are known to stem from cultural events, namely medium to large festivals, events and weekly markets. As already discussed, staging cultural events is one of a number of entrepreneurial policies (Harvey, 1989) aimed at generating or stimulating economic growth. Many of these are beyond the capabilities and resources of smaller urban areas, such as market towns, or other small towns. Small-scale cultural events, however, offer something more realistic and achievable. The section that now follows shifts the focus from LED policy towards the British town centre and high street debate, in order to demonstrate the current challenges they face and the need for policies aimed at their revitalisation.

2.3 The British town centre and high street context

The ways in which British town centres and high streets have been evolving following the global economic crisis, which began in 2008, is of continuing academic, practitioner and government concern, reflecting the importance of their contribution to economic and civic life (Astbury and Thurstain-Goodwin, 2014). These urban spaces have been responding to a number of challenges, not least of which was the sharp fall in consumer confidence (Wrigley and Dolega, 2011). Although this was a consequence of the recession, it continues to waver (Carroll, 2017). Other challenges such as the growth of online retail and increasing emphasis on convenience (Wrigley and Lambiri, 2015) have also contributed. Progress has been made in recent years towards gaining an understanding of how town centres and high streets are adapting to these challenges, however, much study to-date has focused on the retail point of view (*ibid*, 2015). This is beginning to change, with research emerging from other perspectives, for example learning more about how the customer

experience of town centres impacts on performance (Hart *et al*, 2014), and the potential for social connectivity via independent book shops (O'Brien, 2017), coffee shops (Ferreira, 2017), or micro pubs (Hubbard, 2017b). There remains plenty of scope to contribute to this field, particularly since Wrigley and Lambiri (2015, p14) have argued that contemporary research would benefit from a more holistic approach to understanding how high streets are changing in the 21st Century. This part of the literature review initially discusses the major factors driving the current British town centres and high streets debate, including recent evaluations of their economic status, how they are responding to the various challenges and future trends. A reflection on the importance of maintaining town centre vitality in contemporary society follows.

2.3.1 The shifting challenges faced by British town centres and high streets

During the last decades of the 20th Century, concerns over the economic condition of British town centres and high streets focused on the increase in the development of out-of-town retail parks, which led to 'spatial switching' of retail (Wrigley and Lowe, 2002, p131) away from the town centre. These purpose-built centres with their spacious layouts, usually accompanied by ample free parking, offered a refreshing alternative to the congestion and often old-fashioned structures associated with the town centre retail offer. This transition left many traditional town centres and high streets vulnerable to increased vacancy rates, so in attempting to minimise this threat, central government responded by altering the planning guidance in 1996 (*ibid*, 2002). The new guidance prioritised town centre development through the introduction of the 'sequential test' (Wood *et al*, 2006, p23), which required new retail development plans to consider town centre locations prior to new development out of town under the 'town centres first' approach (Wrigley and Dolega, 2011, p2337).

Since numerous projects had already received planning approval, out of town developments continued until well after the introduction of the 1996 guidance. As a result, many town centres barely managed to recover from this challenge before the 2008 global recession began to take effect, causing a 'shock wave of economic crisis' (Wrigley and Lambiri, 2015, p6) in town centres and high streets throughout the UK and elsewhere. This led to a substantial loss of consumer confidence, the effects of which are ongoing, owing in part to

continued economic uncertainty brought about by the Country's decision in 2016 to leave the EU. In turn, this has triggered warnings of inflation over the coming months and indications of an imminent increase in the Bank of England's interest rate (Inman, 2017).

The cumulative effect of these economic pressures on the high street has resulted in a significant increase in vacancy rates for many, altering some beyond recognition, while others have remained more resilient (Wrigley and Dolega, 2011). This resilience appears to be linked to a number of factors, including geographic location: ie, those centres in the south have fared better than centres in the north. Second, the strength of the local economy prior to the recession; those with a more robust economic base were already in a better position to withstand the effects of the downturn. Third, the size of the centre has played a part; smaller centres rather than larger ones have performed better during this time. Fourth, the balance between retail and services that existed prior to the recession; those with a higher dependence on retail have been affected more than those with a balance between the two. Finally, centres with high long-term vacancies have struggled to attract consumers, who seem to favour more visually pleasing destinations than those with numerous boarded up shop fronts. The consequence of this is that centres failing to attract footfall then deters potential new business from taking up vacant premises (Wrigley and Lambiri, 2015),

Against this backdrop over the last eight years, the retail sector has endured substantial structural changes (Findlay and Sparks, 2013). Many high street names, such as Woolworth's and BHS, have disappeared (Wrigley and Brookes, 2014), while others, such as HMV, have undergone significant restructure following a period of administration; all illustrations of the severity with which the recession gripped the British economy (Wrigley and Lambiri, 2015). Major high street retailers continue to report reduced profits and as a result, are closing more stores to rationalise their operations, the most recent being Debenhams (Butler and Inman, 2017). Closures such as these exacerbate the aesthetic problem resulting from boarded up premises, mentioned above, and contribute further to depressed town centres.

In the face of continuing difficult economic times, an added external pressure on the high street concerns the effect of sharp increases in the business rate in recent years, to the tune of 29% between 2006-2012 (Wrigley and Lambiri, 2015). Following pressure from the business community, the government

recently undertook a comprehensive review of the system. In the meantime, a series of measures announced in December 2013 brought some relief, particularly for small businesses (Wrigley and Lambiri, 2015). All commercial property was subsequently revalued, with changes taking effect from 1 April 2017 (Gov.UK, 2017a). A transitional relief scheme aimed at helping those businesses most affected by this revaluation was announced at the last budget (Gov.UK, 2017b). There are concerns, however, amongst both the retail sector and wider business community, that recent levels of inflation will lead to a significant increase in this levy from April 2018, thus leading to further high street closures (Quinn, 2017).

Connected with these, largely supplier-side, economic challenges, the consequences for the demand-side have impacted further. Consumer behaviour has been changing gradually over the years, partly driven by economic factors, with real wage growth stagnating during the worst of the recession, yet falling in recent months (Inman, 2017). This has seen a rise in the number of discount stores, such as Aldi and Lidl (Wrigley and Lambiri, 2014a) appearing in many edge-of-centre locations around the UK, as consumers are seeking increased value for money. In terms of market share, Aldi has risen from seventh place in 2015 to fifth place in 2017, reducing the market share of the traditional 'big four' of Tesco, Sainsbury, Asda and Morrisons (Kantar World Panel, 2017).

One of the greatest changes to consumer behaviour in recent times has been the increased demand for convenience, both geographic and transactional. Financial pressures on the British population, caused by the recession, have led to a higher number of people in employment, sometimes with more than one job, and as a result, consumers have wanted to save time in a variety of ways. This move began to take place at a time when the major supermarkets were expanding their 'big box' out-of-town store format, yet consumers began to increase their visits to neighbourhood convenience stores for 'top-up' shopping, which has led to an increase in the latter and a slow-down in large store construction (Wood and McCarthy, 2014; Wrigley and Lambiri, 2014a, 2015). The largest corporate supermarkets have responded by introducing a neighbourhood convenience store format (eg; Tesco Express or Sainsbury's Local), as well as an in-centre format (eg; Tesco Metro).

Perhaps the most visible transformation in consumer behaviour has been as a consequence of developments in digital technologies and mobile devices.

Online shopping, or 'e-tailing' has increased substantially in recent years (Wrigley *et al*, 2002). The proportion of online sales to all retail sales has risen, year-on-year, from 11.2% in 2014 to 17% in September 2017 (ONS, 2015, 2017b). This trend is expected to continue, with a forecast of 30% by 2020 (Wrigley and Lambiri, 2014a). Wrigley and Lambiri (2015, p9) have observed that the increase in online activity has created 'substitution' and 'modification' effects in consumer behaviour; the former referring to online shopping replacing the need for trips to physical shops; and the latter referring to internet usage altering both the frequency and duration of physical shopping trips.

Consumer demand for convenience has not been the only force driving up online sales, as digital technologies have also enabled some products to make a natural transition to this format, thus creating operational efficiencies for the respective business, both in terms of production and distribution (Hracs and Jakob, 2015). Music, books, videos and photography have found success through this process of digitalisation (O'Brien, 2017), in so doing transforming the way consumers experience them, from the physical to the virtual. This process has, itself been facilitated by developments in mobile devices such as tablets and smartphones. This transition has contributed to the loss of some physical high street stores, such as Blockbuster Video and Zizzi, while others, for example HMV mentioned earlier, have rationalised their physical presence while investing in their online capabilities. Online retailers already building an imposing presence have also benefited. Amazon, for example is now the UK's largest online retailer by sales value and is closely followed by eBay, both accounting for 39% of all online sales (Carroll, 2017).

Against this backdrop of economic crisis and changing consumer behaviour, a wide variety of research has been published aimed at improving the understanding of how town centres and high streets have fared in recent years, including work already referred to in this chapter, such as Hart *et al* (2014); Wrigley and Brookes (2014); Wrigley and Lambiri (2014b); and Wrigley and Lambiri (2015). Prior to this, responding to industry and public concerns, central government commissioned the Portas Review (Portas, 2011), a highly publicised investigation into the state of the British high street, which was issued in 2011. The review contained 28 recommendations for improving the condition of the UK's town centres and high streets (see Table 2.3 starting overleaf and continuing on p53). Whilst all but one of the recommendations

were accepted by government, they have been difficult to implement and although there has been some success, overall they have largely failed to deliver their expectations, owing either to a lack of specific objectives being set or not addressing the underlying cause of the issue at a local level (The Digital High Street Advisory Board, 2015). This emphasises the need for local policymakers to take account of individual context and difference when searching for an appropriate strategy for their own town centres.

Table 2.3: Portas Review recommendations for the British high street (Portas, 2011, pp5-6)

Number	Recommendation outline
1	Put in place a “Town Team”: a visionary, strategic and strong operational management team for high streets
2	Empower successful Business Improvement Districts to take on more responsibilities and powers and become “Super-BIDs”
3	Legislate to allow landlords to become high street investors by contributing to their Business Improvement District
4	Establish a new “National Market Day” where budding shopkeepers can try their hand at operating a low-cost retail business
5	Make it easier for people to become market traders by removing unnecessary regulations so that anyone can trade on the high street unless there is a valid reason why not
6	Government should consider whether business rates can better support small businesses and independent retailers
7	Local authorities should use their new discretionary powers to give business rate concessions to new local businesses
8	Make business rates work for business by reviewing the use of the RPI with a view to changing the calculation to CPI
9	Local areas should implement free controlled parking schemes that work for their town centres and we should have a new parking league table
10	Town Teams should focus on making high streets accessible, attractive and safe
11	Government should include high street deregulation as part of their ongoing work on freeing up red tape
12	Address the restrictive aspects of the ‘Use Class’ system to make it easier to change the uses of key properties on the high street
13	Put betting shops into a separate ‘Use Class’ of their own
14	Make explicit a presumption in favour of town centre development in the wording of the National Planning Policy Framework
15	Introduce Secretary of State “exceptional sign off” for all new out-of-town developments and require all large new developments to have an “affordable shops” quota
16	Large retailers should support and mentor local businesses and independent retailers
17	Retailers should report on their support of local high streets in their annual report
18	Encourage a contract of care between landlords and their commercial tenants by promoting the leasing code and supporting the use of lease structures other than upward only rent reviews, especially for small businesses

Number	Recommendation outline
19	Explore further disincentives to prevent landlords from leaving units vacant
20	Banks who own empty property on the high street should either administer these assets well or be required to sell them
21	Local authorities should make more proactive use of Compulsory Purchase Order powers to encourage the redevelopment of key high street retail space
22	Empower local authorities to step in when landlords are negligent with new “Empty Shop Management Orders”
23	Introduce a public register of high street landlords
24	Run a high profile campaign to get people involved in Neighbourhood Plans
25	Promote the inclusion of the High Street in Neighbourhood Plans
26	Developers should make a financial contribution to ensure that the local community has a strong voice in the planning system
27	Support imaginative community use of empty properties through Community Right to Buy, Meanwhile Use and a new “Community Right to Try”
28	Run a number of High Street Pilots to test proof of concept

An alternative view of how to support the British town centre and high street was published by Bill Grimsey in 2013, in which he set out his own vision for the future (Grimsey, 2013). Suggestions contained within Grimsey’s report included one which called for the conception of the British high street to change; to accept that retailing of the future may not necessarily rely on physical structures, which, given the forecast increase in online sales, is not beyond imagination. Grimsey suggested that the high street should become a ‘community hub’ (p5), where a wide variety of activities could take place in addition to shopping. This is an interesting notion, particularly in the case of the current research, since cultural events within town centre spaces may have a role to play in such a community hub-type setting.

Research undertaken by non-academic bodies, for example, think tanks such as the New Economics Foundation (NEF) (an independent think-tank, whose aim is ‘to transform the economy so that it works for people and the planet’ (New Economics Foundation, 2015)), has also been published during the last 15 years and is included here as it has a place in the current debate, since it contributes to public perception of the state of British town centres and high streets. Prior to the most recent economic crisis, warnings had already been issued concerned with the risk of ‘ghost town Britain’ (Simms *et al*, 2002, p2), where research conducted by the NEF predicted a cumulative loss of retail

provision across the UK of almost one third between 1990 to 2010 (*ibid*, 2002), adding that by 2010 many smaller neighbourhoods were at risk of losing local access to shops and services. This was subsequently followed by the 'Clone Town Britain' report (Simms *et al*, 2005), only this time the warning related to the dangers of homogeneity and the damage this would cause to the diversity of the British town centre and high street. Fortunately, the evidence already reported earlier illustrates that the growth of convenience culture has prompted increased use of neighbourhood shops and the threat posed by homogeneity has not materialised (Wrigley and Lambiri, 2015). Instead, post-crisis, a stronger independent presence is emerging on British high streets, with less reliance on the corporate chain store.

In 2013 the government put together a group of retail, property, business and academic experts co-chaired by a government minister and senior industry executive, named the Future High Streets Forum (Wrigley and Lambiri, 2015). The forum's purpose is to develop a better understanding of the current challenges faced by British town centres and high streets with the aim of developing appropriate policy for their longer-term benefit. It is hoped that the current study will provide a valuable contribution to the development of policy by providing evidence of the impacts of cultural events located in town centres and high streets.

The issues raised here illustrate that the current town centre and high street debate is complex, with numerous factors contributing; not necessarily all affecting different places in the same way. Local policymakers and TCMs are, nevertheless, faced with the task of revitalising their urban centres for the benefit of local businesses and residents, as well as making them attractive places to encourage visitors and increase footfall. Indeed, Coca-Stefaniak and Carroll (2014, p29) contend that the recession of 2008-2009, in particular, has 'been a major challenge to accepted wisdom in the management of town centres.' Solutions need to be found that provide decision-makers and TCMs with a series of options for revitalisation, where there is a real or perceived need.

2.3.2 Necessity is the mother of invention: how town centres are responding to the various challenges

The above sub-section has demonstrated clearly that the British town centre and high street have been dealing with a series of significant challenges to

their ongoing vitality for some years and the indications are that this is likely to continue, at least for the near future. Also identified earlier, this is not a universal situation across the whole of the UK, as some centres have managed to remain resilient to many of the adverse effects. Many have responded by embracing digitalisation and innovation. Some have been able to adapt their offer, sometimes in less than favourable ways, yet others have been unable to reinvent themselves and are suffering in much the same way that was experienced on a larger scale following deindustrialisation discussed in the first section of this chapter.

Research has found that centres with a higher proportion of services to retail have managed to survive the worst of the recession (Wrigley and Dolega, 2011). Certain services, such as hairdressers and beauty salons, cannot be replaced by the internet and these are growth areas (Weeden, 2017). The growth of coffee shops has also helped to lower vacancy rates (Wrigley and Lambiri, 2015). This role in assisting high street recovery has been acknowledged by central government, as they provide spaces for business people to work, particularly if Wi-Fi is available, as well as informal social encounters (Ferreira, 2017). Although this component of the service sector has seen steady growth over the five years to 2016, there are signs of a slow-down, as competitors such as bakeries and sandwich bars enter the market offering similar specialist coffee products (Caddy, 2016; Weeden, 2017). Town centres have also seen an increase in 24-hour gyms, which have begun to occupy vacant retail premises, responding to the growth in consumer demand for convenience mentioned earlier, as well as the growing health and fitness trend (Fricker, 2017).

These vacant premises have created opportunities for other forms of retail and leisure services that might not otherwise have been able to operate. Hubbard (2017b) has explored the emergence of the ‘micropub,’ which is typically run by a sole trader in premises able to accommodate only around 20 people at a time and which sells locally crafted ales from microbreweries. Hubbard has observed how these intimate spaces facilitate a form of ‘social connectivity’, fostering the ability for customers to engage in spontaneous conversations with strangers, as well as the licensee. This is a representation of the ‘socially connected retail’ observed by O’Brien (2017, p573) in her study of independent bookshops. These in particular are surprising survivors of the high street, when the likes of Borders Bookshop disappeared at the height of the recession.

Vacant premises are also providing spaces for temporary retail – the ‘pop-up shop’ as they have become known (Fletcher *et al*, 2016; Hubbard, 2017b). In addition to taking up vacant premises for short periods, they are also appearing in other formats, for example former transport containers in open spaces such as Shoreditch, London (Jones *et al*, 2016), offering additional diversity and distinctiveness to attract consumers, by selling unusual or artisan products. The temporal nature of this form of retail is variable, with some in operation for a matter of hours, while others may be in situ for up to a year (*ibid*).

The evidence from the above examples indicate that there is still a role for town centres and high streets to perform in encouraging social interaction, as they are able to provide the community spaces referred to by Grimsey (2013) earlier. This form of social interaction is reminiscent of what Watson *et al* (2006) observed in her study of enclosed markets, discussed earlier in this chapter, and suggests that provision of a range of opportunities and reasons for people to gather would enhance town centre activity, both socially and economically. Characteristics displayed in each of the above examples are all features of small-scale cultural events: the temporal nature of pop-up shops; the opportunities for social interaction and spontaneous conversations between owner and consumer or other visitors, often strangers; and the ability to purchase a diverse range of products.

Further innovations have emerged in response to the digitalisation of retail. Many stores, shopping centres and town centres are introducing Wi-Fi to attract digitally connected consumers. Many bars, pubs, restaurants and the coffee shops mentioned above, are beginning to offer this service at no cost, which encourages customers to stay. In the retail environment, consumers are able to use their mobile devices to compare prices while in store, or check product reviews to aid their purchase decisions. Some product labels now feature a QR code or barcode, allowing the customer to search for additional product information online by scanning the code. Recognising the potential benefits for town centres and high streets owing to consumer demand, The Digital High Street Advisory Board (2015) has recommended that free Wi-Fi should be implemented across the UK’s centres.

This innovation is in part a response to the threat posed by the upward trend in online retail. Retailers with the logistical and technological capabilities have responded by introducing click and collect services, attempting to entice

consumers who have ordered online into the physical store to collect their goods. Further digital enhancements in store have seen the introduction of interactive kiosks, where customers can browse and order from a wider range of stock items than can be seen in the shop. Although driven by the continued search for convenience (Wrigley and Lambiri, 2015), these moves have been facilitated by technological advances in smartphones, which also now feature electronic payment capabilities, such as Apple Pay. Shopping via mobile devices is becoming increasingly common (Wang *et al*, 2015) and consumers are no longer confined to a specific location or medium: the distinction between the virtual and physical is becoming difficult to discern and has been referred to as ‘omnichannel retailing.’ Previously known as ‘multichannel,’ whereby consumers were provided with a variety of options to make their purchases, the revised term acknowledges the transition from offering multiple choices to an integrated offer (Verhoef *et al*, 2015). Internet retailers have also been innovating their model and Amazon, the UK’s largest online retailer (Carroll, 2017), has introduced their ‘Amazon locker’ collection points in shopping centre locations across the UK. Although this reiterates the drive to improve customer convenience, it serves a purely functional purpose but removes the social connectivity found by O’Brien in the independent bookshops and Hubbard in the micropubs. This sentiment is echoed by Wrigley and Lambiri (2015, p94), who contend that although consumers no longer need to visit the high street or town centre to shop, if enjoyable and exciting experiences can be offered, then they would be less likely to shop online: ‘omnichannel is the trend but a “delightful” shopping experience is key.’

Some town centres and high streets have experienced other developments that have been considered less welcome and could lead to further societal problems. Townshend (2017) has found that some places, particularly those in poorer areas, have seen a significant increase in fast food outlets, betting shops and those offering quick loans at very high interest rates. Whilst they are replacing boarded up premises, they are creating what Townshend (p167) has designated ‘toxic high streets,’ encouraging unhealthy eating and gambling in places which can least afford it.

At the other end of the societal scale, Hubbard (2017a, 2017b) has warned of gentrification and displacement effects resulting from efforts to revitalise town centres and high streets. He has remarked on the exclusive nature of the

micropubs he studied, noting that the demographic profile of customers is most likely to be 'white, male and middle-aged' (2017b, p1). Exclusivity and distinctiveness, however, are part of their attraction (Richards and Palmer, 2010), so while initiatives like these encourage innovative uses for otherwise boarded up premises, which detract from a place's character, they also lead to marginalisation of certain socio-economic groups. Again, this has been a consequence of most attempts at regeneration, as discussed earlier in this chapter.

Understanding how town centres and high streets are evolving, and developing policies to help those in need, are clearly a necessity. As shown above, various approaches have been adopted, however, the impacts of cultural events have not been explored within this precise context, yet they have a place in the debate. This is particularly so since both Hart *et al* (2014) and Wrigley and Lambiri (2015) have already argued that the provision of enjoyable experiences are key to helping these places survive into the future and cultural events can provide such experiences. Gaining an understanding of how these events function within the town centre setting, as well as the economic and other impacts they generate, thus contributes both to the overall literature on how town centres are responding to contemporary challenges as well as, potentially, giving a choice to those seeking a solution. Some town centres and high streets have suffered more than others since the economic crisis took effect and if solutions are to be found, then they need to be workable and realistic.

There is no doubt that consumer purchasing power has decreased in the face of the economic crisis (Astbury and Thurstain-Goodwin, 2014). This, along with the challenges discussed above, has affected the way in which most town centres function. In order to survive in the face of these challenges, these consumption spaces need to provide an offer that is more than 'simply retailing' (Findlay and Sparks, 2014, p14) and the provision of cultural events may be one appropriate response. At this point in the discussion, it is pertinent to reflect on why town centres and high streets are worthy of ongoing support in the apparently digitally led 21st Century.

2.3.3 The role of town centres in contemporary society

The challenges faced by town centres discussed above may lead one to question their contemporary relevance and whether revitalisation of these

urban spaces is an effective use of public (or private) funds, particularly at a time when government finances – either local or national – are under increasing pressure. Clearly, town centres are still performing a variety of roles in contemporary society, as Astbury and Thurstain-Goodwin (2014) have already observed. This section briefly discusses these roles, to aid understanding of how hosting cultural events may be able to contribute to town centre vitality.

Some of these ideas have been touched upon already, however, it is worth highlighting the various roles performed by contemporary town centres to emphasise that they are important today, as they were in the past when they provided a focal point for often isolated rural communities. Fairs, festivals and markets have been a familiar sight in many British towns for hundreds of years. These markets and other events have performed a variety of roles: on the one hand they provided the forum for the agricultural community to trade; and on the other, they allowed isolated people to socialise, thereby engendering a feeling of community belonging. With few alternative means of communication, towns played a vital role for their neighbouring dependent population. In this context, Evans (1997, p5) has argued that town centres are a 'key part of the public domain' and as well as being centres of consumption, understood in economic terms, they are also centres for social consumption.

Despite modern forms of communication, towns are still performing a similar societal role in the 21st Century. As mentioned earlier, Shields (1992) has identified the significance of social exchange in the consumption environment; a position supported by Miller (1997, p39), who proposes that shopping provides 'an excuse to encounter other people.' As shopping is an activity undertaken in town centres, this social exchange naturally extends beyond the purchasing transaction and leads to a broader experience for a town centre's visitors. This resonates with the earlier discussion concerned with the experience economy (Pine and Gilmore, 2011): how value can be attributed to experiences and how these experiences can be linked to the environment in which they occur (Arthur and Hrac, 2015). There is a natural connection between experiences, cultural events and town centres: hosting cultural events in town centres can contribute to experiences and, in this way, add value to the existing structural offering. The literature currently lacks evidence to support this, however, Powe and Shaw (2004) have observed that although rural towns

in the north east of England provide a focal point for their rural hinterlands, they need to provide added value beyond this service role.

The issues considered in this part of the chapter illustrate the complex nature of the current town centre and high street debate. These urban spaces clearly play an important role in contemporary life and have much to offer. Many have suffered in recent years, although some worse than others (Wrigley and Dolega, 2011). Some appear to be better than others are at adapting to evolving consumer behaviour and the search for convenience, along with implementing adaptations to facilitate integration with the digital economy. Local policymakers and TCMs are, therefore, searching for ways to revitalise those centres and high streets in need. Cultural events have the potential to provide a solution, since festivals or regular markets have already been identified as contributors to increased footfall (Coca-Stefaniak, 2013; Hallsworth *et al*, 2015) and they may be able to offer the enjoyable experiences Hart *et al* (2014) claimed would be essential to a town centre's ongoing existence. Currently, however, not enough is known about the contribution such events may make to economic or social life, in the context of small towns, notably market towns. The apparent focus in the literature on the study of cities or mega-events is one reason for this omission. The final part of this literature review now considers this particular issue.

2.4 Rebalancing the scales: small/large parity

'... the majority of the population of the world does not live in large cities. Hence, the question which immediately pops up is what happens to them? What future awaits the billions of people who live either in intermediate or in small cities or in rural areas?'
(Rodríguez-Pose and Fitjar, 2013, p358)

A persistent theme throughout this literature review concerns the lack of attention paid to the small-scale, whether it concerns the size of urban centre or type of event. As observed by Rodríguez-Pose and Fitjar (2013, p254), the larger agglomerations are considered by both academics and policymakers as the 'engines of economic development.' This results in a lack of concern for the smaller areas and leaves a gap in current knowledge and understanding. This final section, therefore, provides the context for positioning the current study at the smaller-scale. It does this firstly by arguing that urban studies has

a tendency to focus on the city and as a result, the ways in which towns function are less well understood. Secondly, in the same vein, it argues that academic understanding of the contributions made by small-scale cultural events needs more development. It concludes by arguing there is a need for further research into both areas, indicating that the study of small-scale cultural events located in market towns offers a solution.

2.4.1 Significance of place: towns are just as interesting as cities

The literature concerned with urban studies has a tendency to focus on the role and dynamics of the city, for example: global cities (Sassen, 2001); world cities (Beaverstock *et al*, 1999); mega-cities (Hall and Pain, 2006); small cities (Bell and Jayne, 2006b); creative cities (Florida, 2005); consumption and the city (Jayne, 2006); transforming cities (Jewson and Macgregor, 1997); entrepreneurial cities (Hall, 1998) and ordinary cities (Robinson, 2006). In contrast, very little work exists relating to the role and function of towns, market towns and lower order urban centres. Even the work on small cities by Bell and Jayne (2006b) laments that the discipline of urban studies is dominated by research of their larger counterparts. They argue that where work exists in relation to small cities, it is 'patchy' (p683). If that is the case for small cities, then empirical work concerned with small towns is equally scarce.

These smaller places offer a much more focused means of studying social phenomena than is possible in larger cities or at regional level. In his work exploring Putnam's (2000) theory of social capital along with civic engagement, Besser (2009) argues that small towns are ideal locations for research, since it is in these locations that any decline in social capital is most noticeable. Understood to be urban centres with fewer than 10,000 residents, small towns, Besser contends, are 'the quintessential place where everyone knows everyone else' (p186). He positions this argument alongside the significant economic challenges faced by American midsection rural towns to understand how social capital in these towns may have changed in recent times.

Courtney *et al* (2007) investigated economic linkages that may exist between small towns and their hinterlands, examining the extent to which these towns act as 'sub-poles' (p1119) or lower order hubs. Their research involved four English small and medium-sized towns, where a small town was understood to

have between 5,000-10,000 residents and a medium town, between 15,000-20,000 residents. They concluded that these towns do not act as sub-poles within English rural economies, however, they do provide employment opportunities. A similar study was conducted by Powe and Shaw (2004) discussed earlier towards the end of Section 2.3.2. Additionally, Powe and Hart (2008) have discussed how some market towns have been developing their ability to attract visitors, observing that those places with well-maintained heritage or pleasant surrounding countryside appear to fare better than the more 'urban' market town.

Hinderink and Titus (2002) contend that the role played by small and intermediate urban centres in regional development is an important subject of debate, yet there is a distinct lack of empirical data to support policymakers and planners. Thomas and Bromley's (2003) work concentrated on what they understood middle order centres to be, that is small towns, district centres and small market towns, from a retail perspective. They intended to establish the level of shopping linkages that may exist between an edge-of-centre superstore and an in-centre precinct in Llanelli, South Wales. Wrigley *et al* (2010), meanwhile, carried out detailed longitudinal research in four English market towns and district centres in order to establish the impact of large foodstore development on those locations. They found that the new foodstores encouraged local residents to conduct their shopping in the towns, whereas prior to the existence of the foodstore, residents had a tendency to travel elsewhere.

The existing literature on the smaller urban centre by no means matches the variety of perspectives adopted in the exploration of cities, a point that has not gone unnoticed. Indeed, Parkinson *et al* (2014, p2) have warned that given the global recession from which the west is emerging, along with the Eurozone crisis, it is now more important than ever to develop an understanding of the 'potential and actual contribution of cities further down the urban hierarchy.' Although the authors used the word 'cities' here, both small and market towns have an important place in the urban hierarchy. In fact, Parkinson *et al* continue by suggesting that lower order urban centres are no less important than first tier cities and that continued policy focus on such cities is unsustainable in the long-term, for there will come a point in the future when they reach saturation in terms of population growth and economic output.

It can be seen from the evidence provided that whilst some research exists in relation to the role of small towns, it is not available in the same breadth or depth as academic work in relation to cities. Existing research exploring the ability of small-scale cultural events to support town centre vitality is a further omission, a topic that is considered in the next sub-section.

2.4.2 Significance of scale: small-scale events research offers a different perspective on impacts

As already mentioned in previous sections, a large proportion of the existing literature relating to impacts of events is concerned with mega-events, and, of that work, there is a tendency to focus on sporting events and popular entertainment (Richards and Palmer, 2010). In the same way that the study of cities detracts from discovering what can be learned from small towns, so the concentration on mega-events study leads researchers to overlook the peculiarities that exist at the smaller-scale. This leaves a gap in knowledge and an associated opportunity to develop understanding of this precise area. In order to highlight what is not known, this section considers major findings from pertinent existing research, concerned with both large and small-scale events, and discusses what is missing.

Detailed analyses of mega-sporting events such as the Olympic Games or motor racing Grand Prix already exist, for example Burns *et al* (1986)'s account of the 1985 Adelaide Grand Prix, which examined a range of impacts resulting from the mega-event taking place, including the transport sector (Arnold, 1986), the accommodation sector (Bishop and Hayles, 1986), the restaurant industry (Hatch, 1986) and residents living with the Grand Prix (Dunstan, 1986). This analysis in particular provided an in-depth study of the way an Australian city and its residents were affected by a mega-event with global reach. This kind of research helps to inform policy decisions regarding whether to enter a bidding process for such a large-scale event, given that costly infrastructure is often required and finance needs to be obtained. It does not, however, necessarily help local policymakers or TCMs who have neither the capacity, resources nor scope to contemplate staging an event of similar proportions. Further, existing research exploring the impacts of failed mega-event bids, such as Hiller (2000) or Cochrane *et al* (1996), discussed on p32, provides an understanding of how new urban partnerships may be formed in the process of preparing a bid and how city agglomerations may

benefit economically despite failing in their attempts to win the right to host the mega-event for which the bid was originally prepared. Again, this research is valuable, however, small town leaders would be very unlikely to consider preparing a bid on such a scale.

Of the body of work concerned with impacts of events that could be considered smaller-scale, there are still omissions. Crompton *et al* (2001), for example, conducted an economic impact study of Springfest; a four-day festival taking place during May in Ocean City, located along the coastline of Maryland, USA. The festival included arts, crafts, food and entertainment activities. The precise process undertaken for the economic impact assessment is examined in more detail in the methods chapter, as it contains an important discussion pertaining to the inclusion or exclusion of different expenditure categories in the impact analysis. Although considered small-scale, this festival took place over four days, which provided many opportunities for data collection from a variety of sources. Events lasting for only one day, which are often typical of those taking place in a town centre, provide a single opportunity to gather such data, perhaps only once a month or year. Research exploring such one-day events appears to be scarce and so the methodological difficulties associated with data collection have not been explored. Understanding and explaining these difficulties will provide support to other researchers or local policymakers interested in such small-scale impacts.

Chris Gibson, John Connell and Gordon Waitt have written extensively on the subject of rural and urban festivals, mainly in Australia. Between them they have developed understanding of how these festivals can generate feelings of community belonging and can help to nurture values, cultures and local histories (Duffy and Waitt, 2011); how events have the capacity to transform the economy of a remote Australian town (Connell and Gibson, 2011); and how small-scale festivals have a substantial cumulative economic effect over time. These are just some of their findings, however, the point to make here is that Gibson, Connell and Waitt's research has been largely conducted in rural Australia. Although they provide very useful indications of the economic, social and cultural roles of smaller-scale events, these may vary in different geographical contexts. The 'rural' context in Australia is quite different to the 'rural' context in Britain, for example, since Australian towns can be remote from any neighbouring urban centre. The distances between British rural and

urban centres are typically much shorter, which may result in different experiences and outcomes.

This specific area of study – cultural events in market towns – is not well researched in the UK context and of the extant body of work, Emma Wood’s research stands out. Wood and Thomas (2008) set out to determine the impacts of small-scale events on rural communities in Wales. They examined a two-day food festival, a weeklong music festival and a weekend arts festival and found that the economic impacts were marginal but there was scope for an increase if local businesses offered more support. They concluded that additional work in this area would be needed to expand on their findings. Previously, Wood (2005) explored the economic and social impacts of local authority-run events in a non-tourism location: the town of Blackburn, Lancashire. The events under scrutiny were a weekend arts festival, which took place in a municipal park, and a four-day outdoor festival located in and around the town centre. The main aim of the study was to develop an evaluation framework for further research. It also served to provide the local authority with evidence it needed to justify its continuation of financial support. Although useful in informing the current research, neither of these studies examined one-day cultural events, notably in market towns in the south of England.

Table 2.4 overleaf summarises the issues discussed above and identifies the type of event researched, its location and duration. It also displays each study’s focus. Shown in tabular format, it is easier to see that few studies attempt to account for events lasting less than a few days, or are concerned with market towns in the south of England.

Table 2.4: Summary of event impact studies reviewed

Author	Event name	Event type (size)	Event type (genre)	Location	Duration and frequency	Emphasis of study
Burns <i>et al</i> (1986)	Adelaide Grand Prix	Mega	Sporting	Adelaide, Australia	3 weeks + Annual	Variety of impacts
Hiller (2000)	Summer Olympic Games	Mega	Sporting	Cape Town, South Africa	3 weeks + (Four years – once? ²)	Effect of failed bids
Cochrane <i>et al</i> (1996)	Summer Olympic Games	Mega	Sporting	Manchester, UK	3 weeks + (Four years – once? ¹)	Effect of failed bids
Crompton <i>et al</i> (2001)	Spring-fest	Small	Arts, crafts, food, entertainment	Ocean City, USA	4 days (annual)	Economic impacts
Connell and Gibson (2011)	Elvis Presley Festival	Large ³	Music	Parkes, Australia	5 days (annual)	Events transforming communities/ Revitalisation
Duffy and Waitt (2011)	Four Winds Festival	Small	Music	Bermagui, Australia	4 days (biennial)	Ability of festivals to generate feelings of community, belonging
Wood (2005)	Art in the Park Fiesta	Small	Arts Music/ Entertainment	Blackburn, UK	2 days 4 days (annual)	Economic and social impacts/ developing an evaluation framework
Wood and Thomas (2008)	Llangollen Food Festival North Wales International Music Festival Art on the Railings	Medium Small/ Medium Small	Food Music Art	Llangollen, UK St Asaph, UK Chepstow, UK	2 days 7 days 2 days (annual)	Economic impacts

² Although the Olympic Games occurs every four years, in reality it is rare for a city to host the Games on more than one occasion.

³ The Elvis festival was originally very small-scale, the first one in 1993 a celebration of Elvis Presley's birthday on 8 January. It has now grown to a large-scale and lasts five days (Connell and Gibson, 2011)

2.4.3 Significance of the research

This part of the literature review has highlighted two major omissions: firstly that the balance of urban studies is tipped towards the functioning of cities, yet small towns offer a quite different and no less interesting perspective from which to study urban life; and secondly, that the study of event impacts is equally imbalanced in favour of larger-scale events, however, studying the smaller-scale impacts offers a different viewpoint. Joining both of these points provides the opportunity to learn more specifically about the economic, social and cultural roles played by small-scale cultural events taking place in British small towns. Following this line of enquiry is beneficial, both to academic and practitioner audiences: academic study benefits from increased understanding of the contribution made by such cultural events in small places; and practitioners have evidence to which they can refer when considering hosting events in their own localities.

With a focus on the large scale or mega-event, little is known or understood about the contributions made by their much smaller counterparts. Unlike mega-events, small-scale events need little in the way of investment or infrastructure development (Gursoy *et al*, 2004), thus putting them easily in the reach of the many thousands of smaller urban areas that exist both in the UK and elsewhere. In addition, they involve much less planning than larger-scale events and can have more tangible effects on local communities, as has been identified earlier in this chapter, certainly more so than the rare or one-off mega-events. In support of this, Tindall (2011) argues that when economic benefits are understood in a relative sense, seemingly insignificant events in small places can be understood to be economically meaningful. In other words, economic impacts of small-scale events may seem insignificant when compared with the economic impact of a mega-event, however, when aligned with the small town context, these impacts make much more sense. For this reason, the study of small-scale events should not be disregarded.

On a practical level, existing studies that evaluate the impacts of one-day events are difficult to find. There may be justifiable reasons for this, however, the current research addresses this gap and provides a valuable contribution to the body of work. In addition, whilst studies of smaller-scale cultural events (as opposed to mega-events) exist, the majority have been undertaken in cities around the world or rural locations in Australia, with almost none based in market towns in the south of England. Of those studies, most involve relatively

large audience figures (in excess of 7,000) with ticket sales on which to base the overall attendance count. In contrast, studies of cultural events attracting less than 7,000 visitors that are unticketed and take place in town centres are not easily found in the literature. Addressing each of these omissions affords a much greater understanding of how small-scale cultural events contribute to their host communities. In particular, this research contributes to the current British town centre debate.

2.5 Chapter Summary: Refocusing the cultural events and urban studies lenses

This literature review has identified four main themes: First, there is a broader LED policy context into which cultural events fit. Second, that hosting (large-scale) cultural events can be an effective means of generating economic growth but that sometimes forecasts of potential economic activity are overestimated and negative social consequences are overlooked in order to justify the hosting of such an event. Little is known or understood about these issues in the context of smaller-scale events, particularly in the UK setting. Third, there is a discourse of crisis in British town centres, leading policymakers to search for solutions. Finally, there is an emphasis in urban academic study on the larger scale, whether it is concerned with large urban agglomerations or large-scale event impacts, and this leads researchers to overlook the smaller-scale. The current research brings each of these elements together, taking advantage of the opportunities presented to produce novel empirical enquiry.

Evidence drawn from existing events-focused research indicates that they have the ability to generate significant economic, as well as socio-cultural, impacts. In this way, cultural events can contribute to overall economic vitality in addition to enhancing psychic income or the 'feel-good factor' (Gibson *et al*, 2014, p113) brought about by hosting an event. This evidence is largely drawn from research concerned with large-scale or mega-events, notably of the sporting variety, of which the literature is abundant. Cultural events as a LED policy possess many benefits over others, for example, they can be much simpler and quicker to plan and implement than those policies requiring major infrastructure development. They can be used as standalone activities or be integrated into a wider economic development policy, for example, part of a place promotion or tourism strategy. Over time, localities can become defined by successful events.

There is a need to learn more about the range of impacts generated by small-scale cultural events on their host communities. Missing from current understanding are the specifics of one-day events and their economic and socio-cultural impacts; both positive and negative. The psychic income model proposed by Kim and Walker (2012) in the context of sports mega-events offers a framework for analysis. It is, however, optimistic in design and lacks reference to the negative effects, for example, the effect of anti-social behaviour at an event on continued community support for it. Events taking place over a number of days provide numerous opportunities for economic or social interaction and attract large numbers of visitors but how does this differ from a one-day event? Events located in specific barriered sites again possess certain characteristics, such as ticketed entry and visitors making a conscious decision to attend. Events located in town centres are quite different; they may act as a catalyst to attract visitors to the town, in place marketing terms, and, in this way, enhance the overall visitor experience. From a supplier perspective, they may provide a vital and low-cost opportunity for small local producers to market their goods at regular intervals, such as at a farmers' market.

Although not all town centres have suffered either in the same way or to the same extent, in the UK, there is an ongoing discourse of crisis and local-level policymakers are seeking ways in which to ensure the continued vitality of their areas. Academic and practitioner research is seeking to understand how British town centres and high streets have been adapting and evolving to the challenges, such as changing consumer choice or the effect of digital sales channels and the advent of omnichannel retailing. Central government has shown its commitment to advancing knowledge in this field by creating the Future High Streets Forum, so that future policy can be informed by robust research. Nevertheless, there is scope and need for further research that contributes to the overall debate and, thus, provides policymakers with a variety of decision-making options. The influence of the digital economy clearly plays a role in the ongoing vitality of these places, as demonstrated in section 2.3 but it is one of a number of challenges they face. Further, as emphasised previously, the key to town centre survival appears to be centred on provision of positive and enjoyable experiences, according to Wrigley and Lambiri (2015) and Hart *et al* (2014). Taking all of this into consideration, effects of digitalisation have not been separated specifically in this research.

The focus is concerned with how small-scale cultural events contribute to the positive experience and, in this way, support vitality.

The problems faced by today's local-level policymakers resonate with those faced by policymakers in the 1980s and 1990s, when, following deindustrialisation, former manufacturing cities were in need of economic regeneration. A number of LED policies that were implemented at the time have been reviewed. Each of the policies appeared to work well in certain places and at certain times, however, they were dependent on external factors, such as the existing economic structure of the area. Most of the policies appear to have shared similar negative consequences, which were centred on the effects of gentrification and feelings of exclusion. The majority of the policies reviewed were applied to cities or city regions and, consequently, would be difficult to apply to small towns in particular.

In concluding this literature review, it is helpful to visualise how small-scale cultural events might be seen to offer local policymakers, such as local authority officers or TCMs, the possibility of increasing economic activity in their town centres and high streets. Figure 2.8 overleaf provides this visualisation. A cultural event is a 'boosterist' intervention that might be implemented. The anticipated result is increased footfall that translates into increased economic activity for the town centre's or high street's businesses. Over the longer term, this repeated activity leads to a vibrant town centre and high street, with reduced vacancy rates. This, at least, is the theory. The methods used to test this theory in the current study, along with the process for conducting EIA, are explained in the next chapter.

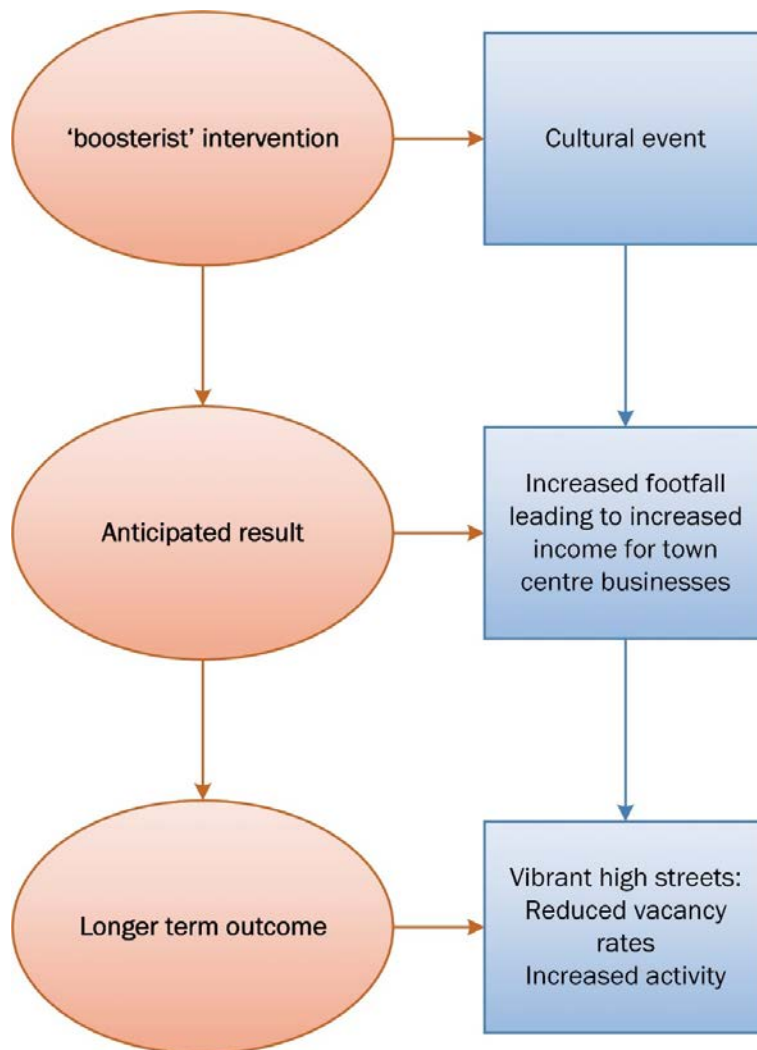


Figure 2.8: Diagram to explain the economic rationale for hosting a cultural event in a town centre or high street

Chapter 3: Research Methodology and Design

This chapter outlines the research methodology, design and methods used in the study in order to answer the research questions (RQs). It also includes a section towards the end that reflects on researcher positionality and co-sponsor influence, since these became an important factor and affected the way in which the overall research progressed. As explained in Chapter One, these were influenced by the parameters of the ESRC/RIBEN funding and CASE studentship, which required collaboration with a non-academic organisation either in the private, third (voluntary) or, as in this particular case, the public sector (ESRC, 2014), which was TVBC, a neighbouring local authority to Southampton. TVBC requested that an EIA be undertaken of one cultural event taking place in each of the borough's main settlements, so this formed the basis for the overall research. Case study methodology, which incorporated a flexible, mixed methods design (Yin, 2014; Robson and McCartan, 2016), therefore, seemed the natural choice given these prerequisites. The research comprised three case studies, since there is this number of main settlements within the TVBC area (Andover, Romsey and Stockbridge), each offering a different cultural event to study. These provided ample evidence for individual analysis as well as cross-case comparison and triangulation (Baxter, 2010; Bryman, 2016), thus strengthening the rigour of the study.

As EIA was at the core of the current study, a systematic process for conducting EIA of small-scale cultural events was developed, following a thorough search of the relevant literature to determine how this had been conducted in other research. A discussion of this is included in section 3.4, as it was felt to be important to aid understanding of the process implemented in the current research, since this has found to be a complex procedure, which has generated much debate. This process has practical applicability for TVBC and any other policymakers who may wish to adapt it for their use. The structure of this chapter is illustrated at Figure 3.1 overleaf and is followed by further discussion of the components used.

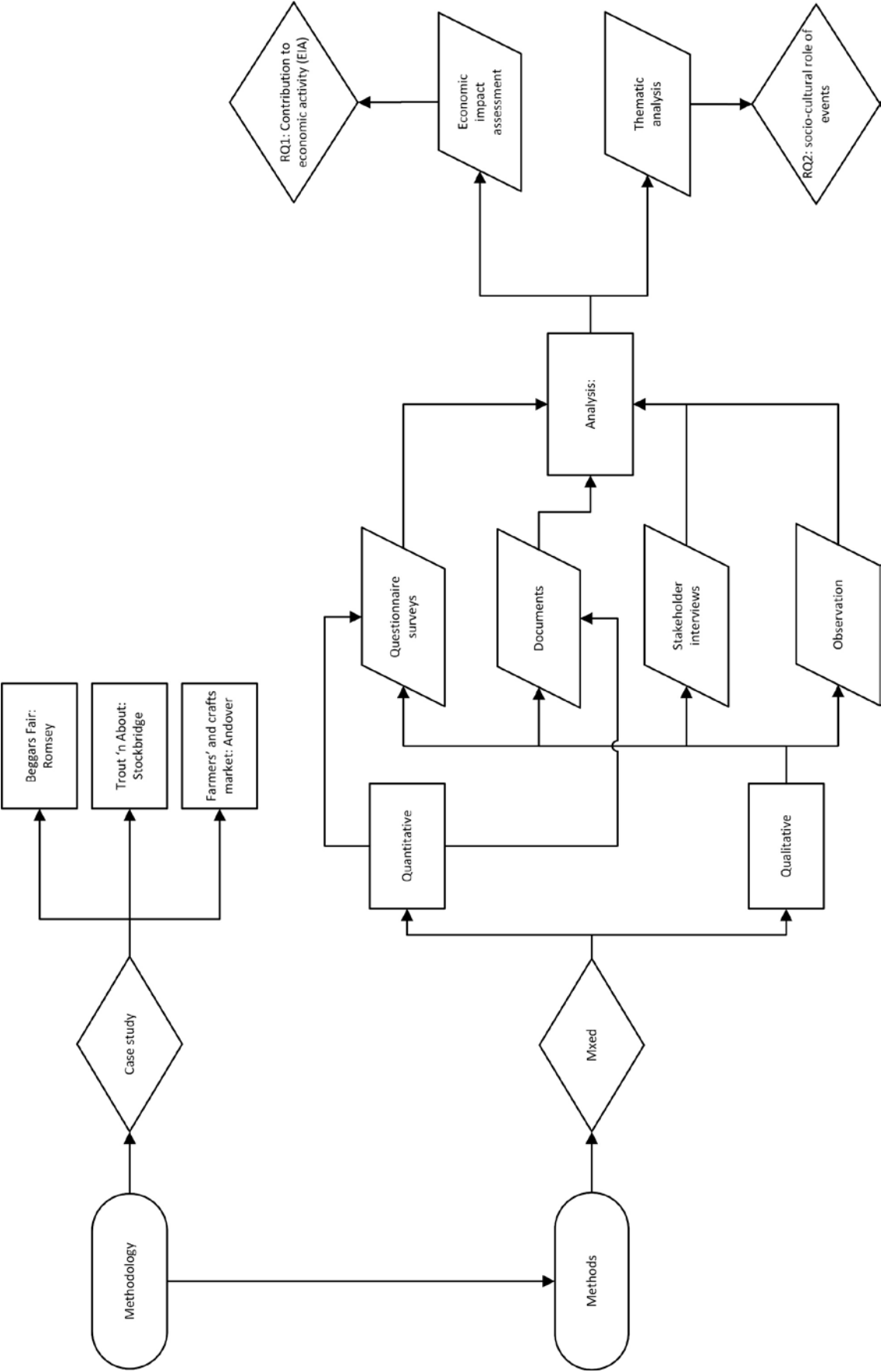


Figure 3.1: Visualisation of the research design

3.1 Case studies in social science research

As already stated, collaboration with TVBC was an essential component of the funding, which included an EIA of a cultural event taking place in each of the borough's main urban centres. Alone, this would not necessarily have produced an original contribution to the extant body of research, so the scope was broadened to encompass the wider role played by small-scale cultural events located in market towns. This extended scope fulfilled both TVBC's requirements and those of a PhD, since the literature search revealed a distinct lack of understanding of this wider role played by small-scale cultural events. This section discusses the methodological approach taken for the research, which involved three case studies.

Although other methodologies were considered, such as conducting a comparative study with an analogous borough not hosting cultural events in town centres, the adoption of a multiple-case study methodology seemed to be the most appropriate, largely influenced by TVBC. In addition, the ability to find an analogous borough in the UK on which to undertake a comparative study would have posed a considerable challenge. By this is meant locating a borough on a similar spatial scale, with a similar economic and demographic base, similar market towns yet not staging cultural events, since these events are common features in the majority of towns in the UK at some point during the year. It was, therefore, decided that in order to undertake such detailed research as required by case study methodology, focusing on the TVBC events would be preferable. There is debate in the literature about whether the case study approach is a method or methodology, so a brief discussion of this now follows, along with its perceived merits and failings.

3.1.1 Case study: method or methodology?

The case study approach has generated debate in the literature concerning whether it is a method or methodology. Baxter (2010, p82) defines a method as 'a mechanism to collect "data"', which is how Yin (2014) views case study, offering it alongside surveys, experiments, archival analysis and histories as options available to the researcher. Robson and McCartan (2016, p150), meanwhile, view case study as a strategy 'rather than a method, such as observation or interview.' The current study prefers Baxter's (2010) interpretation, which is that case study is a methodology, mainly owing to a

philosophical assumption that in-depth understanding of a case is valuable on its own without concern for studying all cases or a statistically significant sample of cases.

3.1.2 Generalisability

One of the major criticisms of case study research is its apparent inability to allow generalisation from the analysis (Lincoln and Guba, 2000; Flyvbjerg, 2006; Yin, 2014). The concern for generalisability arises from the use of statistical methods, whereby a statistically significant sample, selected at random, is the way in which analysis can be considered to be representative of the population (Schofield, 2000). Lincoln and Guba (2000) argue that generalisability is difficult to achieve even with a representative sample, since to be truly generalisable, data needs to be free of context. In social research, they argue, it is difficult to remove this context. According to Silverman (2011), statistical sampling is not always evident or appropriate in case study research, where a case is often chosen because of accessibility. Instead, Yin (2014) advises that cases should not be thought of as a sample in statistical terms but as an individual case or cases that offer the potential to obtain richer insight than might be obtained by using a statistically significant sample.

Silverman (2011) argues that purposive sampling should be employed in case study research to improve generalisability. By that, he means a case should be selected because it illustrates a feature or process, which presents a problem worthy of research. Silverman also contends that by including a deviant case, that is, one that does not follow the established theory, the case for generalisability is strengthened. The current study satisfies both of these recommendations; by selecting three different types of cultural event as the individual cases (a music festival, a food festival and a farmers' and crafts market) there is an opportunity to explore how the impacts of each differ and allows for cross-case comparison, which also improves the potential for generalisability (Yin, 2014). The farmers' and crafts market constitutes a deviant case in the context of the overall study, in that it differs from the other two cases: it is neither organised by a body independent from the local authority, nor is it an annual event. The characteristics and background to each event included in this study features in Part Two of this thesis.

In defence of the case study, Stake (2000) has argued that there is much in favour of 'particularisation'; or focusing on the particular rather than the

general, since this provides opportunities to unearth idiosyncrasies that might otherwise be overlooked. Baxter (2010) contends that generalisability is the wrong term for case study research, as it implies large probability samples, which are not a feature of case studies, and instead favours the word 'transferability.' This alternative removes the underlying implication of sample size and allows for the emphasis of fewer, but carefully selected, cases. He adds that a rigorous case study is richly described, which facilitates comparability beyond the specific case. This point is illustrated clearly in Miller's (1998) study of shopping behaviour in a north London street; on the surface it is a very detailed study of people's attitudes to the mundane, every day type of shopping for necessities, such as food or clothing, in a specific location. Miller overcomes the generalisability problem by making different aspects of his analysis meaningful to the context of different readers. He describes scenarios that are familiar to a wide variety of people, for example, the single parent making purchasing decisions that are concerned with the quality or value-for-money dilemma. In this way, Miller's work is indeed generalisable, or at least transferable. Yin (2014, p40) calls this 'analytic generalisation' and advises that this is the type of case study the researcher should aim to achieve.

Yin (2014) recommends multiple-case designs as a means of improving generalisability in case study research, as evidence derived from them is considered more robust and compelling than from a single-case design. Both Yin and Schofield (2000) have warned, however, that the multiple-case design is more resource and time-consuming than a single-case and may require compromise.

3.1.3 Case study design

According to Yin (2014, p121), a well-designed case study will use multiple sources of evidence, which act as corroborative material, as this enables triangulation of the data or 'convergence.' This notion is illustrated in Figure 3.2 overleaf. Yin states that when the data have been accurately triangulated, the research findings will be based on more than one source of evidence. Within a multiple-case design, direct replication is possible, which, Yin argues, leads to more powerful conclusions than those obtained either from a single-case design or one whose conclusions are not derived from multiple sources of evidence. If these sources of evidence are obtained using mixed methods, that

is qualitative and quantitative data, then the evidence is strengthened even more.



Figure 3.2: convergence of multiple sources of evidence (adapted from Yin (2014, p121))

The design of the current study was devised carefully, having considered possible alternatives. Case study methodology appeared to offer the most appropriate solution, given the specification provided by TVBC. Concerns relating to generalisability have been addressed by developing a mixed methods, multiple-case design in accordance with advice found in the literature. The research design explained in the next section sets out the justification for this.

3.2 Research design

Since this research design was influenced by TVBC's involvement, and the resource constraints of PhD study, the study area was confined geographically to within the borough's boundary. Consequently, the choice of case studies to include was limited to those taking place in each of the borough's three main settlements. This resulted in case studies of three cultural events being included in the research. Each event was different, although there were similarities connecting all three. They are presented in the order in which they were researched as this sequence is relevant to the way in which the results were analysed and interpreted: the first event took place just over two weeks before the second, which meant that little analysis could be undertaken before engaging in the field work for the second event. As a result, no significant changes were made to the design, however, a method for estimating attendance at the second event needed to be devised, which is explained later

in this chapter on p105. The fieldwork for CS3 took place some time after the others, which meant that analysis on the first two could be initially undertaken and the residents' survey could be implemented for all three simultaneously. Each event was selected on the basis that they fulfilled the criteria identified in Chapter Two; namely that they took place in a market town in the open-air, were free admission and took place on one day. Further, that they complied with TVBC's expectations. At this point, the research aims and questions are repeated as a reminder of what the research set out to achieve.

3.2.1 Research aims and questions

The literature review in Chapter Two discussed the current issues facing the British town centre and high street, with a focus on market towns. It also observed how special events – whether cultural or sporting – have been used in various settings as a means of improving economic activity, with varying levels of success. The review highlighted the lack of current knowledge and understanding of how small-scale cultural events support their host towns, with a particular absence of study concerned with one-day events taking place in market towns. It was an aim of this research to address this gap. The other aims agreed with TVBC were:

1. To provide TVBC with an understanding of how cultural events taking place within the borough contribute to its economy, with particular reference to the retailers and services located within its three main settlements.
2. To develop an understanding of the broader contribution made by small-scale cultural events to market town vitality, beyond the economic (monetary) role by exploring the social and cultural impacts.

Two main questions were developed in order to achieve the above aims, each with a number of associated sub-questions, as follows:

RQ1: what is the economic impact of small-scale cultural events?

- 1 (a) how much do event attendees and traders/performers spend, both on event stalls and in the host town's shops and services while they are visiting? Is more spent on the event stalls or in the host town's shops and services?

1(b) do these visitors travel to the towns mainly for the event, or for some other reason. Are they aware of the event prior to their visit?

1(c) where do these attendees come from? Are they local residents, or visitors from further afield? While at the event, how long do they stay?

RQ2: What other, less-quantifiable impacts do these events generate?

2(a) who attends these events (what are the characteristics of the people attending?)

2(b) why do people attend these events and what do they do while there?

2(c) who stays away from these events (what are the characteristics of the people who do not attend?)

2(d) why do some people stay away from these events?

Learning more about the characteristics, attitudes, practices and behaviours of the people who attend and stay away, as well as organisers, local businesses, traders and performers helps to broaden understanding of social and cultural impacts associated with small-scale cultural events. When combined with EIA, this results in a more comprehensive understanding of the overall impact generated by this type of event and the role they play in market town vitality.

RQ1 was answered in part by conducting a thorough EIA on each of the case study events, which was also at the specific request of TVBC as co-sponsors. This carries with it an implied expectation that there is a positive economic effect in town centres as a direct result of such events, the rationale for which is illustrated in Figure 3.3. In essence, town centre events attract visitors and residents who are encouraged to spend money at the event, for example a visiting food market. Whilst in the town, the residents and visitors are inclined to spend further in shops and other services. Residents and visitors may talk about the event to others, who in turn may visit at another time. The visitors may also return at a later date. The theory here is that these factors contribute to overall economic prosperity for the town and local area.

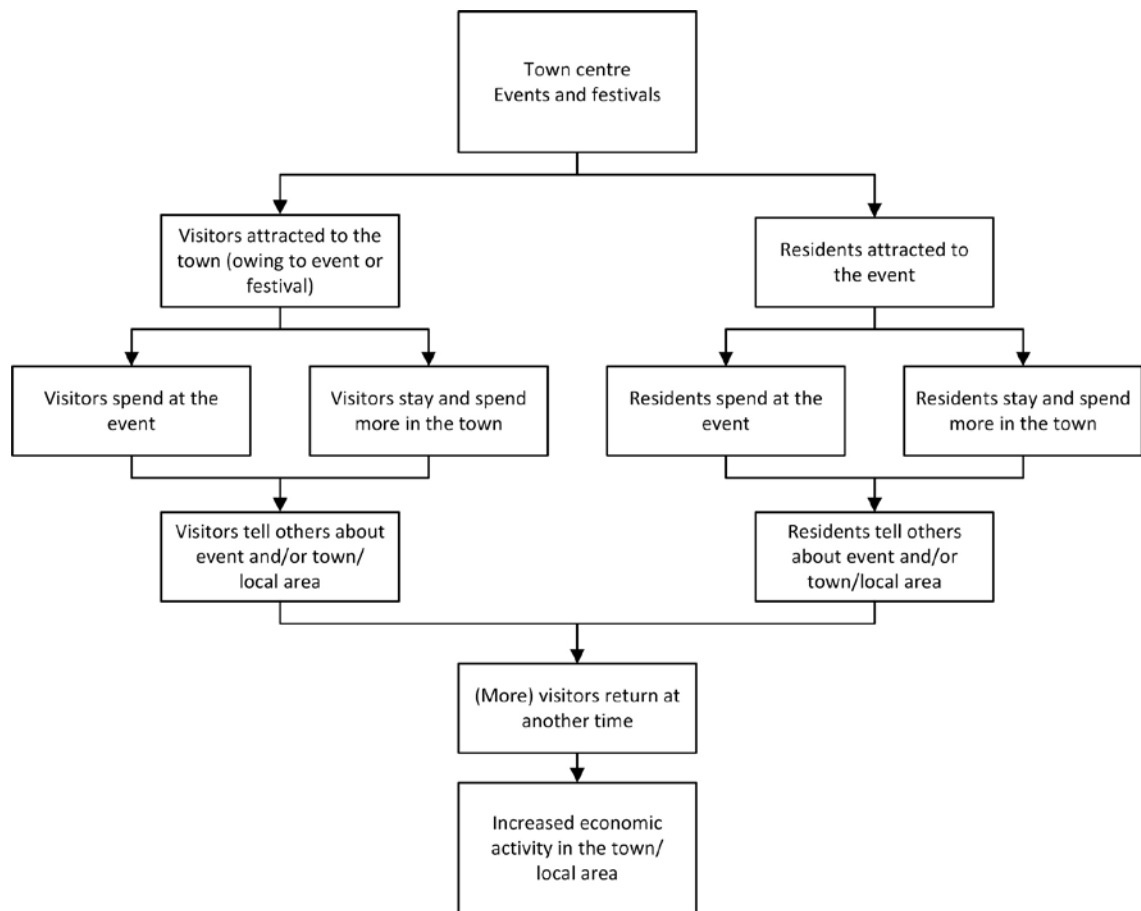


Figure 3.3: Rationale for economic impact at cultural events

RQ2 offered the scope to explore further, less quantifiable impacts that appeared to be important and emerged during the initial data collection phase for case study one (CS1) and continued with case studies two and three (CS2; CS3). It became clear that there were more factors than expenditure flows alone contributing to the impacts of events like these and so warranted further investigation.

Research exists that suggests small-scale events may play more of a socio-cultural role than that of supporting local economies (eg: Wood, 2005). Alternatively they may provide a ‘feel-good’ factor for local residents to enable policymakers to pursue unpopular policies – the ‘bread and circuses’ argument (Harvey, 1989, p14). Another viewpoint is that cultural events are a component of an overall place marketing package, designed to enhance a locality’s competitive advantage over its rivals (Bradley *et al*, 2002). The aim of RQ2 was to explore these possibilities in the context of events taking place in the TVBC area.

3.2.2 Choice of cultural event to include in the study

At the start of this study, the original intention was to research the impacts of annual cultural events, however, it emerged during the fieldwork planning stage that Andover – one of TVBC's three market towns – did not host an annual event of any notable size, which would warrant detailed study. Whilst this initially posed a challenge, it also gave rise to further enquiry regarding the reason for this, given that Andover was the largest of the three urban centres included in the study. This issue is considered further in Chapter Seven.

The borough of Test Valley hosts a small number of annual cultural events, mainly in the market towns of Romsey and Stockbridge, offering a limited number of possibilities to include for these two towns. As a third was needed, for Andover, the final choice was made in conjunction with TVBC. The three case studies included in the research were an annual folk and roots music festival in Romsey (the Beggars Fair (BF): CS1), an annual food festival in Stockbridge (Trout 'n About (TnA): CS2) and a monthly farmers' and crafts market (AFM/CS3) in Andover. The market had been initiated by TVBC following the departure of a regular monthly one organised by Hampshire Farmers' Markets, an independent organisation that arranges for local producers to visit market towns across Hampshire. The reasons for this departure are explained in Chapter Four. Other important considerations were that each event took place on one day; were located in a market town, so were in the open air rather than inside; and were free to access.

3.3 Data collection methods

Following the advice provided by Yin (2014) and other authors included in the case study discussion at section 3.1 above, a mixed methods 'multi-strategy' design (Robson, 2011, p29) was implemented, whereby qualitative and quantitative data were obtained via a number of instruments: questionnaire surveys; interviews; documentary evidence; and personal observation. The ways in which each instrument contributed to answering the research questions are illustrated in Figure 3.4.

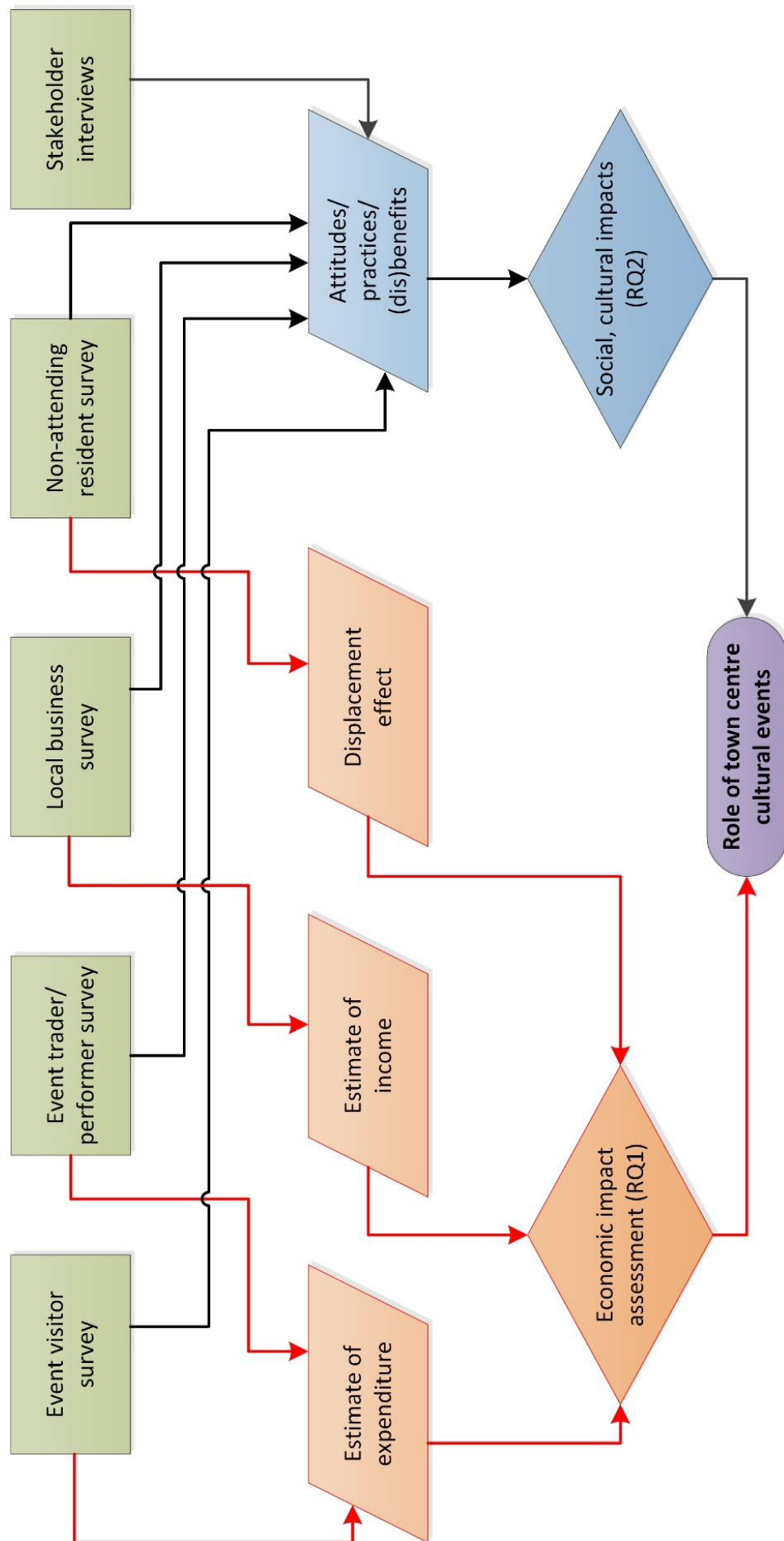


Figure 3.4: Diagram illustrating the function of the research design

The diagram shows the instruments along the top with either a red or a black arrow linking them to the next level. The red arrows are concerned with quantitative data, which mainly contributed to the EIA. The black arrows relate to qualitative data collection, concerned with the wider socio-cultural impacts of cultural events. Since a case study methodology was adopted for the research, the same data collection methods were applied to each of the three cases, thus replicating the procedure in order that cross-case comparison could take place. Small alterations were made where appropriate, for example; one question in the residents' survey asked whether the respondent had been to the previous year's event. In the case of Andover farmers' and crafts market, which was a monthly event, this would not have been appropriate, so the question was altered to reflect this difference. The individual data collection methods are discussed in more detail in the following sub-sections and Table 3.1 illustrates the total collected.

Table 3.1: Total number of data sources

Data source	Case study			TVBC officers
	CS1 (BF)	CS2 (TnA)	CS3 (AFM)	
Visitor surveys	59	200	75	-
Business surveys	19	17	66	-
Stallholder/performer surveys	24	13	38	-
Residents' surveys	101	91	61	-
Interviews	5	4	2	3
Total	208	325	242	3

3.3.1 Questionnaire surveys

The main purpose of the questionnaire survey in this research was to obtain quantitative data that would contribute to the EIA, such as estimates of expenditure by event visitors and traders/performers on a number of categories, which were identified during the literature search (eg: Crompton *et al*, 2001; Wood, 2005). Table 3.2 shows these categories, which were broadly the same for each case study. The left-hand column lists the categories as they featured in the questionnaire surveys and the right-hand column identifies how they were re-named during the analytical process as a means of simplifying the data presentation.

Table 3.2: Expenditure categories used in the research

Survey expenditure category	Revised expenditure category for EIA
Meals in restaurants/pubs/cafés or similar	Town meals (leisure services)
Food and drink purchased elsewhere (eg: supermarket)	Town food retail
Other retail purchases	Town non-food retail
Entrance fees to local attractions	Town attractions
Other expenditure in [town] today	Town other
Food & drink purchased from [event] stalls	Event food & drink
Other chargeable activities (eg fairground rides/sideshows)	Event sideshows
Art/craft items purchased from [event] stalls	Event art & craft
Souvenirs/gifts purchased from [event] stalls	Event gifts/souvenirs
Any other expenditure at [event]	Event other

Obtaining such estimates via a sample survey was considered the most efficient data collection method available with regard to EIA and a practice employed in most studies of this kind. The process by which EIA is calculated is discussed in more detail later in this chapter. In addition, the questionnaire surveys included questions concerned with attitudes towards and practices at the events, which addressed RQ2. The majority of the surveys were interviewer-administered, since this provided the opportunity for interviewers to clarify any queries the respondents may have had, as well as encouraging participation (Robson, 2011). In total, four different sets of questionnaire surveys were implemented for each case and a copy of each is available as Appendices A-D. The purpose and sampling strategy for each are now outlined.

1) Event visitor survey

The event visitor survey was interviewer-administered while each event was in progress. The survey questions consisted of a combination of closed and open questions, as well as some that collected demographic data. Since the events

were of limited duration, the maximum being eight hours, additional support was obtained to assist with data collection in order to maximise respondent participation. Owing to their availability, a varying number of people assisted at each event and this is reflected in the number of responses obtained for each case. In two of the cases, iPads were used to collect the data, via an app called 'doForms.' This proved to be very useful for recording the qualitative responses, which were subsequently downloaded and transcribed. All qualitative data were uploaded into NVivo for analysis, while the quantitative data were analysed using Excel and SPSS.

Stratified quota sampling was employed in order to ensure representation across age category (18-33; 34-49; 50-64; 65+) and to separate local residents from visitors whose normal place of residence was not within the TVBC area. This consideration was an important factor in the calculation of the EIA and is explained further in Section 3.4.1. Respondents were asked to provide their home postcode sector (eg, SO20 6) so that differentiation between residents and non-residents could be made during the analysis. The target number of responses was 25 in each quota, which gave a combined total of 200.

These surveys were conducted for the duration of each event by a number of researchers located at different points around each location. A compromise had to be made relating to estimates of expenditure in order to maximise participation; those respondents approached early on were not able to say with complete certainty how much they intended to spend, while those approached at the end of the day could be more confident about what they had spent. Onsite surveys were considered preferable to an alternative option of inviting participants to complete an expenditure diary and returning it post-event, owing to concerns over lack of commitment once the participant had left. The merits and failings of both methods are discussed by Gelan (2003) in the context of evaluating the economic impact of a major sporting event.

The target of 200 completed questionnaires proved to be challenging to achieve given the duration of each case study event – eight hours for CS1 (the longest), down to four hours for CS3. Another issue for CS1 was that, owing to the performance nature of the event, audiences would gather to hear the musicians or to watch the Morris Dancers but would disperse rapidly once the act had finished. It was impossible to administer the visitor survey during the performances, as neither the researcher nor the respondent could be heard clearly. Efforts were made to ensure a higher response rate for CS2 and the

target of 200 was achieved. For CS3, the number of visitors was markedly lower than at either of the previous two events and, combined with the much shorter duration, the number of responses achieved was considered satisfactory.

2) Event trader/performer

The purpose of this survey was similar to that of the event visitor survey and posed a combination of qualitative and quantitative questions. The quantitative questions related to expenditure, such as whether any purchases were made in the host town during their visit. This element contributed to the EIA. Qualitative questions concerning practices and attitudes contributed to understanding socio-cultural impacts.

Each trader or performer was invited to participate in the survey, since the number in each case study location was relatively small. Some were easier to approach and more willing than others, for example, attempts were made in each case to inform the traders or performers in advance that they would be invited to take part in a survey. Where the help of the organiser could be obtained, this worked well. In one case, however, it was neither possible to obtain a list of traders in advance, nor was the particular organiser prepared to contact the traders on behalf of the author.

3) Local business survey

The local business survey collected quantitative and qualitative data. The former was to establish whether any change in turnover and/or footfall was experienced around the time of the event taking place, which contributed to the EIA. Similar to the other surveys, the qualitative questions gathered opinions and perceptions of the events.

TVBC provided lists of town centre businesses for each of the cases. Financial services, recruitment agencies and estate agents were removed from the lists, so that the study could focus on businesses most likely to be impacted by the cultural event, for example food and non-food retailers, and leisure services (ie: cafés; pubs; and restaurants). Where possible, attempts were made to inform the businesses in advance of the survey taking place in order to maximise participation.

4) Residents' survey

A final sample survey was implemented among TVBC residents, the main purpose of which was to determine the reasons for non-attendance. The questions were predominantly open-ended, with additional closed demographic profiling questions similar to those asked in the event visitor survey. The data from this survey contributed to understanding the wider socio-cultural impacts of the events, including reasons for non-attendance. An initial attempt was made to conduct a street survey in one of the case study locations, however, it proved very difficult to find a suitable and adequate number of respondents. Instead, a systematic sample of residents living within a three-mile radius of each of the case study locations was selected using data supplied by TVBC, which included every residential address within a five-mile radius of each of the town centres. 100 responses were aimed for in each case – the largest sample size given available resources. Initially, 200 addresses were selected each for CS1 and CS2. This resulted in insufficient responses, so the exercise was repeated three weeks later. In order to avoid a similar situation in CS3, 400 addresses were selected.

The samples were selected as follows: the total number of residential addresses was divided by 200 (for CS1 and CS2) or 400 (CS3), to determine the sampling interval (Dillman *et al*, 2009). A number between 1 and the respective interval was selected at random using the `RANDBETWEEN(1,n)` function in Excel to produce the required sample. Table 3.3 shows the total number of residential properties and sampling interval for each of the case studies. Figures 1.6-1.8 on pages 89-91 illustrate the total number of residential properties marked by a blue dot and the respective sample marked by a red dot for each of the three towns.

Table 3.3: Systematic sample data

Case Study	Total number of residential properties within three-mile radius	Sampling interval
CS1 (BF)	11,717	58
CS2 (TnA)	1,313	7
CS3 (AFM)	19,182	48

The three-mile radius was chosen on the basis that there would be no risk of respondent duplication across cases, since an initial five-mile radius resulted in an overlap between Stockbridge and Andover. This approach proved to be a

much more efficient means of collecting the data than the attempted street survey and ensured that residents who may not have visited the town on the day of the street survey were given the opportunity to participate. An initial screening question was asked to distinguish between residents who had been to the most recent occurrence of the event and those who had not, since the latter group was the one of interest in this particular survey. Where the response was 'yes', demographic data were collected so that a comparison could be made between the proportion of 'yes' and 'no' responses. Following advice from Dillman *et al* (2009), a prize draw offering shopping vouchers was offered in order to maximise the response rate.

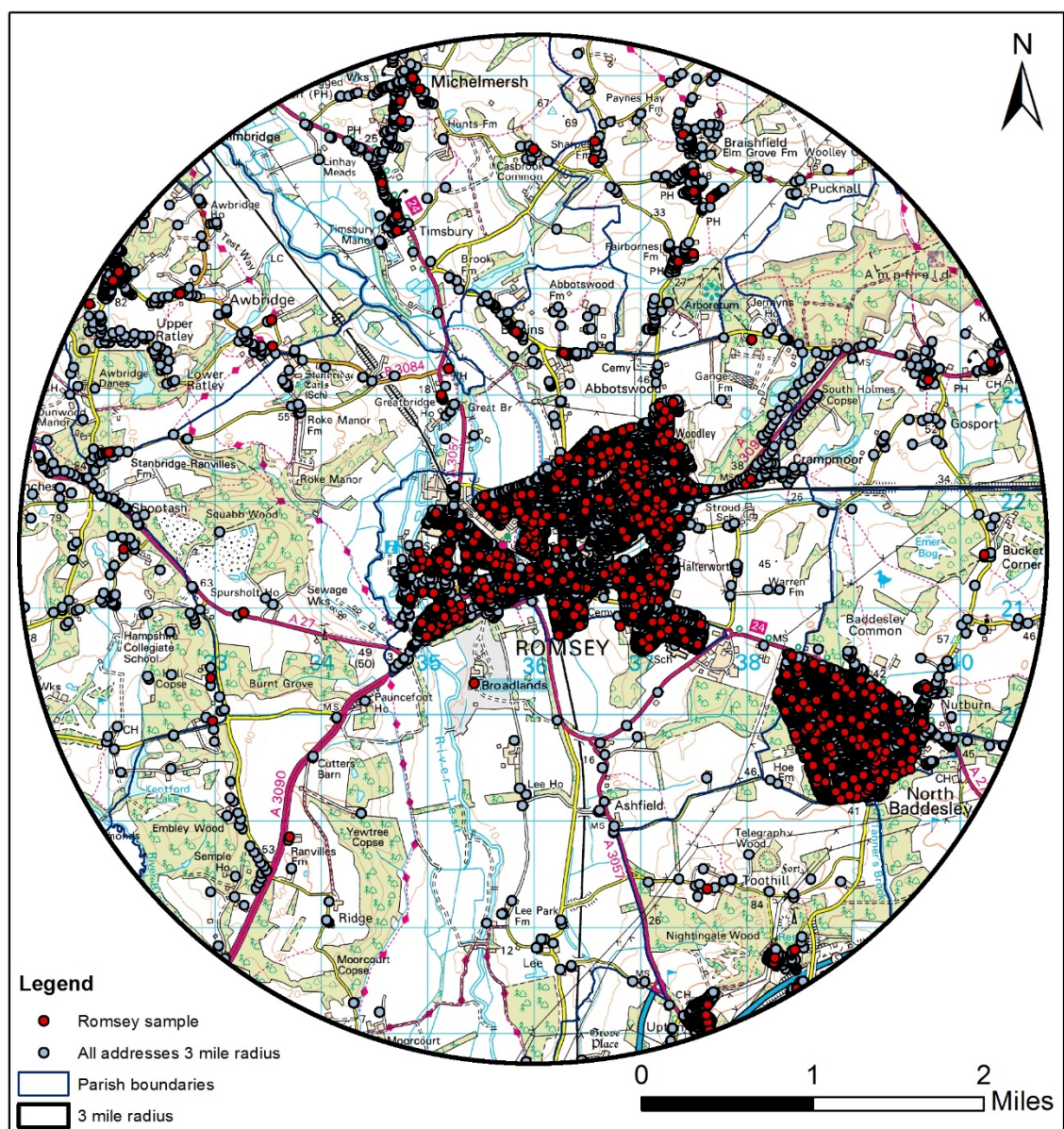


Figure 3.5: Map of Romsey showing extent of three-mile radius with actual and sampled residential properties marked (contains Ordnance Survey data © Crown copyright and database right 2012. Contains National Statistics data © Crown copyright and database right 2012)

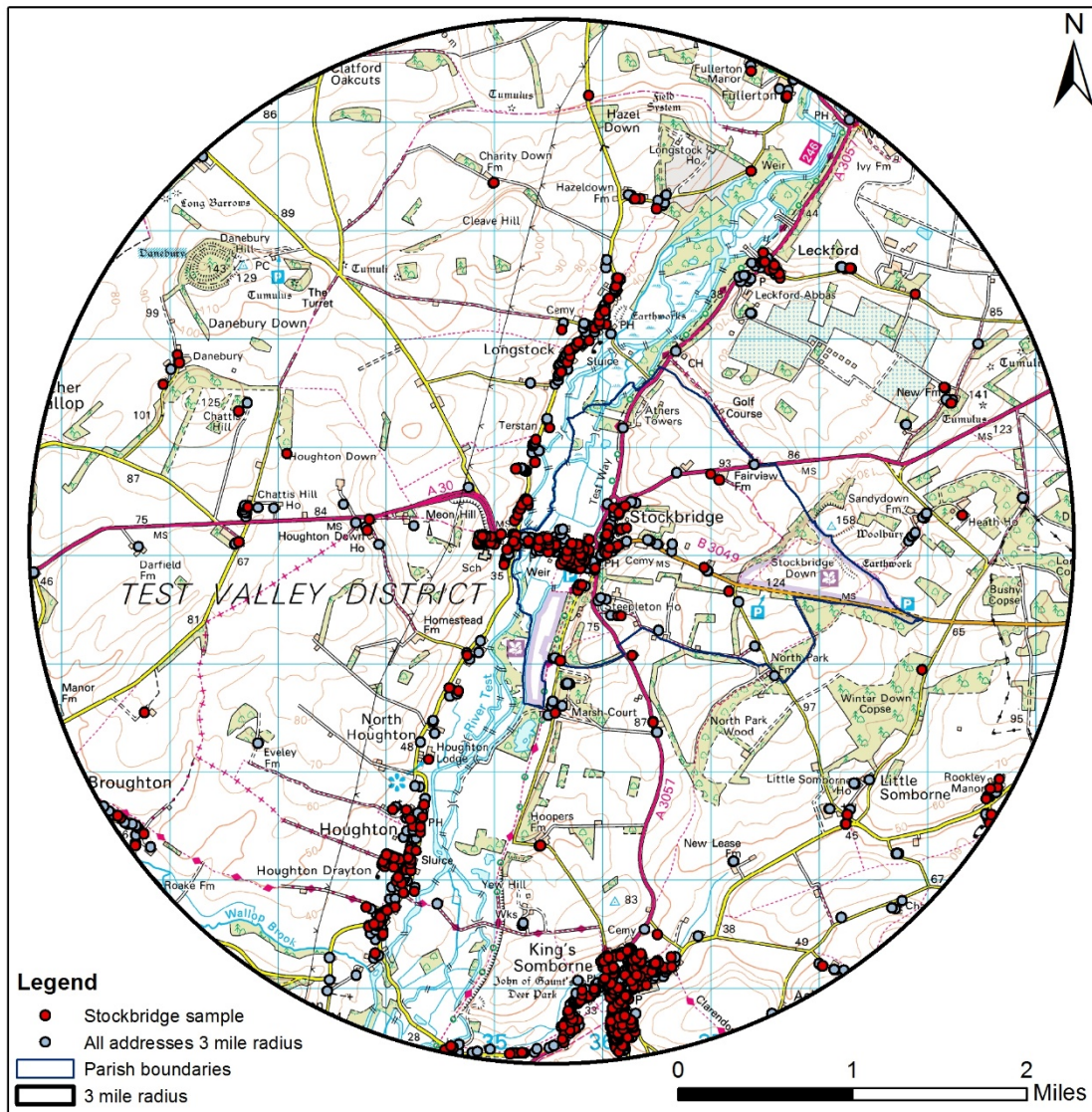


Figure 3.6: Map of Stockbridge showing extent of three-mile radius with actual and sampled residential properties marked (contains Ordnance Survey data © Crown copyright and database right 2012. Contains National Statistics data © Crown copyright and database right 2012)

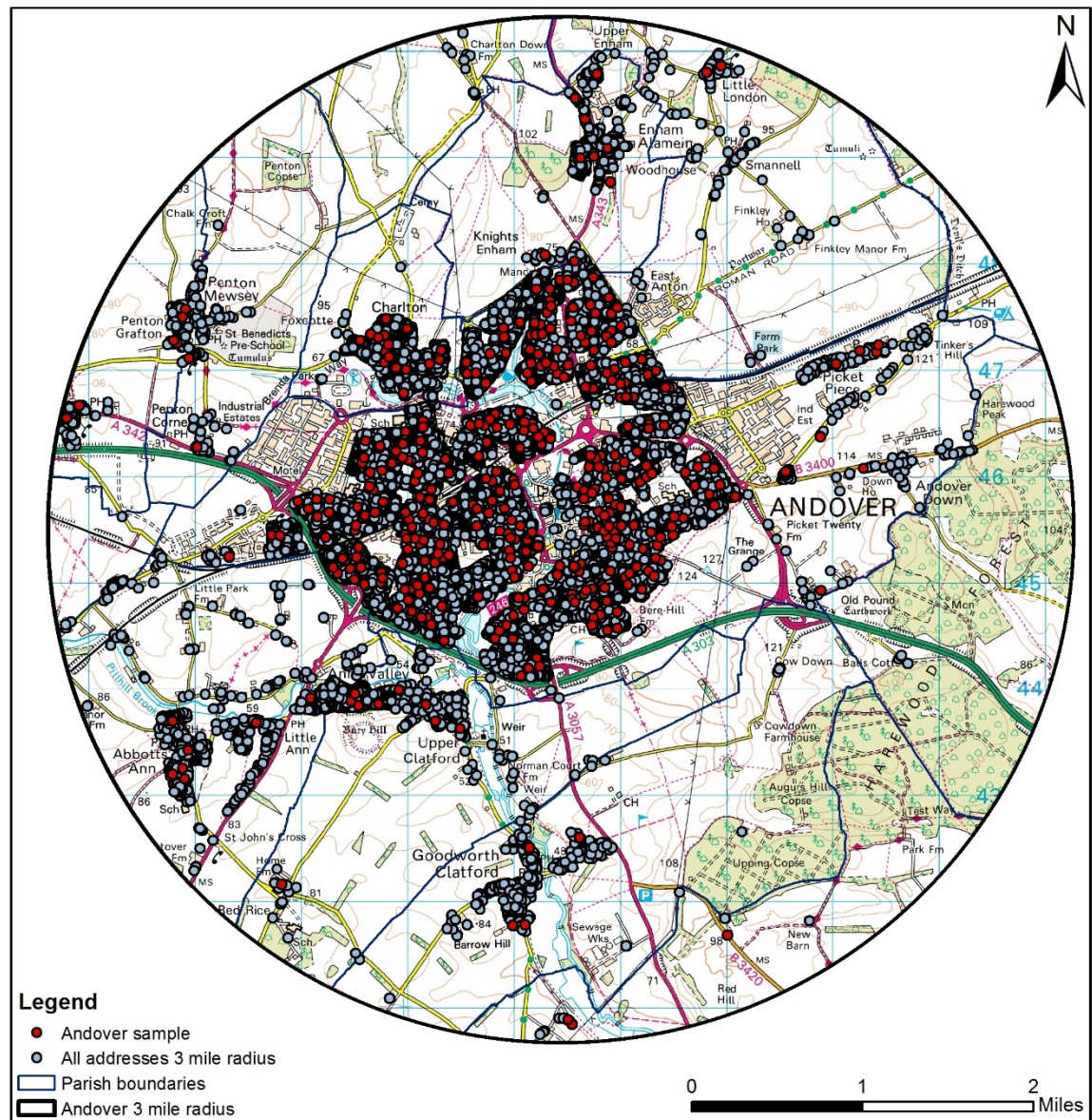


Figure 3.7: Map of Andover showing extent of three-mile radius with actual and sampled residential properties marked (contains Ordnance Survey data © Crown copyright and database right 2012. Contains National Statistics data © Crown copyright and database right 2012

3.3.2 Interviews

Common features of social research, interviews are particularly useful in mixed methods designs (Robson, 2011) because they allow the opportunity to collect data that might be missed when using other methods, such as a survey. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with identified key stakeholders for each of the case studies, which amounted to between two and five per case; the final number depended on availability and co-operation. The flexibility of the semi-structured interview allowed for deviation from the standard topics included in the interview schedule (available at Appendix E) when the interviewee began to talk about something not included in the schedule

(Bryman, 2016). Some of the interviewees were more open to this deviation than others and in these cases, much richer data were collected. It was decided to conduct interviews with key stakeholders only, since the duration of each interview varied from 30 minutes to 1½ hours, dependent upon the length of response to the questions and, along with analysis of the other methods, it would have been challenging to conduct and analyse any more. The purpose of the interviews was to derive information that complemented the survey data, such as background context and reasons for event support. In general, interviewees were asked about their involvement in the event: how and why they became involved; what they liked about the event; and what, if anything they would change if they could or were able to.

Interviews were recorded with the interviewees' permission using a digital voice recorder, where possible, and were subsequently transcribed verbatim, so that any nuances specific to a particular case were not omitted during the analytical stage. Since some interviewees could have been identified simply by their job title, they were all anonymised by being given an unrelated but sequential initial letter. All transcripts were imported into NVivo for analysis. In total, 13 interviews were conducted across the three cases. A table of interviewees is shown in Table 3.4:

Table 3.4: Table of key stakeholder interviewees

Case study	Interviewee code
CS1 (BF)	A, B, C, D, E
CS2 (TnA)	F, G, H
CS3 (AFM)	I, J, K
General (TVBC)	L, M

Interviewees consisted of TVBC officers; notably one of the project's contacts, who was able to provide details of the event organisers, TCMs and local parish or town councils where this was known. Personal knowledge of Romsey, which was developed via prior employment at the Town Council, facilitated access to a former Mayor of Romsey, as well as to the main organiser of the Romsey event. The sponsors were identified by asking the organisers for recommendations and permission to contact.

Where practical, all interviews were undertaken face-to-face, however, in some instances they had to be conducted over the telephone. The aim was for the face-to-face interviews to take place in familiar surroundings for the interviewees, to enable them to feel at ease, preferably in a private room, so

that disturbances could be minimised (Bryman, 2016). In practice, the settings varied. Some were undertaken in the interviewee's office, however, in one case this was interrupted by a telephone call and an employee calling in to request some information. Some interviews were conducted in cafés, chosen by the interviewee. It was felt that if the interviewee chose the location, it would be a place with which they felt familiar and, consequently, more relaxed than were they to be asked to go to a location unknown to them. During one of these, each time the coffee machine operated, it emitted a loud noise that obscured the recording. This led to transcription difficulties, however, sound quality enhancement software (Audacity) was used to assist and following a lengthy and slow process, the majority of the interview was successfully transcribed with no loss of meaning.

The telephone interviews took place at a time arranged in advance and confirmed by email. One interviewee declined face-to-face and telephone options, so it was agreed to conduct this via email. Although not ideal, there was no alternative. The questions were emailed and responses received. Unfortunately, the replies were brief and, unlike the semi-structured interviews, it was not possible to probe or follow-up responses in the same way as if it had been a verbal interview. It was made clear that there would not be the opportunity to pursue further enquiries. From the interviewee's perspective, this was the most convenient means of communicating their responses. This particular situation is further explained in section 3.5.

3.3.3 Observation

Attendance at each event made a vital contribution to the research as, aside from collection of survey data, it also provided the opportunity to undertake supplementary observation (Robson and McCartan, 2016) of all parties involved with the case study events; whether they were organisers, traders/performers, attendees or others who just happened to be in or passing through the particular case study locations. According to Tope *et al* (2005, p483) immersion in the research setting, or 'being there', is essential for the researcher to be able to develop a deep understanding of tacit or nuanced practices and behaviours that might otherwise be overlooked or misunderstood. As illustrated earlier in Chapter Two, Watson (2009) was able to reflect on the caring space of the market by observing the actions and behaviours of the various actors associated with it.

In the current study, the observations were informal and unstructured (Bryman, 2016) to the extent that no schedule was used. Since the author was engaged in numerous activities at each of the case study events, a practical balance was needed between data collection – in its varied forms – and management of any researcher support. As the purpose of the observations was to help explain and provide rich context for the other methods (Walsh, 2009), this was considered to be appropriate.

Although unstructured, a strategy for observation was developed for the three case studies. This entailed recording observations relating to physical layout of each event; attendance; behaviours and practices of those involved; number of vacant retail units; retailers closed on the day; an idea of footfall experienced by the retailers; and general traffic flows (pedestrian and vehicular). Further observations for CS1 included noticing the number of public houses in and around the town of Romsey, with their barriers and security guards in place, as well as the security officers patrolling the town, quietly monitoring behaviour. For CS2, additional observations were made to act as visual reminders of the traffic congestion and volume of cars parked along the access roads and grass verges. In practice, all observations were recorded throughout the day via handwritten notes and photographs taken by the author on a digital SLR camera, which provided the additional benefit of recording time of day. The handwritten notes were transferred to a typed Word document, which served as a fieldwork diary, after each event. A separate diary was kept for each case, which was used to note further observations relating to meetings with interviewees or other activities pertaining to the research in which the author became involved. In general, this process worked well and enhanced the analysis of data collected via other means, as personal experience and visual memories acted as prompts, just as Tope *et al* (2005) described above. As with the interviews above, involvement here once again touches on positionality and is addressed towards the end of this chapter.

3.3.4 Documents

According to Bryman (2016, p560) ‘documents are windows onto social and organisational realities’ and were included as a supplementary source of data for this reason. Documents consisted of TVBC and HCC policy and planning documents; reports produced for TVBC by external consultants (eg: Experian,

2007); TVBC visitor information and tourist promotion publications; town and parish council publications; event promotion leaflets; event organiser evaluation reports (where they existed) and media reports. 'Virtual documents' (Bryman, 2016, p556) were also included, in the form of event websites and social media pages, and TVBC, town and parish council websites.

Rather than taking a structured approach to documentary analysis, such as content analysis (Bryman, 2016), which is quantitative in design, simple interpretation was deemed sufficient for this part of the data collection. The use of such documentary sources to provide additional contextual data is not uncommon in research of this kind (see, eg: Powe and Hart, 2009; De Magalhães, 2012; Vanwynsberghe *et al*, 2012; Powe *et al*, 2015). Taking this further, Waitt and Gibson's (2009) evaluation of a regeneration scheme in Wollongong, New South Wales drew primarily from policy documents and official reports.

The purpose served by documentary evidence in the current research was to develop an understanding of the narratives of place and space constructed by the relevant actors involved; to learn how they viewed the case study events and the locations in which they were placed, as well as the image they wanted to project to others – either intentionally or unintentionally – along with the reality. This evaluation supported the interpretation of the primary data collected by other means.

3.3.5 Triangulation

As already discussed in the section regarding case study methodology, the ability to triangulate the findings between the three cases was important to enable generalisation, or transferability (Baxter, 2010), of the results.

Triangulation is also seen as a means by which to strengthen research validity by incorporating multiple sources into the design (Robson and McCartan, 2016). The design for the current study allowed for both data and methodological triangulation (*ibid*) as follows:

- a) **Data triangulation:** At the individual case level, quantitative data from the visitor, trader/performer and local business surveys could be compared to strengthen the validity of the EIA, since it has been found in prior research that visitors have a tendency to over-estimate their spending while local businesses often underestimate their income

(Wood and Thomas, 2008). Qualitative data from all sources were also compared so that differing perspectives could be understood. At the case study level, comparisons could be made between the individual cases to facilitate generalisation to impacts of cultural events in British market towns.

- b) **Methodological triangulation:** qualitative and quantitative data from all sources were compared to determine similarities or discrepancies.

In addition to adding rigour to the research by means of triangulation, the inclusion of different groups of people (ie: event visitors; non-visitors; event traders; local businesses; and key stakeholders) in the research has addressed the weakness of other event impact studies. Richards and De Brito (2013), for example, have claimed that the views of event visitors are often observed without balancing them with the views of other stakeholders. This would produce a distorted analysis and, in the current study, would not have provided a comprehensive answer to RQ2, which is concerned with the wider socio-cultural impacts of events.

3.4 Data analysis

Although a mixed methods research design was implemented, analysis could not easily be separated by whether the data were qualitative or quantitative. Instead, the approach taken was to separate this by RQ, which resulted in two separate phases. The first, which addressed RQ1, was to conduct an EIA. The second addressed RQ2 and explored the less-easily quantifiable social and cultural impacts of the case study events. As will be seen, both phases involved a mix of quantitative and qualitative analysis. Further explanation of this now follows.

3.4.1 Phase one: Economic impact assessment (EIA)

Essentially, EIA is a means of determining the difference in economic activity (measured in terms of income or expenditure) brought about by a project or intervention (English Partnerships, 2008; Wainman *et al*, 2010; Young *et al*, 2010), which, in the case of the current study, was a cultural event. According to the literature, the primary reason for undertaking an EIA is to justify project expenditure (Lee and Taylor, 2005) or political position, which can lead to distorted results (Crompton, 2006), dependent on the underlying motive for

the EIA. Since a local authority had commissioned this research, the author remained mindful of this throughout in order to remain as impartial as possible and produce a robust EIA.

In order to construct a suitable approach to EIA in the current study, an initial comprehensive search of the relevant literature was undertaken. This enabled an understanding of the process to be developed, as well as how it had been undertaken in other, similar projects (ie; those involving cultural or sporting events of any size). This search revealed EIA to be a complex undertaking and the subject of much debate, which is mainly centred on the underlying assumptions that are necessary components and the way in which these are interpreted or understood. Consequently, a discussion of the main debates concerning EIA and events now follows, after which a full explanation of relevant terminology is presented, along with the systematic process developed for the current study after consideration of these issues.

1) EIA and events (cultural or sporting)

Much of the existing research relating to economic impacts of events focuses on large scale events (Robertson, 2006, pix), such as the Olympic Games (Young *et al*, 2010), Grand Prix motor racing (Burns *et al*, 1986; Dwyer *et al*, 2005) or the Football World Cup (Lee and Taylor, 2005). This is not particularly surprising as mega-events are seen as powerful tools to stimulate economic development (Jordan, 2006). The majority of such research is normally undertaken in the urban context, with little research being carried out in rural economies (Wood and Thomas, 2008). If not a local authority initiative, small-scale events, or 'micro' events, are often developed and managed by small organisations which may not have the means to undertake complex EIA analysis (Dickson and Milne, 2008, p254). Typically, the standard input-output (I-O) model would be applied, however, this model is fraught with inaccuracies at the micro level (for a full explanation of this and other common EIA models, see Appendix F). The implications for inaccurate EIA at this level are that public resources could potentially be directed towards an activity or project that may appear to be economically beneficial, when in fact it may prove the opposite (Wood and Thomas, 2008).

In addition to the above, since leisure provision is a non-statutory service at local authority level, there is a suggestion that subsidising events may only be considered by local authorities when there is available budget to support them

(Wood, 2005). Justification of such expenditure is vital at times of economic difficulty (Wood and Thomas, 2008). Accurate EIA, therefore, plays a pivotal role.

Wood and Thomas (2008) identified areas of potential leakage in their analysis of cultural events in rural economies and found that if there are insufficient accommodation providers or food and beverage provision, event visitors will travel outside the locality for these services and thus the additional spend potential is lost. Yu and Turco (2000) have observed that the biggest challenge for policymakers in these areas is the ability to plan for improvements in such infrastructure. Effective EIA may highlight such deficiencies.

The degree to which overall economic impact can be maximised is dependent upon a number of key factors: the nature of the event being studied; the extent to which the event is established; and the efficacy of event marketing and promotional activities (Wood and Thomas, 2008). Young *et al* (2010) develop this argument by suggesting there is a dependency between the type of event and how it is situated within the character of the host town. In other words, an event is likely to create a greater economic impact if it has synergy – or ‘fits’ – with its host location. This adds weight to Bradley and Hall’s (2006) view that a town’s public image can be enhanced by the media activity associated with a festival or event. Bradley and Hall (2006) additionally found that media coverage of festivals played a significant role in image construction, which in turn helps to market the town to external audiences. This ability to promote both the location and event to a wide audience effectively can impact upon the potential of events to attract larger audiences in the future (Gelan, 2003) and therefore increase the economic impact.

In their evaluation of regional economic development analysis, Partridge and Rickman (2008) have observed that numerous accepted EIA models are lacking in some way. Many models were originally created for use at national or international level, so the most apparent shortfall is that the process of scaling down to regional level has contributed to some inaccuracies being disproportionately magnified, such as levels of imports or exports. Some models are expensive and beyond the reach of many small-scale projects, yet as they are tailored to the local economy the results are reasonably accurate. Less expensive models result in less accurate evaluations. Incorporating all of

these considerations inevitably leads to compromise, so any rigorous EIA should include caveats explaining these.

As already noted, EIA models are based on a series of assumptions and estimates, yet policy decisions are frequently made on the basis of these calculations and may have far-reaching consequences. Since the project co-sponsor in the current research was a local authority, it was vital to develop a methodology that would produce as accurate an EIA as was feasible (Lee and Taylor, 2005), since it was likely that the final results would inform future policy and this might include decisions relating to the provision of grant funding to event organisers. The next section explains in more details the key concepts and terminology associated with EIA.

2) *EIA key concepts and terminology*

EIA is most easily explained by using the following equation:

$$\text{Economic impact} = (a) \text{ direct (gross) impact} - \left(\begin{matrix} (b) \\ \text{event costs} + \text{leakage} \\ + \text{displacement} \end{matrix} \right) + \left(\begin{matrix} (c) \\ \text{indirect} + \text{induced} \\ \text{impacts} \end{matrix} \right)$$

Figure 3.8: Equation for assessing economic impact

EIA outputs (a, b and c in Figure 3.8 above) are determined by calculating the overall additional expenditure, or additionality (Department for Business Innovation and Skills, 2009), that can be solely attributed to the event under analysis (a) minus overall costs, displacement and leakage (b). Finally, further expenditure occurring as a result of the initial expenditure is accounted for via (c). Each of the terms is explained in the following paragraphs.

Overall income: direct, indirect and induced benefits (impacts)

Thorough EIA accounts for the direct, indirect and induced impacts of an intervention. In the context of cultural events, direct economic impacts can be considered total expenditure incurred by event attendees as a result of that visit and are often referred to as ‘first round spending’. This might include ticket fees, accommodation, food and drink costs, shopping and transport.

Indirect economic impacts are calculated by multiplying the direct impacts by a specific factor – or multiplier – that is ideally tailored to the economy of the geographic area under analysis (further explanation of the multiplier can be

found on p101). The purpose of this element of the EIA is to estimate additional economic activity experienced by local businesses and services in the course of providing goods and services to the event visitor. This economic activity might include the employment of additional staff as well as the purchase of additional stock. Finally, the induced effects or impacts describe the assumed additional household consumption experienced by residents of the geographical area in which the EIA is being conducted. A multiplier is also applied to the direct impact figure to calculate this element.

Other income that should be accounted for in the overall EIA includes grants received, for example regional or national grants, as well as corporate sponsorship. It is important to be able to differentiate between grants that are genuine additional income to the local economy; ie: grants from outside the local economy, such as Arts Council or the National Lottery, and those given by the local authority. The first two can be seen as income, whilst the latter is considered a cost.

Costs

Event costs need to be deducted from the initial income to produce a net figure for direct impact. Costs refer to overall event costs to the local economy (local authority), not necessarily to the event organiser. This differentiation is important, as errors made at this stage will impact upon the final EIA, for example, grants might be either costs or income, as identified above.

Displacement

Displacement effects also need to be accounted for and a deduction needs to be made from the EIA calculation. Displacement is the term given to describe the extent to which the event under analysis led to a change in normal spending patterns, for example, local businesses may experience a drop in turnover prior to an event taking place as customers save in order to spend more at the event. Alternatively, a proportion of potential event visitors may be deterred from attending the event owing to perceptions of overcrowding or anti-social behaviour. An estimate needs to be determined for this, which is deducted from the total income. In the absence of any data to verify the level of likely displacement activity in the current study, the proportion of residents' survey respondents citing deliberate avoidance as their reason for not going to the case study events was used as a proxy.

Leakage

A figure needs to be included in the EIA calculation that accounts for economic activity flowing away from the local economy included in the analysis. This figure is referred to as leakage and includes savings, taxation and imports of both staff and goods (Tribe, 2005). It is probable in a small economy, for example, at local rather than regional level, that some employees will live outside the area, so any wages they receive are likely to leak out of the economy. Additionally, retailers, businesses and services are likely to import goods to enable their business to operate, which represents leakage out of the local economy. A sum therefore needs to be estimated to allow for this. Leakage is usually higher the smaller the area under evaluation, since more goods will generally need to be imported. Equally, the larger the project or area under evaluation, the less likelihood there is for leakage (Veal, 2010). This circular process of revenue and leakage is accounted for in regional multipliers that are used in many of the EIA models. The multiplier used in the current study accounted for this.

Multipliers

The effects of initial expenditure, which is the direct result of a project's implementation, can lead to additional spending and job creation. In turn, this may lead to further spending and job creation. This cyclical process is known as the multiplier effect (Tribe, 2005). Two types of multipliers are often used; Type I produces estimates for indirect impact and Type II multipliers estimate induced impacts (Wainman *et al*, 2010). Where these are not available separately, a composite multiplier may be used, which combines both.

Multipliers differ from region to region for a number of reasons, including the levels of consumption of imported or local goods and the size of the region (Armstrong and Taylor, 2005). Calculating location-specific multipliers with any accuracy is a time-consuming, costly and complex process (Riddington *et al*, 2006), so unless research already exists that produces them for a specific area, it is common practice for economic impact studies to use multipliers used in other, similar studies (Gratton *et al*, 2000). Such was the case in the studies produced by Janeczko *et al* (2002), Southern *et al* (2007) and Baker (2007). The weakness of this approach is that the resulting EIA may be inaccurate. The decision to adopt this approach must also consider the balance between cost and required outcomes.

At present, the ONS is required to produce multipliers at the national level only, so any analysis that makes use of these is likely to produce very rough estimates and would not be able to reflect regional economic differences. The most recent national multiplier was published in 2011 using data obtained in 2005 (ONS, 2011a). Statistics Scotland, on the other hand, has conducted detailed economic analysis and subsequently publishes multipliers that have been applied to EIAs in England, for example an evaluation of the Glastonbury Festival (Baker, 2007).

There is a warning in the literature about use of incorrect or misleading multipliers (Archer, 1984): Too generous and an overestimation of the likely economic impact will result. Too small and a project risks being cancelled or having funding withdrawn. Crompton (2006, p67) has cited ‘abuse of multipliers’ as a means of distorting EIAs, for example, using a national multiplier at regional or local level (Crompton *et al*, 2016). In earlier work examining misapplication of the multiplier in analyses relating to sporting events, Crompton (1995, p17) additionally argued:

‘The great danger in the multiplier, and the way it is presented in research reports aimed at the policy maker, is that its basic concept and application are deceptively simple. However, the data and analyses needed to accurately measure a multiplier are fairly complex.’

For these reasons, every effort was made to source a multiplier for the current research that was neither too generous nor too mean. Some of the existing research referred to earlier in this thesis has made use of computer modelling or proprietary software (eg: Crompton *et al*, 2001; Daniels and Norman, 2003; Hughes and Isengildina-Massa, 2015), however, neither of these were viable options for the current research. As already mentioned above, no local-level data were available from the ONS, so it was not feasible to devise a multiplier specific to the study area. It is a common practice in cases such as this to ‘borrow’ a multiplier from elsewhere (Gratton *et al*, 2000, p19). As a result, and similar to Baker (2007) and Southern *et al* (2007), an existing multiplier was sought that would be appropriate for the study. Southern *et al* (2007) obtained theirs from the British Arts Festival Association (BAFA), however, since it originated from US economic data (Long and Owen, 2006), rather than British, it was judged to be inappropriate for the present study. The multiplier of 1.25 used by Baker (2007) was felt to be more appropriate, since it was derived from a comparison of multipliers used in other UK festivals and was

founded in the Scottish Tourism Multiplier Study of 1992 (STMS). The latter study produced a comprehensive evaluation of tourism-related economic activity in Scotland (English Partnerships, 2008) but nothing similar exists for England. Use of multipliers developed in the STMS are still not perfect; for example, the Scottish economy is likely to contrast significantly to that of a borough in the south of England. Also, the study is now 25 years old and the Scottish Government (2009) has observed that the outputs from it might now not be as accurate. In spite of this, no comparable study has been undertaken since and so it remains the best option available (Hay, 2016).

Employment

EIA usually calculates additional employment created as a result of the project under evaluation as well as expenditure or income. This is usually expressed in terms of quantity of full time equivalent staff. In the case of a long-term or on-going project, use of this indicator is appropriate. Cultural or sporting events are usually short-term, sometimes taking place on only one day (for example a farmers' market) or extending to weeks, as in the case of the Olympic Games. The use of an employment indicator in cases such as these is potentially misleading as events do not always result in increased local employment; one example of this is where existing staff work overtime for the duration of the event (Crompton *et al*, 2001). For this reason, employment was not included in the current study.

Whose expenditure to include in EIA Analysis?

The purpose of EIA analysis is to evaluate additional economic activity brought about as the result of an intervention. This may seem to be a straightforward process on the surface, however, there are difficulties associated with cultural events. Aside from the use of a multiplier, the most contentious issue appears to be whether or not to include resident spend in the analysis (Crompton *et al*, 2001). This is followed by which type of visitor to include, since they can fall into a variety of categories (Young *et al*, 2010).

According to Dwyer *et al* (2005) only income originating outside the locality under examination is relevant to EIA analysis, as it represents additional revenue beyond that which is already circulating in the defined economy. This revenue can be tracked as it circulates around the economy through the EIA process and therefore provides an accurate account of economic impact. This

view is supported by Daniels *et al* (2004) who suggest that EIA is effective only if it accounts for the net effect of non-resident spending in the region above and beyond what would be expected if the event did not take place. Crompton *et al* (2001, p81) warn that the inclusion of resident spend would lead to 'recycling of money that already exists there', however, without knowledge of the residents' motivations, it is not possible to state with any certainty that the disposable income may have been spent elsewhere at that time, perhaps outside the region.

The opposing view, that resident spend should be included, is related to events that are created mainly for the benefit of residents, who might otherwise spend their disposable income in other areas, possibly outside the region under investigation (Tyrrell and Johnston, 2001). In this case, it is justified to include such spending in EIA analysis. It is equally justified to include resident spend at events not necessarily aimed solely at residents, if the resident was persuaded to remain in the area as a result of that festival or event (Gelan, 2003). This debate presents challenges for the analysis of cultural events at a local level as it is difficult to differentiate these factors at such a small scale with any precision. As the case studies were considered to be community-focused, it was decided to include resident spend. Measures were incorporated into the design to enable differentiation, should TVBC have wanted this, by obtaining postcode sector data from visitor survey respondents.

Another approach to the problem of whose expenditure to include or exclude is concerned with the motivations for being at the event. Young *et al* (2010) advise that the causal connection should be identified. To this end, they identify three types of visitors: (1) those who are there purely for the event; (2) those who happen to be in the location but not specifically for the event; and (3) those whose decision to visit the location was strengthened by the event taking place that day. Young *et al* conclude that type (1) visitors' spend should be included, type (2) visitors should be excluded and type (3) should be identified separately. This level of differentiation was felt to be unsuitable for the current study, as it would have created additional complications during the data collection and subsequent analysis. Instead, a simpler method was employed along the lines of Crompton *et al* (2001, p81), who proposed that expenditure by event attendees who could be described as 'casuals' should be excluded. This term refers to visitors who knew nothing about the event prior

to their attendance, so any expenditure made by them cannot be associated with the event. A question was, therefore, included in the visitor survey to establish the respondent's primary reason for being in the town on the day of the event. Only expenditure from respondents who cited attendance at the event as their main reason was included in the EIA.

A final important factor related to this particular problem is the origin of event traders; whether this is inside or outside the local economy. Any income non-local traders receive will constitute leakage out of the area (Tyrrell and Johnston, 2001), although the multiplier takes account of this. Any expenditure made by the traders within the host town during the event needs to be accounted for so that it can be included in the EIA.

Attendance estimates

Some idea of overall attendance is needed for EIA of events, since sample surveys undertaken to obtain estimates of expenditure need to be scaled up. At ticketed events, or those where some form of specific entry and exit point facilitates a head count, this is reasonably straightforward. If none of these is possible, then one alternative is to provide an estimated mean per person (MPP) spend, as in the study undertaken by Southern *et al* (2007).

The estimate of attendance for the current study posed a significant challenge, since in all three cases the events were unticketed and took place in and around the town centre, which meant that there were no specific entry or exit points, no barriers and no obvious flow to or from car parks. A search of the literature did not produce a method that would have been a realistic or workable option in any of the case studies. Crompton *et al*'s (2001) study, for example, involved an event taking place in an enclosed field, which had distinct entry and exit points, and it could be safely assumed that people entering the field were there to attend the event. Crompton *et al* estimated attendance by undertaking periodic gate counts (five minutes per hour), which were scaled up to represent each hour of the event. This was labour-intensive, as it required researchers to stand at the gates to undertake the counts. Other methods include the use of aerial photography to count people (eg: Raybould, 2000); barrier counts (eg: Davies *et al*, 2010), usually associated with sporting events; or the use of estimates provided by a third party, for example the local authority, police or organisers (eg: Wood, 2005; Gratton *et al*, 2006).

For the cases included in this research, the most plausible option initially appeared to be the last one above, however, neither the organisers, the local authority nor the police were able to provide any robust estimate.

Nevertheless, estimates that were provided by these sources were noted. The organisers' estimates were based on a combination of local knowledge, experience and data provided by the police. When questioned directly, however, the police were not able to provide the means by which they estimated attendance.

Owing to availability of different sources of data, the methods finally adopted for each case study varied. The location-specific ways this challenge was approached for CS1 and CS3 in order to calculate the economic impact are detailed Chapter Five, as it seemed more appropriate to locate the method alongside the respective result. These are considered the best estimates that could be achieved given the availability of sources.

The estimate for CS2 is believed to be the most accurate of the three as it is based on capture-recapture methodology, which is used widely in wildlife management to determine overall populations when it is difficult to undertake a specific count (O'Brien *et al*, 2005). This method involves marking a sample of a population in some way, then re-sampling a random selection to determine the proportion containing the mark (Pollock, 2000). The probability of being marked is then determined. The estimate of the overall population (\hat{N}) can be calculated by multiplying the inverse of the probability of being marked (p) by the total number of the observed population (f) (Kendall and Stuart, 1991). This is explained by equation 3.1 below, where \hat{N} is the estimate of attendance, \hat{p}^{-1} is the inverse of the probability of being captured and f_1 is the observed sample:

$$\hat{N} = \hat{p}^{-1}f_1 \quad (3.1)$$

In the event-specific literature, only one example of this type of method was found. Brothers and Brantley (1993) estimated attendance at an open-gate music festival in the following way: Pin badges were handed out randomly (the mark) as festival-goers entered the site and 90 minutes later, researchers counted people with and without badges at a number of locations around the site for a five-minute period. This count produced 18 marked people but 1,808 unmarked, which resulted in a wide confidence interval. Brothers and

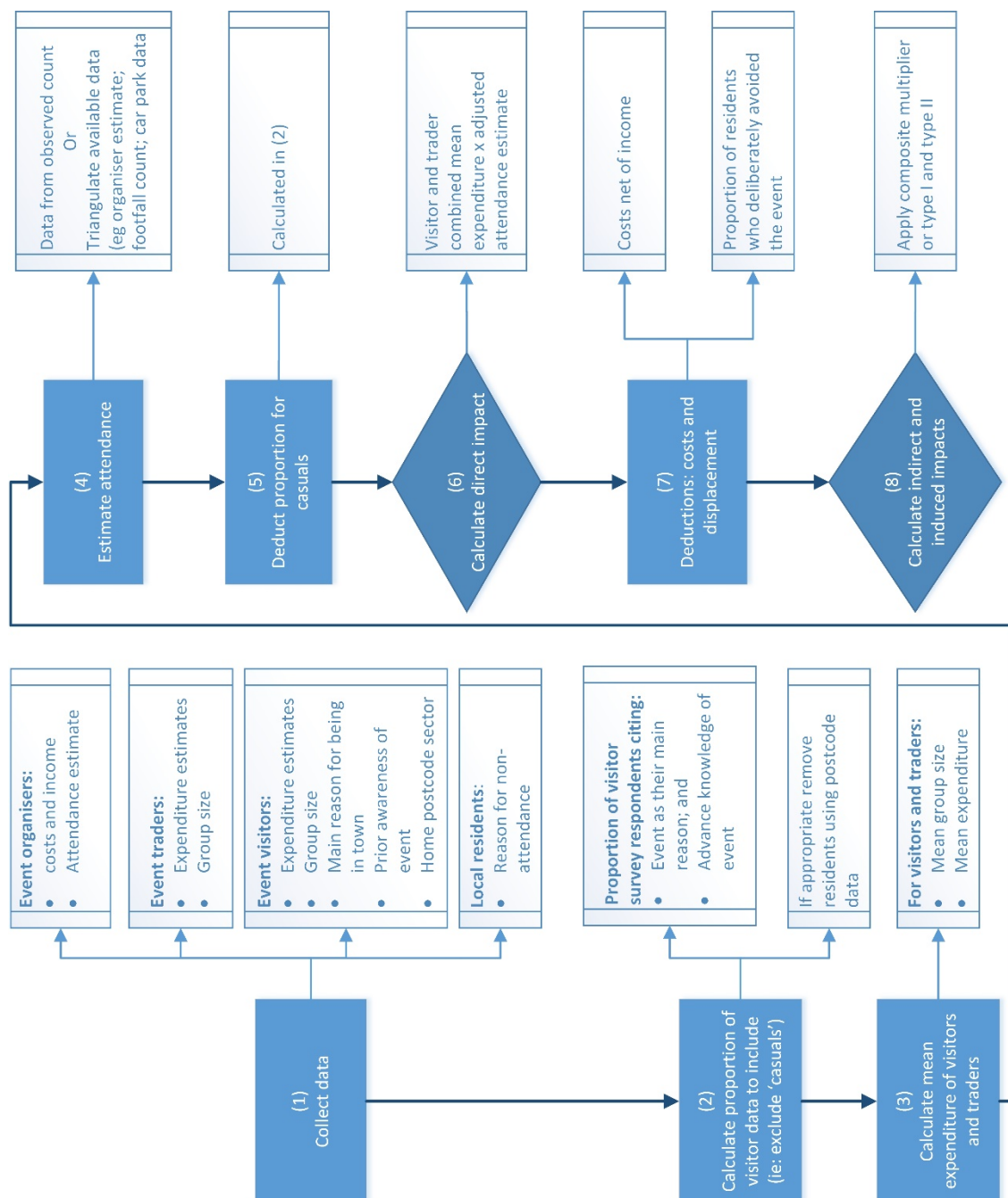
Brantley remarked that whilst not satisfactory, it laid the foundations for improvement.

For CS2, two temporary car parks were used as the 'mark.' Researchers were located at the entrances to both car parks provided by the organisers especially for the festival and counted every car as it entered the car park, along with the number of passengers. The visitor survey included a question to establish whether the respondent had come by car and if yes, where they had parked. The number of respondents who had used either of the two car parks acted as the re-captured sample. The actual counts and calculations are included in Chapter Five. This method improves upon the Brothers and Brantley (1993) example above, as, unlike their method, the capture and re-capture components were not limited to a specific time-period but were measured for the duration of the event, maximising the opportunity for attendees to be re-captured and improving on the reliability of the resulting estimate. This technique could easily be adapted to suit other cultural events, provided that a suitable mechanism for the capture and recapture elements can be determined.

The issues raised here illustrate some of the challenges faced during the design phase of the current study: particularly, how to develop a tool for estimating the overall economic impact of small-scale cultural events given the spatial scale of each case study location (ie; market town not region) and the duration of each event (one day, not several), when necessary data was not already available at the required scale. As resources were not available to utilise one of the pre-existing computer models, a methodology based on other published event-specific research was developed and is now explained.

3) A systematic process for calculated EIA at small-scale cultural events

In the case of the current study, there were clearly compromises to be made between what was realistically feasible, given the resource constraints (time, money, researchers), the availability of data and the need for a rigorous EIA, thus fulfilling the requirements of TVBC. Consequently, the systematic process illustrated at Figure 3.9 overleaf was developed and a step-by-step explanation follows.



1. Collect data:

- Costs and income (eg; from grants or sponsorship) from the organisers, along with their attendance estimate.
- Expenditure estimates from attendees and traders/performers, separating event and town spend.
- Group size of attendees and traders/performers. This is needed to calculate mean spend per person in step 3 below.
- Determine the attendees' main reason for being in the town and whether they were aware of the event prior to their visit.

- e. Establish non-attendance by residents.
2. **Calculate proportion of valid expenditure estimates:**
 - a. Use (d) above to calculate the proportion of casuals (and, if relevant, residents).
 - b. Weight this proportion against all traders/performers, as it is reasonable to assume that the latter were only in the town owing to the event's occurrence.
 - c. This results in the overall proportion of attendees to include in the analysis.
3. **Calculate mean spend:** on all expenditure categories for the proportion calculated in stage 2 above. As group size was obtained in stage 1, mean spend per person for event attendees and traders/performers can be calculated.
4. **Calculate estimate of attendance:** As explained above, this may need to be conducted in different ways, dependent upon availability of data sources. Triangulate where possible with multiple sources.
5. **Deduct non-relevant proportion:** Apply the figure calculated in stage 2 to the estimate of attendance to ensure only relevant expenditure is included.
6. **Determine gross/direct economic impact:** Multiply the stage 5 output (revised attendance estimate) by stage 3 (mean per person spend).
7. **Deduct net costs and displacement:** Costs and income provided by event organisers at stage 1 above. For displacement, the proportion of residents who cited deliberate avoidance as their reasons for not going to the particular event was used as a proxy in the absence of other data (also collected at stage 1).
8. **Calculation of indirect and induced impact:** Apply the appropriate multiplier to the output of stage 7, which in this case was 1.25, as explained on p102.

4) Other quantitative data analysis and the qualitative component

Analysis to determine the distances travelled by event visitors was undertaken using ArcGIS. Although the majority of event visitors were residents of TVBC, the maps that were produced illustrated clearly that some, albeit very few, could be considered as being on holiday. This analysis provided TVBC with a clear indication of the events' value in terms of visitor attraction and contribution to place promotion.

Although predominantly quantitative, opinions that were obtained from local businesses located within the three market towns, were included here to illustrate how they perceived the events impacted on them. These took the form of comments included in the relevant questionnaire surveys, which were imported into NVivo for thematic coding. The way in which this was undertaken was the same for all qualitative data, so to avoid lengthy explanation here, it is explained further in the next section.

3.4.2 Phase two: analysis to determine the social and cultural impacts

The second phase comprised quantitative and qualitative elements in order to answer RQ2. The quantitative data involved predominantly descriptive statistics, explained further below. This is followed by description of the process for analysing the qualitative component.

Demographic profiling data, such as age, gender, occupation and highest level of education, collected via the survey instruments were used to illustrate the characteristics of respondents referred to while answering RQ2. These descriptive statistics were analysed using SPSS (the precise questions can be found at Appendices A-D). Further analysis of these data could be undertaken by TVBC to enable their understanding of the types of visitor attracted to different events (ie; music events or food events). Since TVBC expressed an intention to develop Andover's cultural events programme, this information should be of use.

The qualitative data were interpreted using thematic coding, which is a commonly recognised approach for this type of research (Bryman, 2016) and was felt to be the most expedient means of interpreting the data in this study. The actual process suggested by Robson and McCartan (2016, p469) was followed, identified in Table 3.5 overleaf and subsequently explained in more detail. This particular approach was taken as, according to the aforementioned authors, it offers a relatively simple means of interpreting and presenting large amounts of qualitative data, as well as being well suited to flexible designs.

Table 3.5: Phases of thematic coding analysis (adapted from Robson and McCartan, 2016, p469)

Phase	Action
1. Data familiarisation	Data transcription, reading and re-reading
2. Generation of initial codes	Inductive interaction with the data. Similar data given similar codes.
3. Identification of themes	Grouping of complementary codes into potential themes.
4. Construction of thematic networks	Development of a thematic 'map'
5. Integration and interpretation	Exploration, summarising and interpretation of the patterns and themes.

1) Data familiarisation

Qualitative data were processed in different ways, dependent upon the way in which they were collected. The intention for the survey data was for it to be autocoded in NVivo to facilitate thematic coding and since some of the survey data were collected manually (ie: handwritten) and some electronically (via iPads), this led to two processing methods. First, the manually recorded data were entered into separate Excel spreadsheets for each survey. Second, the surveys collected on iPads via doForms, were downloaded as csv files and imported into Excel to be merged with the corresponding Excel file, where appropriate (for example, a mixture of iPads and manual surveys were used for CS2 owing to availability of iPads). This process included conversion of the verbally recorded responses into mp3 files, which were subsequently transcribed in the same way as the interviews. This process is now discussed.

All recorded key informant interviews and the mp3 files mentioned above were transcribed verbatim personally by the author so that inflections, hesitations and other vocal signals could be observed and noted (Bryman, 2016). The Sonocent Audio Notetaker software program was used for this, as its functionality allows for the removal of most extraneous noise, to slow down speech and to stop or repeat sections easily. Issues encountered with the quality of some of the recordings have already been discussed, which led to a search for more sophisticated speech enhancement software (Audacity). All interview transcripts were exported as Word files and then subsequently imported into Nvivo, along with transcripts of unrecorded interviews (eg interviewee K). The transcripts for the qualitative survey data were pasted into

the relevant Excel spreadsheet to facilitate the autocoding process, which is explained below.

2) Generation of initial codes

Autocoding in NVivo works by grouping responses to a specific enquiry (eg: all responses to a survey question) together, as long as the initial document is structured correctly prior to import, hence the Excel spreadsheets mentioned above. Owing to the volume of survey data, this was considered to be an efficient means of organising the data for subsequent thematic coding. NVivo was initially used for phase two in terms of the autocoding. An attempt at using the software for completion of this phase was not satisfactory, so as a result, and to make more sense of the data, the autocoded responses were printed out and coded manually, using highlighters and a system created by the researcher for this exercise. An example of this can be seen in Figure 3.10 below for CS1 visitor survey respondents. This process was repeated for each set of responses. Although time-consuming, this process was felt to be more manageable.

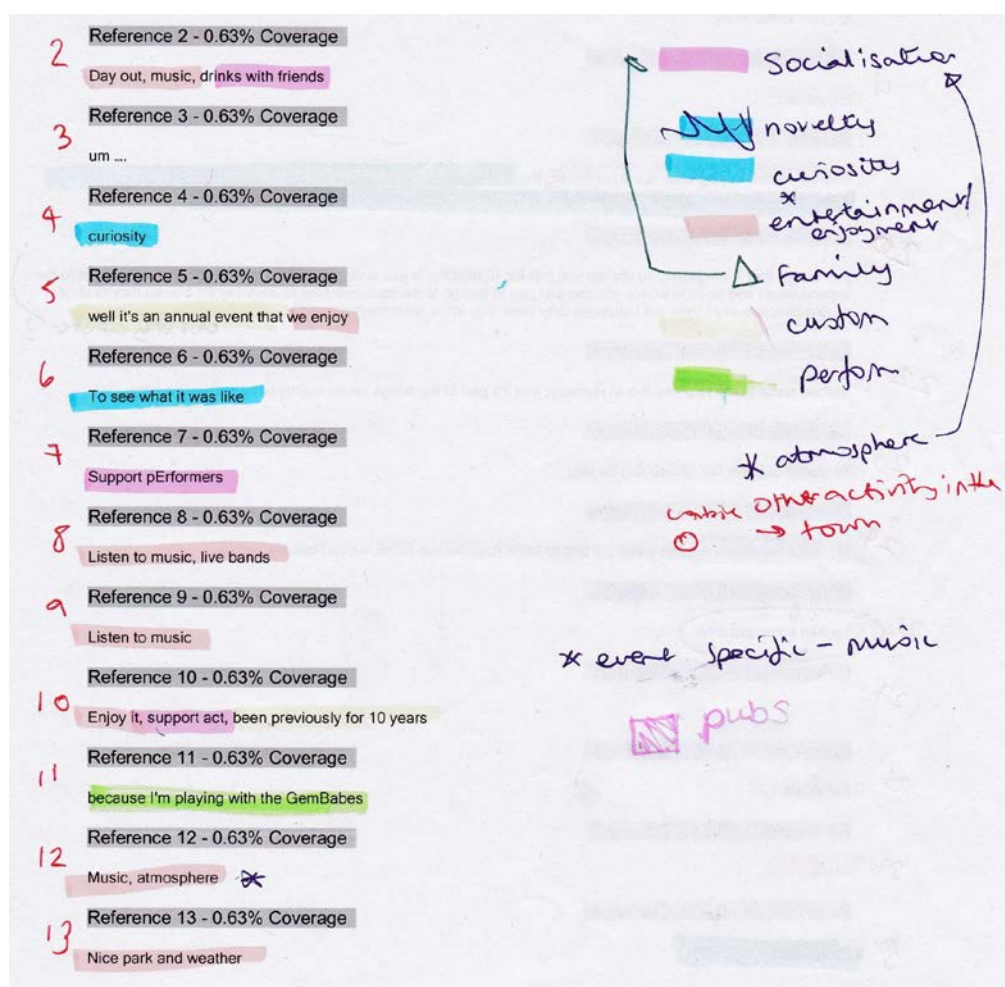


Figure 3.10: Example of initial round of coding

3) Identification of themes

Once phase two was completed for each set of responses, they were grouped into broad themes. The autocoding process mentioned above facilitated this part of the process, as the responses were already broadly grouped, for example, by likes and dislikes for all respondent groups. A notebook was used here to tally the initial codes and re-group them into similar areas. An example of this is shown at Figure 3.11 and the way in which these were all grouped for the final analysis are shown in more detail in Chapter Six.

refs	BF	multiple responses counted separately like ↑	
HHH 1/11	why come / what do		
(11)	HHH HHH 1		Socialisation
6	HHH 1		curiosity
(26)	HHH HHH HHH HHH HHH 1		entertainment* enjoyment
3	HHH		family
4	HHH		custom / habit
1	1		perform
5	HHH		other activities in town
7	HHH 11		even pubs / drink beer
2	11		atmosphere
3	HHH		family relaxation
	* even specific = listen to music		
	entertainment / enjoyment	26	
	Socialisation	11	
	go to pubs / drink beer	7	
	curiosity	6	
	other activities in the town	5	
	custom / habit	4	
	relaxation	3	
	family	3	
	atmosphere	2	
	perform	1	

Figure 3.11: Example of phase three of the coding process

4) Construction of thematic networks

At this point, a return to the literature was needed to aid with understand more about what the data were revealing and to help construct a thematic network. Of most use were Crompton (2004); Deery and Jago (2010); Pine and Gilmore

(2011); and Kim and Walker (2012) for their respective discussions of the psychic income model; the effects of anti-social behaviour on reputation; the experience economy; and extension to the psychic income model. Re-reading this literature helped to construct an outline model, which initially referred to people, place and policy and their roles in experiential value creation.

5) Integration and interpretation

Four key influences eventually emerged from the qualitative data, following the integration and interpretation process. This involved further review of the initial codes, the way in which they were grouped into broader themes and how they were developed into final themes. The final incarnation of the thematic analysis features in the discussion chapter.

3.5 Reflections on positionality and influence

Reflexivity and positionality are discussed widely in ethnographic or feminist research (Hay, 2010; Reeves, 2010). Although the current research design did not adopt either of these paradigms explicitly, it becomes clear in Part Three of this thesis that both the influence exerted by TVBC as project co-sponsors, along with my previous local authority employment were significant factors in shaping the direction of this research. Such influences are discussed in this section, which is presented in the first person and out of character with the rest of this thesis. The reason for this is that in order to present a critically reflexive piece, which is concerned with positionality and how I became an integral part of the research, subjectivity – and therefore acceptance that the first person should be adopted – is an essential component (Hay, 2010).

Before I embarked on this PhD, I spent around 10 years working for local authorities, namely Winchester City Council as their Events Officer; Hampshire County Council as a Tourism Officer; and Romsey Town Council as their Tourism Officer. This knowledge of local authorities undoubtedly contributed to my selection for this PhD candidature, since my past experiences and encounters with TVBC and Romsey Town Council officers, as well as councillors, provided me with a familiarity and credibility (Reeves, 2010) that many others in my position as a PhD candidate were unlikely to have. This familiarity enabled me to gain access and be seen as an insider at times, particularly while I was working on CS1, which took place in Romsey. Negotiating access to various people and places in this setting was largely

straightforward and I felt that many of the interviewees were more open with their comments than they might otherwise have been, were I perceived to be an outsider. It was a different matter when I attempted to engage with the local business community. Despite being as transparent as I could about the aims of the research and funding partners, the majority of the local businesses I approached were very guarded and reluctant to participate. I brought this up with both the TCM and a TVBC officer, neither of whom were surprised and suggested this might have been because I was seen as a representative of 'the council' and businesses might have misconstrued my interest. Here, at least, any insider advantage played against me rather unexpectedly.

The most surprising encounter I experienced was when I attempted on numerous occasions to arrange a face-to-face interview with the organiser of the farmers' market in Andover (CS3). As this person was a TVBC officer, and therefore a representative of the organisation that was co-funding the research, I did not anticipate any problems. This turned out to be a mistake and I did not succeed. I had to settle for an email exchange, which did not produce anywhere near the same level of rich data as the verbal interviews. This person proved very difficult to obtain any information or support from and, suddenly I became an outsider. This person also acted as a gatekeeper for the market stallholders and when I wanted to give them advance notice of my intention to undertake a questionnaire survey with them, I was not permitted to have a list of stallholders, nor would the TVBC officer send any information out on my behalf. This was in complete contrast to CS1 and CS2, for which the organisers were happy to help. For CS2, this was in return for a post-event report, which I produced in agreement with TVBC.

This insider/outsider conflict and its effect on research and the researcher is well-argued in the literature, for example from the perspective of race (Mohammed, 2001; O'Connor, 2004), ethnicity (Chavez, 2008) or religion (Ferber, 2006). Ferber's (2006) stance suggests that these roles are self-defined: that the outsider maintains objectivity in relation to the research but the insider can adopt either a subjective or objective position. My experiences discussed above indicate that although a researcher may consider themselves as either an insider or outsider, these roles are actually assigned by the groups in which the researcher becomes immersed. Taking this further, Chavez (2008) argues that this is not a linear process; that one does not simply switch from being an outsider to an insider. Time is a factor that needs to be

accounted for, resulting in different levels of 'insiderness' and 'outsiderness' as time moves on. Whilst I am in agreement with this, I would add that place context is also a factor: for me, in one place with a specific group of people I was perceived to be an insider, while in another, I was seen as an outsider,

From the above discussion, it is apparent that I had multiple relationships with TVBC. Although referred to throughout this thesis as a single inanimate entity, largely to facilitate the explanatory process, TVBC was in reality constructed from the people who represented it. My relationships were with some of these people. The encounter cited above was a secondary relationship, not unlike the meetings I had with other event organisers. The primary association was with the two officers who exerted the main influence over the direction taken by the research, as co-sponsors and to whom I reported progress at regular intervals. As their requirements were specific from the beginning, namely that I undertook research on an event taking place in each of the borough's three main urban settlements, to establish the economic impact of these events, I had very little flexibility with the design of the research. I knew the case study locations, the only choice to make was the selection of cultural events to study. I had been presented with a list of annual events from which to make a selection at the start of the project, however, from my experience obtained via previous employment, I was able to make a judgement that the available choice for Andover was not going to meet the parameters of the brief TVBC had already provided, as it included only community events (for example the annual carnival parade). This initially led to a discussion about whether it would be possible to exclude Andover from the study but TVBC made it clear that there were underlying political reasons for its inclusion. The clear narrative that emerged as the research progressed is discussed in Part Three.

The choices for the other two settlements (Romsey and Stockbridge) were less problematic. Romsey offered a selection of possibilities, from which a summer event was chosen as it seemed to fit in well with the research schedule. Although Stockbridge only offered one event that fitted the parameters, it was an ideal choice.

Whilst in some respects these choices were restricting in that they were all one-day events, unlike much of what has emerged from the literature, this research has served to provide evidence of a particularly neglected area. The challenges encountered were largely centred on time limitations: much of the existing study in this field focuses on events that extend over at least a weekend to

perhaps two weeks, thus providing multiple opportunities to collect data from event attendees, traders and performers. In turn, any impact on the locality extends accordingly. For one-day events, there is a much more limited opportunity for data collection and it is also much more difficult to identify or report changes to normal economic activity. A considerable amount of time and resources are still needed to undertake robust EIA, regardless of these differences. These issues are significant and are, consequently revisited in Chapter Seven.

3.6 Ethical considerations

This research conformed to the University of Southampton's Research Ethics Policy. Approval was obtained via the university's ERGO system for the fieldwork under ethics number 4361 (see Appendix G). Participants were informed of the study's purpose and its connection with TVBC. They were also assured of confidentiality and were able to withdraw at any time.

3.7 Limitations

The various data collection methods for each case created a large volume of work, particularly since the design was replicated for all three cases, of which Yin (2014) warned when discussing the advantages and disadvantages of a robust case study design. Attempts were made to ensure consistency across the three cases, however, the quantity of responses varied depending upon the level of assistance that could be obtained from other researchers.

As suggested previously, one of the problems associated with EIA is the level of inaccuracy associated with the outputs of the models. Over-estimations resulting from such inaccuracy have been used in the past in order to secure project capital or to justify one project's implementation over that of another (Crompton *et al*, 2001). Sometimes the model used has been chosen on the basis of the desired outcome rather than its ability to predict economic impact accurately (Loveridge, 2004). These issues were of concern in the current study and attempts were made to refine the methods used in other event-specific EIA analyses. Nevertheless, compromises had to be made and the resulting EIAs for each case are accompanied by appropriate caveats.

As with all EIAs, much of the data used in the calculation are estimates with varying levels of accuracy. This study is no exception but is the best

compromise that could be made. As with other EIAs, decisions needed to be taken with regard to the best use of the resources available. For example, an attendance counting mechanism could have been implemented in CS1 and CS3 in order to calculate an estimate, however, this would have compromised the number of responses to the visitor survey. It was felt preferable to maximise these responses in order to obtain a reasonable quantity of data that would help to ensure the EIA calculations were as robust as possible. This illustrates clearly how challenging the implementation of EIAs at the local level can be without adequate resources; whether in terms of time, finance or researchers.

3.8 Chapter summary and methodological contributions

This chapter has explained in detail the methodology and research design employed in this study, to facilitate interpretation of the empirical results presented in Part Two. The mixed methods design necessitated a significant amount of data collection and analysis, all of which were resource consuming and sometimes difficult to obtain. In this study, however, quantitative data alone would not have produced sufficient depth to be able to produce a detailed EIA; the headline figures provided in Chapter Five do not reveal, for example, respondents' attitudes, reasons for expenditure or reasons for not attending. Equally, qualitative data alone would not have revealed the amount of expenditure made by the respondents, meaning that a robust EIA, according to the methods found in the literature, would not have been possible. As discussed later in this thesis, these are all significant factors in being able to understand economic impact fully.

The decision to take the multiple-case study approach (Yin, 2014) allowed for an in-depth study to be undertaken in each of three locations. Although, initially, the design was intended to be replicated in each of the three places, small adjustments had to be made to account for local differences, for example, Andover did not host an annual event in the same way that Romsey and Stockbridge did. Instead, a monthly event became the subject of study, which meant that it differed from the other two events in certain respects; for example, visitors to the annual events clearly looked forward to them, however, a monthly event appeared to be less of a draw and something more mundane.

3.8.1 Methodological contributions

Prior to conducting this research, the literature search revealed that there was very little existing work exploring the impacts of cultural events in the UK town centre setting. Most economic impact research relates to larger-scale events, particularly music festivals, eg; Glastonbury, or sporting events, eg; International Golf Championships, motor racing Grand Prix or the Olympic Games. The literature review in Chapter Two identified differences between these so-called 'mega-events' and the type of event which is the focus of the current research; that is, small-scale events. Such studies have informed this research in order that a methodology for calculating the economic impact of small-scale cultural events could be developed, while at the same time developing an understanding of broader socio-cultural impacts. The current study, therefore, makes the following major contributions:

1. Development and implementation of a systematic process for calculating economic impact of small-scale events, which does not necessitate the use of proprietary software or regional economic data. Critics might argue that it is, as a result, less accurate, however, it is a worthwhile compromise given the resources usually available to small-scale event organisers or local-level decision-makers.
2. Proposal of a way to estimate attendance, founded on capture-recapture methodology, and based on car park usage on the day of the event. Estimating attendance is a vital component of the overall EIA, yet it is a considerable challenge at open-air events where no other means estimation is available (eg: ticket sales). The method that was developed and implemented in CS2 is easily transferable to other open-air events, particularly where a dedicated temporary car park has been provided, such as a farmer's field, as it can be assumed that the only reason a car has entered is to attend the event.

Part Two of this thesis, which now follows, initially presents the contextual background of the broad study area, followed by an overview of the individual case study events. The formula for presentation is broadly replicated to ensure consistency is maintained.

PART TWO

Chapter 4: Case Study Context

Chapter Three outlined the justification for the three case studies included in the research but did not enter into any great detail regarding either the event itself or the host town, yet an understanding of this context is needed in order to appreciate the impacts fully. The aim of this chapter is, firstly, to provide insight into the geographic, economic and social conditions of the overall borough of Test Valley and the towns in which the case studies are located. This knowledge helps to situate the results and analysis in their appropriate contexts. Knowledge of the geographic location of the overall study area, along with existing economic, social and cultural factors within the host towns enhances understanding of the impacts these events may have, for example, an event which creates modest economic activity in an already prosperous town would have less of a noticeable impact than the same event in a less affluent area. To illustrate these characteristics, metrics often used to demonstrate socio-economic status have been extracted from the three most recent Censuses published by the ONS for the host towns, Test Valley and England. These data are supported by secondary analysis of TVBC and Hampshire County Council (HCC) reports, as well as the results of interviews with TVBC officers.

The second section describes the three case studies; from the reasons behind their creation, to details of how they are organised and managed. Chapter Two has already identified how events can take time before they can be considered to be successful: Connell and Gibson (2011) offer a case in point with their longitudinal analysis of the Parkes Elvis Festival in rural Australia. Thus, the length of time an event has been in operation is an important consideration in terms of its appeal, audience and potential to generate economic impact. Equally important is the knowledge of any existing issues associated with the event; whether these are negative or positive, for these can also impact on reputation (Deery and Jago, 2010). Much of the content of this part has been derived from key informant interviews and media reports. Finally, this chapter summarises the similarities and differences between the events and the towns that host them.

4.1 Test Valley's geographic, economic and social characteristics

Test Valley is a borough of 243 square miles on the western edge of Hampshire and covers around 17% of the county's area (see Figure 4.1 below). In descending order Andover, Romsey and Stockbridge are the three main urban centres in terms of resident population (see Figure 4.2, below), with just over a third of the borough's 116,398 residents living in Andover (32.9%), 15.5% in Romsey and 0.51% in Stockbridge (ONS, 2011b, c, d, e). Another 36.5% live in a rural area as determined by the ONS' most recent rural-urban classification (DEFRA and ONS, 2014).

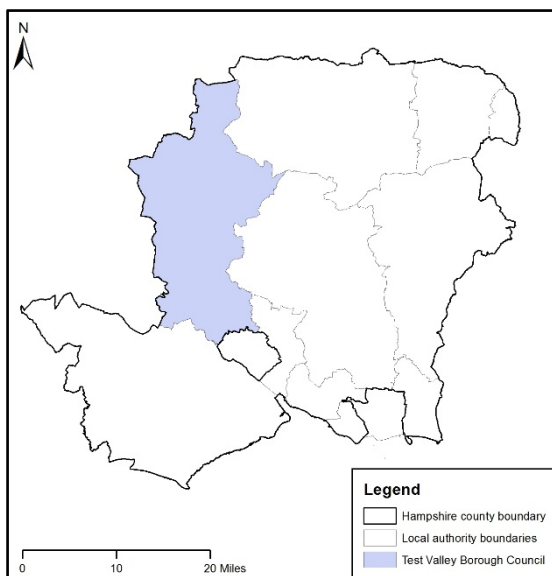


Figure 4.1: Outline map of Hampshire showing TVBC location
(Ordnance Survey map data © Crown Copyright/database right 2015. An Ordnance Survey/EDINA supplied service)



Table 4.1: Major employers in the TVBC area (Hampshire County Council, 2013)

Organisation	No of Employees	Town	Nature of Business
Newsquest	2,700	Southampton ¹	Newspaper production/printing
Ordnance Survey	1,100	Southampton ¹	Surveying/topological mapping
Co-op Distribution	1,000	Andover	Food distribution
Vitacress Salads Ltd	1,000	Andover	Watercress, salads, vegetable growing
Tesco Distribution	900	Southampton ¹	Food distribution
Simplyhealth Group	500-1,000	Andover	Healthcare plan and insurance
Stannah Stairlifts Ltd	500-1,000	Andover	Lift/stairlift manufacturer
R Twining & Co Ltd	500-1,000	Andover	Tea and coffee blenders
Test Valley Borough Council	560	Andover	Local authority
Roke Manor Research Limited	200-500	Romsey	Contract engineering/R&D

¹ These businesses are located within the TVBC boundary although the location is reported as Southampton

Further exploration of the borough's economic structure reveals an uneven picture: the economy of the southern part, including Romsey, is based on high-value, knowledge-based organisations like the University of Southampton's Science Park, Roke Manor Research and Ordnance Survey (Experian, 2007). In contrast, the northern part, which includes Andover, has a much lower-value economic base and is more reliant on low-medium value manufacturing (eg: Stannah Stairlifts Ltd), although the British Army has recently relocated its headquarters to this part of the borough (Test Valley Borough Council, 2014). TVBC is aware of increased economic vulnerability in this northern part and has recently engaged in a public-private initiative to regenerate one of Andover's business parks (Test Valley Borough Council, 2014) in an attempt to attract inward investment.

One recognised measure of economic disparity is the Index of Multiple Deprivation (IMD) published by the UK's Department for Communities and Local Government (DCLG). This index provides a relative measure of deprivation and is calculated for each lower layer super output area (LSOA) in England and Wales (DCLG, 2010). LSOA boundaries are small areas which comprise between 1,000–3,000 people (ONS, n.d.). Thirty-eight separate criteria are assessed to determine levels of deprivation and these are grouped

into the following seven domains: income; employment; health and disability; education, skills and training; barriers to housing and other services; crime; and living environment. For further detail on the individual criteria and the weighting system used to calculate the combined index, see DCLG (2010). As a relative measure, the IMD illustrates differences between those LSOAs that are more or less deprived but it is not a discrete indicator of deprivation or poverty. Presenting the IMD by LSOA for TVBC in map format (Figure 4.3 overleaf) serves to illustrate the differences in levels of deprivation experienced by the borough's residents. To set the context for Test Valley, nationally the mean IMD score is 21.67, whereas for Test Valley it is 10.50, ranging from 0.9 to 35.198. The borough's five most deprived LSOAs are in Andover, one of which falls into the top 20% most deprived areas of the country. In contrast, one of Romsey's LSOAs is amongst the top ten least deprived in the country. This is clearly illustrated in Figure 4.3 and becomes an important factor to consider when analysing the evidence collected during fieldwork and answering the research questions, because the pre-existing economic conditions may alter the way in which residents perceive the impacts of their local events.

In addition to the economic disparity discussed above, analysis of ONS Census data helps to illustrate the characteristics of the borough's resident population, highlighting any differences that may exist within the borough's towns. In turn, this helps to broaden understanding of the nature of the borough and the three towns included in the research. 1991, 2001 and 2011 Census data have been included in this analysis. In some cases, the way in which 1991 data were reported differed from 2001 and 2011, so in these instances, 1991 data have been excluded. Analysis of age as well as some indicators commonly associated with socio-economic status (education; economic activity (a term used by the ONS to categorise those in work or out of work); occupation; and home ownership) has been undertaken for the overall borough, each of the towns and England, as this provides the national context.

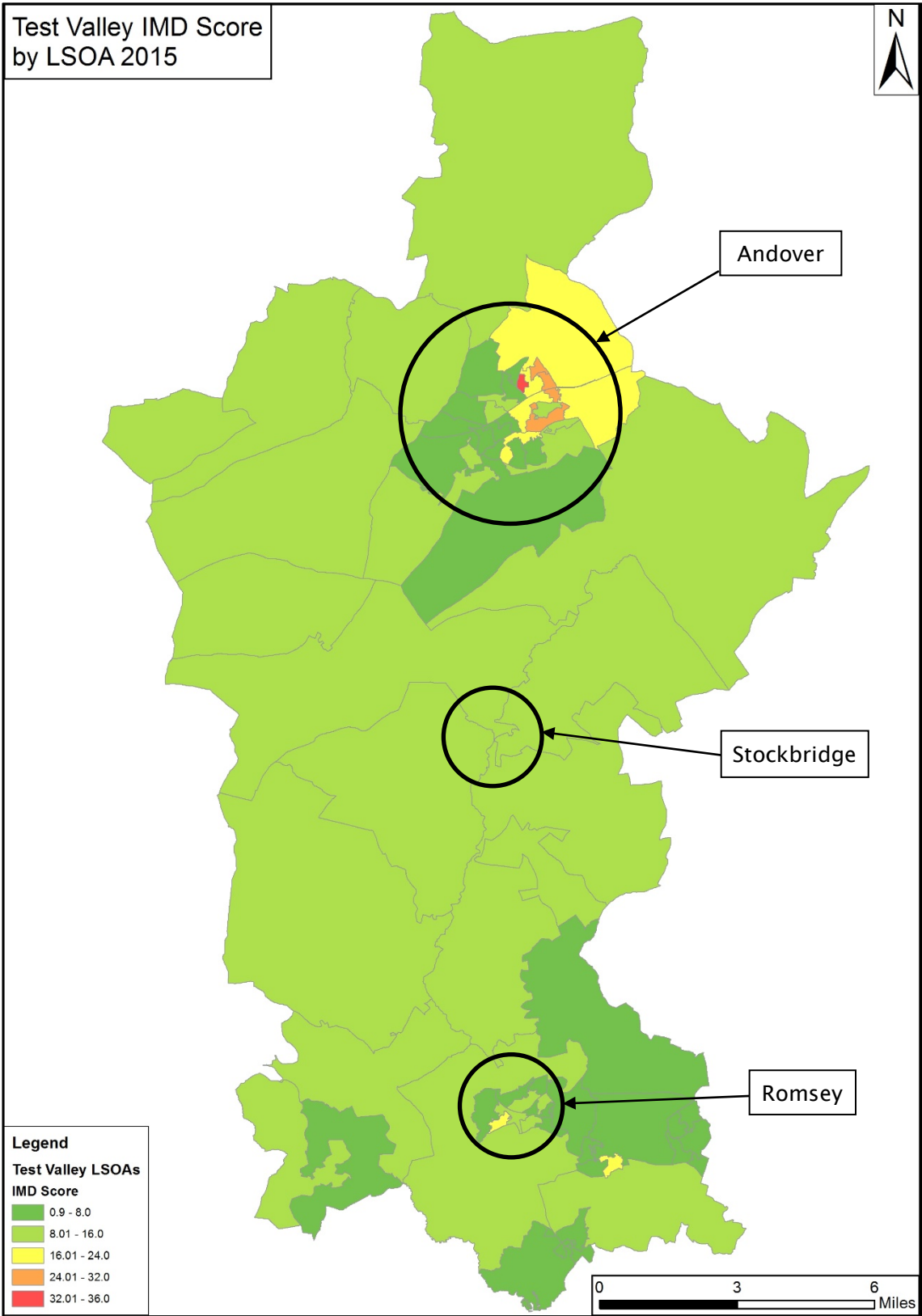


Figure 4.3: Map showing IMD score for LSOAs in TVBC
(Ordnance Survey map data © Crown Copyright/database right 2015. An Ordnance Survey/EDINA supplied service with data from DCLG (2015))

Overall, Test Valley’s population is ageing: The median age was 39 in 2001 but by the time of the 2011 Census, it had increased to 43, compared with 37 and 39 respectively for England (ONS, 2001 & 2011). Between the 1991 and

2011 Censuses, the proportion of residents over the age of 65 grew from 13.9% to 18.4% (see Figures 4.4, 4.5 and 4.6), which was higher than the average for England (16.3% in 2011). At town level, Stockbridge had the highest proportion of over 65s, at 31.9%, while Andover had the lowest, at 15.6%. In contrast, Andover's population was the youngest in the borough, with 42.1% under the age of 34 reported at the last Census in 2011. Romsey's age structure was between Andover and Stockbridge, with 22.7% over the age of 65 and 33.9% under 34.

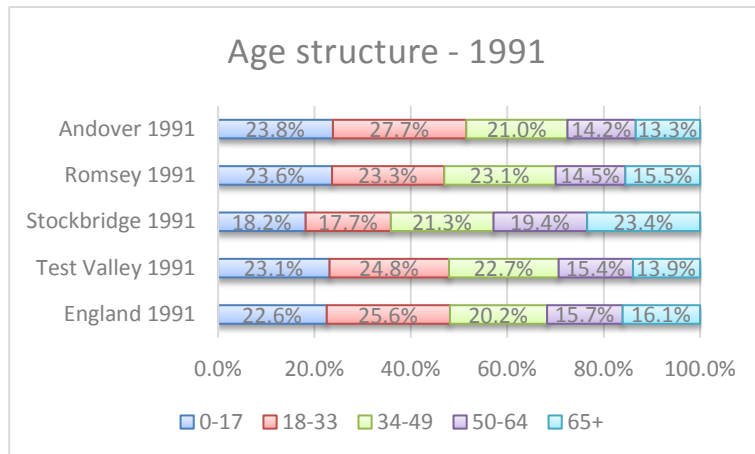


Figure 4.4: Test Valley age structure 1991 (Census Customer Services, 2015)

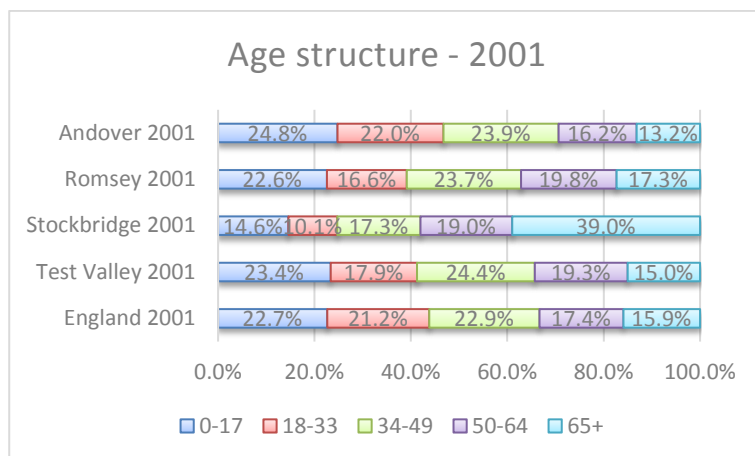


Figure 4.5: Test Valley age structure 2001 (ONS, 2001a, b, c, d)

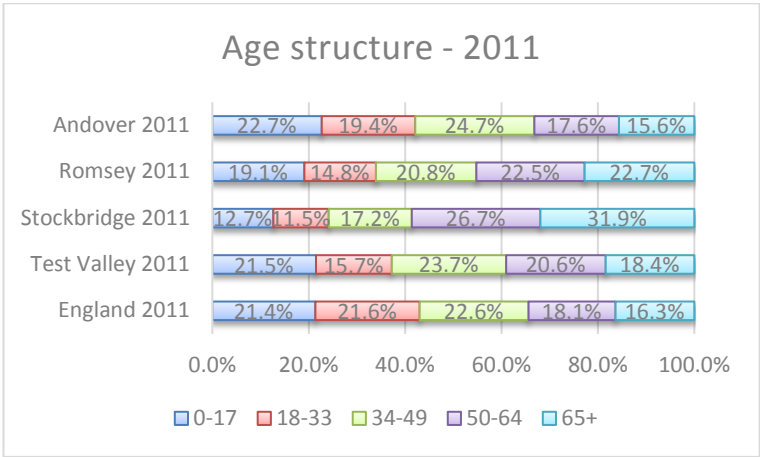


Figure 4.6: Test Valley age structure 2011
(ONS, 2011b, c, d, e)

The ONS Census data examined here suggest that Stockbridge is the most affluent of the three towns, followed by Romsey in the middle and Andover the least affluent, which corresponds to the illustration provided by the IMD map at Figure 4.3. Stockbridge had the highest proportion of adults who were degree-educated in both the 2001 and 2011 Censuses (see Figure 4.7); significantly higher than Test Valley as a whole in both Censuses, as well as the national average. Andover, on the other hand, had the highest proportion of adults with no formal qualification in both Censuses; higher than Test Valley as a whole but lower than the national average (see Figure 4.8).

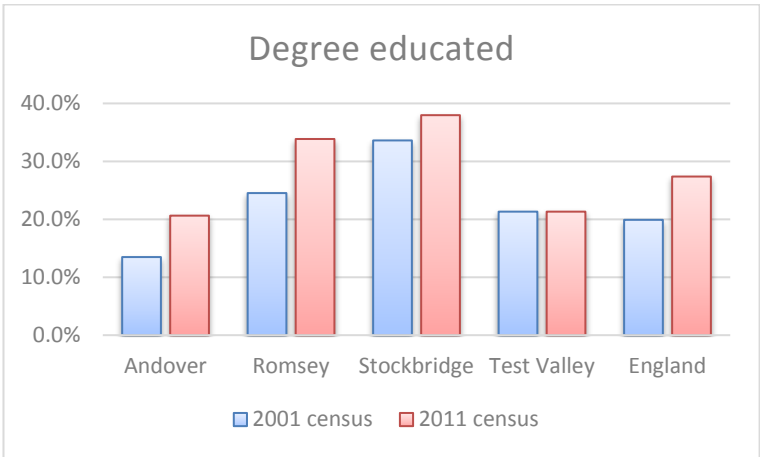


Figure 4.7: Test Valley and England degree educated population
(ONS, 2001a, b, c, d, 2011b, c, d, e). Adults aged 16-74.

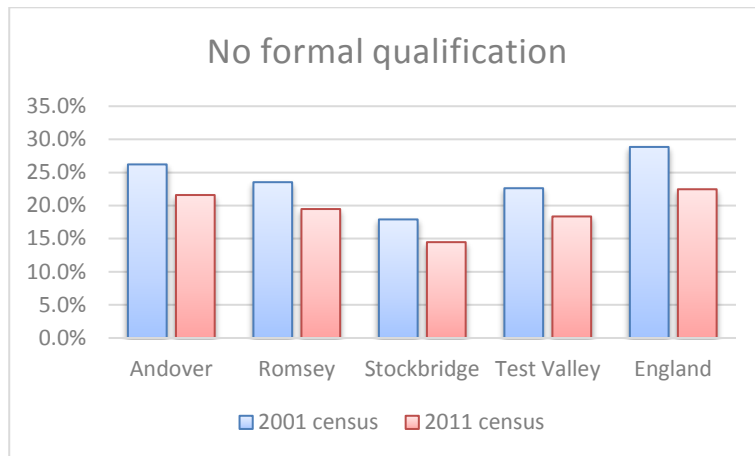


Figure 4.8: Test Valley and England no formal education (ONS, 2001a, b, c, d, 2011b, c, d, e). Adults aged 16-74.

Comparing the type of occupation in which residents were employed, Figures 4.9 and 4.10 illustrate the proportion of adults aged 16-74 in senior management roles and unskilled occupations for both the 2001 and 2011 Censuses. Stockbridge reported the highest level of residents in senior management positions (58.0% in 2001 and 50.9% in 2011), while Andover had the highest proportion of unskilled residents (13.2% in 2001 and 12.1% in 2011), slightly above the national average (11.8% in 2001 and 11.1% in 2011). Although in the middle, the proportion of senior managers in Romsey was still higher than Test Valley and the national average.

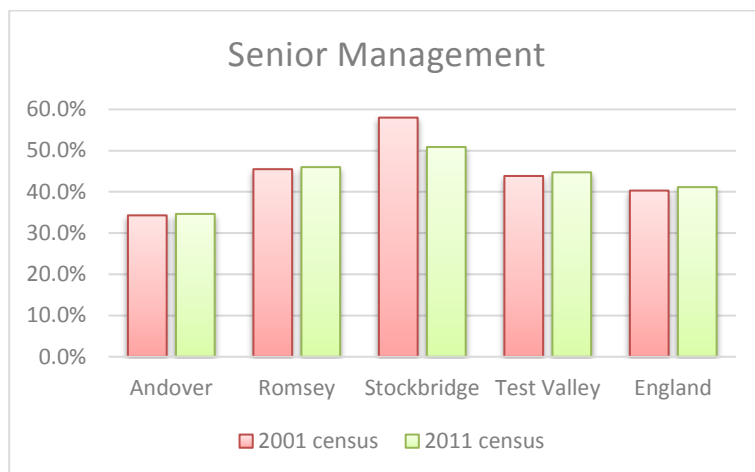


Figure 4.9: Test Valley and England senior management positions (ONS, 2001a, b, c, d, 2011b, c, d, e). Adults aged 16-74.

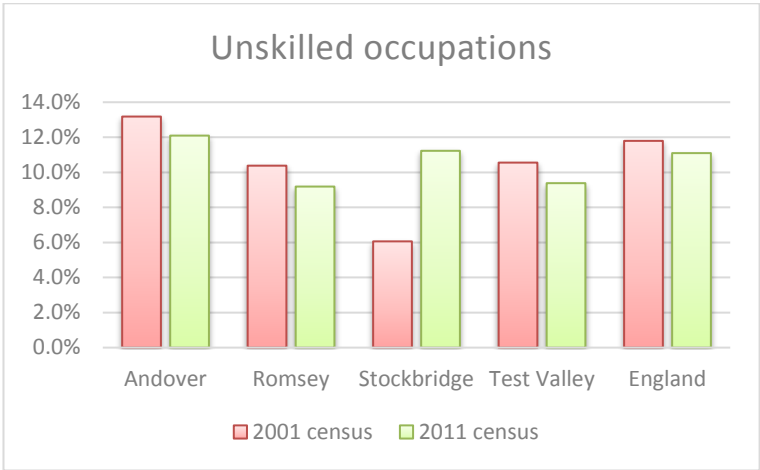


Figure 4.10: Test Valley and England unskilled occupations (ONS, 2001a, b, c, d, 2011b, c, d, e). Adults aged 16-74.

At the time of the 2011 Census, 16% of the borough’s residents aged 16-74 were employed in the wholesale and retail trade, while around 30% were employed almost equally in health and social work, education and manufacturing. The industry structure changed from the 2001 Census, where although a similar proportion of residents was employed in the wholesale and retail sector (16.3%), around 30% of the workforce was employed equally in the manufacturing and real estate sectors. This was broadly a reflection of the national trend. Figures 4.11 and 4.12 show the workforce distribution for both Test Valley and England, using data from the 2001 and 2011 Censuses.

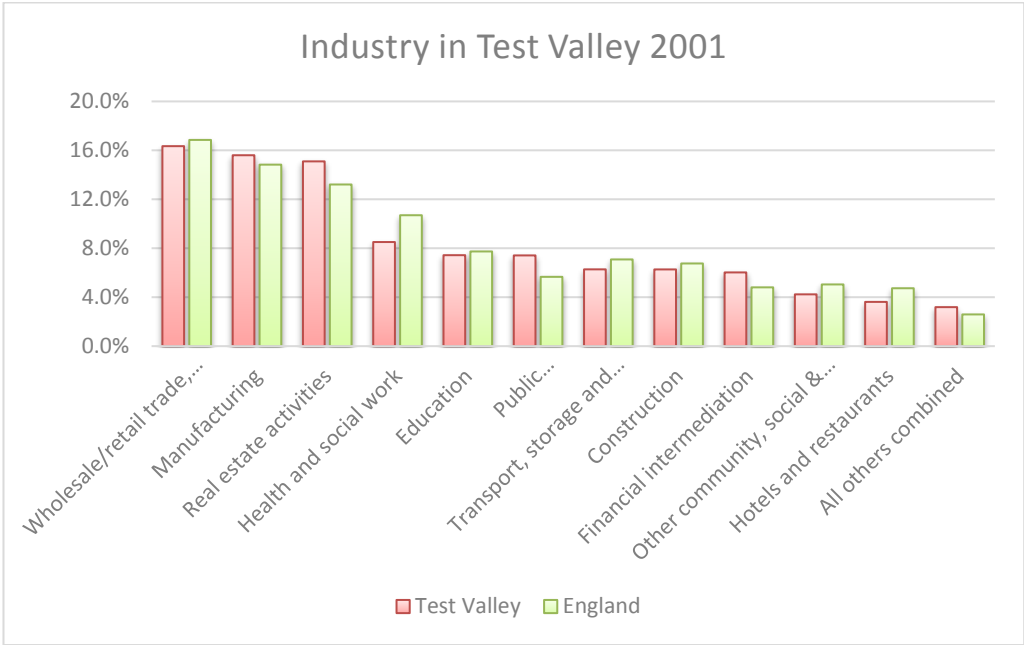


Figure 4.11: Comparison of industry in Test Valley and England 2001(ONS, 2001a, b, c, d)

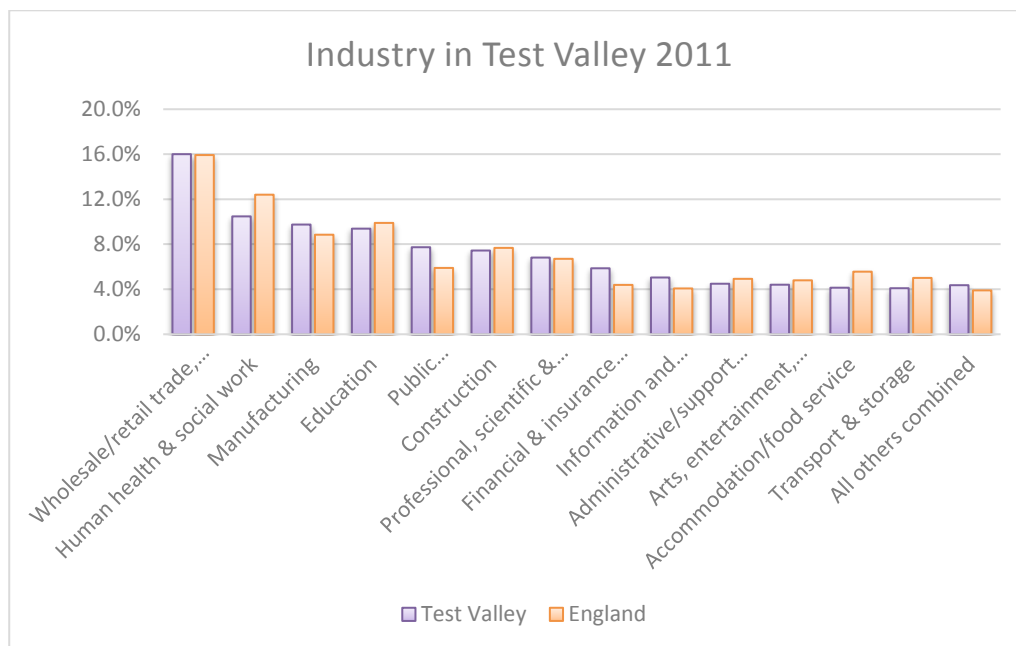


Figure 4.12: Comparison of industry in Test Valley and England 2011(ONS, 2011b, c, d, e)

At the start of this section, the matter of Test Valley’s ageing population was raised and examining the proportion of retired residents helps to underline this. Using Census data from 1991, 2001 and 2011, Figure 4.13 illustrates that Stockbridge had the highest proportion of retired adult residents aged 16 and over; higher than both the national average and Test Valley in all three Censuses. The figure for Romsey, although lower than for Stockbridge, was still higher than the national average and the overall borough. Andover’s retired population, in contrast, was proportionately smaller than for both Test Valley and England.

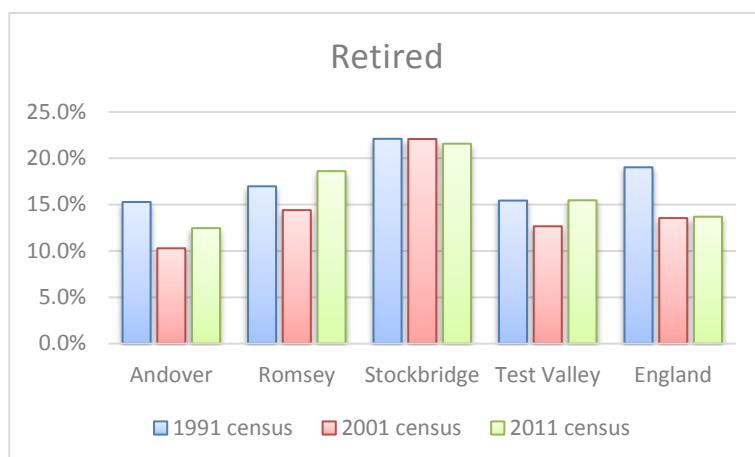


Figure 4.13: Test Valley and England retired population (ONS, 2001a, b, c, d, 2011b, c, d, e; Census Customer Services, 2015). Adults aged 16 and over in 1991 but between 16-74 in 2001 and 2011.

In contrast to the retired population, economically active residents are those aged 16 and over who are either in work or actively looking for work. Here, Stockbridge had the lowest proportion of economically active residents;

broadly in line with the national average but slightly lower than Test Valley as a whole. Romsey was again in the middle and Andover had the highest proportion of economically active residents in all three Censuses: higher than the borough and national averages. Figure 4.14 illustrates how economic activity has changed over time.

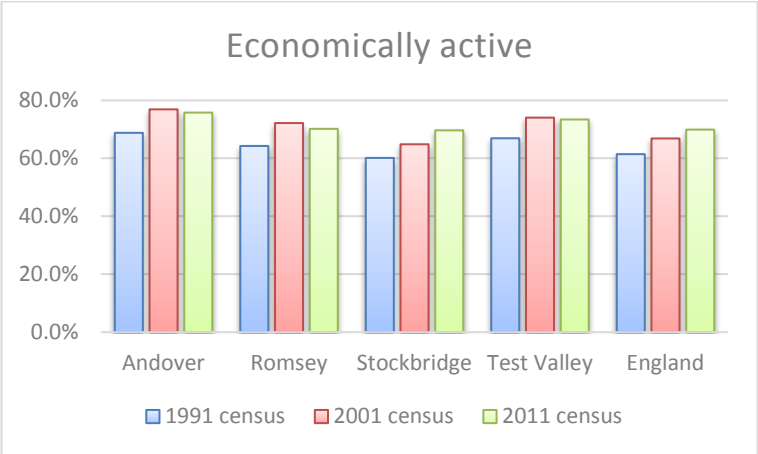


Figure 4.14: Test Valley and England economically active (ONS, 2001a, b, c, d, 2011b, c, d, e; Census Customer Services, 2015). Adults aged 16 and over in 1991 but between 16-74 in 2001 and 2011.

Two final measures of socio-economic status included here are property values and levels of home ownership. Property values provide an indicator of the cost of buying a home in each area and analysis of the proportion of residents who either own their homes outright or with a mortgage provides another indication of affluence. Areas with high value properties are likely to have wealthier residents, whereas areas with a high proportion of lower income residents are more likely to have a lower proportion of home owners, since their ability to obtain a mortgage would be weaker than residents with a higher income.

Table 4.2 overleaf shows the average property prices for January 1995¹ and August 2016, as published by the Land Registry for Test Valley and England. The dates have been chosen to reflect the Census data and to provide up-to-date information given the fluctuations that have occurred in the property market since the global economic crisis not covered by the last Census in 2011. Over this time, property values in Test Valley have been consistently higher than across England as a whole, which is one more indication that Test Valley is a relatively affluent borough.

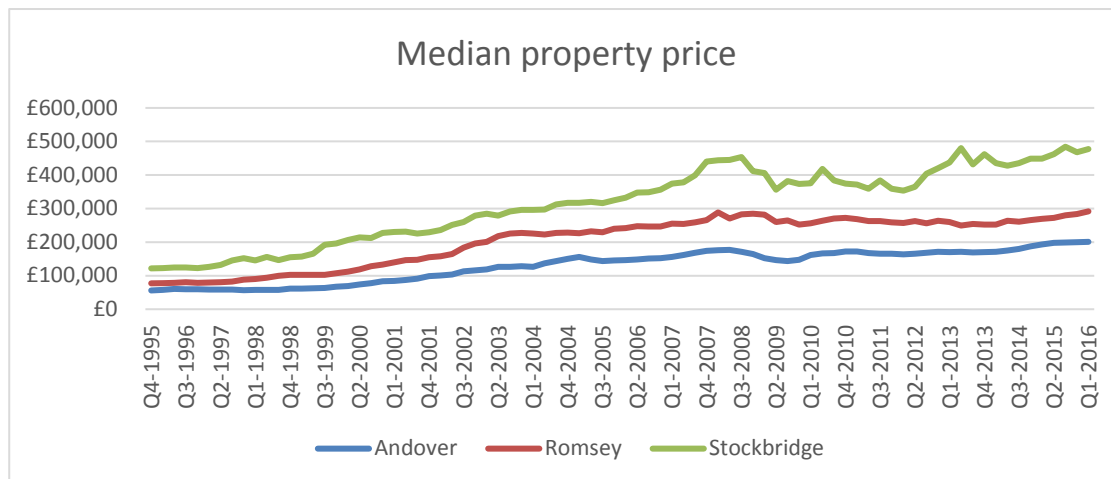
¹ This was the earliest data available via the Land Registry

Table 4.2: Property prices 1995 – 2016 (Land Registry, 2016; ONS (Henretty), 2016)

Area	Average property value January 1995	Average property value August 2016
Test Valley	£69,371	£313,431
England	£53,203	£235,573

Figure 4.15 shows how the median property values in Andover, Romsey and Stockbridge have changed between Q4 1995 and Q1 2016. The median is a useful way to illustrate how property values have changed over time, as it does not disguise outliers such as very high or low value properties, unlike the mean value.

At this level, Andover is revealed to have significantly lower value property than Stockbridge and although in the middle, Romsey's property is also much lower value than the property in Stockbridge.

**Figure 4.15: Median property price Q4 1995-Q1 2016 (Henretty, 2016)**

Accompanying the property value is the level of home ownership. Residents who either owned their home outright or with a mortgage were included in this measurement and Figure 4.16 overleaf shows how this has changed from 1991 to 2011. Romsey had the highest proportion of residents who owned their homes and this was consistently higher than both Test Valley and England in all three Censuses. Andover had the lowest proportion; marginally lower than the national picture by the 2011 Census. Stockbridge home ownership declined over the course of the three Censuses, from being in the middle in 1991 to only slightly above Andover by 2011.

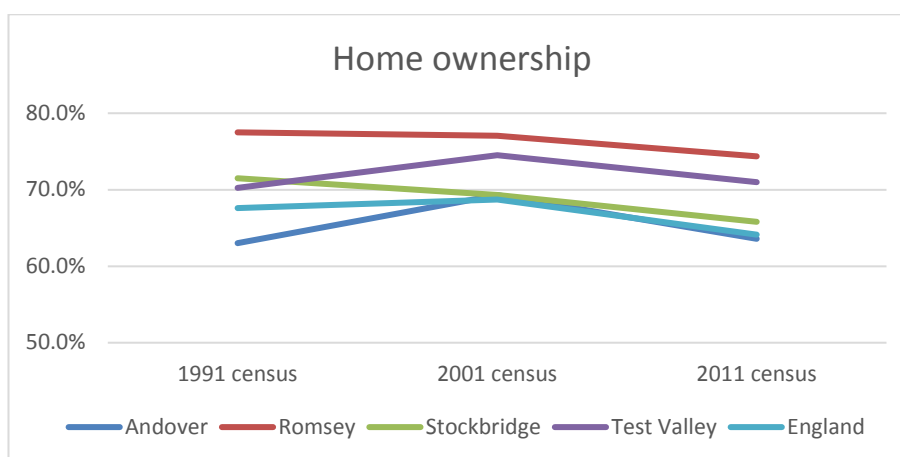


Figure 4.16: Test Valley and England home ownership
(ONS, 2001a, b, c, d, 2011b, c, d, e; Census Customer Services, 2015)

Overall, Stockbridge looks to be an affluent area with a high proportion of residents who are degree-educated and are employed in senior management positions or are retired. As a result of the high proportion of retired residents, Stockbridge has a comparatively low level of economically active residents. Home ownership is lower than in Romsey but greater than in Andover, however, the property value in Stockbridge is significantly higher than both the other towns. Romsey has consistently remained in the middle of the three towns, while the metrics for Andover suggest a town that is less affluent than the other two. It has the youngest population of the three towns, although the average age across the borough is rising, and the highest proportion of economically active residents. Overall, Andover's residents are less well educated than residents in the other two towns are, and are more likely to be employed in unskilled occupations. Property values in Andover are low compared to the other two towns, and home ownership is lower.

With this understanding of the study area's socio-economic characteristics, next follows a descriptive overview of the three towns that hosted the case study events. Each of these was classified as a market town in the 16th Century (Letters, 2005). The earliest market was recorded in Romsey somewhere between 1100-06, Stockbridge in 1199 and Andover in 1243 (Letters, 2005) but by the time of the Royal Commission on Market Rights and Tolls in 1888, Stockbridge no longer held a market (Stanley, 1888), although the charter continues in Romsey and Andover to this day.

This is important in the current research, since one purpose served by markets and fairs historically was to encourage visitors into the towns and in this way, increase economic activity. This theme is revisited later, however, for now the

structure and characteristics of each town are outlined in terms of pertinent historical information, civic authority, retail and service offer, as well as tourist attractions.

4.1.1 Romsey

Romsey is a medium-sized market town located towards the southern border of the borough and is made up of two civil parishes: Romsey and Romsey Extra, as shown in Figure 4.17 overleaf. Most urban development has taken place in Romsey civil parish, while Romsey Extra is mainly rural. The town of Romsey has a historic association with the adjacent Broadlands Estate, which was formerly owned by Lord Palmerston (one of Queen Victoria's Prime Ministers) but is now home to the Mountbatten family. The royal connection is valued by the Romsey community, since Lord Mountbatten of Burma was Prince Philip's uncle, and the incumbent of the estate is awarded the ceremonial role of High Steward of Romsey. The town also has its own mayor who is elected annually by the town council from amongst its councillors. A part-time TCM has been employed by the Town Council since 2014. Prior to this date, a full time TCM had been employed by TVBC to cover both Romsey and Andover.

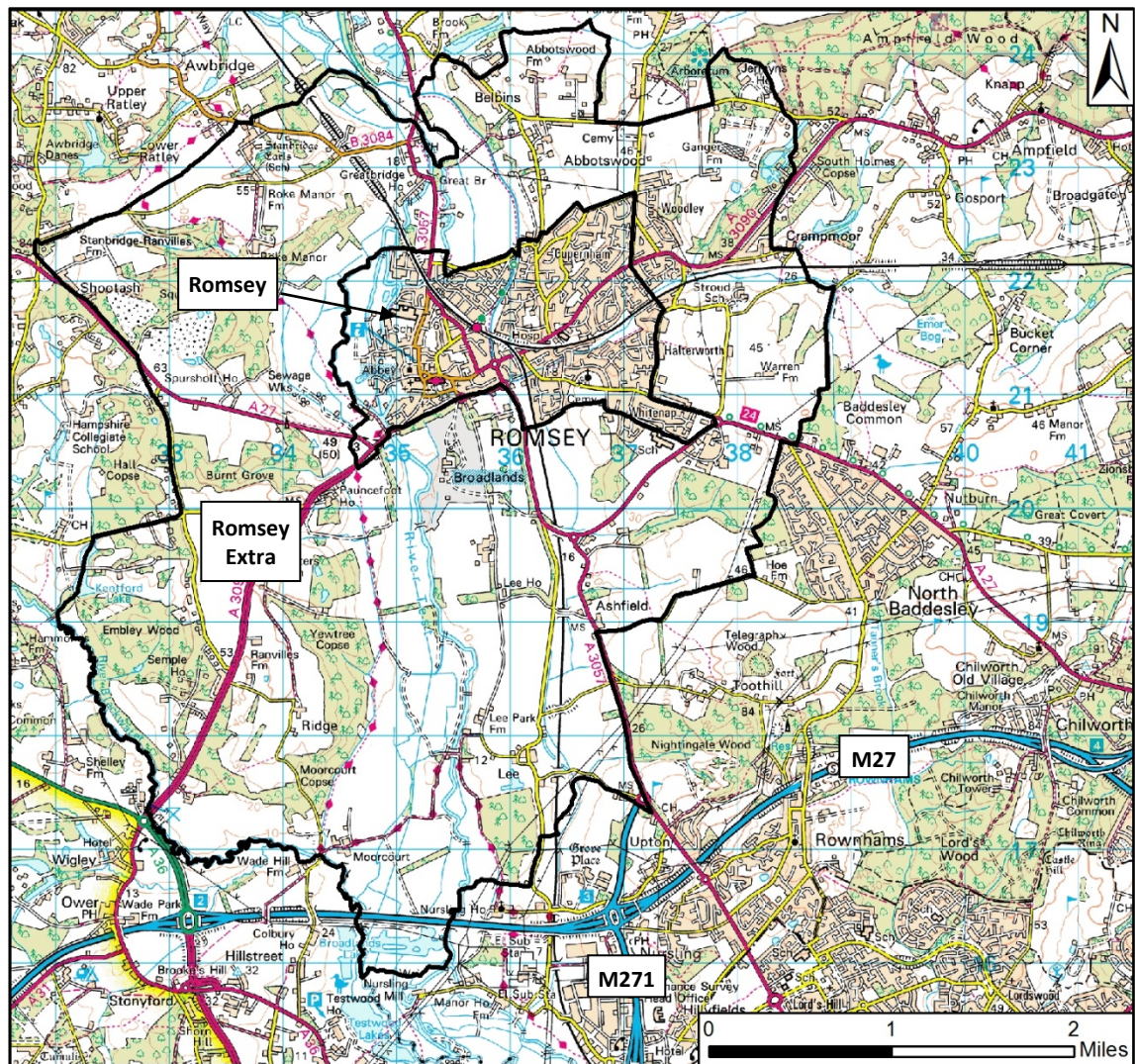


Figure 4.17: Map showing extent of Romsey and Romsey Extra civil parish boundaries (contains Ordnance Survey data © Crown copyright and database right 2012. Contains National Statistics data © Crown copyright and database right 2012)

The town's retail offer comprises a large number of independent retailers, including Bradbeers' department store (a family-run business), as well as a number of national and regional multiples. Romsey's vacancy rate is well below the national average of 15% and was reported in May 2013 to be 6% (Test Valley Borough Council, 2014), having risen from 5.1% in September 2011 (Nathaniel Lichfield, 2012). Wrigley *et al*'s (2011, p8) study determined that the town centre was performing well during the global economic crisis and described it as a 'well-used and well-functioning town' which 'maintains the features of its market town heritage ... [and] has a strong sense of place and community.' Figure 4.18 overleaf shows a map of Romsey town centre with the retail area identified.

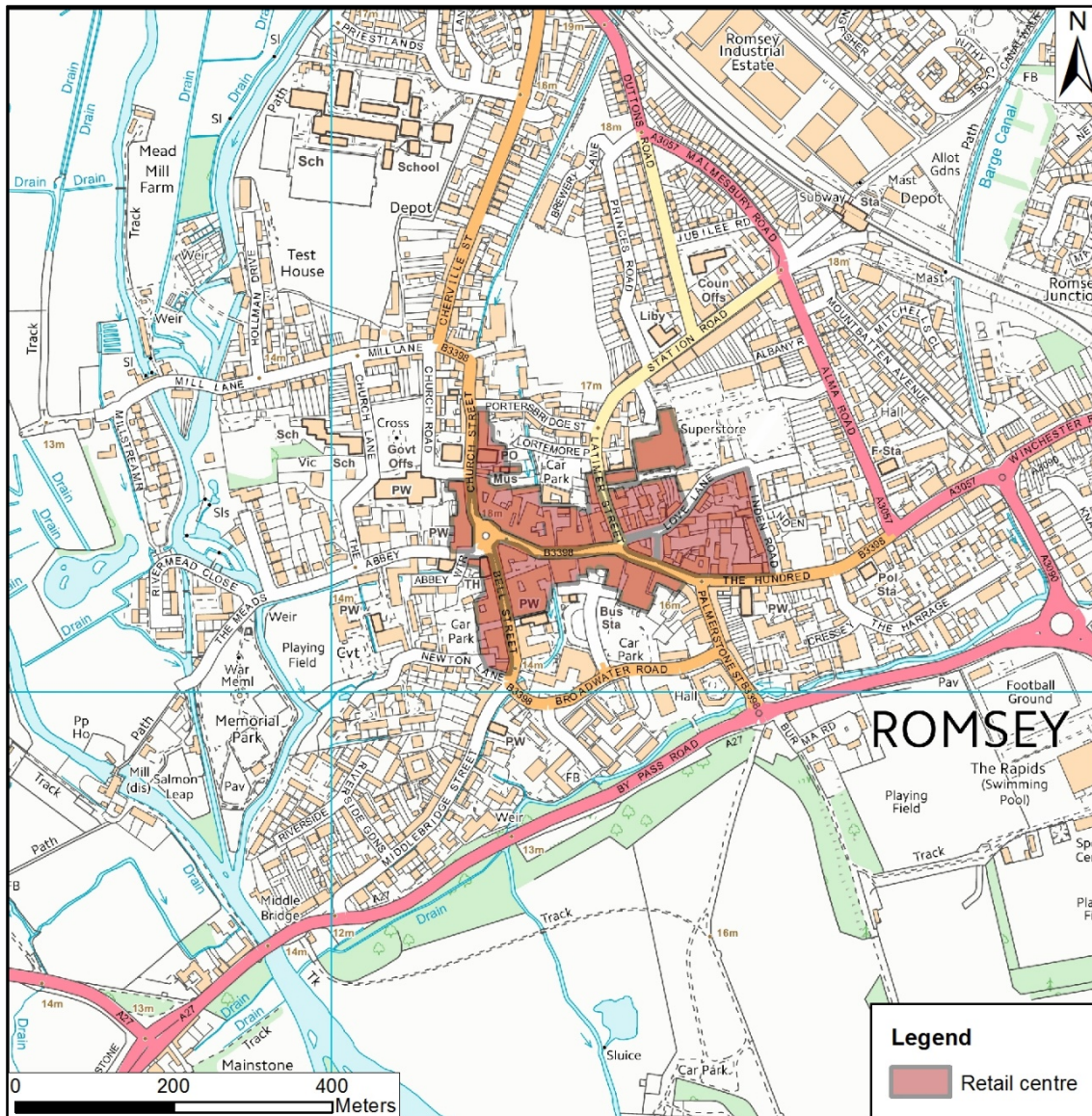


Figure 4.18: Map of Romsey town showing retail centre
(contains Ordnance Survey map data © Crown Copyright and database right 2015. An Ordnance Survey/EDINA supplied service)

Romsey's main tourist attractions are the Abbey, King John's House (a Tudor building with a history owing to its mis-association with King John) and the Broadlands Estate, whose grounds are used for a variety of open air events throughout the year. Nearby are the National Trust owned Mottisfont Abbey and the county council managed Sir Harold Hillier Gardens and Arboretum. The charter market still runs on Thursdays, Fridays and Saturdays and Hampshire Farmers' Markets visit once a month on a Sunday.

4.1.2 Stockbridge

Stockbridge is a small rural market town in the centre of the Test Valley. It has held a strategic position since the Middle Ages, initially offering one of a limited number of crossing points along the River Test and so serving as a

meeting point for livestock herders. It then became a coaching stop on the road between Winchester to the east and Salisbury to the west (Page, 1911). This road subsequently became the A30 trunk road. A railway line, which connected Andover to Redbridge (just outside Southampton) was constructed in the late 19th Century, for which there was a station at Stockbridge. Both the line and station buildings were, however, dismantled during the 1960s (Test Valley Borough Council, 2011). The map in Figure 4.19 shows the area covered by Stockbridge civil parish.

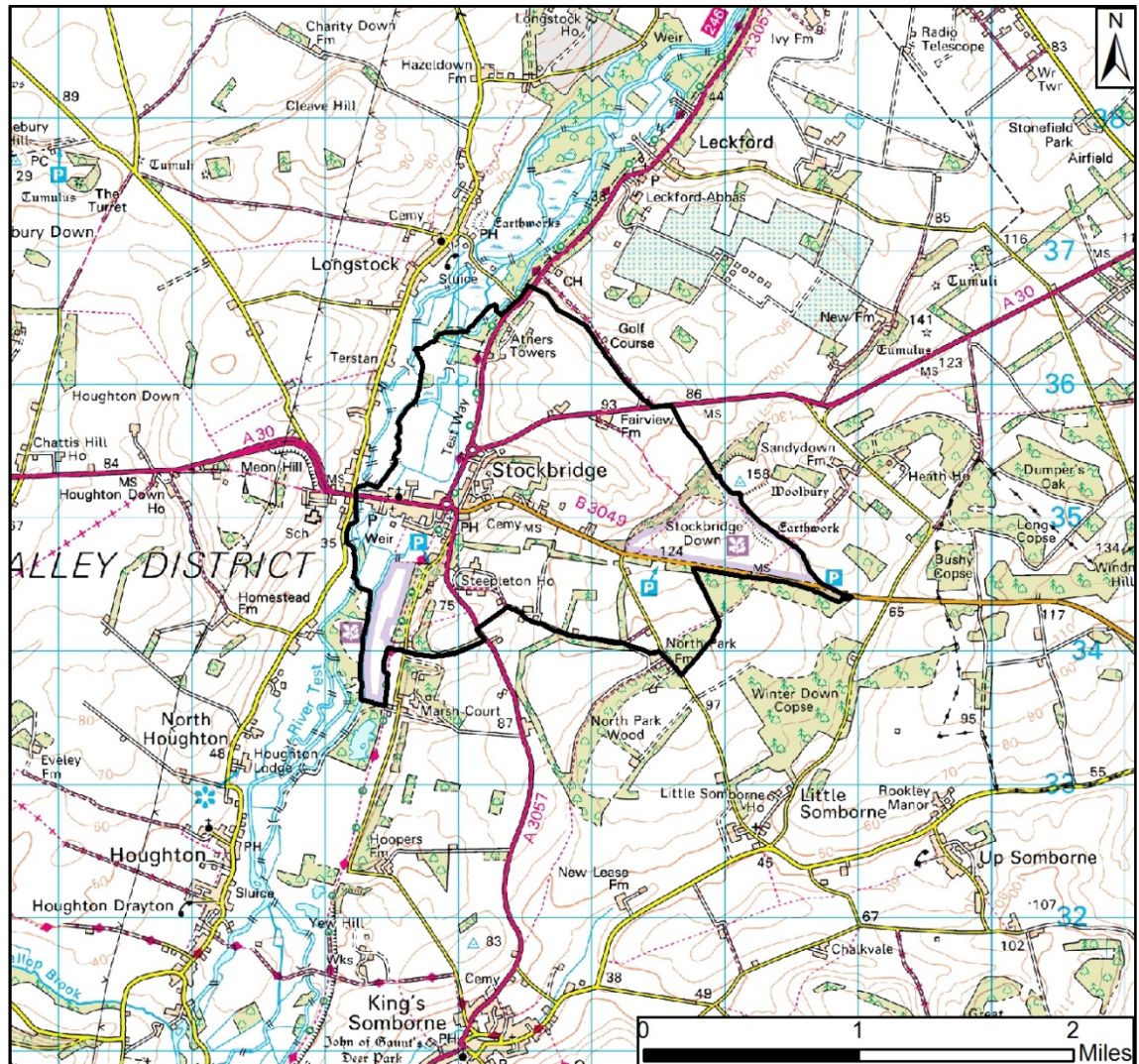


Figure 4.19: Map showing extent of Stockbridge civil parish boundary (contains Ordnance Survey data © Crown copyright and database right 2012. Contains National Statistics data © Crown copyright and database right 2012)

In contrast to both Romsey and Andover, Stockbridge has developed along a linear pattern, largely owing to its position along the A30. The town's retail structure is consequently located along both sides of the main road and mainly consists of high-value independent retailers and service providers, with one regional multiple. Its predominantly Georgian architecture remains largely

unaltered, apart from some contemporary infill and, acknowledging the rural hinterland, some of the retail units are dedicated to outdoor pursuits and the area's strong links to trout fishing. The vacancy rate for Stockbridge is very low, at 1% in May 2013 (Test Valley Borough Council, 2014). Personal observation undertaken during the time of this research found that one former pub has been empty for some years and a small number of retail outlets have either changed hands or use. There are a number of pubs and restaurants, including a hotel, The Grosvenor, which has been home to the Broughton Fishing Club for over a hundred years (Interviewee F). Fishing on the River Test generates a significant income in the form of licence fees and attracts a large number of tourists engaging in trout fishing. Notable attractions, apart from the River Test, include Danebury Ring Iron Age hillfort to the north west of the town. Figure 4.20 shows a map of the centre of Stockbridge with the retail area identified.

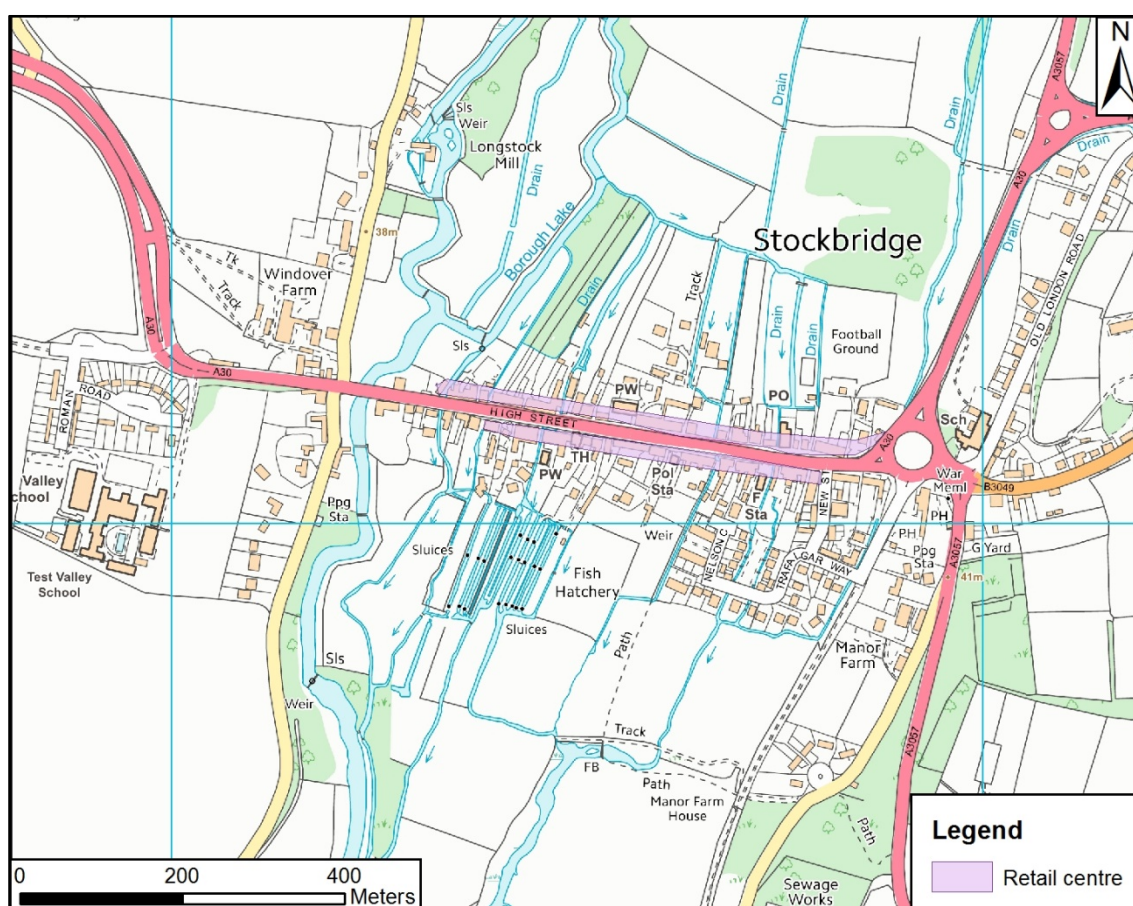


Figure 4.20: Map of Stockbridge showing retail centre
(contains Ordnance Survey map data © Crown Copyright and database right 2015. An Ordnance Survey/EDINA supplied service)

4.1.3 Andover

Andover is the largest town in the Test Valley and is expanding (see the map in Figure 4.21), however, it ‘has never been a place of much historical prominence’ (Page, 1911). During the 16th and 17th Centuries, the nearby Weyhill Fair was one of the largest in the country and although Andover also had the right to hold a number of fairs, they were never as important (Weyhill is marked by a red circle on Figure 4.21). Towards the end of the 17th Century, an attempt was made by the Andover burgesses to relocate the Weyhill Fair to Andover town centre under a new charter, however, following lengthy court proceedings, Weyhill retained the right (Letters, 2005). The Andover Heritage Leaflet produced by TVBC details the town’s historic sites, including: the old fulling mill, which now houses a number of small business units; a Norman arch; and a Georgian coaching inn.

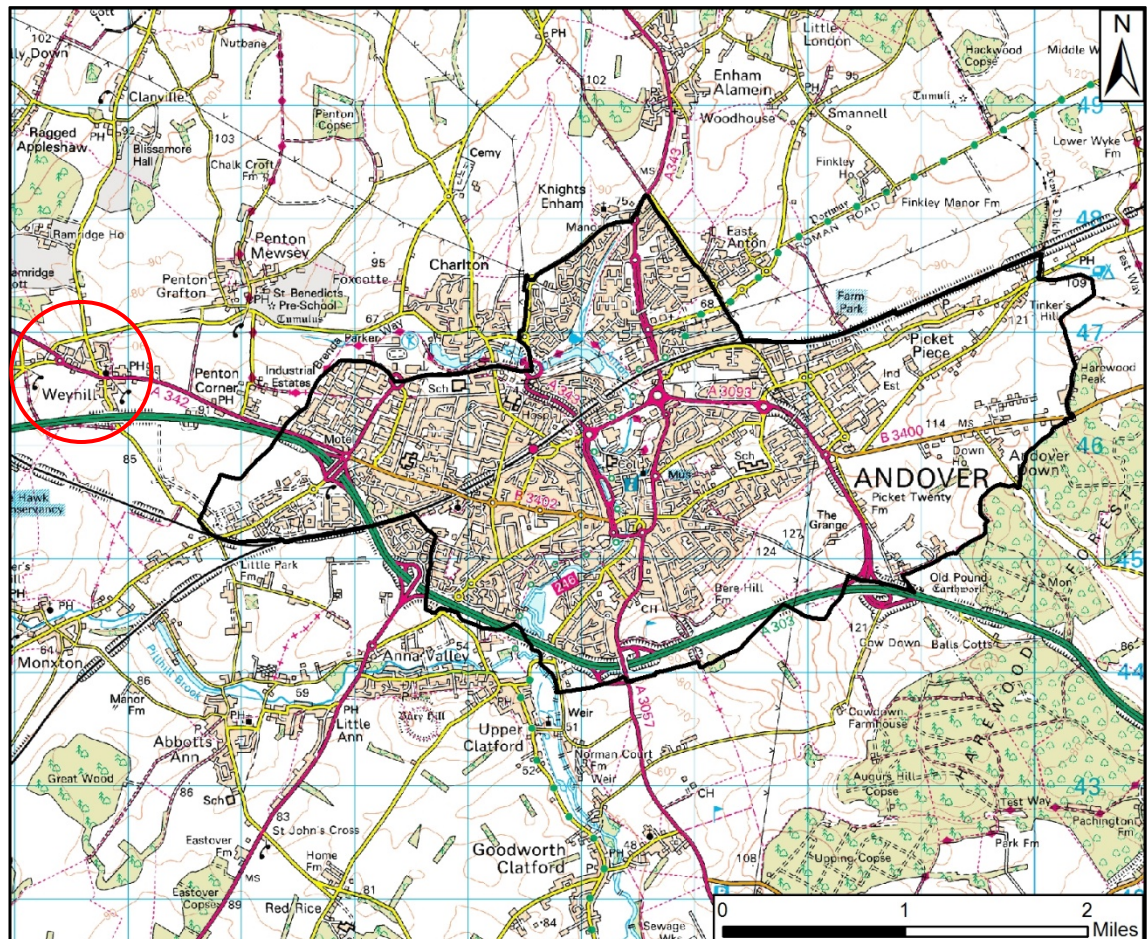


Figure 4.21: Map showing extent of Andover civil parish boundary (contains Ordnance Survey data © Crown copyright and database right 2012. Contains National Statistics data © Crown copyright and database right 2012)

In the middle of the 20th Century, Andover became one of the so-called ‘London overspill towns’ and experienced rapid expansion. It also became known as a

military town, with its proximity to army garrisons on Salisbury Plain and associated accommodation in the neighbouring villages. A number of edge-of-town retail parks and industrial estates have been constructed over recent decades, however, the latter are now in need of regeneration and TVBC has acknowledged the significance of this to the town's overall economic welfare and potential for attracting inward investment and future employment opportunities. As a result, TVBC is currently working with a private organisation to implement a rejuvenation project at the Walworth Business Park, while there is a further plan to develop Andover Airfield as an additional business park. Residential developments are also underway to provide an additional 3,700 properties (Test Valley Borough Council, 2014).

Unlike either Romsey or Stockbridge, Andover has an enclosed shopping centre – the Chantry Centre – that is managed by a private firm, as well as a number of streets containing retail and service units radiating from the central high street (see Figure 4.22 overleaf). According to Interviewee J, locals lament the absence of a big name department store, however, demand is thought not to be sufficient, particularly as the well serviced Newbury, Salisbury and Winchester are each within 20 miles of Andover. The town does, however, have a Marks and Spencer, Waitrose and other well-known high street names. According to the most recently available vacancy rate data (May 2013), at 14% Andover is only just below the national average of 15%, its rate having almost doubled from 8.4% in September 2011, however, some units have been vacant for long periods (Nathaniel Lichfield, 2012; Test Valley Borough Council, 2014).

Andover town council is the local civic authority, however, it was only created in 2014 following a local campaign and appears to have caused something of a controversy amongst the town and borough councillors, the latter group believing it to be an unnecessary layer of local bureaucracy (Interviewee L). As with Romsey, there is a part-time TCM, who is no longer employed by TVBC but on a private three-year contract, which is scheduled to finish in 2017 (Interviewee I). The TCM's remit is to facilitate the creation of a Business Improvement District (BID), which includes, amongst other things, developing a structured programme of events.

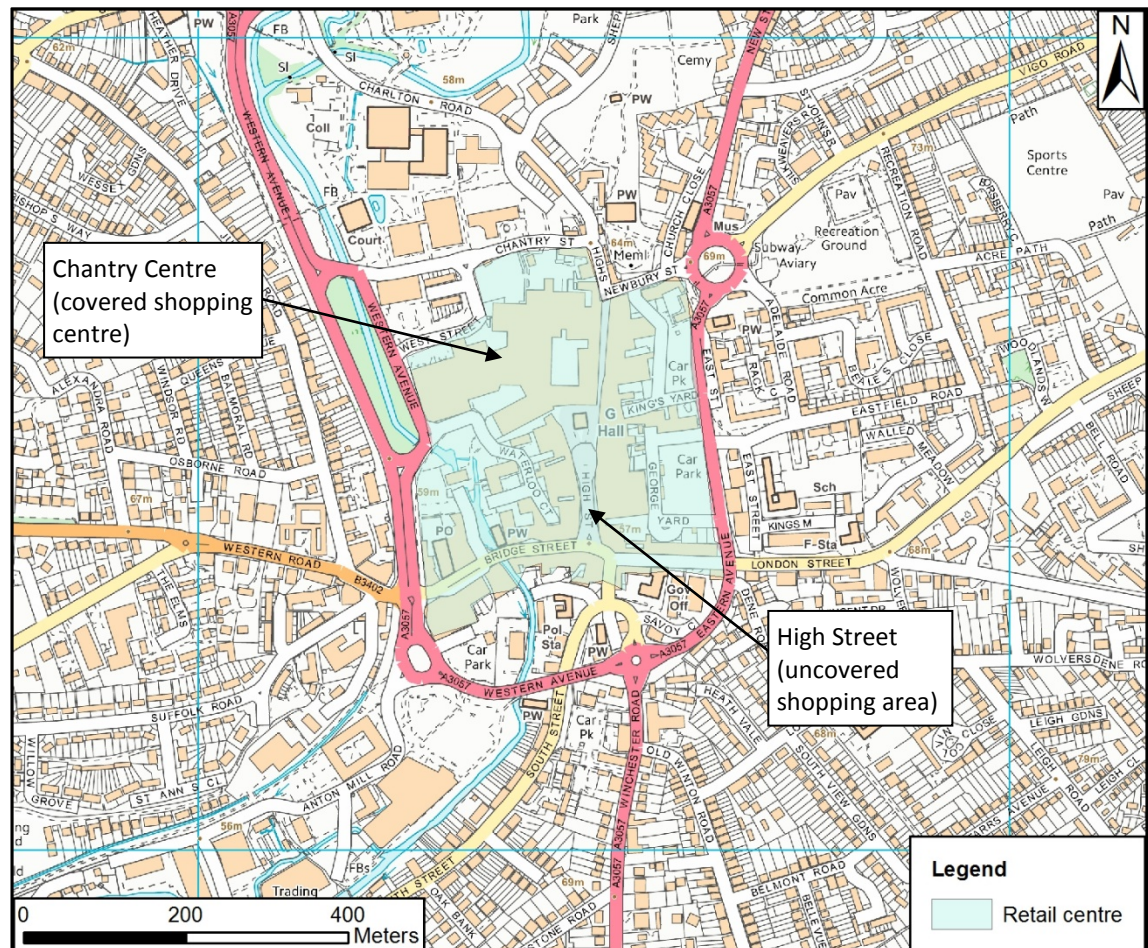


Figure 4.22: Map of Andover showing retail centre (Ordnance Survey map data © Crown Copyright/database right 2015. An Ordnance Survey/EDINA supplied service)

Andover's attractions include a museum in the town centre, which is closed on Mondays and Sundays; Finkley Down Farm – a children's activity farm – on the edge of the Walworth Business Park; the Army Museum of Aviation at nearby Middle Wallop; the Hawk Conservancy at Weyhill; and Thruxton Motor Circuit and airfield. The town still holds its charter market on Thursdays and Saturdays.

4.1.4 Summary

The first part of this section has shown the borough of Test Valley to be performing well economically when compared with the national picture. While the borough as a whole is not considered to be deprived according to the metrics used by the DCMS, there are pockets of high and low deprivation in the borough; a number of areas around Andover suffer from relatively high deprivation and one area around Romsey features in the top ten least deprived areas in the country.

The borough's population is ageing at a greater rate and has a higher proportion of over 65s than England as a whole, however, when examined more closely, Andover has a much younger resident population than Romsey and Stockbridge, with the latter having the highest proportion of retired residents. These differences are likely to be related to other metrics, such as the proportion of residents who are considered economically active, the level of home ownership and the cost of purchasing a home. In summary, Stockbridge can be considered the most affluent of the market towns included in this research, Andover the least affluent, and Romsey in the middle.

Although all three locations for the case studies are considered historically to be market towns, they each display quite different characteristics and these are important to consider in the light of the current study. Romsey has grown around its medieval street pattern and has experienced residential and industrial development around its fringes. The 10th Century Abbey is within easy walking distance of the main retail area, as well as a recreation ground in close proximity and the Broadlands Estate on the edge of the town.

Stockbridge, a former medieval drovers' town, has developed along a linear pattern with a rural hinterland and remains small in terms of spatial layout and population but benefits from its renown as a trout fishing location. Its composition has barely changed over the last century, apart from the construction and subsequent demolition of a railway line and station.

Andover, in contrast has grown considerably in size over the last 50 years, with numerous housing, retail and industrial estates located around the ring road, and is still expanding. Although its heritage sites can still be found, these are almost lost within the various additions to the town over time. As functioning town centres, Romsey and Stockbridge seem to be performing better than Andover, particularly if vacancy rates are taking into consideration.

4.2 Case study events

Before describing the individual case study events, a reflection on reasons for holding events like festivals and markets in town centre settings acts as a reminder of their original purpose and the extent to which this has changed in contemporary society. Events like these have been regular features in the UK and Europe for many centuries, indeed the three case study events illustrate this well, as already touched upon in an earlier section of this chapter. Table 4.3 shows the earliest recorded dates for each of the towns, with additional

notes included. No town was permitted to hold a market or fair unless it held a charter granted by the monarch and was designated a market town. Such a charter provided a number of exclusive benefits, for example no neighbouring town within a set radius would be permitted to hold a competing fair or market without penalty and trade of any sort outside the market or fair, unless in formal commercial premises, was prohibited. Guards would even patrol neighbouring towns to ensure illicit trading activity did not take place and, if it did, the merchandise would be confiscated and a fine imposed (Stanley, 1888). Even in the last quarter of the 19th Century, an Act of Parliament only permitted new markets to be created provided they did not encroach on one already in operation (Palgrave and Higgs, 1925).

Table 4.3: Earliest recorded market and fair dates (Stanley, 1888; Letters, 2005)

Town	Earliest recorded market	Earliest recorded fair
Andover	1243 Saturday market continues	1201 No longer listed in 1888
Romsey	1100-06 Saturday market continues	1100-06 Three listed in 1888: Easter Tuesday, 26 August and 8 November
Stockbridge	1189-99 No longer listed in 1888	1221 No longer listed in 1888

The owner of a fair charter was granted power to maintain the ‘peace of the fair’ (Palgrave and Higgs, 1925), which protected merchants and traders against theft or attack and permitted the holding of ‘pie-powder’ courts² where punishments could be handed out to offenders, as normal civic control was outside the jurisdiction of the fair. This ‘peace of the fair’ also enabled local law-breakers to seek temporary refuge (Palgrave and Higgs, 1925).

The markets and fairs were significant for the local economy and for travelling merchants. As their dates were written into the charter, they could not be altered without the monarch’s permission, which enabled travelling merchants to plan their trading activity well in advance and also ensured that there would be exotic and unusual items on sale (Palgrave and Higgs, 1925). These events were profitable for the landowners too, as income was received in the form of tolls from the traders. The markets and fairs provided reasons for rural

² This term originates from the French *piés-poudrés*, referring to merchants and traders who would have had dirty feet from their travels (Palgrave and Higgs, 1925)

communities to visit the towns, to gather together for enjoyment, to trade and to experience produce from around the world (Stanley, 1890). Behaviour was a concern, however, and during the reign of Queen Victoria, the Home Secretary was granted the power to close down any fair deemed to be eliciting immoral behaviour. In fact, the authors of the account of markets and fairs from which this detail was obtained stated ‘the country would probably suffer very little if all purely pleasure fairs were done away with’ (Palgrave and Higgs, 1925, p15). Their popularity and need gradually diminished over time, as other trading opportunities developed, facilitated by improved transport and communication links, and the limitations on trading outside the market environment were lifted (Palgrave and Higgs, 1925).

In the 21st Century, much has changed: market town status is no longer highly valued; permission is not required from the monarch to hold a fair or market; there is no formal exclusion zone; and civic jurisdiction is maintained throughout. What has not changed, however, are the opportunities to attract traders offering unusual products or experiences, and visitors seeking enjoyment – which can lead to socially unacceptable behaviour – but who are willing to spend money, thereby supporting the local economy. These considerations should be borne in mind when reading the following sections.

An overview of the case study events included in this research is provided in Table 4.4. The remainder of this section describes each event in detail, including its origin, organisation and purpose.

Table 4.4: Overview of the case study events

Event name	Type	location	Duration
Beggars Fair, Romsey	Special event: Annual free folk and roots music festival – performances all day in various locations	Town centre and adjacent recreation ground – road closed for duration	One day (10am – 6pm)
Trout 'n About, Stockbridge	Special event: Annual local food/ crafts festival: essentially a specialist one day market	Main road through town – road remains open	One day (10am – 4pm)
Farmers' and crafts market, Andover	Regular event: Monthly food and crafts market	High street near to covered shopping centre – road closed for duration	One day (10am – 2pm)

4.2.1 The Beggars Fair, Romsey

The Beggars Fair (BF) is one of a number of cultural events held in Romsey during the year and takes place annually on the second Saturday of July. The free folk and roots festival began in 1993 and has grown in size and popularity over the years (Interviewee B). The origin of the Fair is interesting, since its name suggests connections to something perhaps dating back to medieval times, however, its roots are firmly placed in the last decade of the 20th Century. This notion of tenuous links with the past is something already observed in the literature by Ravenscroft and Gilchrist (2009), who relate links to the past to Bakhtin's notion of the 'carnavalesque': the temporary suspension of social order that was part of medieval festivals, which often led to alternative and sometimes unwelcome behaviours (Bakhtin, 1968). This point is revisited during analysis of the BF below and in Chapter Seven.

The BF actually evolved from a former Romsey Folk Festival, which had ceased during the mid-1980s (Interviewee A). A group of folk musicians who met and played regularly in one of the town's pubs organised a free event following an attempt by another organisation to create a ticketed festival the previous year, which was poorly attended. The 'Beggars Fair' title was adopted for the second festival, after the organising group felt that a name was needed that would help to create an individual identity for it. Although the name does not specifically relate to a historic festival, it refers to a practice of providing badges to the town's residents who were in receipt of parish relief centuries earlier. This badge entitled the wearer to beg in the town on one day each year. In contrast, however, the musicians who perform at the BF are not permitted to ask for donations from the public. Instead, they sell CDs and other merchandise.

From modest beginnings and with no formal organising committee, the BF has become a much more structured festival. It now has a formal committee, which comprises representatives from local business, clubs, police, town councillors and residents. The organisers aim to appeal to a wide range of musical tastes, including those who might not normally be interested in folk music, and to offer a forum for new and emerging acts to perform. The result is an eclectic mix of Morris dancers, folk musicians, early music performers and youth bands. The majority of the performances are located in the streets of the town centre, with two main stages in the Cornmarket area and in front

of the Abbey. The nearby War Memorial Park is set aside for youth bands and other attractions for children. In addition, the town's pubs host performances during the day and into the evening. Stalls selling food and a small amount of craft items are also located around the town. A road closure is in force all day turning the town into a pedestrianised space. Figure 4.23 overleaf shows the main BF locations as well as the extent of the road closure, which, if compared to Figure 4.18 on p136, can be seen to incorporate the town's main retail area. Depictions of the performance area in front of Romsey Abbey and the Cornmarket are shown in Figure 4.24 and Figure 4.25 on p148, while Morris dancers can be seen performing in the street in Figure 4.26, and the activities in the War Memorial Park are shown in Figure 4.27 on p149.

Although the BF now takes place on one day (Saturday), until the 2011 event it extended over the whole weekend, beginning on the Friday evening and ending by Sunday afternoon. The duration was curtailed following a public order disturbance in 2011 (Interviewees A and B) and this is discussed in more detail below. The fair now runs between 10am-6pm, however, as mentioned above, the performances in the pubs continue until late in the evening.

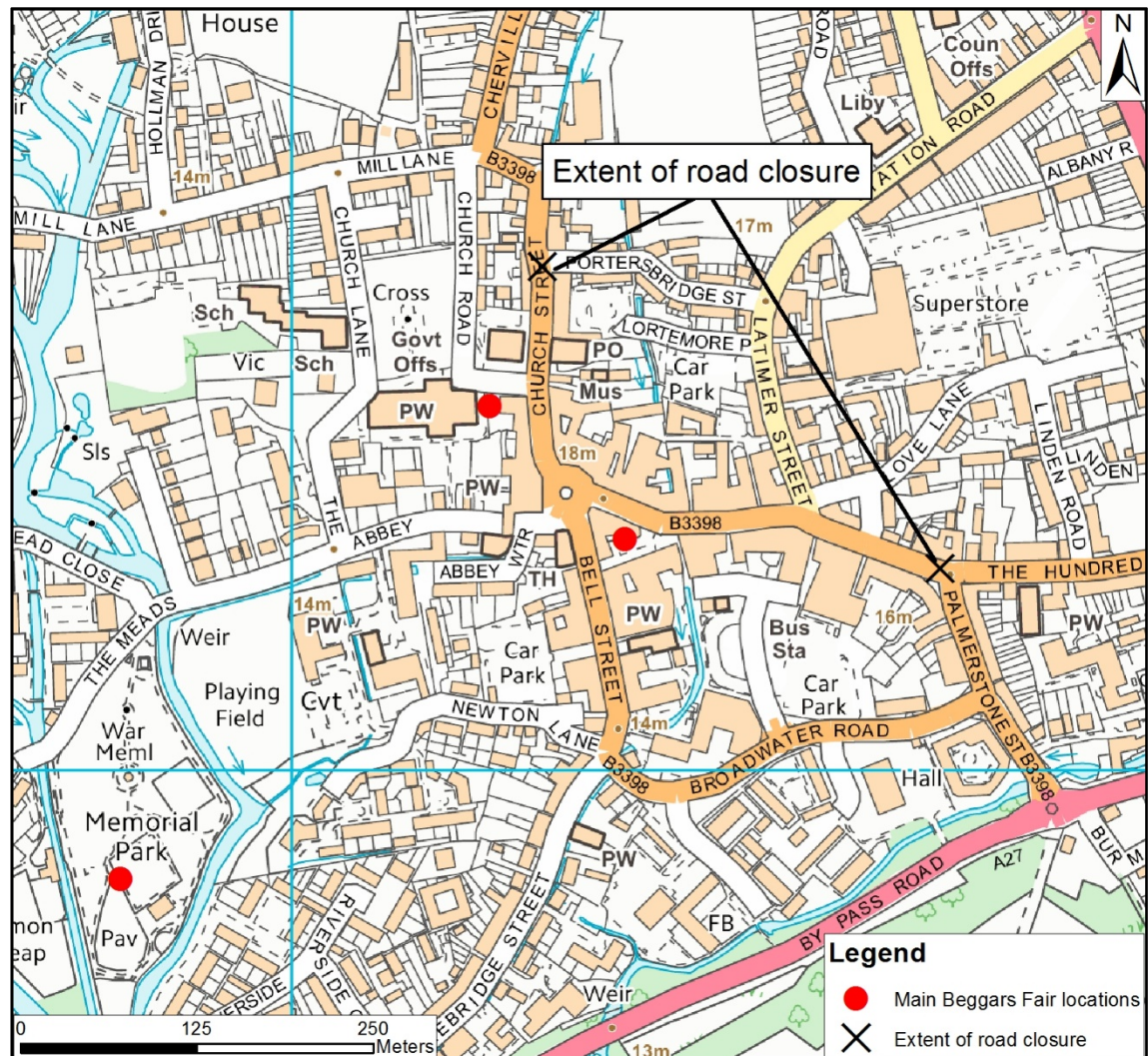


Figure 4.23: Map showing the main Beggars Fair locations
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The BF is promoted via numerous sources, including the borough's visitor guide, as one of the main cultural events to take place during the year, as well as featuring on the Visit Hampshire tourism website. The event has its own website, which includes organisational information, news and an online shop where merchandise can be purchased. During the weeks leading up to the event, banners are positioned around the town and the event programme is sold in the town's various outlets, including the Tourist Information Centre. The organisers post updates via Facebook and Twitter, as do some of the performers and local groups involved with the BF. The local newspaper – *The Romsey Advertiser* – has an office in the town and publishes news articles and paid-for advertising.



Figure 4.24: Performance area in front of Romsey Abbey



Figure 4.25: Cornmarket area of Romsey



Figure 4.26: Morris dancers performing on a road in Romsey town centre closed to traffic



Figure 4.27: Activities in War Memorial Park, Romsey

1) Public order at the Beggars Fair

The 2011 Beggars Fair was marred by a serious public order disturbance centred on an alcohol-fuelled fight on the Friday evening, which was reported in the local press as a ‘mass brawl’ (Russell, 2011). This continued into the Saturday afternoon where a ‘mob of between 20 and 30 yobs started causing trouble shortly after 4pm’ (Romsey Advertiser, 2011). Concerns over safety led to a number of the town’s pubs closing early to avoid any further incident.

Owing to this disturbance and following a post-event enquiry, the BF narrowly avoided termination by introducing much tighter restrictions. The Designated Public Places Order (DPPO), which had previously been ignored, was enforced and this resulted in a control on the consumption of alcohol in the town during the event. Formerly, event visitors were permitted to wander around the streets with alcoholic drinks. Since the enforcement of the DPPO, all licensed establishments that are open for the event are required to employ security guards to prevent customers from taking any drink off the premises.

Temporary fences are now erected around the participating licensed premises as an additional preventative measure (Interviewees A and B). An example of the fencing can be seen around the Tudor Rose pub in Figure 4.28 overleaf.

Security guards are positioned at the entrances to the War Memorial Park and signs declare the area an ‘alcohol free zone’ (see Figure 4.29 overleaf).

Additional security guards, as well as police, patrol the fair all day long to monitor behaviour. The organisers used the 2011 restructuring to refocus the event and attempt to turn it into more of an event aimed at families, in the hope that this would reduce the image it had acquired over the years as a ‘drink-fest’ (Interviewee B).

This case study offers much to explore in terms of economic and non-economic impacts: firstly the level of contribution made to the host economy, given that it is a free event with few opportunities for additional expenditure; secondly, the legacy of the 2011 disturbance; and thirdly, the contribution made by the BF to build an image of place. The next case study is quite different and illustrates how a small semi-rural community can create a festival that has developed a reputation for quality.



Figure 4.28: Fencing around the Tudor Rose pub (to the right of the photograph)



Figure 4.29: Entrance to the War Memorial Park showing 'alcohol free zone' sign

4.2.2 Trout 'n About, Stockbridge

Trout 'n About (TnA) is an annual food and craft festival, which takes place on the first Sunday of August along Stockbridge High Street between 10am-4pm. Although there are a number of markets held in Stockbridge during the year, this is the flagship event for the town as well as one of the highest profile annual events for the borough (Interviewee L). With up to 100 stalls offering a wide variety of local produce and craft items, local bands and children's entertainers, TnA attracts thousands of visitors to the small town (Interviewee F). The original idea for a food-themed promotion was included in a plan to restore the town hall using a grant awarded via the South-East England Regional Development Agency (SEEDA) Market Towns Initiative (Stockbridge Area Partnership, 2007) and the first food festival took place in 2008 with 40 stalls. Over the years, the festival has grown in stature and reputation and the organisers now have a waiting list of around 30 producers wishing to rent a stall for the day (Interviewees F, G and H). Figure 4.30 below and Figure 4.31 overleaf show Stockbridge High Street with the festival stalls, while Figure 4.32 overleaf depicts a local band playing in front of the town hall.



Figure 4.30: Trout 'n About stalls along Stockbridge High Street facing west



Figure 4.31: Trout 'n About stalls along Stockbridge High Street facing east



Figure 4.32: Local band playing in front of the Town Hall

The festival is organised and managed by a committee of local volunteers, apart from the project manager, who is employed. Many of the committee members have been involved since the beginning, however, the project manager changed three times during the course of this research project. The first left owing to family commitments but the reason for the departure of the

second is not known. Committee members include local residents, community groups and local businesses. The festival is self-financing and apart from paying the project manager's salary, any proceeds are gifted to local community groups on receipt of an application after the event's finances have been reconciled. TVBC awards a token grant of £250 and although it is modest, the organisers believe it to be an important endorsement from the borough. Other income is received via advertising in the event guide, raffle ticket sales and sponsorship (Interviewees F, G and H).

The name of the festival – Trout 'n About – is intended to promote the historic connection between trout fishing on the River Test, which runs through the town, however, this connection is not well-understood by outsiders and the non-angling fraternity, particularly since there are few stalls selling fish-related produce and the promotional material does not explain the connection well (see Figure 4.33 below). The organisers are aware of the matter and although they aim to promote local producers, the search for suitable fish producers has extended to Sussex and the Isle of Wight (Interviewees G and H), thus diluting the local connections.

Excerpt from the home page of www.tnastockbridge.co.uk:

'Trout 'n About

Stockbridge Annual Food & Craft Festival

Stockbridge's local food festival takes place annually; usually on the first Sunday of August. Trout 'n About showcases the best of local food, local produce and local crafts, in a family friendly, outdoor market environment.

Many of our High Street shops will be open too – they all contribute to making Stockbridge a thriving and unique experience on a daily basis; so together with them we hope to give visitors many reasons to come back again and again.

Trout 'n About is set on the beautiful, historic High Street of the market town of Stockbridge, Hampshire. With the river Test flowing under the High Street our festival is named after one of the things the Test Valley is renowned for – Trout!

We look forward to seeing you there!'

(Trout 'n About, n.d.)

Figure 4.33: Excerpt from Trout 'n About Website (www.tnastockbridge.co.uk)

In addition to its website, TnA is promoted via a number of tourist guides and leaflets produced by TVBC, notably the annual visitor guide, a Stockbridge pocket guide and guide dedicated to food and drink. It is also promoted on

the borough's website and the Visit Hampshire tourism website. The organisers post updates on Facebook and Twitter, as do some of the town's businesses and the traders who have booked a stall. A leaflet is also produced by the organisers and an article is included in the local parish news. Roadside signs and posters are positioned around the town during the weeks leading up to the event and media advertising is purchased.

1) Success leading to congestion – vehicular and pedestrian

As Stockbridge is a very small town, with a resident population of less than 600, it struggles to cope with the influx of visitors on the day of the festival and congestion is a particular problem. Parking on non-event days is already a contentious issue with residents and local businesses, as the wide High Street allows around 100 vehicles to park on both sides in front of the shops and residential properties free of charge, with no time limit set (Interviewee I). Some local businesses complain that access to their premises is blocked by walkers who park their cars, preventing potential customers from visiting. On event days, these spaces are set aside for stalls and associated activities and so the neighbouring streets can become very congested with parked cars (see Figure 4.34 overleaf). For TnA, and to alleviate the pressure on the neighbourhood, parking is made available in fields at each end of the town by two local landowners. A free park and ride service is offered by a local heritage bus company in conjunction with these and acts as a supplementary attraction.

Congestion on the day of the festival includes pedestrians as well as vehicular traffic. Pavements can become clogged as people struggle to move between crowded stalls, however, as Stockbridge lies on the A30 trunk road and there is no reasonable diversion around the town, a road closure is not possible to ease this problem (Interviewees G, H and I). Occasionally, traffic is held up owing to the volume attempting to pass through safely, as shown in Figure 4.35 overleaf. This congestion is a worry for some, while others suggest that there is a collective concern for one another owing to the constant flow of traffic. The organisers are reluctant to relocate the festival, for example to one of the farmers' fields, as they feel it would negate TnA's main purpose of promoting the town, along with its retail and service offer, to visitors (Interviewees G and H). A map is shown in Figure 4.36 on p157 to illustrate the layout of Stockbridge and the lack of alternative routes around the area. It also marks the extent of the market stalls and the location of the two car parks.



Figure 4.34: Cars parked along a road adjacent to the High Street, Stockbridge during Trout 'n About



Figure 4.35: Traffic congestion during Trout 'n About

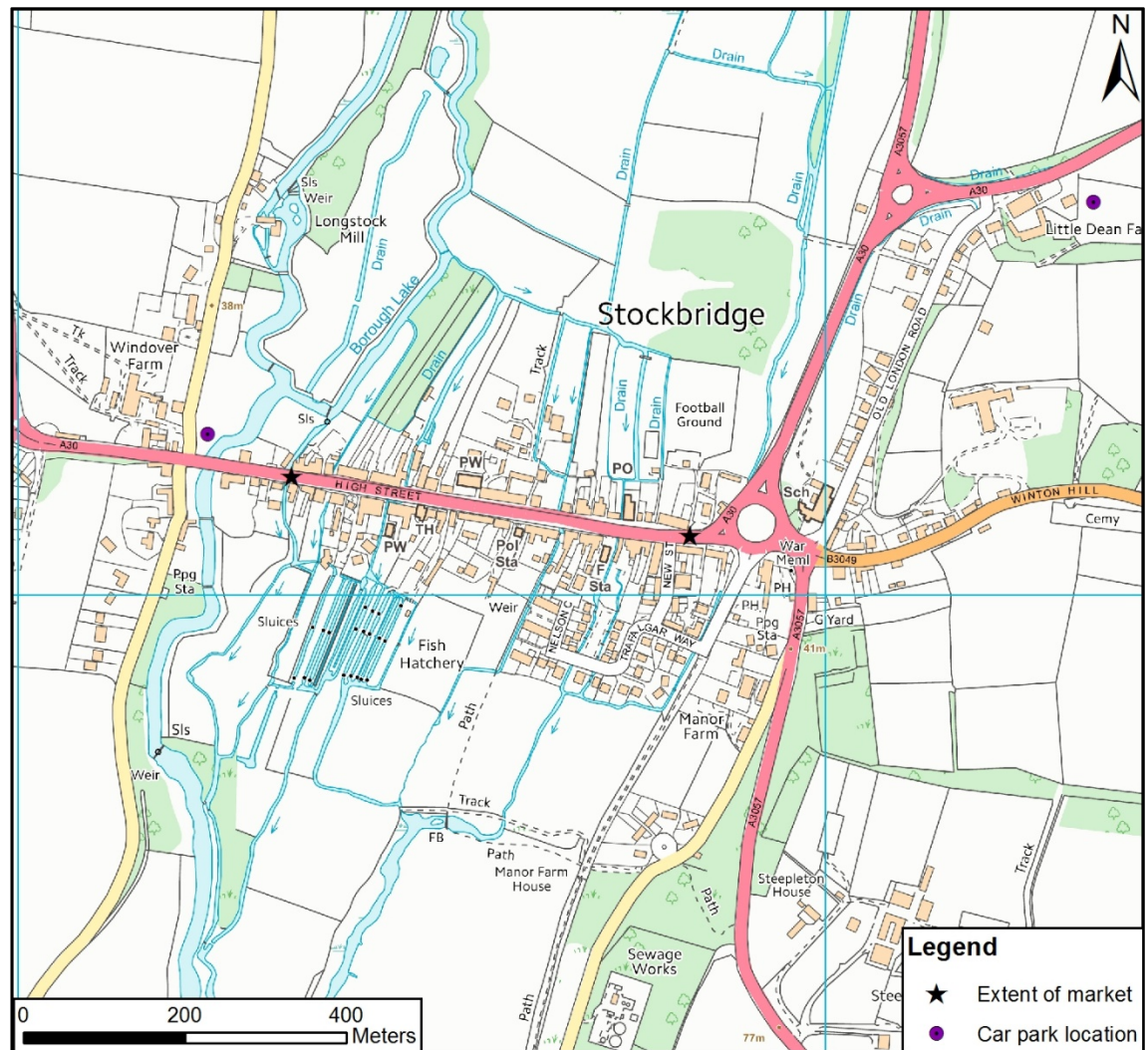


Figure 4.36: Map of Stockbridge showing the extent of Trout 'n About and the location of the car parks (contains Ordnance Survey map data © Crown copyright and database right 2015. An Ordnance Survey/EDINA supplied service)

In contrast to BF and TnA; two festivals contending with excess demand and the consequences of this, the final case study is an example of an event specifically created to increase footfall to a town that is not performing as well as the other two in this respect.

4.2.3 Farmers' and crafts market, Andover

The farmers' and crafts market (AFM) takes place on the third Sunday of the month between March and December, and has been in operation in its current format since 2014 (Interviewee K). The market runs from 10am-2pm and is located along the High Street, in front of the Chantry Centre covered shopping centre (see Figure 4.37 overleaf). Although this area is part pedestrianised, a road closure is also in place to allow the market to extend beyond this point. A performance area known as the Time Ring, located within the pedestrian

zone (see Figure 4.38, overleaf), is also used by groups and individuals to add a variety of entertainment during the day.



Figure 4.37: Location of Andover farmers' and crafts market
(contains Ordnance Survey map data © Crown copyright and database right 2015. An Ordnance Survey/EDINA supplied service)

The market was initiated by TVBC following the departure of the previous farmers' market run by independent organisation Hampshire Farmers' Market (HFM), which represents around 90 members. There was a feeling amongst the members that other towns in Hampshire offered a more profitable location than Andover and despite an incentive offered by TVBC during 2013 for the market to remain, HFM withdrew at the end of that year. TVBC felt that a repeat event like a farmers' market was an important contribution towards improving the character of Andover town centre. It also wanted to demonstrate to the local businesses that it was committed to supporting them during challenging economic times by creating an event that would encourage increased footfall on a Sunday, which was known to be a very quiet trading day (Interviewees I and L). Although some local businesses appreciate the effort and open on AFM days, even if they are not normally open on Sundays, others are unconvinced and remain closed, as they do not see the need and feel it

would not be cost effective to pay staff when they believe there is insufficient demand. More retailers are gradually beginning to open on market Sundays as the market begins to gain a reputation and audience (Interviewee K).



Figure 4.38: A singer performing in the Time Ring, Andover

The market consists of around 40 stalls taken by local producers and craftspeople (see Figure 4.39 overleaf), some of whom do not have alternative retail outlets. In addition, two charity places are made available and local community groups are given the opportunity to promote themselves. Some stalls are taken by HFM members who have decided to return after the main HFM organisation withdrew (Interviewee K).



Figure 4.39: Andover farmers' and crafts market

The pitch fee is deliberately modest, at £10, to offer micro-businesses and 'start-ups' a low-cost means of engaging with potential customers or to promote themselves to new audiences (Interviewee K). There is evidence that some of these traders have progressed to permanent retail units in the town centre, something also observed by La Trobe (2001) in her study of Stour Valley farmers' market.

Although Andover has a part-time TCM, who is keen to develop the events programme and is involved in organising other events, AFM is organised and managed by a TVBC officer whose main role is to manage the local performance venue. This is the only case study not to have any volunteer or local community involvement in the event organisation.

In terms of promotional activity, TVBC produces a leaflet that announces the dates for the forthcoming year and these are also available on the borough's website. Although it has its own Facebook page, there is no Twitter account for it, however, there is some advertising in the local media. Unlike the former HFM, it is not possible to obtain information about the stallholders in advance.

4.3 Chapter summary

The first part of this chapter outlined the socio-economic, geographic and historic characteristics of Test Valley and the case study towns. An illustration

of a relatively affluent borough has emerged, when compared with the average for England, according to ONS Census data. The indicators included in the analysis suggest that Stockbridge is the wealthiest of the three towns, with Romsey in the middle and Andover the least affluent. Although overall the borough's population is ageing, of the three towns, Andover has the highest proportion of young people. In contrast, both Stockbridge and Romsey have a high proportion of retired residents. The retail and service structure of Stockbridge and Romsey show signs of strength, however, this is not the case for Andover. This divide is reflected across the borough in economic terms, as the southern part, including Romsey, appears to be in a stronger position than the northern part, which includes Andover. TVBC is working to even out the disparity by initiating a number of regeneration schemes in the north of the borough.

Historically, each of the towns has a different story to tell. The medieval town of Romsey has its local heritage visitor attractions coupled with an idiosyncratic form of modern feudalism. Stockbridge promotes itself via its rural location on a river and its fishing heritage. Andover, in contrast, appears to be a town struggling to capitalise on its remaining heritage, owing to the unnatural juxtaposition of old and new. These are examples of market towns that can be found in many parts of the UK; there are many medieval towns, which profit from their historic character; equally, there are towns, which have expanded considerably during the 20th Century and are a mixture of old and new. Consequently, these case studies contribute to the development of a deeper understanding of the role cultural events play in such towns' ongoing vitality.

The case study events might also be viewed as examples of similar events taking place in market towns around the UK. The first is an annual folk and roots music festival, which takes place in and around the streets of Romsey. Although the name of the event – the Beggars Fair – suggests a historic association, the event has only been in existence since 1993. The second event – Trout 'n About – has been specifically created to promote the town's historic connection with fishing. The third – Andover farmers' and crafts market – has been created to increase footfall in a struggling town centre. Historic associations are therefore an important feature of these case studies, since the event organisers are drawing on real or imagined histories to help construct the narratives of the events. Each of the towns was awarded charters

to hold markets and fairs from around the 12th or 13th centuries and these were seen as significant trading opportunities at the time. Although their importance declined over the centuries, hosting markets and fairs are still clearly seen as opportunities to increase trade in town centres. The extent to which they contribute economically to their host towns is not clear. Chapter Five works through the process for economic impact assessment outlined in Chapter Three for each of the case study events. As discussed in Chapter Two, it is difficult to separate the economic – in monetary terms – from other impacts, so Chapter Six considers these other impacts.

Chapter 5: Economic Impact Assessment

Following the economic, social and historic characteristics of the Test Valley area and an overview of the case study events presented in the previous chapter, this now turns to the economic impact of the events. Increased footfall which occurs as a result of events is important but how – or if – this translates into expenditure needs to be understood. As already discussed in Chapter Two, economic impact can be interpreted in various ways: some authors consider it to be a matter of calculating the financial or monetary effects which can be attributed to a cultural event (eg: Tohmo, 2005; Bracalente *et al*, 2011). There are others, however, who have argued that this is too narrowly focused and it is not possible to assess the overall economic impact without accounting for the social, cultural or emotional factors as well. These other impacts have been named ‘intangible’ (Dwyer, 2000); ‘less quantifiable’ (Langen and Garcia, 2009); ‘psychic income’ (Crompton, 2004; Kim and Walker, 2012); or part of the ‘experience economy’ (Pine and Gilmore, 2011). Although it is acknowledged in the wider thesis that it is difficult to separate monetary effects from the motivations leading to expenditure, this chapter has separated the financial impacts for now, in order to present the economic impact analysis in a conventional way by implementing methodology used in other EIAs, since this was what TVBC specifically requested. Chapter Six presents the results for less quantifiable impacts and both sets of results are combined in a discussion of overall impact in Chapter Seven.

Chapter Two examined how economic impact studies have been carried out previously, mostly on larger-scale events. Studies of smaller scale cultural events, where they exist, suggest that economic impact is marginal (Gibson *et al*, 2010) and that local businesses notice minimal change to what they would consider to be normal activity (Wood, 2005). The events in Wood’s work did not take place in a market town setting and did not differentiate between expenditure by event attendees on event trading stalls and in the host town’s retail and service offer. Consideration of this is important for understanding how, or if, this kind of cultural event generates additional visitor expenditure in the host town’s retail and service offer: if visitor spend occurs mostly on event stalls rather than the town’s businesses, then there is little economic value in hosting the event and this can cause friction with the local businesses, particularly if they perceive the event to draw trade away from them. Another

issue to consider in terms of EIA is the attendance estimate. Other such studies, for example Southern *et al* (2007), have not attempted to estimate attendance, presenting a figure for mean per person (MPP) expenditure instead. While estimating attendance is problematic, as discussed in Chapter Three, some suggestion of attendance is, nevertheless, crucial in order to understand the overall economic impact. Furthermore, some studies, for example, Crompton *et al* (2001), have made use of computer software to undertake economic impact assessment, which can be expensive and beyond the resources of many small-scale event organisers. As explained in Chapter Three, this research makes use of a well-established methodology for calculating economic impact without the need for computer software. A straightforward systematic process that could be easily replicated was outlined in Chapter Three. For convenience, the model illustrating this process is repeated at Figure 5.1 overleaf, along with the equation expressing how economic impact is understood in terms of direct, indirect and induced impacts (Figure 5.2 also overleaf). The cases are presented in the order in which the fieldwork was undertaken: the Beggars Fair, Romsey (13 July, 2013) (CS1); Trout 'n About, Stockbridge (4 August, 2013) (CS2); and the farmers' and crafts market, Andover (15 May, 2015) (CS3). By working through the EIA, the first research question and its associated sub-questions, which are repeated below, are answered:

RQ1: What is the economic impact of small-scale cultural events?

- (a) How much do event attendees spend on event stalls and in the host town's shops and services while they are visiting? Is more spent on event stalls or in the host towns?
- (b) Do these visitors travel to the towns mainly for the event and are they aware of the event prior to their visit?
- (c) Where do these attendees come from? Are they local residents, or visitors from further afield? While at the event, how long do they stay?

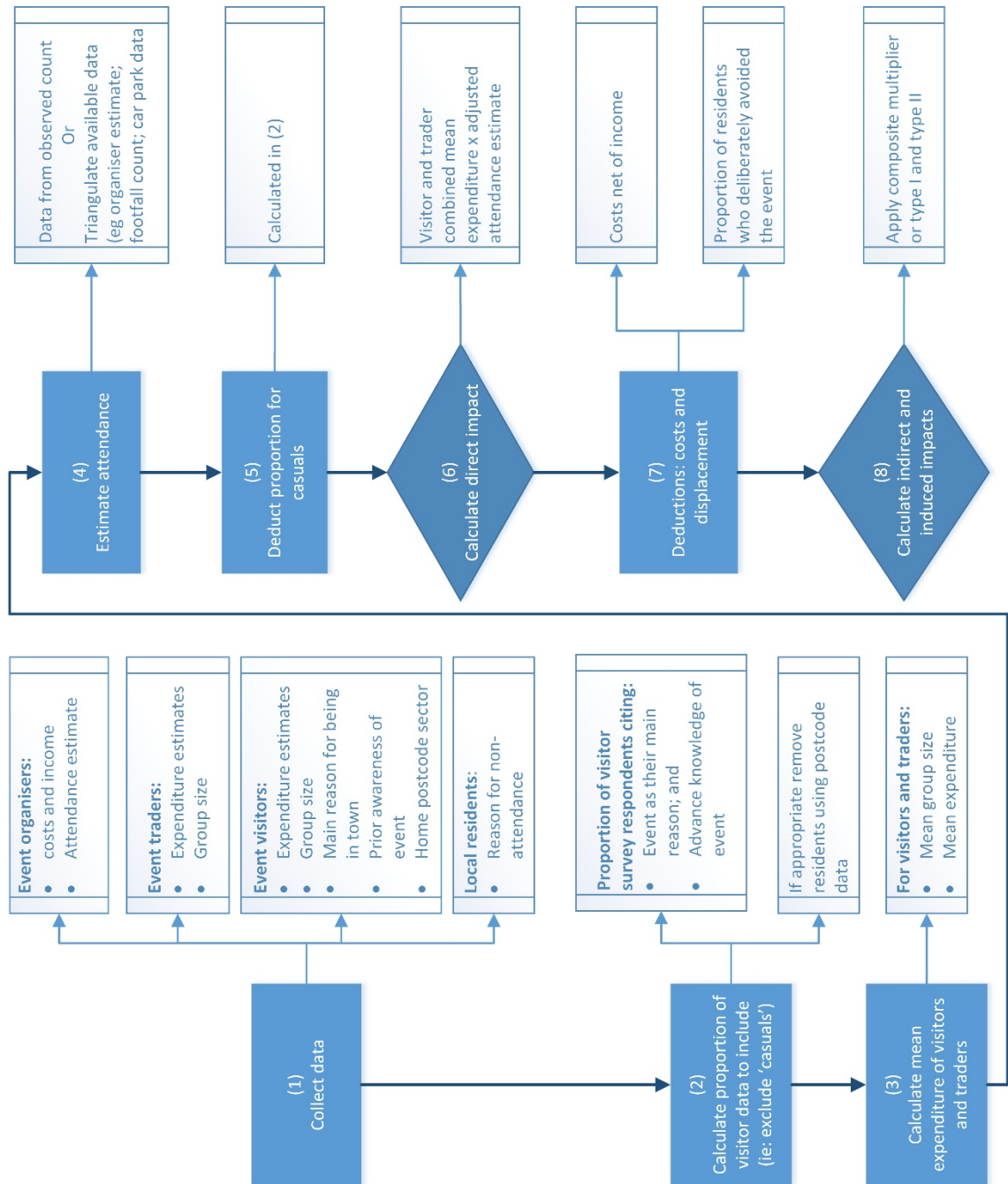


Figure 5.1: Systematic process for economic impact assessment of small-scale cultural events

Economic impact =

$$(a) \text{ direct (gross) impact} - \left(\begin{matrix} (b) \\ \text{event costs} + \text{leakage} \\ + \text{displacement} \end{matrix} \right) + \left(\begin{matrix} (c) \\ \text{indirect} + \text{induced} \\ \text{impacts} \end{matrix} \right)$$

Figure 5.2: Equation for assessing economic impact

5.1 Case Study One: The Beggars Fair, Romsey

Following the systematic process illustrated in Figure 5.1 above, the economic impact of CS1 was calculated as follows. Firstly, costs, income data and attendance estimates were collected via the interviews with the organisers. Reported costs of £10,000-£12,000 were met through various grants and income generated through the sale of merchandise, advertising in the event programme and its subsequent sale at £3 per programme. Grant income was obtained from TVBC (£250), HCC (£1,000), Romsey Town Council (£300) and arts organisations. Other expenses, such as the provision of waste bins and staging were met through in-kind sponsorship arrangements. A surplus built up over previous years was kept as a contingency in the event that no external grant funding could be secured. Although precise figures were not provided by the organisers, they were prepared to disclose that they would be able to run the event without grant funding for one year, which would indicate that the surplus was in the region of £10,000. Given that the event was deemed self-financing according to the organisers, for the purpose of the EIA, income and expenditure were considered equal.

5.1.1 Calculation of expenditure

The next step was to determine the estimated MPP expenditure of the event traders and the event visitors. For this calculation, the data collected from those considered to be 'casuals' needed to be excluded (Crompton *et al*, 2001), as explained in Chapter Three. Event traders/performers were assumed to be in Romsey mainly for the event and to have had prior awareness of it, otherwise they would not have been allocated a performance time or space for a stall. For event visitors, the easiest way to determine the correct proportion was to perform a crosstab in SPSS, combining the responses from the 'main reason for being in Romsey today' question with the responses from the 'prior awareness of the BF' question. The result of this calculation is shown in Table 5.1 overleaf. The shaded area shows that 77.6% of respondents were aware of the BF prior to their visit and were in Romsey primarily to attend it. Data from the remaining 22.4% were filtered out from further calculations.

Table 5.1: Beggars Fair visitor survey crosstabs analysis

			Aware of BF today?		Total
			Yes	No	
Main reason here today?	To visit the Beggars Fair	Count	45	1	46
		% of Total	77.6%	1.7%	79.3%
	To perform at the Beggars Fair	Count	4	0	4
		% of Total	6.9%	0.0%	6.9%
	To visit family and/or friends	Count	1	1	2
		% of Total	1.7%	1.7%	3.4%
	To visit Romsey as a tourist/sightseeing	Count	0	3	3
		% of Total	0.0%	5.2%	5.2%
	To go shopping in Romsey	Count	1	0	1
		% of Total	1.7%	0.0%	1.7%
Other reason	Count	1	1	2	
	% of Total	1.7%	1.7%	3.4%	
Total		Count	52	6	58
		% of Total	89.7%	10.3%	100.0%

MPP was then calculated using the categories explained in Chapter Three, separated by town spend and expenditure on event stalls and activities, the latter collectively termed 'stalls spend'. Table 5.2 shows the visitor survey respondents' estimated expenditure in the town, with the total MPP calculated at £10.46; and Table 5.3 overleaf shows the same for stalls spend, with MPP calculated at £5.17.

Table 5.2: Beggars Fair visitor survey per person estimated town spend

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Sum	Mean
Town meals (leisure services) (£/person)	45	£.00	£40.00	£282.91	£6.2869
Town food retail (£/person)	45	£.00	£20.00	£97.71	£2.1714
Town non-food retail (£/person)	45	£.00	£33.33	£80.33	£1.7852
Town attractions (£/person)	45	£.00	£2.00	£2.00	£0.0444
Town other (£/person)	45	£.00	£7.50	£7.50	£0.1667
Town total (£/person)	45	£.00	£53.33	£470.45	£10.4545
Valid N (listwise)	45				

Table 5.3: Beggars Fair visitor survey per person estimated stalls spend

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Sum	Mean
BF food & drink (£/person)	45	£.00	£25.00	£166.83	£3.7074
BF sideshows (£/person)	45	£.00	£6.00	£27.67	£.6148
BF gifts/souvenirs (£/person)	45	£.00	£2.50	£3.25	£.0722
BF other (£/person)	45	£.00	£20.00	£35.00	£.7778
BF total (£/person)	45	£.00	£30.00	£232.75	£5.1722
Valid N (listwise)	45				

Table 5.4 and Table 5.5 represent the same calculations for the traders/performers, with mean town spend at £9.46 per person and mean stalls spend at £7.77.

Table 5.4: Beggars Fair trader/performer survey per person estimated town spend

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Sum	Mean
Town meals (leisure services) (£/person)	24	£.00	£20.00	£158.28	£6.5949
Town food retail (£/person)	24	£.00	£10.00	£61.78	£2.5741
Town non-food retail (£/person)	24	£.00	£3.00	£7.00	£.2916
Town other (£/person)	24	£.00	£.00	£.00	£.0000
Town total (£/person)	24	£.00	£26.00	£227.06	£9.4606
Valid N (listwise)	24				

Table 5.5: Beggars Fair trader/performer survey per person estimated stalls spend

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Sum	Mean
BF food & drink (£/person)	24	£.00	£50.00	£138.00	£5.7500
BF sideshows (£/person)	24	£.00	£10.00	£21.58	£.8993
BF gifts/souvenirs (£/person)	24	£.00	£10.00	£21.58	£.8993
BF other spend (£/person)	24	£.00	£2.25	£5.25	£.2188
BF total (£/person)	24	£.00	£50.00	£186.42	£7.7674
Valid N (listwise)	24				

The MPP for visitors and traders/performers was combined and weighted according to the overall attendance estimate for the former and the total number of traders/performers for the latter. The way in which attendance was

calculated is explained below. The separate totals (£15.63 for visitors and £17.23 for stallholders/performers) and the weighted mean (£15.64) are shown in Table 5.6.

Table 5.6: Beggars Fair mean per person estimated expenditure

Respondent group	Mean town spend	Mean stalls spend	Mean spend total
Visitors	£10.46	£5.17	£15.63
Performers/ stallholders	£9.46	£7.77	£17.23
Weighted mean	£10.36	£5.19	£15.64

5.1.2 Estimation of overall attendance

A figure for overall attendance was needed in order to proceed with the EIA calculations. This was calculated by triangulating the interviewees' estimates with the footfall recorded on the day by the electronic footfall counter, which was located in one of the main performance areas, and car park usage data. This resulted in an overall estimate of 5,077. Table 5.7 shows the different estimates and an explanation of the way in which they were calculated follows.

Table 5.7: Beggars Fair attendance estimate

Provider of estimate	Attendance estimate
Event organiser	Approx. 3,000
TCM (based on commercial experience)	Approx. 5,000
Footfall count recorded on the day of the event	5,112
Car park usage estimate	7,195
Triangulated mean	5,077

The organiser estimate of c.3,000 was based on past experience and information provided by the police, who on further enquiry, indicated that there was no precise method for calculating this. The TCM used prior experience of crowd estimation to provide another figure of c.5,000. TVBC provided readings taken from the town centre footfall counter, which recorded 5,112 passes during the day. TVBC also provided car park usage data, which was used to calculate the number of cars using the car parks. This was not a straightforward process, as TVBC provided the data in different formats for different years. Saturday car park revenue by date was provided for 2013 and although it included the date of the BF at which fieldwork was undertaken for this research, the data omitted the number of tickets sold. As it was not

possible to determine the average ticket price from this, a second dataset was analysed that covered Saturdays from 3 October 2015 to 2 January 2016. This included both revenue and number of tickets sold and so average ticket price could be calculated.

The total revenue recorded on 13 July 2013 was then divided by the average ticket price to determine the estimated number of cars using the car parks. As there was no way to determine the actual number of passengers with any certainty, mean group size of the BF visitor survey respondents was used as a proxy. What is not known, however, is how many travelled by other means, or how many car park users did not go to the BF. No adjustments were made to attempt to account for this. Alone, these estimates would not provide accurate data upon which to base a robust EIA, so they were triangulated to provide an estimate that was believed to be as accurate as could be expected. Table 5.8 shows the results of the car park usage calculations.

Table 5.8: Romsey car park usage analysis

Item	Result
Total car park revenue 3 Oct 2015 – 2 Jan 2016	£36,089.40
Total number of tickets sold 3 Oct 2015 – 2 Jan 2016	24,900
Average ticket price	£1.45
Total car park revenue 13 July 2013	£3,050.55
Estimated number of cars	2,104
Mean group size of Beggars Fair visitor survey respondents	3.42
Estimated total number of visitors	7,195

A proportion accounting for casuals, as explained earlier, was deducted from the attendance estimate before further analysis and this resulted in a revised figure of 3,949, which represented 77.8% of the overall attendance. This proportion was based on a weighted mean of 77.6% of visitors and all traders/performers.

5.1.3 Calculation of the economic impact

The direct economic impact was calculated by multiplying the revised attendance estimate by the MPP estimated expenditure, which resulted in a figure of £61,767. As costs were considered to be equal to income, no deduction was made, however, a deduction of 26.7% was made to account for

displacement activity. This was derived from the residents' survey by calculating the proportion of all respondents who cited deliberate avoidance as their reason for not attending the BF. Finally, the multiplier of 1.25 was applied to account for the indirect and induced effects, which resulted in an overall economic impact of £56,594. Each of the calculations outlined above is shown in Table 5.9.

Table 5.9: Economic impact of the Beggars Fair, Romsey

Estimate of Attendance	Proportion to include (77.8%)	Total spend estimate		Total direct impact	Deduct 26.7% - displacement	Subtotal	Indirect & induced impact (x 1.25)
		Town @ £10.45/person	Stalls @ £5.19/person				
5,077	3,949	£41,272	£20,495	£61,767	£16,492	£45,275	£56,594

5.1.4 Local business opinion

The local business respondents were mixed in their views of how the BF affected their trade, however, since the majority declined to complete the survey, there is nothing to be gained from attempting meaningful statistical analysis, apart from to say that most retailers reported decreases in normal footfall and trading activity, with only two reporting an increase. Anecdotal evidence was provided during the stakeholder interviews, which suggested that the pubs experienced their best trading day of the year. The willingness with which they contributed to additional security costs was cited as evidence for this claim. It was unfortunate that none of these establishments was prepared to comment, however, the factors contributing to this reluctance is discussed further in Chapter Seven.

There were mixed views amongst the retailers about whether the BF was beneficial for the town as a whole, with some remarking that the negative effects of anti-social behaviour were concerning, particularly regarding fear of shop-lifting. Others remarked that although the town was busy on the day, visitors were not of the mind-set to go shopping. The quotes overleaf reflect these comments.

'It is good for the pubs, hotels, B&Bs and restaurants. No good whatsoever for our business. People do not come to the town to shop on that day.'

'Shoplifting, rowdy behaviour in past years and lack of trade or footfall generally on this day. This event does our business NO GOOD WHATSOEVER. We closed this year to save the money of staff wages.'

'I closed early as I had no customers for a couple of hours. People were standing outside the shop listening to the music, if people wanted to get in they had to try and move people out of the way.'

'Many locals already perceive this to be no more than a booze fest.'

'The Beggars Fair is a wonderful day of musical celebration for the town if managed carefully and people behave responsibly. It certainly attracts more visitors to the town centre on the day from within the town community and the immediate outlying villages. I'm not sure it attracts visitors from further afield though.'

'It provides a lot of entertainment in the town. It is a very busy place in the centre, however many who want to shop in Romsey avoid the town that day because they know it will be impossible to park and shop. The evening becomes a place full of rubbish and drunk people, cars are damaged on the way home, fights take place, etc.'

5.1.5 Additional visitor information

Questions 1(a) and 1(b) were answered in the above EIA, which leaves 1(c): where do the visitors come from and how long do they stay? To answer these questions, the data from all respondents were included. The majority of visitor survey respondents (88.1%, n=52) lived within a 20-mile radius of Romsey, however, 61.0% (n=36) of all respondents were non-residents of the TVBC area. The remainder were from further afield in the UK, Spain and the Netherlands. Figure 5.3 shows the UK respondents mapped by their home postcode sector.

On average, visitors stayed in Romsey for approximately five hours, although the most common length of stay was two hours, with almost a quarter of respondents reporting this (24.1%). A similar proportion reported a stay of between 6-8 hours.

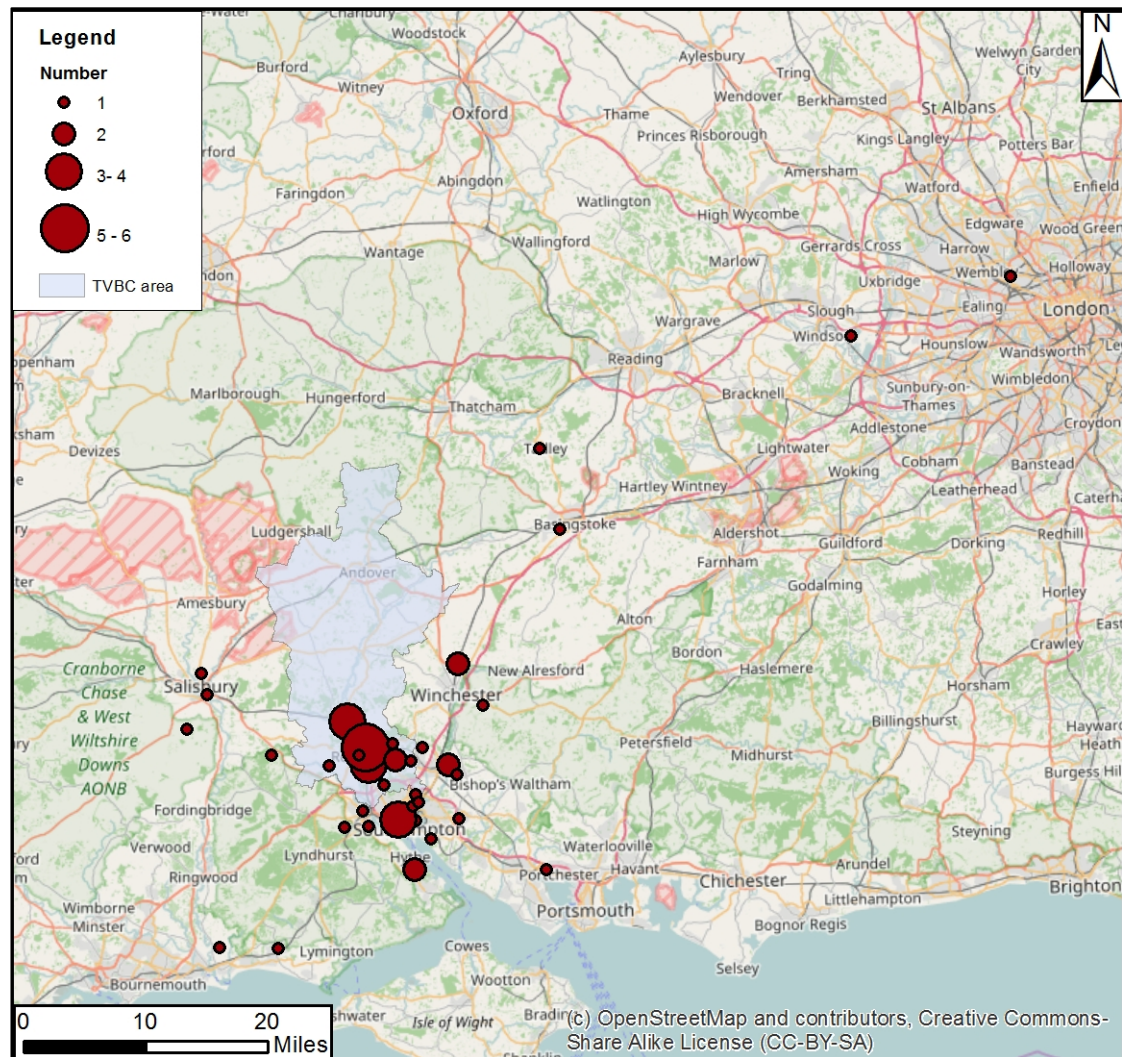


Figure 5.3: Home postcode sector of Beggars Fair visitor survey respondents
(contains Royal Mail data © Royal Mail copyright and database right 2012) [nb: two outliers omitted: SK9 1 and LE11 5]

5.1.6 Case study one summary

The findings presented in this section have indicated that the BF encouraged a limited amount of economic activity, in monetary terms, in the town of Romsey. It had not been feasible to gain access to the pubs during the course of the event, mainly for practical reasons, and it was decided that it would have been unwise to approach potentially inebriated customers inside these premises. The photographs shown at Figure 4.28 on p151 and Figure 5.4 show the barriers positioned around the perimeter of two pubs, which prevented customers from circulating beyond the premises at different times of the day: Figure 4.28 was taken at 4.10pm; and Figure 5.4 at 6.25pm.

The publicans were, additionally, reluctant to participate in the study. As a result, a large proportion of expenditure estimates were potentially omitted from the analysis. The sampling strategy attempted to overcome this by

including a cross-section of event attendees throughout the day, with the last survey being completed at 6.05pm. This maximised the opportunity to include participants who were intending to visit a pub or had already done so. The EIA presented here is, consequently, likely to be a cautious estimate. The results nevertheless highlight that the majority of expenditure undertaken in Romsey's town centre businesses was on food and drink items; whether in the town's pubs, cafés, restaurants or takeaway establishments, or from supermarkets or convenience stores. Over 80% of reported visitor expenditure and 97% of performer/stallholder expenditure was in these categories. This matter is clearly significant in terms of how small-scale events may support their host towns' economies and is revisited in Chapter Seven.



Figure 5.4: The Olive Tree, Romsey showing barriers in place

5.2 Case study two: Trout 'n About, Stockbridge

The same procedure used for the BF was broadly followed for TnA. The only major exception was the way in which the estimate of attendance was calculated, which was by implementing a novel interpretation of capture-recapture methodology, largely out of necessity. This methodology was explained in Chapter Three but is briefly outlined in 5.2.2 as a reminder.

5.2.1 Calculation of expenditure

Beginning with the costs and income data as before, some financial information was made available by the organisers. Income from stall fees, sponsorship, advertisements in the event guide and raffle ticket sales exceeded event costs, which were just under £10,000. There was a practice in place of awarding any surplus in the form of small grants of a few hundred pounds to local community groups. Applications were invited on which the committee would vote. An interviewee suggested that there was a strong likelihood of an application being successful if the groups provided volunteers to help run the event, and two examples were offered. Firstly, the local football club provided marshals one year and so benefited from a grant. The second was the playgroup, as a former committee member, who was also involved with the local playgroup, encouraged other mothers to assist with the TnA. This practice illustrates other ways in which the event supports the local community, beyond increasing direct expenditure in the local shops and services. Although it is not expressly captured in the EIA process outlined below, it is a finding, which is discussed further in Chapter Seven.

As with CS1, casuals were excluded (20.9%, see Table 5.10 overleaf), based on 79.1% of visitor survey respondents reporting prior awareness of the event and that it was their main reason for being in Stockbridge on the day.

Table 5.10: Trout 'n About visitor survey crosstab analysis

			Aware of Trout 'n About today?		Total
			Yes	No	
Main reason here today?	To visit Trout 'n About	Count	155	6	161
		% of Total	79.1%	3.1%	82.1%
	official capacity (eg performing/stallholder)	Count	1	1	2
		% of Total	0.5%	0.5%	1.0%
	To visit family/friends	Count	1	3	4
		% of Total	0.5%	1.5%	2.0%
	To accompany someone else to Trout 'n About	Count	7	3	10
		% of Total	3.6%	1.5%	5.1%
	To visit Stockbridge as a tourist/sightseeing	Count	3	2	5
		% of Total	1.5%	1.0%	2.6%
	To go shopping in Stockbridge	Count	3	0	3
		% of Total	1.5%	0.0%	1.5%
	Other reason	Count	9	2	11
		% of Total	4.6%	1.0%	5.6%
Total		Count	179	17	196
		% of Total	91.3%	8.7%	100.0%

As before, MPP expenditure was calculated separately, then combined and weighted from visitor survey and stallholder survey respondents. Table 5.11 below and Table 5.12 overleaf show the estimated MPP visitor spend, firstly on town spend (£5.72), followed by stalls spend (£13.57).

Table 5.11: Trout 'n About visitor survey per person town spend

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Sum	Mean
Town meals (leisure services) (£/person)	155	£.00	£75.00	£585.83	£3.7795
Town food retail (£/person)	155	£.00	£20.00	£147.93	£.9544
Town non-food retail (£/person)	155	£.00	£50.00	£122.98	£.7934
Town other (£/person)	155	£.00	£22.50	£29.67	£.1914
Town total (£/person)	155	£.00	£75.00	£886.41	£5.7188
Valid N (listwise)	155				

Table 5.12: Trout 'n About visitor survey per person stalls spend

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Sum	Mean
TnA food & drink (£/person)	155	£.00	£75.00	£1,114.22	£7.1885
TnA sideshow (£/person)	155	£.00	£40.00	£90.39	£.5832
TnA art & craft (£/person)	155	£.00	£60.00	£606.77	£3.9146
TnA gifts/souvenirs (£/person)	155	£.00	£20.00	£147.21	£.9498
TnA other (£/person)	155	£.00	£30.00	£145.08	£.9360
TnA total (£/person)	155	£.00	£80.00	£2,103.67	£13.5721
Valid N (listwise)	155				

Table 5.13 and Table 5.14 show the same for stallholders (£3.93 and £7.92 respectively). The results of the calculation for the combined MPP expenditure for both town (£5.69) and stalls (£13.47) is shown in Table 5.15 overleaf.

Table 5.13: Trout 'n About stallholder survey per person estimated town spend

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Sum	Mean
Town meals (leisure services) (£/person)	7	£.00	£5.00	£7.00	£1.0000
Town food retail (£/person)	7	£.00	£7.00	£20.50	£2.9286
Town non-food retail (£/person)	7	£.00	£.00	£.00	£.0000
Town other (£/person)	7	£.00	£.00	£.00	£.0000
Town total (£/person)	7	£.00	£10.00	£27.50	£3.9286
Valid N (listwise)	7				

Table 5.14: Trout 'n About stallholder survey per person estimated stalls spend

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Sum	Mean
TnA food & drink (£/person)	7	£.00	£5.00	£20.00	£2.8571
TnA gifts/souvenirs (£/person)	6	£.00	£17.50	£22.50	£3.7500
TnA other (£/person)	6	£.00	£10.00	£10.00	£1.6667
TnA total (£/person)	6	£.00	£20.00	£47.50	£7.9167
Valid N (listwise)	6				

Table 5.15: Trout 'n About mean per person estimated expenditure

Respondent group	Mean town spend	Mean stalls spend	Mean spend total
Visitors	£5.72	£13.57	£19.29
Stallholders	£3.93	£7.92	£11.85
Weighted mean	£5.69	£13.47	£19.16

5.2.2 Estimation of overall attendance

As with the BF, the next step was to introduce the attendance estimate to determine the direct economic impact. The organisers suggested that attendance could be anywhere between 3,000 to 7,000 depending on the weather conditions on the day. As Stockbridge did not have an electronic footfall counter and car parking was unmonitored, triangulation using these methods was not an option. Instead, two farmers' fields were made available for visitor parking on the day of TnA, one at each end of the town, which facilitated implementation of the capture-recapture method.

Using this method, attendance was estimated to be 4,590 [4,301; 4,918], which is roughly in the middle of the organiser estimates and is believed to be as robust as possible. Briefly, the method was based on re-capturing a previously marked population and multiplying that number by the inverse of the probability of being marked to obtain the estimate of the overall population. In this case, the population was the total attendance at TnA. The marked population was the number of visitors who used either of the designated car parks, who were observed and counted by researchers. The re-capture element was covered by questions in the visitor survey to establish whether the respondent used one of these car parks, if they came by car. In total, researchers observed 1,081 cars entering the two car parks during the day with 2,584 passengers. This resulted in a mean group size of 2.39. The number of visitor survey respondents who reported using a car park was 384 (respondents weighted by group size), which was 64.8% of all respondents (see Table 5.16 overleaf).

Table 5.16: Trout 'n About car park usage crosstab

			use car park			Total
			Yes	No	Not applicable	
come by car?	Yes	Count	384	171	0	555
		% within come by car	69.2%	30.8%	0.0%	100.0%
		% within use car park	100.0%	100.0%	0.0%	93.6%
		% of Total	64.8%	28.8%	0.0%	93.6%
	No	Count	0	0	38	38
		% within come by car	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% within use car park	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	6.4%
		% of Total	0.0%	0.0%	6.4%	6.4%
Total		Count	384	171	38	593
		% within come by car	64.8%	28.8%	6.4%	100.0%
		% within use car park	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	64.8%	28.8%	6.4%	100.0%

Researchers who counted the cars and passengers entering the car parks observed some passengers being dropped off while the driver queued during congested periods and this may have led to a potential underestimation of overall attendance using the capture-recapture method. An uplift of 15% was applied to account for this, based on the difference between mean group size of the visitor survey respondents who reported using a car park and mean group size of observed car passengers. An allowance was made in this calculation for single visitors, taken from the proportion of visitor survey respondents who were alone and used one of the designated car parks. The adjusted number of car park users was 2,972 and this was divided by the inverse of the probability of using one of the designated car parks (0.6475^{-1}), which resulted in the estimate of attendance of 4,590. The results are shown in Table 5.17 overleaf. Lower and upper bounds are also provided at the 95% confidence interval.

Table 5.17: Calculations for attendance estimate at Trout 'n About

Item	Result
Total number of cars counted	1,081
Total number of passengers	2,584
Average number of passengers	2.39
15% uplift	388
Adjusted total number of passengers	2,972
Proportion of respondents using a car park	64.75%
Estimated overall attendance	4,590
Upper bound (95% CI)	4,918
Lower bound (95% CI)	4,301

The proportion accounting for casuals, as explained earlier (20.9%), was deducted from the attendance estimate before further analysis. The combined weighted mean of non-casual visitors and all stallholders (79.5%) produced a revised estimated attendance of 3,647 (3,425; 3,908 \pm 95% CI).

5.2.3 Calculation of the economic impact

To calculate the direct economic impact, the attendance estimate was multiplied by the MPP estimated expenditure of £19.83 presented in Table 5.15, which resulted in a figure of £72,307 (£67,912-£77,414 at the 95% CI). As already mentioned, costs and income were considered equal, so no adjustments were made, however, a deduction of 16.5% was applied to account for displacement activity. This was the proportion of all residents who cited deliberate avoidance as their reason for not attending TnA. The revised estimate at this point was £58,357 (£54,810-£62,527 at the 95% CI). Finally, the multiplier of 1.25 was applied in order to account for indirect and induced impacts, resulting in a combined estimated economic impact of £72,946 (£68,512-£78,158 at the 95% CI). All calculations are shown in Table 5.18.

Table 5.18: Economic impact of Trout 'n About, Stockbridge

Estimate of Attendance	Proportion to include (79.5%)	Total spend estimate		Total direct impact	Deduct 16.5% - Displacement	Subtotal	indirect & induced impact (x 1.25)
		Town @ £5.69/ person	Stalls @ £13.47/ person				
Lower bound 4,301	3,425	£19,488	£46,152	£65,640	£10,831	£54,810	£68,512
4,590	3,647	£20,750	£49,138	£69,888	£11,532	£58,357	£72,946
Upper bound 4,918	3,908	£22,232	£52,650	£74,882	£2,356	£62,527	£78,158

5.2.4 Local Business Opinion

Some retailers reported no change to normal footfall or trading activity during TnA, although others reported increases to both. Owing to the low response rate for local businesses (see Table 3.1), no detailed analysis can be presented. Comments made by the retailers were of interest, with some complaining that retailers suffer while cafés benefit the most, or that the stalls created unfair competition. On the other hand, some other business owners felt the event benefited the town. The selected quotes below illustrate these points.

'This is NOT good for local traders (pubs and tearooms may do ok), as other local greengrocers, butchers, cheese sellers, locally smoked fish plus more are present, so only causes competition.'

'A good festival for the local economy. Looked great and very busy for what may have been a quiet Sunday. Adds vibrancy to the town.'

'Organisers should NOT duplicate goods or produce already sold in Stockbridge shops, it's just not fair!'

5.2.5 Additional visitor information

Questions 1(a) and 1(b) were answered above, which leaves 1(c) remaining. Filters were removed from SPSS to include all visitor survey respondents for the remaining analysis. The majority of respondents came from a 15-mile radius of Stockbridge, although 53.3% (n=106) of all respondents were non-residents of the TVBC area. These came from further afield in the UK, including the Isles of Scilly, France, Belgium, Spain and the USA. Visitors stayed at TnA for an average of three hours, although 60.5% stayed between 2-3 hours, while the overall duration of the event was six hours. Figure 5.5 shows the home postcode sectors of all UK visitor survey respondents.

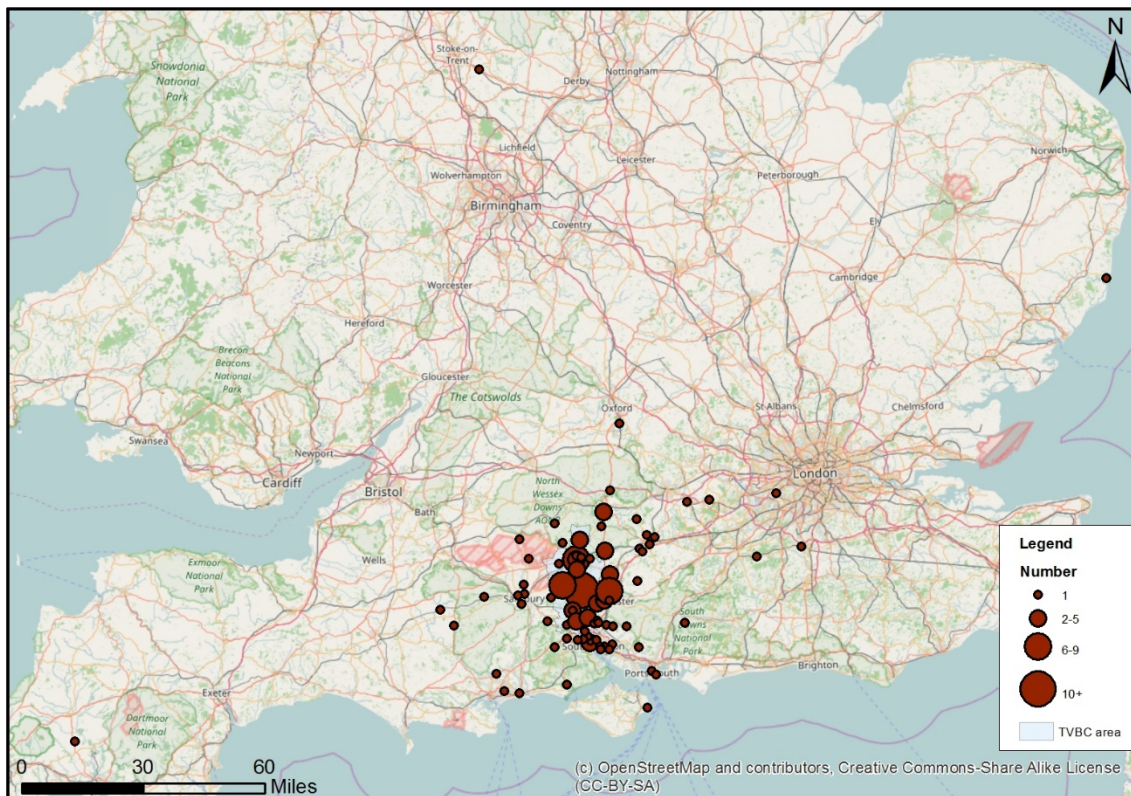


Figure 5.5: Home postcode sector of Trout 'n About visitor survey respondents
(contains Royal Mail data © Royal Mail copyright and database right 2012)

5.2.6 Case study two summary

The results presented in this section suggest that TnA accounts for around £73,000 of additional financial activity in the host economy, however, there is an indication that much of this additional activity does not occur in the town's retail and service offer. Of the limited expenditure undertaken in the town during TnA, visitors reported that 83% was on food and drink, while stallholders reported that all expenditure in the town's businesses was food and drink-related. As with CS1, this issue, along with the other results and their implications, are discussed in depth in Chapter Seven.

5.3 Case study three: Andover farmers' and crafts market

The same procedure was again followed for AFM, however, with an exception regarding the attendance estimate. For this case, footfall recorded by the town's electronic footfall counter on the day was used, as there were no alternative means available to facilitate triangulation.

5.3.1 Calculation of expenditure

With regard to costs and income, stall rental was £10 per pitch and there were usually between 40-45 stalls at the market, resulting in income of £400-£450. Costs included the road closure and advertising fees. These small costs and income largely cancelled each other out (Interviewee K), so no adjustment was made to account for income net of costs.

As before, the proportion for casuals was deducted, which was determined to be 49.3% (Table 5.19: the inverse of 50.7%), based on visitor survey respondents reporting prior awareness of the event and their main reason for being in Andover on the day.

Table 5.19: Farmers' and crafts market visitor survey crosstabs analysis

			knew AFM on today?		Total
			Yes	No	
Main reason here today?	To visit AFM	Count	38	0	38
		% of Total	50.7%	0.0%	50.7%
	Official capacity (eg stallholder)	Count	1	2	3
		% of Total	1.3%	2.7%	4.0%
	Accompany someone else to AFM	Count	0	1	1
		% of Total	0.0%	1.3%	1.3%
	To visit Andover as a tourist/sightseeing	Count	3	16	19
		% of Total	4.0%	21.3%	25.3%
	To go shopping in Andover	Count	0	2	2
		% of Total	0.0%	2.7%	2.7%
	To meet family/friends	Count	5	7	12
		% of Total	6.7%	9.3%	16.0%
Total		Count	47	28	75
		% of Total	62.7%	37.3%	100.0%

MPP expenditure was subsequently calculated separately, then combined and weighted, from visitor survey and stallholder survey respondents. Table 5.20 and Table 5.21 overleaf show the estimated MPP spend of visitors; firstly on town spend (£6.12), followed by stalls spend (£7.98). Table 5.22 overleaf and Table 5.23 on p185 show the same for stallholders (£6.79 and £9.69

respectively). The results of the calculations for the combined and weighted MPP expenditure, for town (£6.15), stall (£8.03) and combined (£14.18), is shown in Table 5.24 on p185.

Table 5.20: Farmers' and crafts market visitor survey per person town spend

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Sum	Mean
Town meals (leisure services) (£/person)	38	£.00	£7.50	£34.33	£.9035
Town food retail (£/person)	38	£.00	£25.00	£114.67	£3.0175
Town non-food retail (£/person)	38	£.00	£30.00	£83.50	£2.1974
Town other (£/person)	38	£.00	£.00	£.00	£.0000
Town total (£/person)	38	£.00	£37.50	£232.50	£6.1184
Valid N (listwise)	38				

Table 5.21: Farmers' and crafts market visitor survey per person stalls spend

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Sum	Mean
AFM food & drink (£/person)	38	£.00	£25.00	£222.42	£5.8531
AFM art & craft (£/person)	38	£.00	£10.00	£22.50	£.5921
AFM gifts/souvenirs (£/person)	38	£.00	£.00	£.00	£.0000
AFM other (£/person)	38	£.00	£10.00	£57.83	£1.5219
AFM total (£/person)	38	£.00	£25.00	£302.75	£7.9671
Valid N (listwise)	38				

Table 5.22: Farmers' and crafts market stallholder survey per person town spend

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Sum	Mean
Town meals (leisure services) (£/person)	38	£.00	£10.00	£55.06	£1.4489
Town food retail (£/person)	38	£.00	£15.00	£68.67	£1.8070
Town non-food retail (£/person)	38	£.00	£20.00	£134.17	£3.5307
Town total (£/person)	38	£.00	£35.00	£257.89	£6.7866
Valid N (listwise)	38				

Table 5.23: Farmers' and crafts market stallholder survey per person stalls spend

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Sum	Mean
AFM food & drink (£/person)	38	£.00	£75.00	£258.83	£6.8114
AFM gifts/souvenirs (£/person)	38	£.00	£20.00	£44.50	£1.1711
AFM other (£/person)	38	£.00	£30.00	£65.00	£1.7105
AFM total (£/person)	38	£.00	£75.00	£368.33	£9.6930
Valid N (listwise)	38				

Table 5.24: Farmers' and crafts market mean per person expenditure

Respondent group	Mean town spend	Mean stalls spend	Mean spend total
Visitors	£6.12	£7.97	£14.09
stallholders	£6.79	£9.69	£16.48
Weighted mean	£6.15	£8.03	£14.18

5.3.2 Estimation of overall attendance

The attendance estimate for this case study proved to be challenging, as explained in Chapter Three. Footfall recorded on the day by the electronic footfall counter was 1,151. The mean minimum and maximum Sunday footfall recorded between January 2013 and December 2015 were 683 and 2,588 respectively and are included to provide upper and lower bounds. The counts were recorded during the whole day, however, the market operated between 10am-2pm. It was not possible to refine these figures further, as the TVBC officer responsible for the market was neither able to provide any estimate of attendance, nor any alternative means of estimation. This attendance estimate was further adjusted to account for casuals, as explained earlier (49.3%). The combined weighted mean of non-casual visitors and all stallholders (52.6%) resulted in a revised estimate of 605 (lower 367; higher 1,334).

5.3.3 Calculation of the economic impact

The direct economic impact was calculated using these attendance estimates and the MPP expenditure, resulting in a figure of £8,578 (lower £5,227; higher £18,854). No adjustment was made to account for costs net of income, as previously explained, however, 1.6% was deducted to account for displacement activity. The proportion was taken from the proportion of residents' survey respondents who cited deliberate avoidance as the reason for not going to the

market. Finally, the multiplier of 1.25 was applied to account for indirect and induced effects, resulting in an overall EIA of £10,636 (lower £6,481; higher £23,379). Each of these calculations can be seen in Table 5.25:

Table 5.25: Economic impact of Andover farmers' and crafts market

Estimate of Attendance	Proportion to include (52.6%)	Total spend estimate		Total direct impact	Deduct 1.6% - displacement	Subtotal	Indirect & induced impact (x 1.25)
		Town @ £6.15/ person	Stalls @ £8.03/ person				
Lower bound 683	367	£2,262	£2,965	£5,227	£42	£5,185	£6,481
1,151	605	£3,717	£4,860	£8,578	£69	£8,509	£10,636
Upper bound 2,588	1,334	£8,183	£10,671	£18,854	£151	£18,703	£23,379

5.3.4 Local business opinion

The majority of local businesses reported no change to normal levels of footfall (53.0%; n=35) or trade (59.1%; n=39) as a result of the AFM. The perceived increases were greater than the decreases, which can be seen in detail at Figure 5.6 below and Figure 5.7 overleaf. There was more engagement with the research from the local businesses in Andover than was experienced in the other towns. Out of the 66 respondents, 48 were retailers, 10 were food and drink services, two were accommodation providers and six chose the option 'other.'

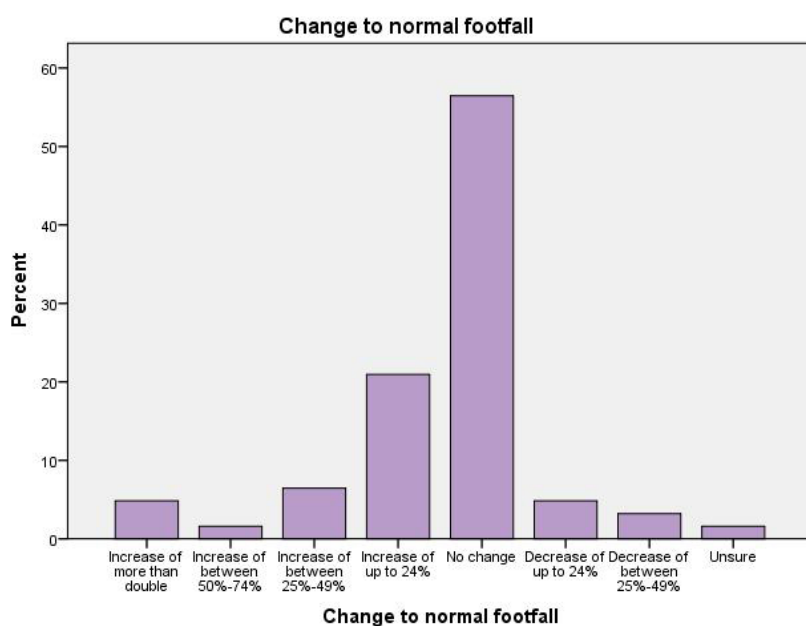


Figure 5.6: Perceived change to footfall during Andover farmers' and crafts market

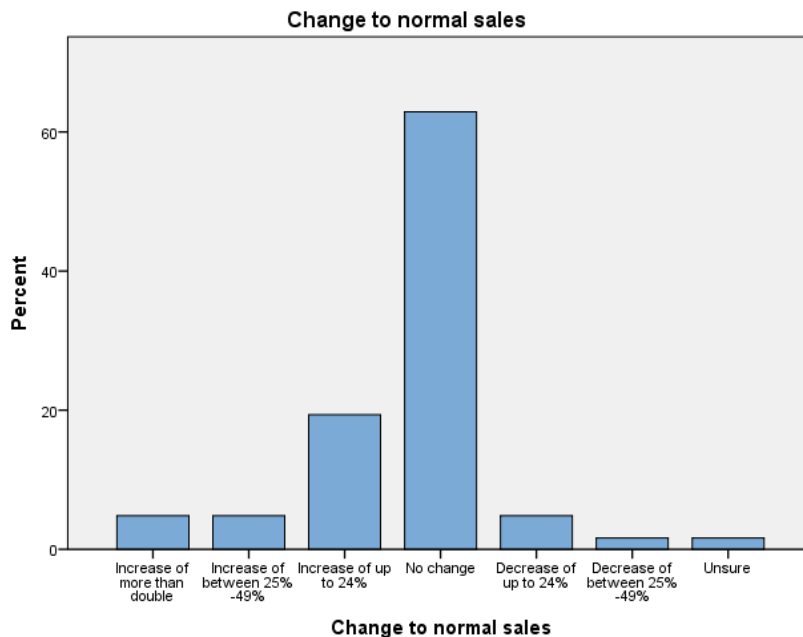


Figure 5.7: Perceived change to trading activity during Andover farmers' and crafts market

As before, comments received from the business owners indicated a range of views regarding whether they felt that the AFM benefited the town. Some commented that the market attracted more people into the town and so provided an opportunity for increased trade. This view seemed to be location specific, however, as respondents from within the Chantry Centre felt that they benefited less than the retailers along the High Street, adjacent to the market. Illustrative quotes are provided below.

'Something different for the town. Increases visitors to the town.'

'It makes the outside where the market is busy but then the centre is just a walk through for people to get back to their cars.'

'It attracts a lot more people into town. Andover does not really have a lot to offer otherwise.'

'It makes the town busier and increases the chance of new customers.'

'We need to see more people in the town centre.'

'We feel the high street shops benefit more than the Chantry Centre.'

'I'm sure the farmers' market is very good for the town centre, however, I feel it doesn't bring me any change in sales.'

'It's good to have it, it brings people to the town and builds it up. Not good for this business specifically but good for the town centre.'

'The Salisbury market is better. Andover could do with more upmarket, niche products like Salisbury.'

5.3.5 Additional visitor information

The above analysis provides answers to questions 1(a) and 1(b). The answers to the remaining sub-questions now follow. The majority of visitor survey respondents (78.4%; n=58) lived within an eight-mile radius of Andover town centre, with almost half (47.3%; n=36) living within 1.5 miles of the town centre. Seventeen respondents were non-residents of the TVBC area and came from the surrounding area or Blackburn, Wolverhampton, Lowestoft and West London. The map at Figure 5.8 shows the home postcode sectors of all visitor survey respondents.

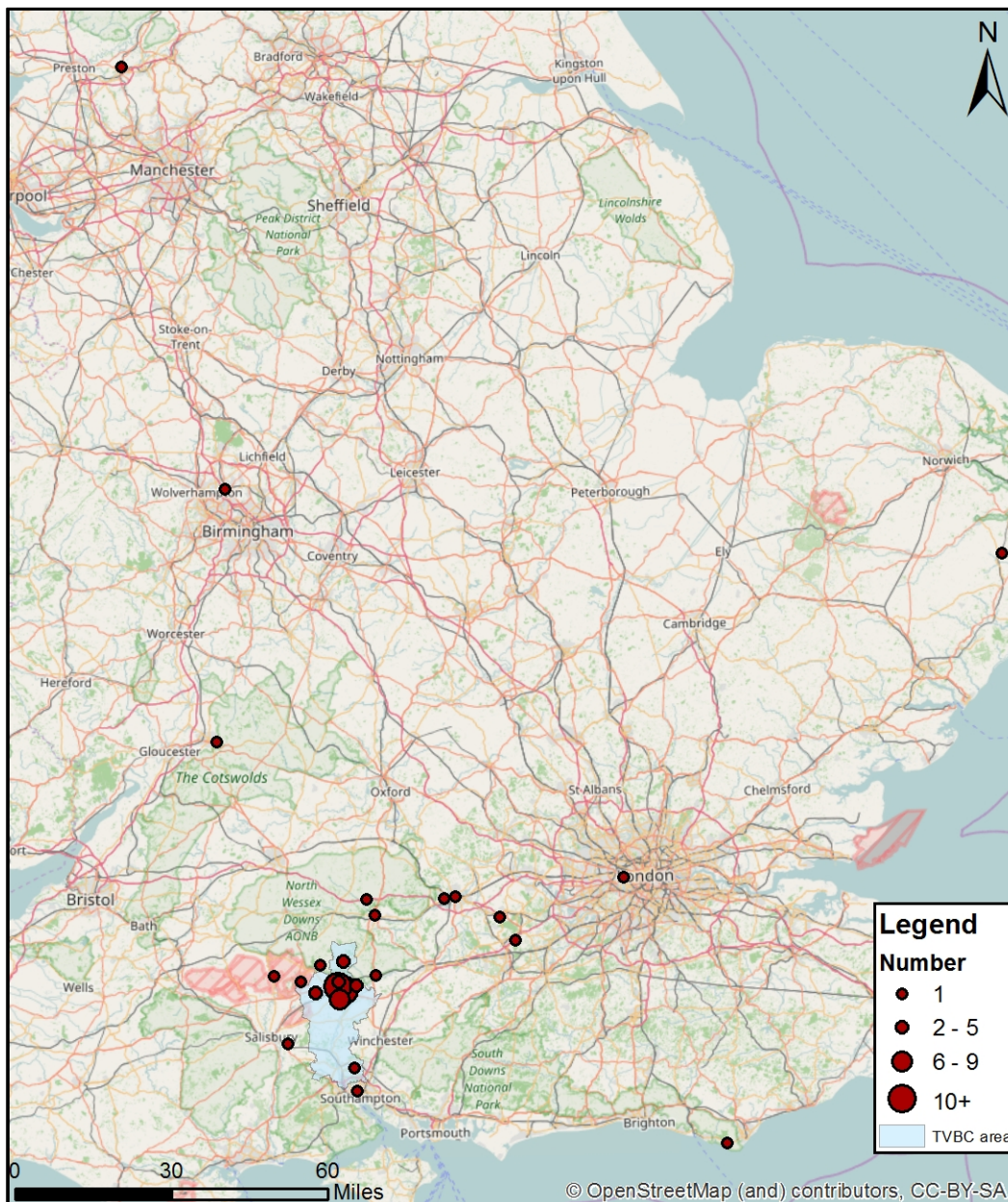


Figure 5.8: Home postcode sector of farmers' and crafts market visitor survey respondents (contains Royal Mail data © Royal Mail copyright and database right 2012)

The average length of stay of the visitor survey respondents was one hour forty-five minutes, with the majority (82.7%) staying for between one to two hours. It was observed that the market received a steady stream of visitors during its hours of operation but numbers were not of the same level seen at either of the previous two case study events. The photographs in Figure 5.9 below, and Figure 5.10 and Figure 5.11 overleaf give an idea of visitor density at three times: the first was taken at 10.59am, the second at 11.44am and the third at 12.44pm. The photographs were taken from the centre of the market; the first facing south, the second and third facing north.



Figure 5.9: Andover farmers' and crafts market, facing south. Time taken: 10:59am



Figure 5.10: Andover farmers' and crafts market, facing north. Time taken: 11:44am



Figure 5.11: Andover farmers' and crafts market, facing north. Time taken: 12:45pm

5.3.6 Case study three summary

These results indicate that the AFM accounted for less than £11,000 of additional economic activity. There are currently 10 of these markets scheduled annually, so the cumulative effect is likely to be greater. As with the

previous two cases, the market did not encourage significant sums of additional expenditure in Andover's retail outlets and services. Around two thirds of additional visitor expenditure was on food and drink-related items, with only a third on retail. For stallholders, there appeared to be more of a balance, with 48% reported expenditure on food and drink and 52% on retail. As highlighted in the previous cases, this issue is revisited in Chapter Seven.

5.4 Chapter summary

The aim of this chapter was to provide the answers to RQ1 and its associated sub-questions by working through the systematic process for EIA of small-scale cultural events proposed in Chapter Three. Although the process worked well, the results indicated that any financial impact was modest, and this concurs with other studies concerned with small-scale cultural events (eg: Gibson *et al*, 2010). When these figures were examined further by exploring how expenditure on the event stalls differed from town centre business spend, an additional story emerged: while the results for the BF suggested that there was more expenditure in the town than on the event stalls, results for the other two suggested the reverse. The majority of visitor spend in the towns' businesses was food and drink-related: over 80% in both Romsey and Stockbridge, and 64% in Andover. The proportion of estimated retail expenditure was reported to be around 17% in Romsey, 11% in Stockbridge and 36% in Andover.

Problems were encountered with regard to attendance estimates, which were necessary to undertake the EIA. Unlike other studies, for example Wood (2005), where the local authority provided attendance estimates or Southern *et al* (2007) where a per person mean estimated expenditure was presented, rather than a complete EIA, this study aimed to produce a robust EIA based on solid foundations. Following a detailed literature search in relation to town centre footfall counters, it became evident that there was no formula for eliminating multiple passes, apart from Young *et al* (2010) who made an estimate based on assumed crowd turnover. Since this was an assumption that could not be made with any certainty in Andover, Young *et al*'s method was not employed in this study. This chapter presented three different methods for estimating attendance out of necessity, owing to available data and ability to implement different processes. The first method triangulated organisers' estimates with car park usage data and the electronic footfall count on the day of the event. The resulting estimate of attendance was somewhere between all

of these. The second implemented a form of capture-recapture methodology based on car park usage, facilitated by the spatial layout of Stockbridge. The result was in line with estimates provided by the organisers and was believed to be robust. The final method used in CS3 relied on town centre footfall data, as no other means of estimating attendance were available.

The systematic process followed in each of these cases was implemented with minimal resources and thus could be replicated in similar situations. Each of the methods used to estimate attendance could be reproduced fairly easily and so provide local-level decision-makers with low-cost, relatively uncomplicated means by which to estimate economic impact of small-scale events.

Additionally, these results provide an empirical contribution to the literature concerned specifically with small-scale event impacts; a field that has not been studied to the same extent as the more widely researched mega-events.

The findings presented in this chapter have raised a number of issues: the economic impact in monetary terms appears to be modest; a difference in the ratio of stalls spend to town spend was observed between the three cases; the majority of attendee spend in the host town was on food and drink-related items, with far smaller non-food retail spend in comparison. These results have significant implications for local policymakers who may be considering whether to invest in such cultural events. The discussion in Chapter Seven examines these findings in more depth. Chapter Six, which now follows, presents the results of the qualitative part of the study in order to enrich the EIA with further evidence of the motivations and influences behind the monetary effects presented in this chapter.

Chapter 6: Towards an Understanding of Other (non-monetary) Impacts

The economic impact, as understood in monetary terms, for each of the case studies presented in the previous chapter has been found to be minor, however, as discussed earlier, expressing economic impact in this way is limiting, for it does not take account of other, less tangible effects of the event, which make their own valuable contribution to the broader economic impact. One way of assessing what these other impacts are and the part they play in the overall economic impact is to understand more about the characteristics of event attendees and non-attendees, motivations for attendance, practices while at the event, attitudes towards the event and reasons for non-attendance. Clearly, from the visitors' perspectives there are many reasons for attending such events. Equally, there are reasons why people stay away from them. By examining these factors, a more holistic approach to understanding impact can be taken.

This chapter now considers the motivations, practices and attitudes of the event visitor and non-attending residents' survey respondents. In so doing, it provides answers to RQ2 and its associated sub-questions, which are repeated below.

RQ2: What other, less-quantifiable impacts do these events generate?

2(a) who attends these events (what are the characteristics of the people attending)?

2(b) why do people attend these events and what do they do while there?

2(c) who stays away from these events (what are the characteristics of the people who do not attend)?

2(d) why do some people stay away from these events?

Gaining a better understanding of what these other impacts are and how they influence spending makes two major contributions. First, understanding of socio-cultural impacts of small-scale cultural events is broadened through these empirical findings and subsequent discussion; and secondly, from a policy perspective, there is the potential to enhance economic activity in

monetary terms, if that is a priority. If policymakers have a better understanding of what motivates people to attend cultural events, then they may be able to improve attendance and expenditure, and in this way, support their local high streets and town centres. Alternatively, depending on the policy makers' priorities, enhancement of the experiential factor, as understood by Pine and Gilmore (2011), may be of more value to the local community. The purpose of this chapter is, therefore, to present the less tangible results. Chapter Seven discusses these results further alongside results from the previous chapter.

Although the chapter focuses on qualitative data obtained via the surveys, some descriptive statistics are included to illustrate the characteristics of respondents. As in the previous chapter, the case studies are presented sequentially and each is similarly structured. Firstly, there is a description of the event itself taken from observations noted down during the day. Following this, the results directly relevant to each of the sub-questions are presented in turn. As the survey responses were collected partly by voice recordings on iPads and partly by notes written by the survey interviewers, the level of detail varies and this is reflected in the respondents' quotes included.

6.1 The Beggars Fair

Romsey town centre had been prepared for the BF from the early hours of the morning, when the road closure was enforced. The organisers were busy ensuring the performers were setting up in their allotted location; either on the main stage in the Cornmarket area, where the organiser stall had been set up, in front of the Abbey, or in the recreation ground. It was a very sunny and warm morning, which later turned out to be the hottest day of the year at that point, with the temperature reaching 29°C at its peak. Bunting fluttered in the breeze, stretching across many of the buildings through the town centre and adding to the festive feel. Gazebos and stalls were set up in the Cornmarket, and at points around the town and recreation ground, in preparation for the anticipated customers later in the day.

The streets of Romsey were very busy throughout the day as people wandered cheerily along the town centre roads free of vehicular traffic. Onlookers listened to the bands or watched the Morris dancers and many took advantage of the shade offered by some of the buildings. As crowds built up to watch the

performances, they often blocked the entrances to the shops, many of which appeared not to be trading particularly well. Shop assistants could be seen standing in the doorways watching the performances and a visit to Bradbeer's, the local department store, found very few customers inside. An assistant there commented that although the shop looked almost empty, there were more customers than would normally be expected on a hot Saturday in July, as people tended to visit the nearby New Forest or a beach on such days. An independent newsagent closed early at 4pm, displaying a hand-written notice to the effect that it had closed early owing to the BF. In contrast, the food outlets, cafés and the pubs appeared to be very busy all day; even those located around the edge of the town. Figure 6.1 shows the queue for the ice cream parlour, taken at 3.15pm and Figure 6.2, overleaf, shows the barriers around the Olive Tree pub, with customers filling the outside area, taken at 6.24pm. In all, 13 pubs were counted, each of which had barriers positioned around them and security guards standing at the entrances, ready to prevent customers from leaving the premises with unfinished drinks.



Figure 6.1: People queuing for the ice cream parlour, Romsey



Figure 6.2: The Olive Tree, Romsey, showing barriers in place

A wander through the recreation ground revealed groups of people sitting in the sunshine or under trees to escape the hot sun. Many were eating picnics, absorbing the atmosphere, or watching the various activities as children played on bouncy castles and the youth bands performed on the bandstand. Young girls were having their hair braided, while other children were having their faces painted at the stalls set up in the park.

The atmosphere changed considerably towards the end of the day, as many of the town centre visitors began to leave and those who remained were either organisers clearing up, security guards and police patrolling the town, or people meandering unsteadily as they made their way either to or from one of the pubs, which were still busy.

6.1.1 Who attends the Beggars Fair?

The event visitor survey respondents broadly reflected the sample frame outlined in Chapter Three, in terms of age distribution and residency. Seventeen respondents were with their families, of whom 13 were with children under 18 (22% of all respondents). The majority of respondents were with their spouse or partner (33.9%). Given that one aim of the BF organisers was to promote the event as family-friendly, this was seen to be an important metric to include in the analysis. Family groups were seen in the recreation ground enjoying the children's activities on offer (as shown in Figure 4.27 on p149),

while others were seen wandering around the town listening to the performances.

Over half of the respondents were educated to degree level, compared with 5% who reported no formal qualifications. The same number of respondents reported that they were employed in either a management or professional role. Five respondents were retired and four were employed in unskilled occupations. Figures 6.3 to 6.5 below and overleaf illustrate the age, qualification and occupation of the respondents.

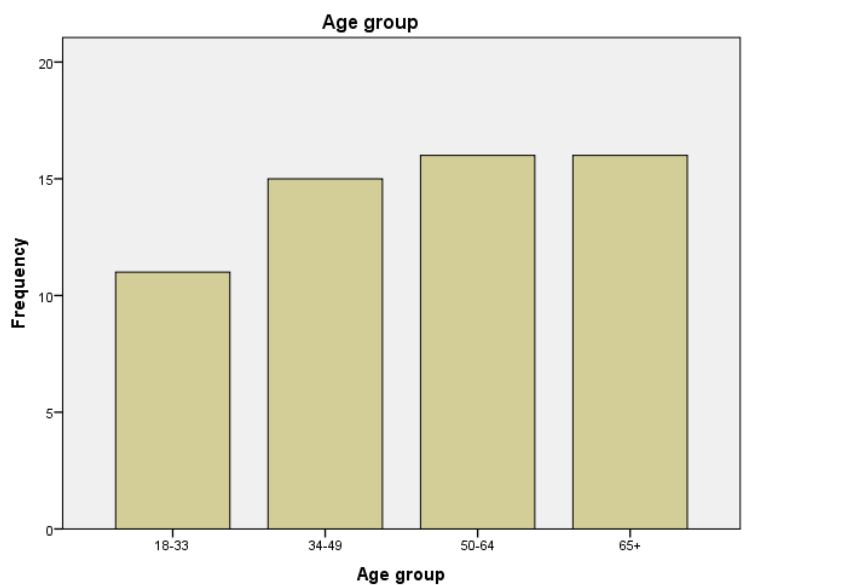


Figure 6.3: Beggars Fair visitor survey respondent age category

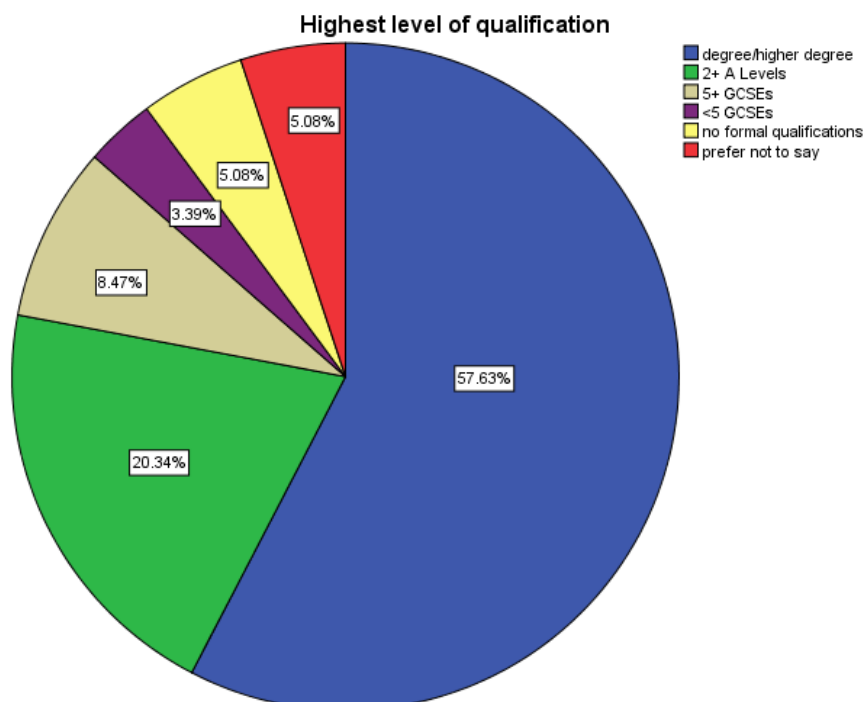


Figure 6.4: Visitor survey respondent highest level of qualification

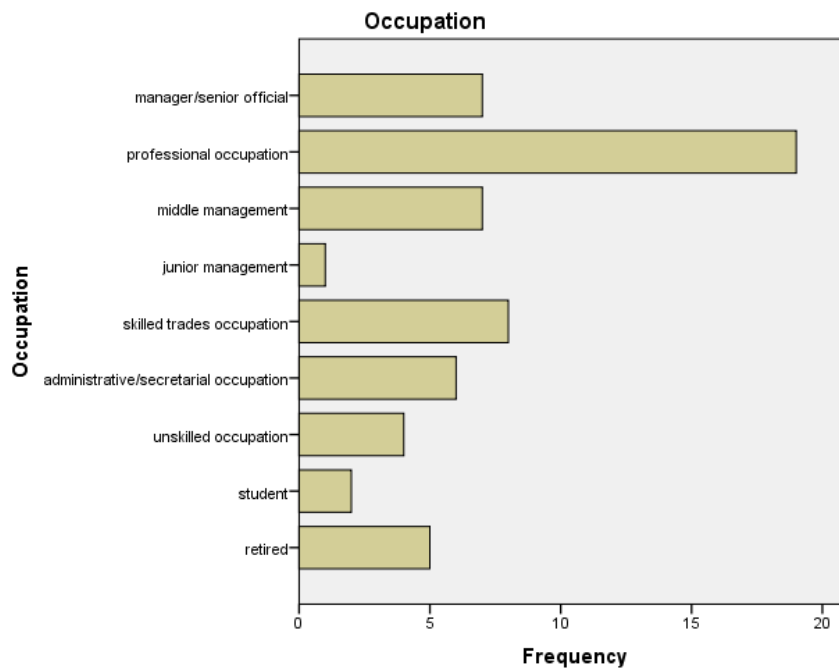


Figure 6.5: Visitor survey respondent occupation

6.1.2 Motivations for attendance

The responses to the questions about motivations ('why are you here?' and 'what are you intending to do while here?') largely overlapped, so they have been merged here to avoid duplication. Table 6.1 below presents the broad categories into which the responses were grouped to indicate their variety. These categories are discussed further below using quotes from the survey respondents.

Table 6.1: Visitor survey respondent reason for attending the Beggars Fair

Reason for coming	Number of statements
Entertainment/enjoyment	26
Socialisation	11
Pubs/drink beer	7
Curiosity	6
Other activities in the town	5
Custom/habit	4
Relaxation	3
Family	3
Atmosphere	2
Free event	1

The most popular reason for attending the Beggars Fair was for ‘entertainment’ or ‘enjoyment’. Many respondents expressed this quite simply as ‘listen to the music’, while others were slightly more forthcoming and specific:

‘To attend [the] Beggars Fair, dance and be jolly.’

‘It’s an annual event that we enjoy.’

‘Visit King John’s House [and] listen to some of the music groups.’

‘Picnic, watch music.’

The second most popular reason was concerned with socialisation in some way (Nicholson and Pearce, 2001), whether this was pre-planned with family members, or spontaneous, through casual encounters with friends or acquaintances. Often, these two categories were included in the same sentence, as shown below:

‘Listen to the music and have some food and drink with the family and dance.’

‘To be out with the family and to enjoy the town and the music.’

‘Meeting lots of different people and it’s just a really general good feeling around the place.’

Although respondents were not approached inside the pubs, some were intending to visit one at some point during the day, as shown in the quotes below. This featured as another prominent activity in the responses collected during the latter part of the afternoon, as the earliest reference to visiting a pub or drinking beer was recorded at 4.21 pm.

‘Listen to the music, sit in the sun and have a couple of beers.’

‘To meet a friend and to drink some ale and to listen to some music within Romsey.’

‘Socialise, few beers, do something a bit different.’

‘Drinking beer and taking pictures and meeting friends.’

Some respondents commented on their intention to experience activities in addition to the performances associated with the BF:

'Visit King John's House, listen to some of the music groups.'

'Shopping, sightseeing.'

'Pubs, park, visited High Street.'

A number of respondents talked of their curiosity and desire to find out more about the BF. The first quote below indicates that this event was chosen over another, which was taking place not too far away:

'Saw ad on website saying wide variety of music. Knew Basingstoke Live was on too but had already seen some of those bands and thought the Beggars Fair would have more bands and performers we hadn't seen before.'

'See what it's about.'

A few others regarded their attendance at the event to be a regular custom or habit:

'Well, it's an annual event that we enjoy.'

'Enjoy it, support acts, been previously for 10 years.'

'We come every year – we live in Romsey – and it's part of the things we do mainly because we live here.'

A small number of respondents commented that they were intending to relax:

'Relax in park and listen to music.'

'Listening to music, having lunch, chilling.'

In answering these questions, one respondent included a comment about the event being free:

'There's so much going on; wonderful concerts in the park, which is free. There's a collection afterwards.'

6.1.3 Likes and dislikes of the Beggars Fair

Responses to the question 'what do you like about the BF?' showed some similarity with the previous questions concerned with the motivations for attendance, as respondents tended to include activities in which they were

engaged. The categories into which the responses were grouped are shown in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2: Beggars Fair visitor survey respondent likes

Likes/positive statements about the Beggars Fair	Number of statements
Variety of music/artists	20
Atmosphere (friendly/relaxed/informal)	12
Sociability	9
Community spirit/local	6
Freedom to wander	2
Free (no charge)	1

The most common response was concerned with variety in connection with the music or artists who were performing, as the BF provided respondents with the opportunity to listen to a range of genres and to be introduced to previously unknown artists. The quotes below illustrate this; the first particularly, as inflections noted in the voice recording expressed the respondent's pleasure at discovering acts performing in unexpected places around the town:

'Range of music, the fact that you can wander around and find different tunes happening in different places.'

'A lot going on.'

'... see new artists.'

'... variety of music.'

'... it's a really eclectic mix of music and styles.'

The next most common category concerned the positive atmosphere created by the event, and was expressed in a variety of ways:

'Romsey comes alive with a lovely friendly musical atmosphere.'

'It's very lively, I like the environment, I like Romsey, it's very well, it's very civilised ... sophisticated.'

'The friendly atmosphere and lots of people.'

'Family atmosphere.'

'Lovely atmosphere, free music.'

Other respondents spoke of how sociable the BF was and in some cases suggested that it provided a forum for unplanned casual encounters with friends or acquaintances:

'It's a very social event, I might see somebody I know.'

'Variety, relaxed, sociable, spontaneous.'

'It's just great, free music, the atmosphere, seeing friends socially.'

'... chance to get together.'

Sadness was expressed amongst these positive comments, relating to the changes that have taken place since the 2011 disturbance and a desire for the BF to return to its pre-2011 days. The quote below illustrates this, as well as suggesting that there was an element of over-reaction to perceptions of bad or anti-social behaviour connected with the event:

'It's a pity about the street drinking because that used to be great fun wandering from pub to pub with plastic glasses but the sort of panic about it is just ridiculous. It's always a bit of rough at the Tavern – that happens most Saturdays. Just grow up and get over it.'

A few comments were noted which related to how the BF generated a feeling of community or enhanced community spirit or how the event had a 'local' feel. Some respondents also commented on how they liked the freedom to wander around and that the event was free to attend:

'It's a very community atmosphere.'

'Brings community together. Lovely place, lots going on.'

'Event with local people.'

'Community spirit, family event.'

'Good for the community.'

'Feeling of community and a great day out.'

Within this group of responses, although the question invited positive comments, a few negative statements were noted down relating to disappointment, as the event did not meet expectations, and the concern about anti-social behaviour or people who consume excess amounts of alcohol:

'Generally not impressed.'

'Nothing, but [I] haven't seen everything. Don't want my daughter here.'

'Staying too late, do you know what I mean? There's been quite a lot of violence in the past. Some drunkenness and so forth.'

One respondent commented on what they believed to be misperceptions of anti-social behaviour:

'... and the people who moan about it and the public order aspects of it don't know what the hell they're talking about. It's very jolly, very good atmosphere.'

There were far fewer responses to the question 'is there anything you dislike about the BF or would like to improve?', as might be expected from visitors to the event. Many of the respondents commented that there was nothing in particular, however, where there were responses, the majority concerned perceptions or experience of anti-social behaviour or drunkenness and their effect on enjoyment of the event:

'Alcohol consumption. Not suitable for families.'

'Violence and alcohol-related abuse.'

'Previous anti-social behaviour.'

'Sometimes there's a lot of er ... as the afternoon wears on there's a few drunk people about.'

'Just if there's trouble in the evenings ... if it gets a bit lively.'

One respondent asserted that the perpetrators of this behaviour could not be from Romsey; suggesting that locals would not resort to this kind of activity on their own doorstep:

'I dislike bumping into people who look like they're here just on the raz, and lots of tattoos, probably the younger folk from Eastleigh not wishing to discriminate anyone.'

Two further responses indicated concerns over safety in connection with anti-social behaviour. The first talked of how the atmosphere in the evening changed and consequently, the respondent did not wish to remain:

'Well, as my husband said, when it gets into the evening you're not so keen to stay because of the, you know, possibility of perhaps not feeling quite as safe'

The second expressed worry about the need for a police presence. The mere appearance of the police suggested to the respondent that some form of trouble would be likely, so for that reason they did not wish to linger:

'... atmosphere around the pubs, doesn't feel safe. Police make me feel less safe because they shouldn't be needed. Attracts [the] wrong sort of people.'

Other comments were concerned with excess noise in terms of the volume of some performers overshadowing others nearby: 'Music in Cornmarket too loud; drowns out other acts'. The remaining comments were concerned with expensive children's activities: 'Kids activities are too expensive and not for charity'; or car parking problems: 'Could be a park and ride'. Litter was another concern: 'only the litter that was there in previous years and the rubbish that's accumulated,' as was overcrowding. Finally, the respondent who commented previously about over-reactions to perceived anti-social behaviour continued with the following statement:

'The paranoia about the public order. A public order incident is what happened in Belfast last night or the Notting Hill Carnival on a really bad day, not a little bit of liveliness.'

This group of results has been concerned with the opinions of those people who were attending the event while it was in progress, so the results could be viewed as one-sided, since they are effectively responses from supporters. The next section presents responses to similar questions posed to those who chose to stay away from the event. The easiest way of obtaining such data was to approach residents, as it was not possible to determine any other way of finding a sample of non-attendees. The methodology behind this residents' survey has already been explained in Chapter Three.

6.1.4 Who stays away from the Beggars Fair?

Nearly three-quarters of respondents to the residents' survey (n=74; 73.3%) did not attend the BF. This comprised all respondents from the 18-33 age group

(n=5); 21 of the 34-49 age group (77.8% of that age group); 22 of the 34-49 age group (73.3% of that age group) and 24 of the 60+ age group (72.7% of that age group). The age distribution of all respondents can be seen in Figure 6.6, separated by whether or not they attended. The results indicate that the 34-49 age group was most likely to stay away from the BF.

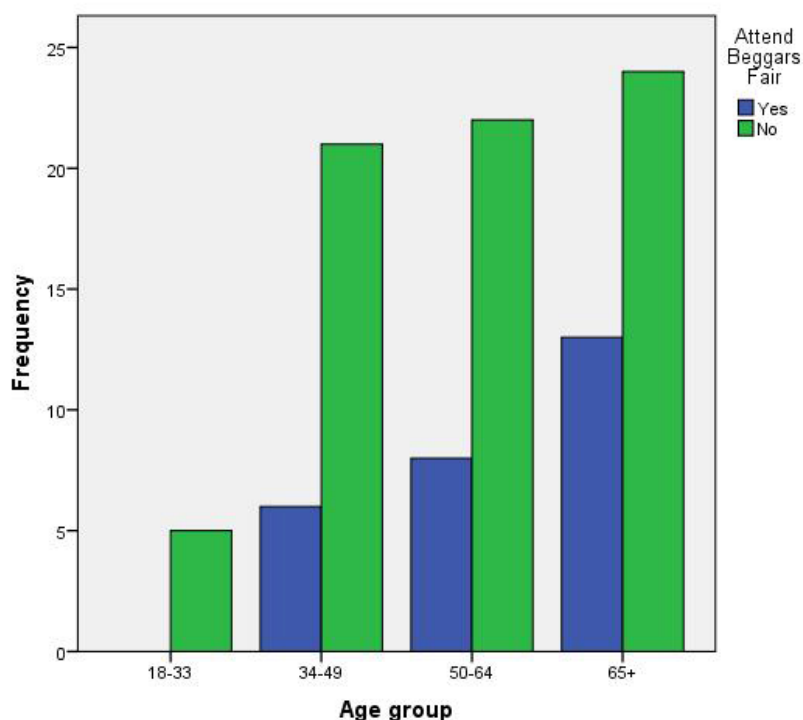


Figure 6.6: Age categories of resident survey respondents

Further exploration of the results shows that most respondents who did not go to the BF were retired (n=31; 41.9%), while one third (n=24) was employed in either a management or professional role. In terms of level of qualification, the majority of these respondents were educated to degree level (n=35, 49.3%). Figure 6.7 illustrates the respondents' reported occupation, while Figure 6.8 overleaf shows their qualification level.

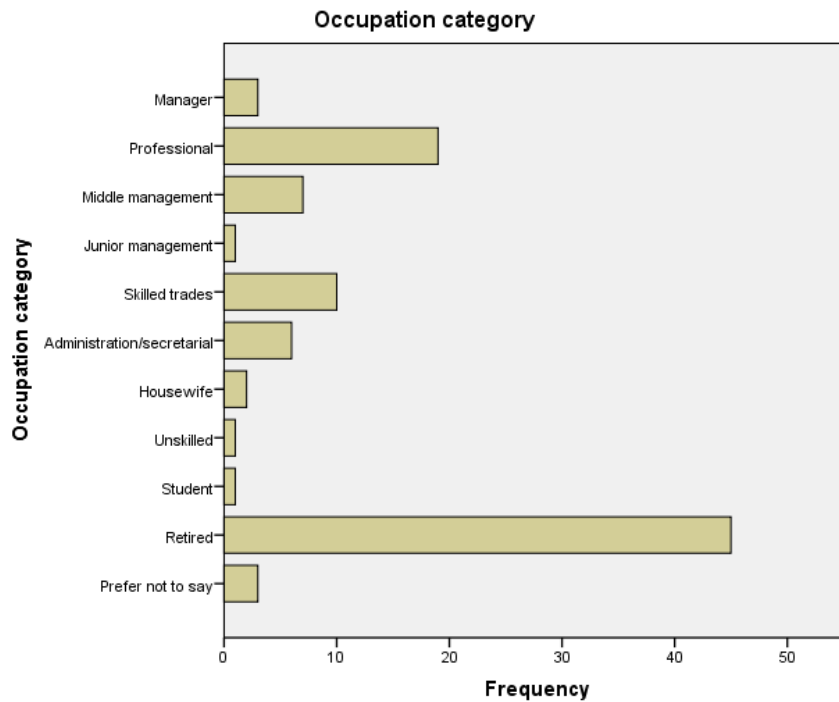


Figure 6.7: Residents' survey respondent occupation

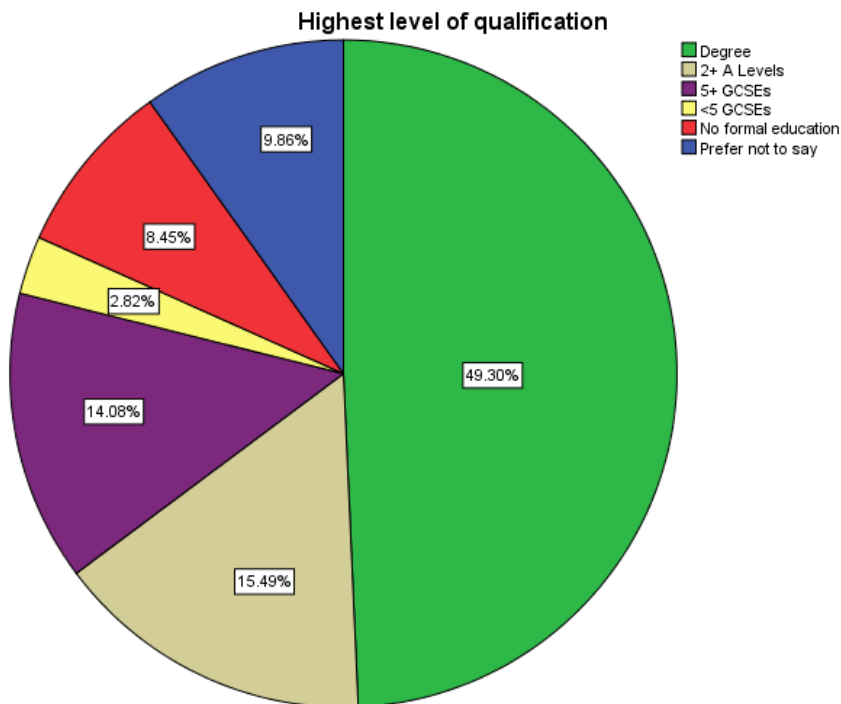


Figure 6.8: Resident survey respondent highest level of qualification

6.1.5 Reasons for non-attendance

The residents' survey included a question concerned with establishing the main reason for not going to the BF. A number of response options was

provided, including 'other reason' and a comments box for further details to be added. Figure 6.9 below illustrates the responses given.

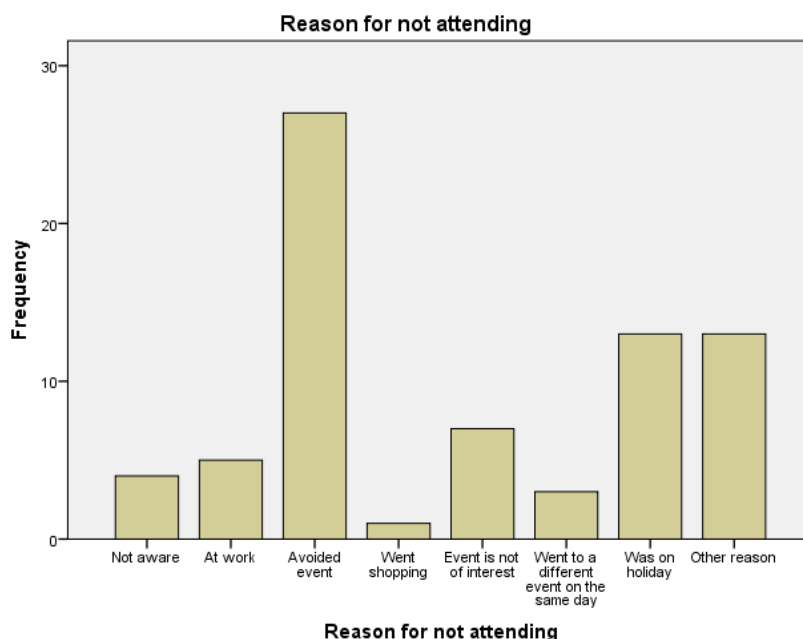


Figure 6.9: Residents' survey respondent reason for not attending

Over one third (37.0%) of residents who did not go to the BF stated they deliberately avoided it. Other responses included being on holiday (17.8%); no interest in the event (9.6%); working (6.8%); lack of awareness (5.5%); went elsewhere (4.1%); went shopping (1.4%) and other reason (17.8%), which included: forgetting; visiting or caring for relatives; being new to the area; and not realising the event was taking place.

Respondents were asked to elaborate on their reason for not attending if they selected any of the options provided other than being at work, on holiday or being unaware. These responses provided additional insights into the reasons for non-attendance and enabled a deeper analysis to be undertaken. The statements were grouped together into broad categories in a similar fashion to the qualitative responses provided in the visitor surveys. Most of these statements were concerned with perceptions of or concerns over anti-social behaviour, excess alcohol consumption or noise. This was expressed in two ways: firstly, personal experiences from prior attendance:

'Feel scared and intimidated by drunken people roaming around the streets from early afternoon until late evening. Drunks are sat on pavements and broken glasses are everywhere.'

'My family and myself; my wife and three young children five, seven and eight, were witnesses to the street fights of 2013¹ and had to take shelter in a shop to avoid being attacked by a large group of aggressive, drunken animals.'

'We went to the Beggars Fair in 2011. We walked in with our five month-old son in the pushchair. We got to the main square where we encountered a fight. It was very scary – we've never been back and avoid the event. It's not family-friendly!'

'I have to say I personally was put off the Beggars Fair on previous occasions by drunken individuals rampaging and fighting on the streets – and also in the local shops!'

The second way these perceptions were expressed was via hearsay:

'I hear that there's a lot of drinkers at the Beggars Fair and in recent years a lot of trouble. I feel the fun and enjoyment of the music has been taken over by youngsters treating it as an all-day outside drinking session.'

'Do not really understand what it is but have been told there can be crowds of drunk people.'

'I understand that in 2013 there was trouble at the event. I have a 12-year-old child, so thought it was inappropriate for her.'

'Did not attend as the event has been reported to have high levels of alcohol-induced trouble.'

A perception that the anti-social behaviour was not caused by Romsey residents was also suggested:

'Now it is attended by youngish people from the surrounding area who create noise, filth and probable crime. The town and facilities are inundated or unusable and it is best avoided.'

'We were disgusted by the affray and lack of police supervision and response to the problem. Not for locals - these are not Romsey people. Why do we want it here?'

¹ This respondent reported the year of the disturbance incorrectly, as it occurred in 2011

6.1.6 Dislikes of the Beggars Fair

Respondents were asked to comment openly on their dislikes of the BF or whether there was anything they would like to improve, which generated a range of opinions illustrating the strength of feeling about the event. The majority of responses were concerned with perceptions of anti-social behaviour or excess alcohol consumption, largely reiterating the reasons for non-attendance, as shown below:

'The drunks! It's gone from a fun event to an excuse to drink loads and cause trouble.'

'The fights, the youngsters causing trouble ... it sort of puts you off going with the family.'

'Drunken behaviour in the streets.'

'The rowdy unappreciative people who ruin the atmosphere for everyone else!'

'Drunken behaviour of festival-goers not suitable for younger children.'

'Possibility of disruptive behaviour.'

Some of these comments were particularly strongly expressed:

'Drunken people lurching around the town from pub to pub. Myself and my accompanying friends felt scared and intimidated.'

'I dislike the drinking culture of the event. It leads to disruption and ruins the enjoyment. I would rather stay away from a potential riot!'

Within this group of responses, similar to the reasons for non-attendance, there was the suggestion that the anti-social behaviour was caused by people who were not Romsey residents:

'I dislike the fact it draws troublemakers and lager louts to the town. The Beggars Fair has been the cause of past problems involving fights, stabbings, etc. Not a good example for those living in or around Romsey.'

Overcrowding was also expressed as a negative attribute of the event; both generally and more specifically in the pubs:

'Far too crowded now. Atmosphere has changed.'

'The pubs are too crowded (they always were!) but now I'm not inclined to jostle my way to the bar and juggle my pint while I try to eat standing up.'

'The pubs are too crowded now (they always were!) but now I am not inclined to jostle my way to the bar and juggle my pint while I try to eat standing up.'

There was also a concern that car parking would be problematic:

'Feel that it would be difficult to find parking spaces.'

Some more general remarks were also provided, which suggested that the entire event was either unpleasant or not suited to Romsey, for example:

'There is nothing that I don't dislike.'

'Everything - loud music, which as a resident I am forced to listen to if I remain at home. The binge drinking and its effects. The whole event is truly awful.'

'I just don't think it's "Romsey." It attracts undesirables – why do we want that and the trouble it brings?'

6.1.7 Summary of case study one

It is clear from the results that the BF provoked a range of opinions, some of which appeared to be felt strongly. Supporters considered the event to be a positive attribute for the town of Romsey, bringing people together and strengthening community ties. A significant amount of concern emerged, however, from both the visitor and residents' surveys, centred on perceptions of drunkenness and anti-social behaviour caused by the event, with some opinions that the perpetrators were not local people. These feelings impact on the way in which the event is perceived by residents and visitors and are discussed in greater depth in the next Chapter.

6.2 Trout 'n About

Stockbridge was transformed on the day of TnA, as marquees filled the spaces normally occupied by cars parked along the length of its broad high street. Initially, stallholders were busily arranging their assorted produce, which included homemade delicacies, plants, sculptures and textiles, in preparation for the anticipated crowds. Visitors began to arrive in small numbers before the official start time of 10am and then flooded in during the next hour before levelling off during the remainder of the day. One impact of the sudden arrival of visitors was that one of the two fields being used as a car park for the day had reached its capacity of 150 cars by 11am, only an hour after the event had officially opened, from which time the marshals adopted a one-in-one-out policy and this affected the flow of traffic through the town, as some vehicles waited in the road for a space. Congestion became an issue as the marshals attempted to maintain the flow of traffic. Cars began to park on the adjacent grass verges (see Figure 6.10) and nearby side roads. Traffic congestion was exacerbated at this end of the town by an event taking place in a neighbouring village, while through traffic was held up as it attempted to travel along the same road.



Figure 6.10: Cars parked on verges, Trout 'n About Stockbridge

Despite this depiction of a small town struggling to cope with an influx of vehicular traffic, the congestion alleviated later in the day and visitors had room to wander past the stalls, exploring the variety of produce and craft

items on sale (see Figure 6.11). Many of the town's shops, cafés and pubs were open, including the local Indian restaurant, which had set up an outside catering stall, and seemed to be bustling with customers throughout the day. The weather, although not exceptionally hot, was pleasant enough for café visitors to sit outside and absorb the day's activities.



Figure 6.11: Trout 'n About, Stockbridge

The visitors making use of the free park and ride service (see Figure 6.12 overleaf) seemed to enjoy having the opportunity to ride on a vintage King Alfred bus, where the conductor, dressed in period costume, offered passengers a ticket as proof of their journey. The buses ran throughout the day and one of the researchers took advantage of this to complete questionnaires while people were waiting in a queue for a bus returning to the car park. People continued to explore the event and activities, such as the children's entertainer in the churchyard or the brass band performing in front of the town hall, or they took advantage of their visit to walk along the river until well after the official end of the day, which was at 4pm.



Figure 6.12: King Alfred's buses operating the park and ride service

6.2.1 Who attends Trout 'n About?

The age distribution of respondents can be seen on Figure 6.13 below. The majority of visitors observed during the day were older adults, which was reflected in the respondents, as almost half (49.7%) were aged 50 or over. The largest respondent age group was the 34-49 (33.5%) and the smallest was the 18-33 age category (16.8%).

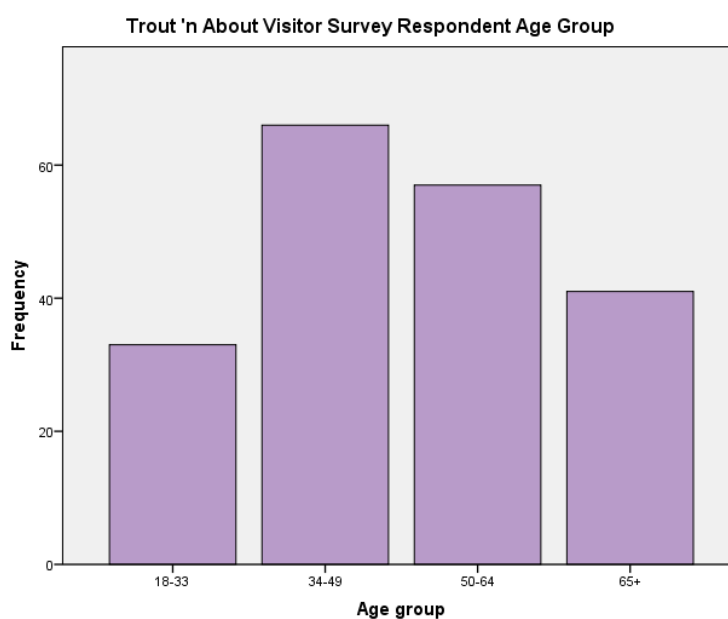


Figure 6.13: Visitor survey respondent age category

More than half of the respondents were educated to degree level (53.8%), compared with 4.06% who reported no formal qualification. A similar proportion (51.8%) reported that they were employed in either a professional or a managerial role, while 2.5% were unskilled and 20% were retired. These results are shown in Figure 6.14 and Figure 6.15 below.

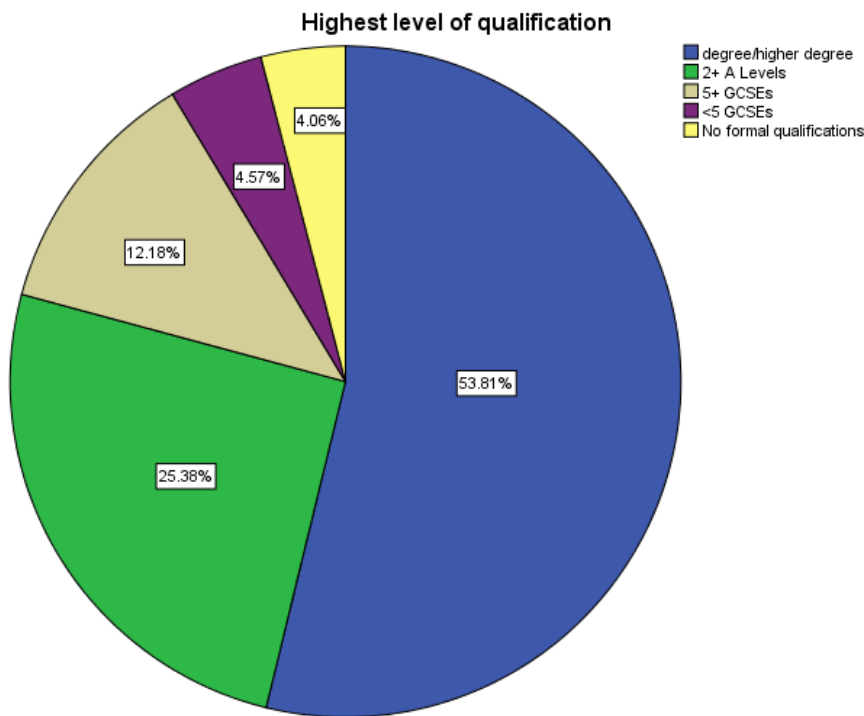


Figure 6.14: Visitor survey respondent highest level of qualification

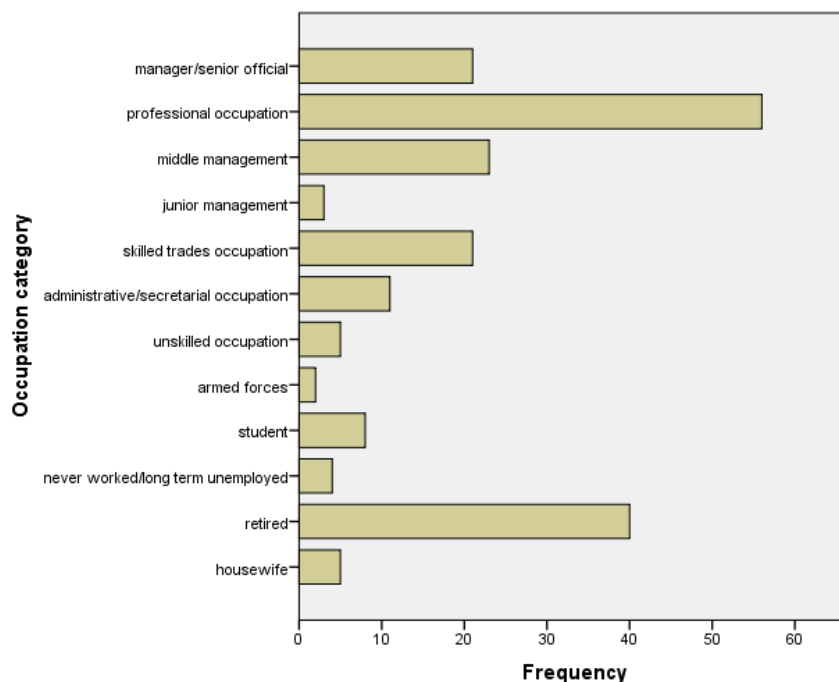


Figure 6.15: Visitor survey respondent occupation

6.2.2 Motivations for attendance

The categories that emerged from the responses to questions about motivations ('why are you here?' and 'what are you intending to do while here?') are shown below in Table 6.3.

Table 6.3: Trout 'n About visitor survey respondent reason for attending

Reason for coming	Number of statements
Enjoyment/something to do/day out	28
Visiting the stalls (food/drink/craft)	24
Socialising (family/friends)	17
Curiosity	16
Support local event/local producers	16
Like Stockbridge	11
Involved in some way	4
Recommendation	4
Habit/custom	4
Persuasion	1

The majority of respondents attended TnA for enjoyment or for something to do:

'Browse and gaze and enjoy music and atmosphere.'

'Pootle, browse and have refreshments and enjoy the ambience.'

'To see all the local food produce and arts and crafts and just generally wander about enjoying myself.'

'I came here just to have a nice time.'

'Something to do.'

Some of these comments suggested that the pleasant summer weather had encouraged the respondent to travel to Stockbridge as TnA was taking place, rather than having any prior plans to visit:

'Sunday day out, nice weather, recognise stalls from other events. Nice way to spend two hours.'

'Nice morning. That encourages you. Stockbridge is beautiful.'

'Enjoy the stalls and the weather.'

'It's just a nice day. Beats going to the pub.'

'Not raining. Visit Stockbridge.'

The next most popular response was expressed in much more practical terms, with respondents stating that they were visiting the market stalls. This was sometimes recorded by the researchers simply as 'stalls', however, responses via the iPads were more elaborate:

'We're gonna go round all the stalls. We've walked up and down one side and came back the other side and we've enjoyed it very much.'

'Just look round at the stalls, buy some chutneys, things like that.'

'It's all the different stalls I like, the craft, the variety ... yes.'

In some cases, the intention to visit the stalls was expressed more informally, suggesting there was no prior plan to make any purchases:

'Going round the stalls and seeing what's on offer.'

'Wander about, have a look and just see if I want to buy anything'

'Just have a mooch about and see what's going on.'

'Just to get an idea of some of the produce that's sold.'

'Pootle, browse and have refreshments and enjoy the ambience.'

A number of statements referred to some form of socialisation; whether this was with family or friends:

'Browse, talk to stallholders, eat something. Sent a text to friends to tell them to come along.'

'Look at the stalls, see what's around, meet friends.'

'I came to visit the fair because I thought it would be interesting and I'm staying with my daughter and she wanted to come too, so we thought it would be a nice family day out.'

'I've come here today to spend time with the family and just have a look around Stockbridge in general.'

'Mainly came because the family is here.'

'To occupy the grandchildren.'

'Opportunity to meet up with family and see different things.'

'Family activity/family gathering – something to keep family entertained.'

Other respondents indicated their curiosity about the event:

'Because I have never been here before, so I wanted to see what it was like.'

'We came to Trout 'n About because we thought it would be interesting and we like this sort of thing.'

'Saw it in the Advertiser and thought it would be a good day.'

'Sounded appealing, our thing.'

'Curious about what there would be.'

Some respondents said they were there because they wanted to support either the event or local producers:

'Thought it would be a nice day out supporting local producers.'

'Like food festivals in general, like local produce.'

'Festival – food and local products.'

'Support local events.'

'Local event, nice to support.'

Further responses indicated that the respondent was there because they liked the town of Stockbridge and that the event was a prompt to visit:

'Nice day out – like town.'

'Because I like Stockbridge and it sounded interesting.'

'Stalls, variety, lure of Stockbridge.'

'Stockbridge is a nice town.'

'Like Stockbridge. Day out.'

A few comments were made suggesting that the respondent was either involved in some way, for example, supporting a relative ('to support daughter and local produce'); that they were at TnA because it had been recommended to them ('like food festivals in general. Were invited to come by parents'); that attending the event was out of habit ('tradition, interest'); or that they had been persuaded by someone else to accompany them ('coerced gently').

6.2.3 Likes and dislikes of Trout 'n About

The responses to the questions concerned with what the respondents liked about the event are shown in Table 6.4:

Table 6.4: Trout 'n About visitor survey respondent likes

Likes/positive statements about Trout 'n About	Number of statements
Variety/range/quality of produce	45
Atmosphere (friendly/positive)	29
Activities/music/entertainment	12
Local produce	7
Pleasant day out/fun/enjoyment	7
Well-organised	6
Like Stockbridge	5
Good for Stockbridge economy	5
Community feel/spirit	5

Most of the comments related to the range or variety and quality of produce on sale. Visitors appeared to like the wide variety of food and craft items, as shown overleaf:

'I think there's a really good variety of stalls this year, lots of foodie stalls, lots of craft stalls and there's some new stalls as well, so it's very good. Very interesting.'

'I like the originality of the stalls and I like looking at all the different foods and things like that, you know, people, produce.'

'Products here that you wouldn't normally see.'

'Variety, band, good stalls.'

'The variety of things on offer.'

'Varied, good event, nice music.'

'Good range of artefacts.'

'Variety and bustling.'

'Good variety of exhibitors.'

Respondents also commented on the ambiance they felt the event created in the town:

'Fun, people kind, atmosphere very good, good mix of stalls and producers, very pretty town.'

'I like the casual atmosphere and the friendliness of Stockbridge.'

'Lots of variety on the stalls and a nice atmosphere.'

'It's just a very nice sort of atmosphere.'

Others liked the additional activities, such as the children's entertainment or the vintage tractors that were on display:

'Well-organised, tractors, children's area.'

'Lots for the children.'

'Plenty of stalls, lots of activity, there's music and it's a nice atmosphere.'

'Like the tractors.'

Some comments related to the local produce on offer and that the respondent liked to support local producers:

'Local stuff. Mixture of stalls.'

'Local produce, cheese stall – best, burgers, olive-stand, dog-friendly.'

'Local produce, crafts, atmosphere.'

'Variety of local producers.'

A few commented that they felt TnA was a benefit to the local economy:

'Probably bringing a lot of money into Stockbridge and local shops'

'Good for local trade, attracts a lot of people into the area.'

'Brings money in. Good for economy.'

A handful of comments mentioned the community spirit felt at the event. One in particular suggested that the absence of a road closure encouraged attendees to help each other:

'Community spirit, road open means potential responsibility.'

'Community feel, local produce.'

'Fun, community, local, social.'

There were two remarks about how 'English' the event was:

'Yes, it was quintessentially English, which is awful to say.'

'Very English.'

One respondent expressed how much they liked the town of Stockbridge:

'We love Stockbridge, we come every week.'

When asked about their dislikes or the improvements they would like to see, the majority of respondents said 'nothing' (Table 6.5).

Table 6.5: Trout 'n About visitor survey respondent dislikes

Dislikes/negative statements about Trout 'n About	Number of statements
Nothing	39
Traffic/congestion (vehicular/pedestrian)	20
Road should be closed	14
Car parking	8
Litter/insufficient waste bins	3
Hard to cross the road	1
No trout	1
Not enough park and ride buses	1
Fewer stalls than normal	1
More food than advertised	1
Poor signage for car parks	1
Dogs	1
Loud music	1
Public toilets need to be improved	1
Takes over the high street	1

Most negative responses were concerned with traffic management and congestion; both vehicular and pedestrian:

'Traffic – road closure would be an idea.'

'Shame that cars are going through.'

'Road open – would be better if it were closed. Could be dangerous for children.'

'Getting too big and pity about the through traffic.'

'Busy on pavements. Traffic, space.'

'Double buggies – not quite enough room near the tractors.'

'Overcrowding of high street.'

'The traffic and car parking.'

'Congestion on pavements with pushchairs, etc. Also difficulty crossing roads.'

'Takes over the whole High Street.'

Associated with traffic management, some concerns related to the parking arrangements:

'I think you should have a bus running continually. For the park and ride I think there should be more ... a better system for buses running continuously.'

'Just poor parking signs.'

'Parking is a nightmare.'

'Car park could be improved.'

Individual comments were made relating to waste management ('no bins near food stalls'); presence of dogs ('too crowded and dogs'); volume of the music ('loud music'); and the lack of trout ('haven't seen any trout yet').

6.2.4 Who stays away from Trout 'n About?

Just under three quarters of respondents did not go to TnA (n=66; 72.5%), which was a similar proportion to CS1. This comprised half of the 18-33 age group (n=2); 68.4% (n=13) of the 34-49 age group; 72.7% (n=24) of the 50-64 age group and 77.1% (n=27) of the 65+ age group– 19.7%. The age distribution of all respondents is shown in Figure 6.16, separated by whether or not they attended.

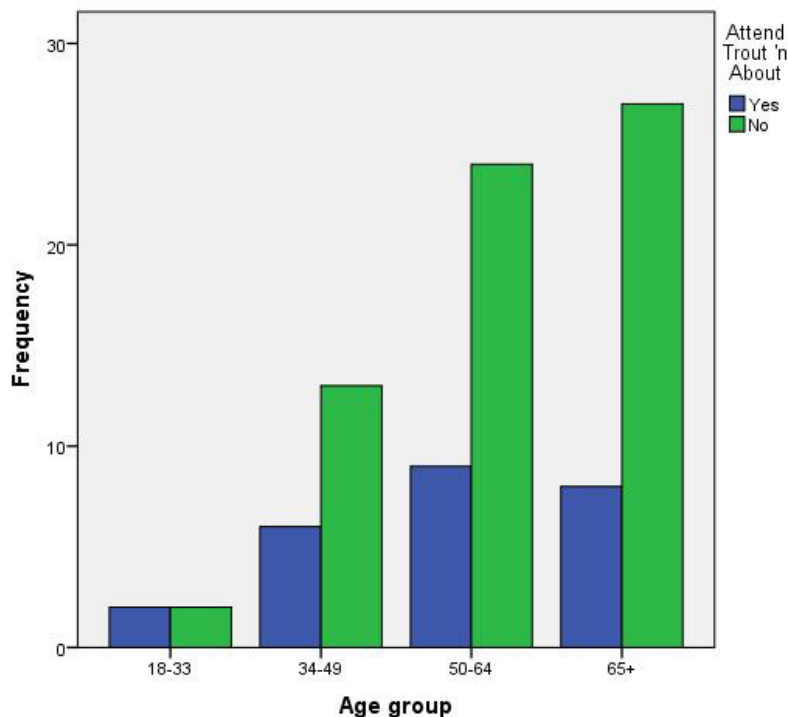


Figure 6.16: Age categories of resident survey respondents

Further exploration of the results revealed that the majority of respondents who did not attend were employed in a professional or managerial role (47.0%), while 45.5% were retired. The occupation categories of all respondents who did not attend are shown in Figure 6.17 below.

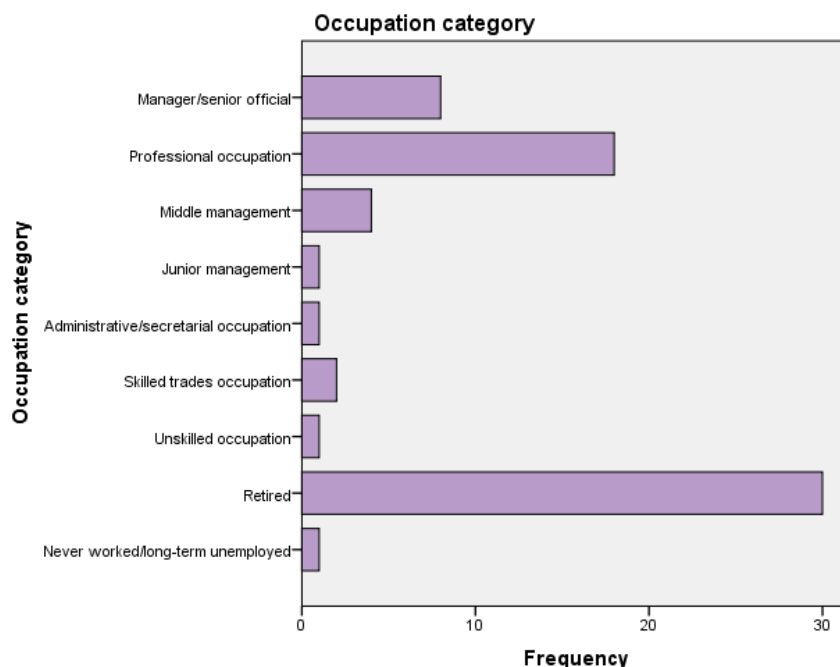


Figure 6.17: Resident survey respondent occupation

In terms of level of qualification, the majority of these respondents were educated to degree level (n=39, 59.1%) and 12.1% (n=8) reported no formal qualification. These are illustrated below in Figure 6.18.

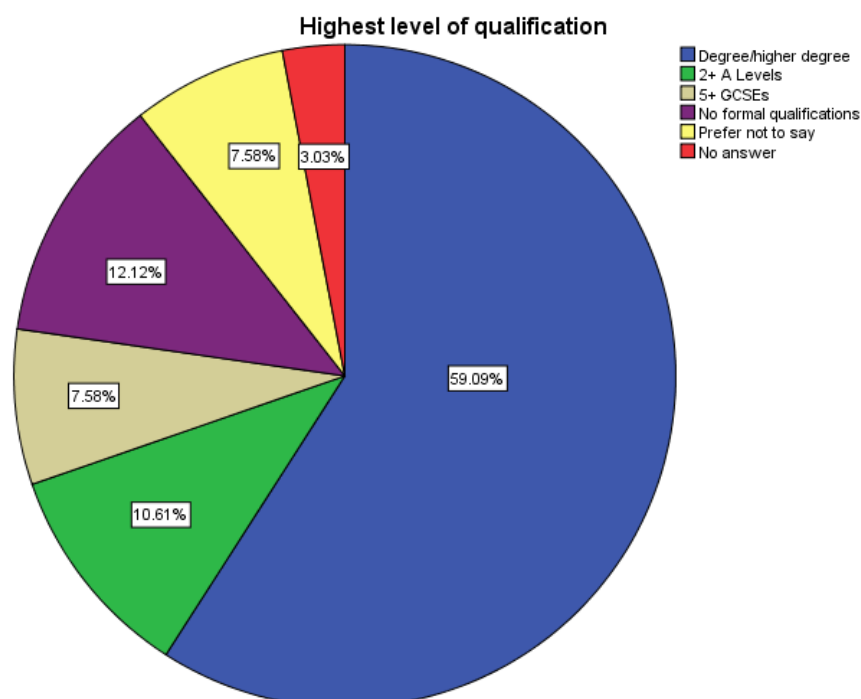


Figure 6.18: Resident survey respondent highest level of qualification

6.2.5 Reasons for non-attendance

The main reported reason for non-attendance by residents was being on holiday (27.3%, n=18), although the second most popular reason was deliberate avoidance (22.7%, n=15). One tenth of the respondents was engaged in a different leisure activity (n=7), while an equal proportion reported that they were either not interested in TnA or that they were not aware it was happening that day (9.1%, n=6). A small proportion of respondents was either at work (4.5%, n=3) or went to a different event on the same day (3.0%, n=2). Nine respondents selected 'other reason' (13.6%). Figure 6.19 below presents all these responses.

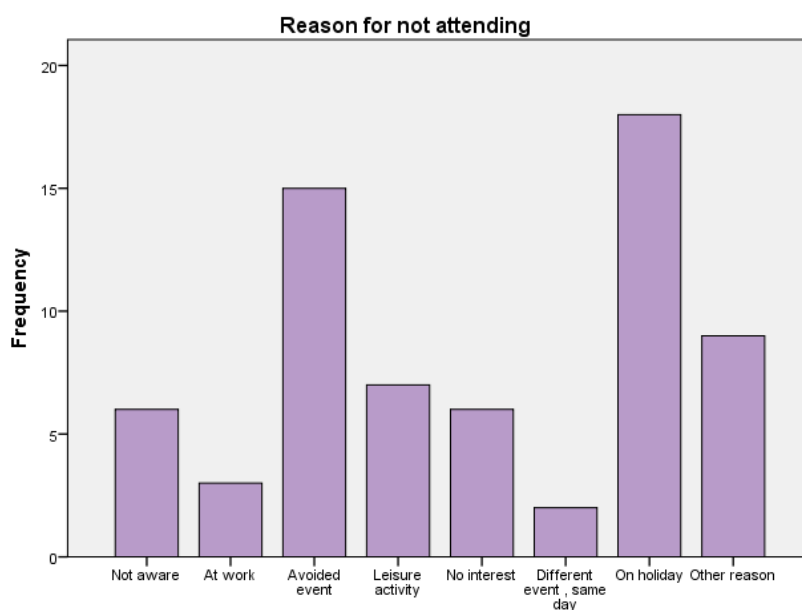


Figure 6.19: Resident survey respondent main reason for not attending

The broad categories into which the respondent statements were grouped are shown in Table 6.6 overleaf:

Table 6.6: Resident survey respondent reason for not attending

Reason for not going	Number of statements
Other commitments	17
Car parking problems	11
Congestion/overcrowding/no road closure	8
Lack of awareness	4
No interest	4
Previous disappointment	3
Too expensive	2
Accessibility concerns (wheelchair access)	2
No public transport	1
Lack of trout	1

Most of the respondents cited other commitments as their reason for non-attendance, which comprised a wide assortment of activities, including work, leisure or going to church:

'I was working that day as a volunteer at Mottisfont which is a National Trust property.'

'Our garden was open for the National Gardens Scheme (charity) on that day: we had to be there!'

'Event occurred during harvest of our crops when we need to work seven days a week!'

'I am an arable farmer who has harvest to get in during August, so was unable to attend Trout 'n About: busy with work.'

'Sunday is for church!'

'We are involved in equine sports – show jumping, hunter trials, etc. I was competing on that day.'

'We are involved in national golf competitions and there was one in Essex on the same day.'

'We were gardening instead.'

'We went cycling for the day.'

The next most common reason given was the perception that car parking would be difficult:

'Thought parking in Stockbridge would be impossible.'

'Parking in Stockbridge is difficult enough but on these days I tend to avoid the area completely.'

'It is notoriously difficult to park.'

'Parking is difficult in Stockbridge.'

Some respondents were concerned about crowding or congestion, with two relating this to frailty or disability:

'High street is very busy. Not easy to attend with young children.'

'Infrastructure in Stockbridge cannot handle event – in particular parking is a nightmare and puts us off (we are not within walking distance).'

'Disabled husband and so parking a problem – wheelchair needed so bumpy fields for parking not easy to negotiate.'

'I only get out when someone takes me in my wheelchair and I never go to the Trout 'n About as it is impossible to get through the crowds with a wheelchair.'

'When visiting this event in previous years couldn't park safely. It was a total headache, plus pavements were packed - dangerous as road not closed and visitors walking in the road.'

A small number of comments were made about lack of awareness:

'I'm not sure where the events are advertised, so didn't know about it.'

'Wasn't aware of it.'

'Did not know what it was about. New to the area.'

Some respondents remarked that they had no interest in the event:

'No interest. I am not really a 'foodie' person.'

'Don't see point of it. Not interesting or new foods on show.'

'Simply that the event is of insufficient interest to me. I did nothing significant instead.'

Single comments were made about the lack of public transport ('no bus service on Sundays'); previous disappointment ('disappointed with the event in previous years, so purposefully avoided attending'); that the goods on sale were expensive ('goods on sale are usually expensive/overpriced'); or guilt at not buying anything ('it is difficult to support Trout 'n About unless you want to consume and one feels guilty not making purchases!'); and the lack of trout ('attended in previous years – very little trout and a range of generally uninteresting stalls – one visit only event').

6.2.6 Dislikes of Trout 'n About

Respondents' dislikes of TnA, or suggestions for improvement, grouped into broad categories are shown in Table 6.7 below.

Table 6.7: Resident survey respondent dislikes

Dislikes	Number of statements
Nothing	17
Car parking problems	9
Congestion/overcrowding	7
Contrived event/too commercial	4
Too expensive	3
Lack of variety/local produce	2
Not a community event	1
Litter	1

The majority of respondents commented that there was nothing they particularly disliked about TnA. One added, however, that they always seemed to be on holiday when the event was taking place. Apart from this, the main dislike appeared to be the perception that car parking would be difficult:

'Parking is always a problem.'

'Just that parking in Stockbridge is so limited.'

'Lack of parking in Stockbridge.'

The next issue concerned congestion and overcrowding, including one comment from a local farmer who found it challenging to drive through Stockbridge with a tractor and one from a resident who expressed their dislike of the fishing fraternity:

'Can be hectic when you do attend, especially with children.'

'Quite crowded – bit unsafe and busy road.'

'From a purely selfish point of view, it makes travelling through Stockbridge with harvest machinery a very difficult and nerve-wracking occupation.'

'I dislike 'people' in crowds, especially to do with fishing!'

Another respondent proposed that a one-way system for pedestrians should be introduced to alleviate the problems with congestion on the pavements:

'No crowd control – ie one direction on pavements, just like Christmas shoppers are controlled in Oxford Street, London. Road diversion useful but probably not viable. This could leave the whole street for pedestrians.'

A few comments were made which indicated displeasure at the contrived nature of the event:

'It tries too hard to make something out of nothing.'

'We seem to have lots of farmers' markets, etc in our area – feel as though others just jump on the band wagon!! I know it's good for local economy – but perhaps a bit too often.'

Two respondents felt that the event was too commercial or did not include enough truly local producers:

'Not enough local rural crafts or food producers fitting with title of event. Too many commercial outdoor vending stalls – not enough emphasis on foods/drinks local to area, especially Stockbridge.'

'Trout 'n About is essentially a retail event,'

Linking to this theme was the feeling that there was not enough variety; that the stalls were offering largely the same items that were available in the town's retailers:

'Lack of variety of 'extra' things, ie stalls (just the usual Stockbridge shops).'

Along with this was the perception that the event was too expensive, or that it made the respondent feel guilty that they were not buying anything:

'I have a slight problem because I suspect the products on offer are all aimed at upper middle class rich people and the prices are suitably inflated. There are no bargains to be had at all!'

'Guilt at going without spending money! Unlike the Romsey Show where you can pay entrance fee and then be entertained for the whole day without having to inspect merchandise, Trout 'n About is essentially a retail event.'

'All Stockbridge prices are far too high – probably alright for the upwardly mobile?'

Finally, one respondent felt that the event was not an inclusive community event ('needs to be a community event for all ages'); and another remarked on the litter and dog fouling ('litter also a problem – ie; number of people bring dogs to Stockbridge Marsh and don't clean up').

6.2.7 Summary of case study two

The results of both the visitor and residents' surveys indicate that TnA appears to be a well-liked event, even by those who did not go. The event provides an enjoyable day out for people, whether they intend to purchase from the stalls or simply browse and take in the pleasant surroundings. TnA suffers from a sudden influx of thousands of visitors to a small market town with a normal resident population of less than 1,000 and this creates logistical issues for all concerned: organisers, residents, visitors and through traffic which becomes entangled in the event owing to the spatial layout of the town. The main reason for residents not going to the event appears to be that they were on holiday, although concerns over car parking facilities also feature highly.

The respondents to both surveys were broadly similar in that the majority were degree-educated and were employed in either a managerial or a professional role (reflecting the population of Stockbridge as a whole). For the visitor survey, the 34-49 age category received most responses, while for the residents' survey, the 65+ age category received marginally more responses than the 50-64.

6.3 Farmers' and crafts market

The market stalls were arranged mainly around Andover Guildhall on the pedestrianised area of the High Street and extended into the section where car parking bays were normally available. At the Guildhall end of the market, the stalls were positioned on opposite sides but as the area narrowed further down, there was only room for stalls on one side. The TVBC-employed market organiser was seen chatting to the stallholders, enquiring whether they needed any assistance or just passing the time. A steady stream of visitors began to wander around the market from just before 10am, some browsing, others chatting to the stallholders and some making purchases.

During the morning, people gathered around the Time Ring to watch the various performances. Some sat on the adjacent benches and others rested against the large concrete spheres, which encircled the Time Ring, while the remainder stood or walked by, turning their heads as they passed. The first performance, a solo singer, was at around 9.30am, before the market had officially started, to a handful of people. Later, the audience grew larger for a local community choir and a couple of other performances. The audience was, at times, sufficiently large to make it difficult to walk through: quite a contrast from that initial performance.

Despite it being May, the weather was not especially hot, although not cold: some people wore coats, while others were in shirtsleeves. Some stallholders, particularly those selling craft items, struggled with the wind as it frequently blew past their stalls, buffeting the marquees under which they had displayed their goods, a couple of which were blown over once or twice. One stallholder remarked that they did not like being positioned near to the Guildhall (which was where they were located that morning) as it was always windy there. This location was just in front of an entrance to the Chantry Centre (the covered shopping area), so it should have been a prime position. Figure 6.20 shows this location during a less windy moment.



Figure 6.20: Andover farmers' and crafts market facing towards the Chantry Centre (with the Guildhall to the right)

6.3.1 Who attends the farmers' and crafts market?

The respondents broadly reflected the sample frame outlined in Chapter Three, as illustrated in Figure 6.21. The 18-33 age category was the smallest, at 22.7% (n=17); marginally over a quarter of respondents were between 34-49 (25.3%, n=19); just below a quarter were between 50-64 (24.0%, n=18); and 28.0% were over 65 (n=21). One respondent declined to provide their age category.

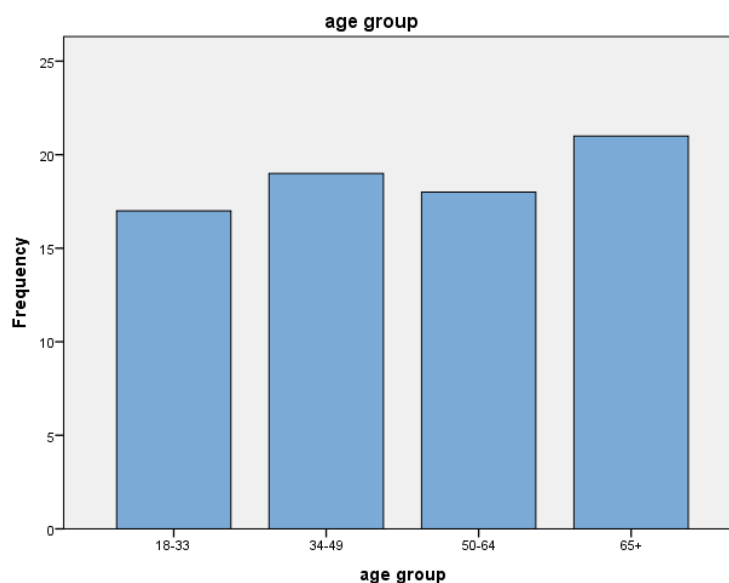


Figure 6.21: Andover farmers' and crafts market visitor survey respondent age category

Slightly under half of the respondents were educated to degree level (42.7%, n=32) compared with 12.0% who reported that they had no formal qualification (n=9). Just over a third of respondents reported that they were employed in either a professional or a managerial role, while 2.7% were unskilled and 36.0% were retired. The results are presented in Figure 6.22 and Figure 6.23.

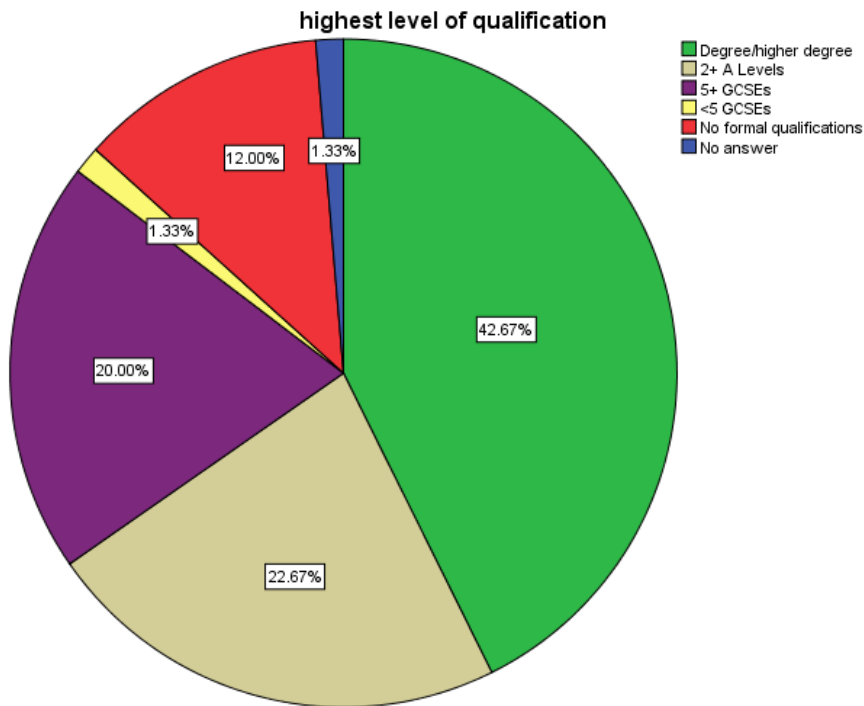


Figure 6.22: Visitor survey respondent highest level of qualification

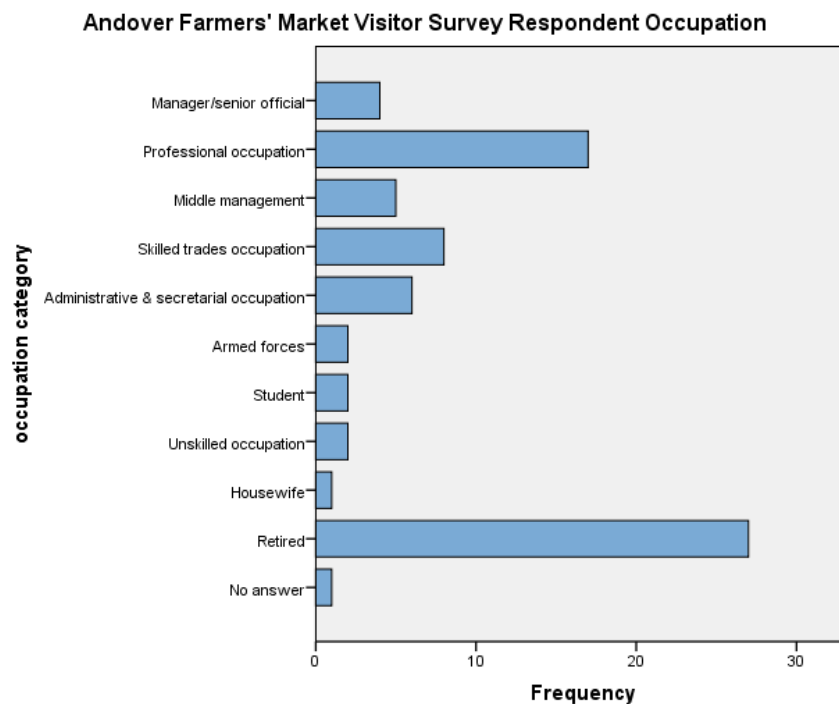


Figure 6.23: Visitor survey respondent occupation

6.3.2 Motivations for attendance

The categories that emerged from the responses to the questions about motivations ('why are you here?' and 'what are you intending to do while here?') are shown below in Table 6.8.

Table 6.8: Visitor survey respondent reason for attending

Reason for coming	Number of statements
To visit the market	30
Range/variety/quality of produce on sale	24
Shopping in the town	22
Leisure activity/something to do	16
To support local producers/specific stalls	15
Curiosity/by chance	12
Other purpose unrelated to the market	9
Browsing	8
Involved in some way	3
Habit/custom	3
Socialising	3
Music/entertainment	2
Atmosphere	1
Cheaper than elsewhere	1
Recommendation	1
Working	1

The majority of respondents reported that they were in Andover for practical reasons: either simply to visit the market; or they commented on the variety or quality of produce on sale at the market:

'Lots of different foods you can't find elsewhere.'

'Came for the market to buy some pâté, cheeses, crab, fresh bread, pork – good quality food.'

'Just visit the market.'

'Buy some fresh produce.'

'Visit farmers' market.'

'Food shopping and to look at the market for meat and fish.'

'Good quality produce.'

'We like the things they sell. We need something for lunch.'

'Fresh, home grown things.'

'Like produce on offer. Like trout, goat's cheese and bread, sausages and chicken. Mainly come to buy meat and fish rather than veg.'

A large number of respondents indicated they were engaged in various shopping activities; either for a specific item or for general shopping:

'To buy a newspaper.'

'Have a coffee, light snacks, have a wander, hear the music in the market.'

'Buy a phone, have some food.'

'Bank and other reasons.'

'Wedding venue planning.'

'W H Smith's for a voucher.'

'Browse, need to get a birthday card.'

'To get computer game stuff and general household stuff.'

'Shopping therapy.'

'Retail shopping.'

After this, people commented that the market offered them a leisure activity; a pleasant way to pass the time with family as the weather was agreeable:

'Day out – nice drive over and browse in town.'

'For a browse, see some friends.'

'Something to do. Anticipating nice weather, spend time with partner.'

'Have a look around.'

A number of respondents remarked that they wanted to show their support for local producers generally or that they intended to make a purchase from a specific stall:

'I like supporting local businesses. [It's a] bit different.'

'Nice atmosphere, music. Support local producer.'

'To help the local farmers.'

'Support local farmers.'

'To buy a lardy cake.'

'They got plants today. Might buy some plants.'

'To look at the market for meat and fish.'

'Because of Hampshire's gluten free stall – I'm gluten free.'

'Because of the New Forest Smokery and the fish man, Hampshire Game.'

Some comments indicated that the respondent was either curious about the market, or drawn in by the sound of music and wanted to find out where it was coming from:

'I find it interesting to find out what they are selling and make.'

'Stumbled across the market. Heard the singing and investigated.'

'Just stumbled across the market while shopping in the town.'

'To drop wife off. Heard music at the market and it made me come down.'

'By chance, passing through.'

A number of respondents stated they did not come to Andover specifically for the market, but for some other purpose:

'Came to get [my] phone fixed [and] wandered through the market.'

'To visit our grandparents' grave.'

'Walking in town anyway, decided to pop in.'

'Just for a walk/exercise.'

'Did not come for farmers' market.'

A few respondents were involved in some way; as a performer in the Time Ring, or to support a performer or stallholder:

'Mother-in-law knows the stallholders, so likes to say hello.'

'To perform in the choir.'

'Mum has one of the stalls in the market – to support her.'

'To support a friend doing a performance at the market.'

Some respondents came out of habit, or to socialise with familiar faces:

'Regular to see what's going on.'

'Out of habit. Regular visitors, know some of the people with stalls. Social event.'

'Regular visitors. Good quality produce.'

'Regularly come to see what's on sale.'

One respondent remarked that the market was inexpensive ('lots of different foods you can't find elsewhere – cheaper than elsewhere'); another came on the recommendation of someone else ('a friend recommended it'); and another respondent was working in the town.

6.3.3 Likes and dislikes of the farmers' and crafts market

Respondents' statements concerning aspects they liked about AFM, grouped into broad categories, are shown in Table 6.9 overleaf.

Table 6.9: Visitor survey respondent likes

Likes/positive statements about farmers' and crafts market	Number of statements
Variety/range/quality of produce	39
Local/independent producers	17
Atmosphere (friendly/relaxed)	8
Sociability	5
Alternative to/better than supermarket/shops	5
Entertainment	4
Traceability of produce	3
Good for the town	3
Community feel	3
Competitive pricing	2
Convenient/regularity	2

The respondents mainly spoke of the variety, range and quality of the produce on sale:

'Different products that you can't normally find in supermarkets.'

'Variation of stalls. Like the original town market.'

'Quality exceeds supermarket.'

'Local produce. Better and different things.'

'The quality of what's on sale is good, better. Good range of things on sale.'

'The food: good quality – better and [you] don't get it elsewhere.'

Some remarks indicated that the respondents valued the independence of the market and the traceability of the produce on sale:

'A bit different, homemade, you know where it comes from.'

'Everything is handmade. Showing off their talents, not franchise rubbish'

'Not mass-produced, local, good.'

'It's independent and [I] know where it's coming from.'

'Good for small businesses and independent traders and cottage industries.'

'No chain businesses in a town which is usually dominated by them!'

'Independence of sellers in it.'

'Farmers' market that has home-grown products.'

A number of responses suggested that the visitors liked the ambiance created by the market:

'Nice shopping experience, nicer than the supermarket.'

'Relaxed atmosphere.'

'Nice atmosphere. Local people selling local produce.'

'Nice atmosphere with range of stalls and music.'

'Nice atmosphere. Just moved back to Andover. Didn't get things like this when living in Southampton.'

Others commented on the sociability of the market, suggesting that it drew people together for reasons other than for the act of purchasing:

'It's a social thing really. We don't need to buy anything, it's just nice to bump into people we know.'

'Stallholders really friendly.'

'Nice people.'

'Nice, I like it. Very good, brings all the people together, like to have a look around even if I don't spend.'

There were also a few comments that highlighted how the market offered an alternative to standard retail outlets:

'You might see some unusual produce, something different from what you get in Tesco.'

'Different things, variety, can't get in supermarket, local produce.'

'Different choices to supermarket.'

'Better than the shops. More variety, produce is fresh.'

Some liked the entertainment, however, this was expressed in single words, for example, 'music, bands' or 'music, entertainment' and further elaboration was not provided.

A few respondents remarked that the market enhanced the town, or that it had a community feel about it:

'Very good, brings all the people together.'

'Nice addition to the town but doesn't shop there.'²

'Good to see it happening. Nice to have something different in town.'

There were a couple of comments relating to the reasonable prices and that the market was convenient, or that it was preferable to another nearby town. One respondent remarked that the market was expensive:

'Good quality, well-priced, wide range.'

'Good quality food, healthy and decent prices.'

'Nothing specific. Convenient'

'I like that it is less crowded than Winchester.'

'Browse rather than buy. Things are sometimes pricey.'

Turning to the respondents' negative comments relating to the market, the majority said that there was nothing they disliked or wanted to improve. Table 6.10 overleaf shows the remaining comments, grouped into broad categories.

² This is how the interviewer recorded the respondent's comments

Table 6.10: Visitor survey respondent dislikes

Dislikes/negative statements about farmers' and crafts market	Number of statements
Nothing	44
Not enough stalls/variety/poor quality	10
Expensive	6
Poorly advertised/promoted	3
Not often enough	3
Not enough entertainment	2
Dislike of entertainment/too loud	2
Overcrowded	1
Poorly supported	1

A number of responses were received concerning the lack of variety, poor quality, or not enough stalls:

'Maybe more craft stalls and more frequent.'

'It could be much bigger and more variety.'

'More food you can eat now (ready-to-eat), hog roast. There's not many ready-to-eat places.'

'Nice to see some more stalls. Needs to grow.'

'Not great craft stalls.'

'Sometimes looks sparse'

'[Stalls] a bit more spaced out. It can get a bit crowded'.

More respondents considered the market expensive than those who considered it to be competitively priced, for example:

'The prices are higher compared to [the] supermarket, which is more affordable'

'Too expensive.'

'Prices lower.'

'Expensive rides for £2 a go.'

'Cheaper stalls.'

There was an observation by one respondent that there was a perception of inflated prices and consequently, attendance was lower than it might be:

'People think that it's expensive but it isn't. Because of this there aren't as many people as there could be.'

Another respondent also remarked that 'more support [was] needed' for the market.

Some negative responses related to the organisation of the market, rather than to the market's content. Comments were made that it was poorly advertised, so it was difficult to find out when it was taking place:

'Not advertised as much as it used to be – banners, signs put out by the council. I didn't see it in the Andover Advertiser.'

'It's not well-advertised – I didn't know anything about it – promote on Facebook?'

Other comments were made that the market was not frequent enough, or that there was not enough entertainment:

'More people would make better atmosphere. The place needs more entertainment, no gaps in entertainment.'

'Would like it to run in January and February, as [I] still need to buy food then.'

Comments were also made that the music was too loud or not liked at all:

'Singing too loud.'

'The music.'

6.3.4 Who stays away from the farmers' and crafts market?

Over 85% of respondents to the residents' survey (85.2%, n=52) did not attend the most recent market, which, at the time of the survey, would have been the one taking place during May 2015. This comprised two of the three respondents in the 18-33 age group; 92.9% of the 34-49 age group (n= 13); 76.5% of the 50-64 age group (n=13); and 88.9% of the 65+ age group (n=24). Only nine respondents had attended the particular market. The age distribution of all respondents, separated by whether they attended or not, is shown in Figure 6.24 overleaf.

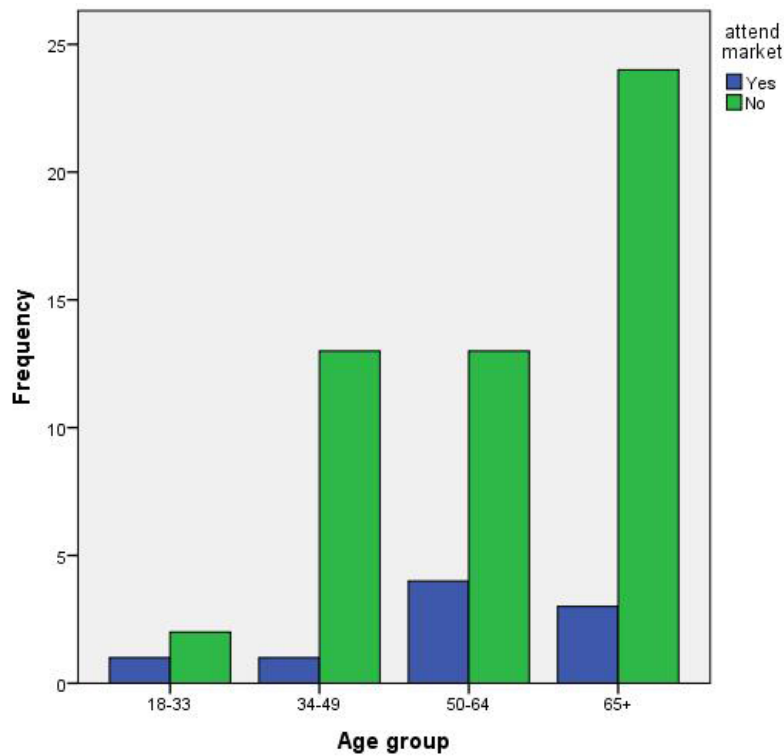


Figure 6.24: Age categories of resident survey respondents

The majority of respondents who did not attend were retired (46.2%, n=24) and just under a third were employed in either professional or managerial roles (32.6%, n=17). As far as level of qualification is concerned, 46.2% (n=24) were educated to degree level, while 13.5% did not possess any formal qualification. The complete results for both occupation and qualification are shown in Figure 6.25 below and Figure 6.26 overleaf.

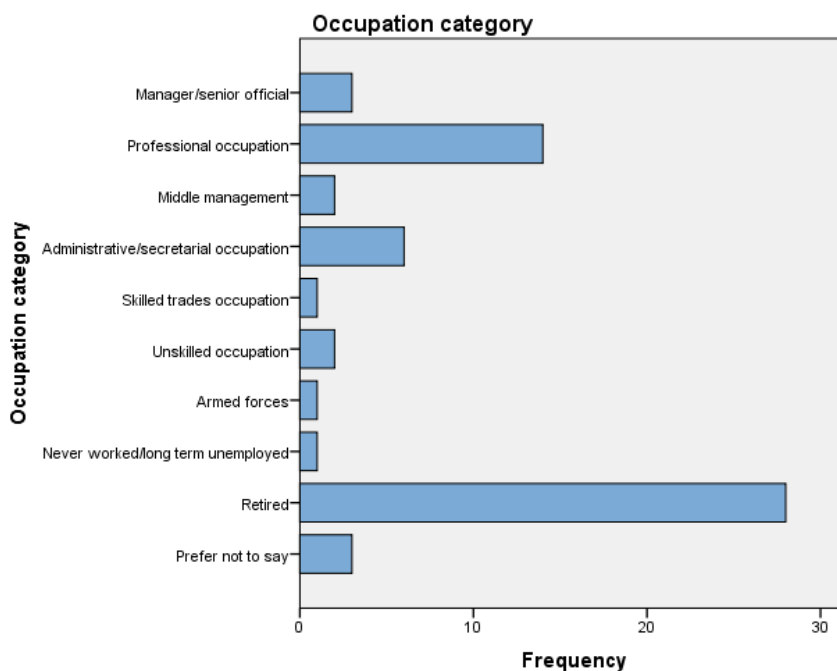


Figure 6.25: Residents' survey respondent occupation

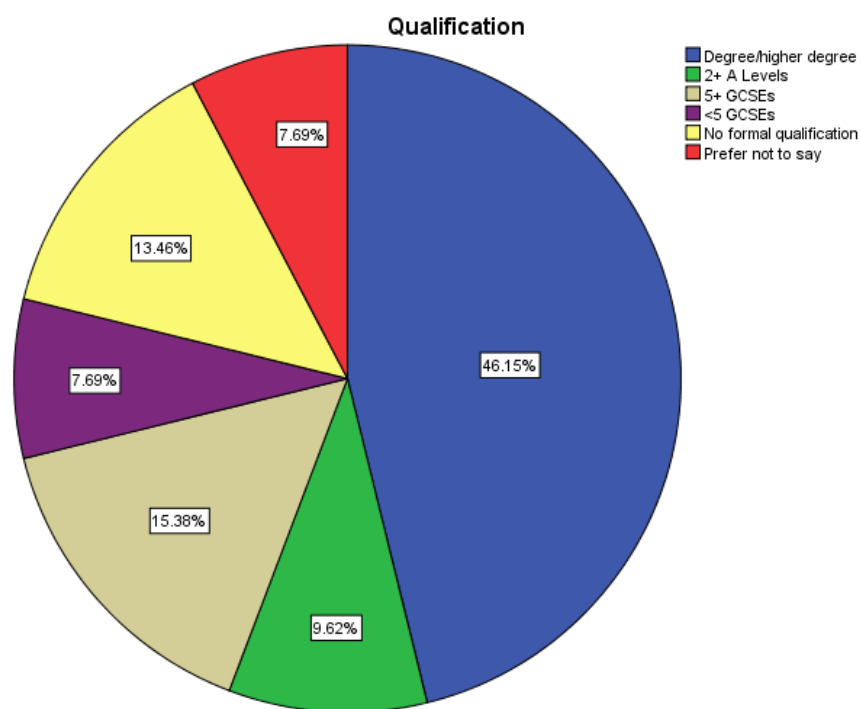


Figure 6.26: Residents' survey respondent highest level of qualification

6.3.5 Reasons for non-attendance

The main reason provided by the respondents for not going to the market was that they were unaware of it (28.8%, n=15). The next most popular reasons were being on holiday and having no interest in the market (both 13.5%, n=7); being involved in a different leisure activity (9.6%, n=5); or being at work (7.7%, n=4). A small proportion (3.8%, n=2) went shopping elsewhere and one each avoided the market, went to a different event on the same day, or a different event on a different day instead. Nine respondents (17.3%) selected 'other reason' for not attending. Additional explanations provided by the respondents is shown in Table 6.11 and all responses are shown in Figure 6.27 overleaf.

Table 6.11: Residents' survey respondent reason for not attending

Reason for not going	Number of statements
Other commitments	19
Too expensive	3
Disappointment/misled	3
Lack of public transport	1

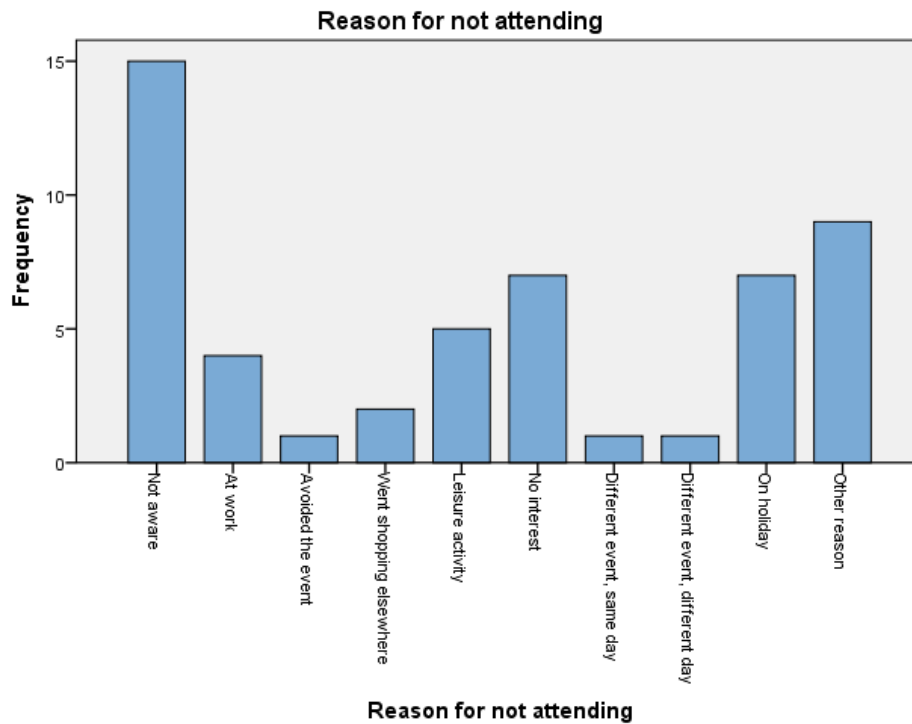


Figure 6.27: Residents' survey respondent main reason for not attending

The majority of respondents were involved in other activities that day or were committed elsewhere, such as a family engagement or a sporting activity:

'I had a 'family and friends' social commitment on that day.'

'Only moved back into area end March and have been too busy working on our house.'

'Hampshire cricket v Middlesex at Ageas Bowl. I am a season ticket-holder.'

'We went canoeing in Southampton.'

'Went to Royal Victoria Country Park with group of friends and dogs.'

Other comments indicated that the respondent preferred to engage in other activities, rather than visit the farmers' market:

'Our teenage daughters are not interested in the farmers' market and we like to do things as a family at weekends.'

'I used to enjoy the farmers' market but now try to avoid food shopping at weekends to allow time for leisure activities.'

There were three comments that suggested that the market was too expensive:

'My husband and I are retired and living on a tight budget. I do not go to the farmers' market as I cannot afford the prices.'

'I find that these sorts of markets are very over-priced, plus as my husband is severely disabled and needs 24-hour car, it is difficult going to any sort of event, so would therefore choose one that is of more interest.'

'Goods are normally expensive.'

A small number of remarks were made concerning disappointment felt by respondents, or that they felt they had been misled:

'The farmers' and crafts market is unfortunately of no interest anymore. I was disappointed with low stall turnout and the same (similar to each other) suppliers there each time. Although I feel I ought to give it another go, every time I've done so in the past I've been disappointed and lamented the waste of my precious weekend time.'

'Have been quite disillusioned by the marketing surrounding the farmers' markets.'

There were also comments relating to frailty and lack of public transport into the town from the outer villages ('age and health problems – NO BUSES DO NOT DRIVE'); and attending church ('as a Christian I do not shop on a Sunday. I spend Sunday at home or at church').

6.3.6 Dislikes of the farmers' and crafts market

When asked to comment on the negative aspects of the market, the majority responded that there was nothing they disliked or wanted to improve. The remaining statements, grouped into broad categories, are shown in Table 6.12.

Table 6.12: Residents' survey respondent dislikes

Dislikes	Number of statements
Nothing	12
Lack of variety	10
Not visited, so unable to comment	6
Too expensive	5
Day of market/duration	5
Poorly advertised	4
Dislike of farmers' markets	3
Dislike Andover town centre	2
Misleading	1

Lack of variety featured as the main dislike, or that some stalls were too similar:

'Much more variety.'

'More stalls please.'

'Lack of difference between the stallholders (ie, why do we need three or four selling fresh meat?) Low number of stalls in attendance.'

'It could do with a few more stalls.'

'More choice of stalls, many stalls selling similar foodstuffs.'

There were some comments that illustrated concern over the price of the products on sale; one of which suggested that the inflated pricing attracted more customers who are middle class:

'The price. Due to the price they tend to attract a certain type of customer, which makes the atmosphere quite snobby.'

'Price of produce, particularly meat and fish. Has to be more competitive.'

'I have found many of the products quite expensive, although I have not visited recently to see the crafts market. I have also found that I can buy good quality, varied and local products in Waitrose and my village shop, which are more convenient.'

'Some produce is very expensive, so as a pensioner I cannot afford to buy much.'

Another comment about pricing revealed that the respondent felt misled:

'When these markets were first started, we were led to believe that as the middleman (supermarket) had been cut out, we could buy quality food at reasonable prices. Not true – most items on sale exceed prices you can buy the same products in shops.'

Some respondents wanted the market to extend its hours of operation or take place on a different day, while others were concerned about the lack of market advertising or were not even aware of it:

'Would like it to continue into the afternoon.'

'I would probably attend if they were on a Monday or Friday.'

'Longer hours.'

'Have farmers' market on a different day.'

'More info for where and when it is happening.'

'I know little to nothing about the event. I would be interested in attending the event had I known about it.'

'Better if it was on a Saturday when the town was open. Would be more keen to visit then.'

'Better advertising. Not even sure where it is or how often it is on.'

A few respondents just did not like farmers' markets, while a couple did not like Andover town centre, one of whom expressed this quite vehemently:

'Apart from one or two independent shops, I despise Andover town centre. I prefer to visit Winchester, Petersfield, Salisbury for the markets.'

'Unfortunately the town centre has been allowed to degenerate because of the quality of shops, eg charity and pound shops. This makes us avoid the town centre, apart from essential shopping.'

'It really isn't something that appeals to me at this time such that I must make sure of going. Jams and needlework is not my scene.'

I do not like the farmers' market. I am engaged in other activities on Sunday.'

'I'm just not interested in visiting the markets at this time.'

6.3.7 Summary of case study three

The market appeared to be a welcome addition to the town for the majority of visitors, with many relishing the opportunity to wander amongst the stalls. The chance to purchase products not normally available in the town seemed to be an appealing feature, as was the ability to support and talk to the stallholders. Many liked the variety and quality of items on sale and the cheery atmosphere the market brought to an otherwise quiet town on a Sunday.

There was a feeling that the market was not well supported by the community, however, the majority who did not go were occupied with other commitments. Some respondents were not interested in farmers' markets, while others felt misled as, in their view, the produce was of lower quality yet more expensive than what was available in the local supermarket.

6.4 Chapter summary

Visitors' motivations for attending and behavioural intentions were reminiscent of Nicholson and Pearce's (2001) findings, which were grouped into five categories: socialisation; novelty/uniqueness; entertainment/excitement; escape; and family. This was particularly evident in Romsey and Stockbridge, where entertainment, enjoyment or socialisation featured prominently. The responses to the third event were more practical and concerned visiting the market. The results were interesting, since in CS1 and CS2, around three quarters of residents had not attended but in the third, this rose to more than 85%. The reasons for non-attendance varied: for CS1, respondents stated that they deliberately avoided the event, mainly owing to concerns over alcohol-fuelled anti-social behaviour. As Deery and Jago (2010) found, such concerns have the potential to cancel out any benefits that cultural events may bring, such as community cohesion. For CS2, the majority of non-attending respondents stated that they were on holiday, while for CS3, lack of awareness was the most cited reason for not going.

In all three cases, the main appeal of the event appeared to be concerned with variety; whether this related to the various musical acts and performances at CS1, or the diversity of produce on sale at CS2 and CS3. Traceability of the produce also featured strongly in the last case study, as it did in similar studies by La Trobe (2001) and Organ *et al* (2015). Although the majority of visitor respondents in the three cases remarked that there was nothing they

particularly disliked, some negative opinions were nevertheless expressed. These related to concerns over alcohol-fuelled anti-social behaviour in the case of CS1, traffic or pedestrian congestion and parking difficulties for CS2 and lack of variety or poor quality for CS3. Non-attending residents' concerns were almost identical to the visitors' concerns: perceptions of alcohol-fuelled anti-social behaviour with regard to CS1, congestion and car parking difficulties for CS2, and lack of variety for CS3.

These results suggest that cultural events can produce a number of social and cultural impacts. The impact of alcohol and anti-social behaviour was a key issue for the first case. The second and third cases provided opportunities for unusual, out of the ordinary experiences; by offering variety in terms of music, entertainment or food and craft items. The downside of this is that by attracting an influx of people, particularly for CS2, which is held in a location with less than 1,000 inhabitants, the infrastructure struggled to cope

The results presented in this chapter contribute to answering RQ2, which was designed so that an understanding of the social and cultural impacts of small-scale cultural events could be developed. The next chapter discusses the main themes that have emerged from this and the previous chapter, which calculated the economic impact of each event. Having initially separated these elements for the purpose of data presentation, merging them for a detailed discussion recognises how they are inter-connected.

PART THREE

Chapter 7: Discussion

From its initial foundation in events, economic development, town centre revitalisation, and small towns literature, this thesis has identified areas of knowledge and understanding that are currently lacking, notably how small-scale cultural events interact economically, socially and culturally with their host market towns, and has aimed to offer a response. Chapter Two concluded by calling for a refocusing of the urban studies lens away from large cities and towards small towns, as there is much to learn by studying these, all too often ignored, places. Valuable evidence to support this claim has emerged throughout this research and the contributions to these specific areas of study are now discussed.

This chapter focuses on three key themes, which emerged from the research and are in need of further discussion. The first considers the suitability and appropriateness of EIA in relation to small-scale cultural events. Although every attempt was made to complete the EIA research as robustly and accurately as possible, many difficulties were encountered, particularly in scaling down approaches more commonly associated with larger-scale projects. Alongside these difficulties, each of the EIAs undertaken in this research indicated that minimal additional expenditure occurred while the case study events were in progress, suggesting that the complications encountered do not warrant the significant effort involved. This section firstly discusses these methodological challenges, which are often referred to in the literature (eg: Crompton, 1995; Crompton, 2006; Getz, 2012) but are rarely considered more fully. Secondly, the empirical results are discussed in relation to the existing literature (eg: Wood, 2005; Wood and Thomas, 2008) in order to illustrate that if EIA is undertaken, particularly on small-scale events, without consideration of the linked social and cultural impacts, then it is in danger of masking the overall impact.

The second theme examines the contribution made by small-scale cultural events to town centre performance by considering visitor-spending patterns. The economic impact for each of the case studies researched was found to be relatively small, however, when the data are explored further, additional stories emerge concerning the level and type of expenditure the host towns' retail and

service provision experienced. Next, the extent to which small-scale cultural events act as a visitor attraction is discussed, as this is a contributory factor to town centre performance. Finally, this section considers event impacts from the local business perspective. These results have policy implications for those decision-makers considering an events-led economic strategy and complement existing work by Powe and Shaw (2004); Powe (2006) and Powe and Hart (2008) in relation to the ongoing vitality and viability of market towns.

Thirdly, this chapter discusses how economic value consists of more than simply financial activity (Gibson *et al*, 2010). Analysis of income or expenditure tells only part of the economic impact story and it should not be separated from the context in which the activity occurred. If direct monetary impact of small-scale cultural events is the only factor taken into consideration when attempting to understand the benefits created by such events, then they may be at risk of losing necessary support from policy makers. Set within the experience and creative economy literatures (eg: Pine and Gilmore, 2011; Arthur and Hrac, 2015), this section argues that experiential value is created at these events and, by accounting for this, it offers an alternative approach to reading the impacts of such activity.

These three themes form the focus of this discussion chapter. They are discussed individually at first, so that they can be explored thoroughly in their individual settings, although it is evident from this introduction that there are overlaps. These themes are then brought together in a final discussion of the overall impact of small-scale cultural events on market town vitality.

7.1 Theme one: Questioning the suitability of EIAs in evaluations of small-scale cultural events in market towns

Getz (2012), among others, has noted that study of the economic impact of events has featured frequently in the literature, albeit focused on large scale or mega-events. Getz has also observed that there is much controversy surrounding the process of EIA in terms of the methods used and how these are applied. Additionally, Crompton (1995; 2006) has argued that such analyses are too often distorted or misused to justify the investment of public funds and, owing to this, the impacts are frequently inflated or misunderstood by those who commission them. The reasons for undertaking an EIA in this

particular study have already been explained, however the process was found to be challenging when applied to small-scale events and the results suggest the case study events generated little additional income for their host towns, and so confirmed some existing findings (eg: Wood, 2005; Gibson *et al*, 2010). Despite this, there is a lack of academic discussion, in either the economic impact or urban studies literature, regarding the suitability or appropriateness of EIAs to small-scale events, especially those located in market towns.

The discussion in this part of the chapter, therefore, makes a valuable contribution to literature concerned with methods for determining economic impact by drawing attention to the failure of established methods when faced by differences that are apparent in smaller scale projects. It also contributes to urban studies, which, as frequently mentioned during this thesis, has a tendency to focus on large cities, by highlighting that these smaller places do not function in the same way that cities do and, as argued by Besser (2009), they do indeed offer a site for worthwhile enquiry. By continuing to ignore these smaller places, urban studies is failing to acknowledge these places and their particular characteristics.

This first theme initially compares the challenges encountered with the results achieved to address this omission. Secondly, it discusses the results of the case study EIAs in relation to existing findings. It finally argues that although this type of EIA may be appropriate for larger-scale or mega-events, where significant regional, rather than local, economic benefits may accrue, for the smaller-scale event located in a small town, this type of EIA is fraught with potential for misunderstanding and neglects less tangible effects. In consequence, EIA should not be used in isolation of other approaches focused on associated impacts, as a means of understanding economic impact in its entirety.

7.1.1 EIA process – challenges and difficulties

Figure 2.8 presents a simplistic rationale for hosting a small-scale cultural event: an intervention is implemented by a local policymaker, who anticipates increased economic activity as a result. The most common means of evaluating whether this intervention has been successful is to undertake an EIA. Although the procedure for carrying out this type of evaluation appears to be relatively straightforward, as shown in Figure 3.8, in reality it is very complex and many opportunities exist for inaccuracies. This is particularly the

case when models intended for use at national or international levels are scaled down, with some inaccuracies becoming magnified in the process (Dickson and Milne, 2008; Partridge and Rickman, 2008). Combined with the challenges encountered when attempting to collect the data, EIA can become an almost impossible task to perform with any amount of accuracy. Although every effort was employed in this research to overcome challenges, as with other studies, the results were the best compromise that could be achieved in the circumstances.

During the literature search for a suitable method, as discussed in Chapters Two and Three, it emerged that a number of EIA studies of sporting and cultural events made use of specialised computer software (eg: Hodur and Leistritz, 2007; Antonio Rivera *et al*, 2008). The aforementioned authors argued that this approach produced fairly accurate results. At the small-scale, however, the cost is normally prohibitive and unjustifiable, since this type of event is usually organised by community groups lacking either the capabilities or necessary resources (Dickson and Milne, 2008). Even the study undertaken for the Glastonbury Festival by Baker (2007) did not utilise such proprietary software. As a result, an uncomplicated model that could be used by small-scale event organisers was developed for this thesis. This was, however, not a straightforward process. The difficulties encountered, which impact on accuracy of the assessments, namely data collection, attendance estimates, and economic multipliers, are now discussed.

1) Data collection – reliability of estimates provided

As discussed in Chapter Three, estimates of expenditure at the event are required from a sample of attendees and participants (eg; stallholders or performers) in order to calculate the direct economic impact. The literature suggests that there are two ways of obtaining this data, either by recall or diary method, and both Faulkner and Raybould (1995) and Breen *et al* (2001) have discussed the advantages and disadvantages of both. Recall is instant but if a participant is approached on arrival, they do not truly know how much they intend to spend and this was experienced in the current study, as reported by some of the researchers who assisted with data collection. If researchers wait until the end of the day to approach event attendees, there is a risk that insufficient responses would be obtained or that respondents would forget the amount they had spent. An opportunity to do this was, however, presented at the second case study event, as a park and ride bus service was in operation

and a researcher was positioned at the bus stop so that people could be approached while queuing for a bus. The diary method has been found to be more accurate but it requires far more commitment from both the researcher and participant, and can be very costly (Breen *et al*, 2001). For this reason Wood (2005) chose the recall method for her study. The fundamental problem with both methods is that accuracy cannot be guaranteed, yet the figures are essential to the overall EIA.

Attempts have been made to find alternative methods, for example Della Lucia *et al* (2011) made use of radio frequency identification (RFID) technology to improve these estimates in their study of a multi-day festival in Trento, Italy. They used an existing tourist card system to track festival attendee visits to participating outlets. This produced accurate results in terms of number of visits, however, owing to ethical issues, the cards were not enabled to record financial transactions. Instead, tourist accounts for the area were used. Della Lucia *et al* (2011), themselves, observed weaknesses in this approach, notably as it relied on the festival attendee to remember to swipe the card, or a member of staff at the participating outlet to request it. It also only provided an estimate of expenditure owing to its inability to track transactions. Nevertheless, this study illustrates the potential for further improvements in the current methodology, but such improvements still require significant investment in technology.

2) Data collection – event duration limitations

Almost without exception, excluding the research on farmers' markets, the studies referred to in this thesis involve events with a duration of more than one day; for example, Wood (2005) examined two local authority-run events, each of which ran over a weekend; the folk festival in Tohmo's (2005) research lasted for eight days; and Crompton *et al*'s (2001) evaluation was on a four-day festival. These multi-day events provide multiple opportunities to collect data from event attendees and participants. Conversely, events included in this study took place on one day, which led to major challenges. Even the events studied by Wood (2005), which took place over weekends, presented her with a similar challenges. Although every attempt was made for the first case study to recruit sufficient researchers to assist with data collection, as this problem had been anticipated, more would have been beneficial. Others wishing to replicate such studies would need to consider this problem, particularly if they are reliant upon volunteer research assistance.

3) *Data collection – local business scepticism*

Kirkup and Rafiq (1999) commented on the difficulties they encountered in getting local businesses to provide financial data. Wood (2005) endeavoured to overcome this by asking local businesses to provide only an indication of change to business activity around the time of the event. The current study attempted to improve upon Wood's five-point attitude scale, which ranged from 'great decrease' to 'great increase' by including percentage boundaries (ie: 0-24%, 25-49%, 50-74%, 75-100%). For a one-day event, this proved very difficult for local businesses to determine and the resulting participation was disappointing. Wood found that although visitor respondents reported increased spend in the host town, data from the local businesses suggested minimal change. The same was found in the current study.

A letter of support from TVBC, which was attached to the local business surveys, was intended to show respondents that the local authority was in full support of the research. An unexpected consequence of this involvement was that instead of acting as a support for the research, it acted as the opposite, with businesses being sceptical of the reasons for collecting the data. Many businesses declined to participate, while others were only prepared to complete the qualitative section. This was particularly problematic for CS1, since much of the economic activity occurred in the town's pubs, yet gaining access to data from these establishments was challenging. The publicans were very evasive and it transpired that they were dubious of TVBC's interest in the research.

This method of obtaining local business data is not always necessary if there is sufficient economic data already available, for example input-output tables. A thorough search was undertaken in an attempt to source such data but nothing suitable was available. The ONS is not required to produce economic data lower than regional level and the resultant snapshot (eg: Annual Business Inquiry) would not capture the difference in activity that might accrue from a one-day event.

4) *Attendance estimates*

Chapter Three included a discussion about the problems associated with estimating attendance at non-ticketed open-air events, yet a reasonable estimate of this is an essential component of EIA. Where an event is ticketed, then numbers of tickets sold can be obtained. When a non-ticketed event

takes place in an enclosed location, for example a fenced area, then measures can be put in place to conduct a count, as in Crompton *et al* (2001) and Tyrrell and Ismail (2005). The case studies included in this research were more challenging, as they took place in a town centre setting. The events included in Wood's (2005) study took place in a similar location, however, the local authority provided the attendance estimates. No such data were available for the case studies included in the current research, so alternatives were needed, which created further challenges. For two of the case studies, footfall count data were provided by TVBC, however, such data are not entirely accurate and they were triangulated with other sources of data, including organiser estimates and, where available, car park usage data. One of the case study towns did not have a footfall counter and so another method was devised based on capture-recapture methodology (also known as tag and recapture), as proposed by Brothers and Brantley (1993). This method worked well in the semi-rural market town of Stockbridge by using the temporary car parks as the 'tag' and asking survey participants where they parked if they came by car ('recapture'), and could be adapted relatively easily for use elsewhere. It was, nevertheless, labour-intensive, as it required researchers to be positioned in the car parks for the duration of the event counting both the cars and number of passengers as they entered the car park. For a small-scale event, small differences in such an estimate can result in large variances in the overall EIA, for example attendance estimates for the third case study ranged from 683 to 2,588, with EIAs of between £6,481-£23,379. Such differences could be problematic for decision-makers.

There are further moves towards improving attendance estimates using information technology. Mamei and Colonna (2016), for example, used mobile telephone data in their study. Even this approach is problematic: firstly, there are ethical concerns over access to personal data; and secondly, there is no way of ensuring that the signal recorded in the location was from an event attendee, particularly if the event is within a town centre location (Mamei and Colonna, 2016).

5) Calculating the economic impact – application of a multiplier

Also included in Chapter Three was a discussion about the difficulties encountered in finding a suitable multiplier for this study. One option was to create a custom multiplier from local economic data, however, no such data existed at the required level (ie: local rather than regional or national).

Another option was to purchase a dedicated computer program, which was not possible given financial constraints. A third option was to 'borrow' a multiplier from another study (Gratton *et al*, 2000, p19). In line with existing research in this area (eg: Baker, 2007; Southern *et al*, 2007), the latter option was taken, however, this has its own weakness, as the multiplier was calculated on a different area's economy, and the challenge was to find one that was neither too generous nor too mean.

Although every effort was made to source an appropriate multiplier for the current research, it was nonetheless a challenging task to find one that would not fall foul of Crompton's (2006, p67) complaint about 'abuse of multipliers,' which would lead to a distortion of the EIA. The multiplier that was selected was felt to be as robust as possible, since it was founded in the STMS and no similar undertaking has been repeated in the UK since this detailed research.

The above discussion sets out the constraints and challenges associated with undertaking a robust EIA of a small-scale event in a small town. There are numerous opportunities for errors to be made, collection of suitable and sufficient data to construct the EIA is difficult, and the final calculation is problematic. The overall EIA is at best only a rough estimate and needs to be accompanied by numerous caveats. As Crompton (2006) and Wood (2005) have already remarked, however, assessments such as these are used by policymakers to justify investment decisions. At the local level, where opportunities exist for small variances to be greatly enlarged (Partridge and Rickman, 2008), it is unwise to make use of such EIAs in isolation of other considerations, such as community pride, as in Wood's (2005) study.

This discussion of the constraints and challenges encountered during the research contributes to methodological debate by drawing attention to the specific issues that emerge when undertaking EIA on small-scale events in small towns; specific areas which the literature has a tendency to overlook. Problems such as these are less apparent in larger cities, not least because of economies of scale for researchers. The modest solutions presented here, such as the capture-recapture method for estimating attendance, make a further, novel, contribution in this particular area of study. This discussion also contributes to understanding of the practical issues faced by policymakers charged with trying to learn more about how small-scale cultural events contribute to their local economy.

7.1.2 Results of the case study EIAs

As already observed throughout this thesis, most attention has been paid to large-scale or mega-events in the literature concerned with event impacts. Within this field, sporting events appear to have drawn the most interest. As a result, there is little work from which to draw specifically in relation to small-scale cultural events. Of note, and referred to frequently in this thesis, is Wood (2005), who examined the economic and social impacts of two local authority cultural events. Although Wood's study was undertaken in the post-industrial northern town of Blackburn, Lancashire – a very different location to the case studies included here in a number of ways – the results show similarities in terms of the economic impact. Wood reported a MPP spend of £12.57 at one event, while in comparison, the MPP spend for the BF was £16.64; TnA £19.16 and AFM £14.18. Wood's methodology differed from that used in the current research, as she did not account for casuals or time-switchers in her calculations. Neither did Wood attempt to estimate attendance; instead, she remarked that the local authority 'had processes in place to gather attendance figures' (p40) but no discussion of these 'processes' could be found. Consequently, the overall economic impact for the two events included in Wood's research was not presented. This current study, therefore, extends Wood's work by presenting full EIAs for three case study events.

The current study also complements other research by Wood and Thomas (2008), who found that small-scale cultural events result in minimal direct economic impact, particularly when the event is located in a rural town, where much additional expenditure made by event visitors tends to occur at the event rather than in the town's retail and service provision. Stockbridge (CS2) could be considered a semi-rural market town, as illustrated in Chapter Four, and the results for CS2 fit with those of Wood and Thomas. This is demonstrated by comparing the estimated MPP expenditure at the Stockbridge event with estimated MPP expenditure in the town's shops and services. The former was calculated as £13.47 while the latter was £5.69. A similar – but weaker – pattern was found with CS3, which was in more of an urban town, ie: a MPP spend of £8.03 on stalls and £6.15 in the town. CS1 revealed the opposite, with a MPP spend on stalls of £5.19 and £10.36 in the town. As a folk music festival, this was the only event of the three not to be focused on selling; instead, the stalls were carefully selected by the organisers to complement the town's food retail outlets and alleviate excess demand, for example, the local

scout group ran a barbeque and so was able to use the event as a fund-raising exercise. These findings suggest that a cultural event's impact on its host town's retail and service provision varies and is dependent upon its nature; a music festival has the potential to be of more economic benefit than a food festival or market.

7.1.3 Theme one summary: the limitations of EIA

This discussion has shown that there is a set of practical challenges that needs to be addressed when undertaking EIA of small-scale cultural events.

Decisions need to be made at the outset and these affect the resulting assessment, for example whether or not to include resident expenditure in the analysis. This debate has been discussed in Chapter Two, however, briefly, exclusion is the common approach for large-scale events but if an event is considered to be of community benefit, rather than to attract tourists, there is a valid argument to include such expenditure (Gelan, 2003). The problem for policymakers is how to decide which path to take and ensure this is fully understood. The current study adopted the approach that the events were of community benefit, so included residents' expenditure. It did, however, follow advice from the literature (eg: Crompton *et al*, 2001) to exclude expenditure made by visitors unaware of the event until after their arrival. Any spending by this group, known as 'casuals', might have occurred regardless of whether the event was taking place. These choices illustrate clearly how EIAs can be greatly altered, depending on which decision is taken. As stated in the literature, EIAs are often commissioned in response to the need for justification of continued investment (Crompton, 1995; Wood, 2005). The temptation then is to inflate the EIA by erroneously including expenditure.

TVBC commissioned the EIAs in order to understand more about how cultural events in the borough contributed to their host communities: CS1 and CS2 were organised by local community groups with a modest annual grant of around £250 each from TVBC. The EIA thus provides evidence to the borough of return on investment. CS3, however, is organised and managed by the borough, officers for which have expressed the need to demonstrate to the town's retail and service provision that attempts are being made to increase footfall on traditionally quiet days. CS3 resulted in the smallest EIA but it was taken at one of 10 markets operating throughout the year, so constitutes only part of likely annual benefits. These case studies demonstrate that evaluating

an event on its economic (monetary) impact in isolation of other contributory factors is too narrow a stance to take and does not result in a comprehensive event impact analysis.

The process of conducting EIA has been identified as being problematic, with many opportunities for errors to be made, yet policy decisions are all too often founded on the results of such work. This research strived to minimise potential failings, building on the work of authors such as Crompton (1995); Crompton *et al* (2001); Crompton (2006); and Wood (2005). As a result, a systematic process was developed, which could be followed by those who may wish to understand more about the possible economic – in the monetary sense – contributions made by small-scale events (shown in Figure 3.9).

Nevertheless, the EIA process fails to account for other ‘less tangible’ (Dwyer *et al*, 2000) aspects, identified by Crompton (2004) as ‘psychic income’; which includes, for example, reputation (Ferdinand and Williams, 2013) or ‘buzz’ (Storper and Venables, 2004). This omission is explored further in the last theme of this chapter, focused on ‘the experience economy’ (Pine and Gilmore, 2011).

7.2 Theme two: Contribution made by small-scale cultural events to town centre performance

The literature review in Chapter Two discussed the current and ongoing concerns about the (mis)fortunes of the British town centre and high street. Additionally, the contemporary significance of market towns has been discussed. The relevance of this to the current research is that each of the case studies was located in a market town. This theme links the literature concerned with town centre and high street performance with the findings of the research in order to discuss how small-scale cultural events contribute in the specific context of market towns. It does this by initially exploring the impact of the case study events on town centre activity, in terms of footfall and attendee spending patterns. Secondly, it reflects on the extent to which these events act as visitor attractions by considering the local authority’s aims for them and examining whether the attendees were visitors or residents. This connects with the literature exploring how market towns act as visitor attractions (eg: Powe and Hart, 2008) and how cultural events are used as tourist attractions (eg: Getz, 2008b). In this way, such events contribute to

high street performance by acting as a place marketing tool (Della Lucia, 2013).

The third and final section of this theme considers high street performance from the perspective of local business. The literature has shown that businesses located in the towns where small-scale cultural events take place observe minimal difference in trading activity (Wood, 2005). Yet markets can help local small businesses or start-ups to develop their customer base or test new products (Guthrie *et al*, 2006) and so support the local economy in this way. The results of the current study are discussed in these contexts.

7.2.1 Cultural events in market towns: Impact on town centre activity

Hallsworth *et al*'s (2015) study of weekday markets in the UK indicates that, in broad terms, markets generate an increased footfall of between 17% to 27% on average over what would normally be expected on a non-market day. Their research also suggests that this leads to increased retail sales. Weekday markets are clearly different from the case studies included in the current research, owing to their frequency and scheduling, however, the aforementioned premise provides the basis for comparison with less recurrent events. The findings of the current research, in terms of effect on footfall and retail sales are discussed below.

CS1, an annual one-day folk and roots music festival, was found to increase Saturday footfall in the town centre by an average of 44%¹ between 2013-2015, which is significantly higher than Hallsworth *et al*'s findings above. This variance may be attributed to the difference in the type of event: a free annual music festival will have a different kind of appeal to a weekly market. As there was no footfall counter in place for Stockbridge (CS2), it was not possible to determine how normal Sunday footfall was affected, apart from the observation that 1,081 cars carrying 2,584 passengers were counted entering the additional parking facilities that were provided especially for the event. It could be assumed that these vehicles were only in Stockbridge for the event. Neighbouring roads were also observed as being congested and parking difficulties at the event emerged as an issue with residents, event attendees

¹ Based on analysis of Saturday footfall for Romsey (CS1) for the June-September period between 2013 and 2015.

and local businesses. This evidence indicates a significant increase in normal Sunday footfall. Anecdotal evidence was also provided by the organisers and local businesses. CS3 was found to increase Sunday footfall in Andover by an average of 14%², which is more in line with Hallsworth *et al*'s findings. All of this points to a footfall effect generated by different events: annual events result in a concentrated and sharp increase in footfall, while those which are more frequent – even monthly, rather than weekly as in Hallsworth *et al*'s research – are likely to produce one which is less severe. This is a factor that local planners should account for when considering whether or which type of event to plan for their town centre, particularly if capacity for increased footfall is likely to be a matter of concern.

This increased footfall does not necessarily translate into additional non-food retail sales in the host town's businesses, but it is likely to generate additional trade in food retail and leisure services (cafés, pubs, restaurants). Further, the type of event plays a role in the level of such expenditure: a music festival has the potential to lead to a greater level of visitor spend in the host town than either a food festival or a farmers' market, both of which can divert visitor spend away from the host town's business. CS1 resulted in a higher spend in the town's retail and service provision than on the event stalls, with a ratio of 2:1. CS2 and CS3 resulted in almost the opposite: the ratio for CS2 was 1:2.4; and for CS3 it was 1:1.3.

One explanation for this is that the first case study, being a music festival rather than a market, did not have a large quantity of trading stalls and, as mentioned in the first theme, the organisers selected stalls mainly to alleviate excess demand in the town's own leisure service provision. CS2 and CS3 were primarily markets, with only a few non-selling attractions, such as a brass band at CS2, and local community groups promoting themselves at CS3. Another factor that may play a role in this is the locational context, and this is considered in the third theme.

In their research of three rural events (food, music, and arts festivals), Wood and Thomas (2008) identified that the main beneficiaries of smaller events were likely to be organisers and participants, with very little expenditure

² Sunday footfall for Andover (CS3) was analysed between March 2014 and December 2015 as the market operates once a month and was introduced in March 2014.

occurring in the host towns. The findings of the current study were mixed in this regard, as outlined in the above paragraph. Results from CS1 indicated that this was not the case. In both the other two cases, however, results indicated that the stalls benefited more than the town's retailers and service providers.

When the findings from the current study are further explored by investigating visitor spend in the town's businesses, they reveal that the majority of expenditure was on food and drink, which concurs with Wood (2005). Again, the levels of expenditure varied between the case studies. The two annual events resulted in the highest expenditure in these categories, whether it was food retail or leisure services. In contrast, CS3 resulted in a more even distribution of expenditure between non-food retail and food retail/leisure services.

Qualitative data obtained from the survey respondents complement the above findings by helping to explain some of the visitor spending behaviour. There was evidence that some retailers in Romsey closed early on the day of the event, thus reducing opportunities for visitors to make purchases. Reasons provided mainly showed concerns over anti-social behaviour based on prior experience, or congestion preventing customers from entering the premises.

In Stockbridge, opinion was mixed with regard to the value of opening on the day of TnA. One viewed the event as an opportunity to promote their business to potential new customers, even though they acknowledged little change to turnover on the day. Another felt they needed to support the event by opening, as it was such a close-knit community, their lack of support would be noticed. An opposing viewpoint was that TnA attracted visitors interested in food and crafts, not high value clothing. These suggest three things: first, the event as a promotional tool for future trade; second, the importance of commitment to the local community, particularly in a small town; and third, the suggestion that visitors arrive with preconceptions of intentions to purchase. In making this last observation, however, the retailer was failing to capitalise on the potential for the event to act as a promotional activity, as proposed by the first remark in this paragraph.

Businesses in Andover illustrated similar behaviour to those in the other towns; that they either did not see any benefit in opening on a day when they were normally closed or that they had tried but had not found it worthwhile

financially. Again, these findings suggest businesses in the town are not providing the opportunity for visitors who have been attracted by the market to make impulse purchases. If retailers either close early or do not open on the event day, then opportunities for visitors to make any purchases are inevitably reduced.

7.2.2 Cultural events in market towns as (complementary) visitor attractions

Powe and Hart (2008) have discussed how some market towns have been developing their service and visitor attraction capabilities in recent years. They found that market towns which are near to pleasant countryside or whose historic characteristics have been maintained appear to attract the most visitors when compared to those in more urban locations. The host towns included in the current study echo these findings and offer a perspective on the nature of the visitors to the respective case study events.

Powe and Hart's (2008) theory above relates specifically to market towns as visitor attractions, without expressly mentioning the contribution made by cultural events. In terms of how such activity can perform a similar role, both Getz (2008b) and Della Lucia (2013) have observed this, however, Newman (2007) argues that events tend to augment places already benefiting from tourism and it is difficult to create an event as an economic growth strategy in other locations that do not have an existing tourist base. The findings of the current study confirm this. Both CS1 and CS2 are considered successful events, in that they attract thousands of visitors and are used in the borough's tourism promotion literature to give an indication to potential visitors that there is a varied programme of events throughout the year. Both events were originally created and are still organised by a committee of local residents and local business representatives, rather than the local authority. In contrast, CS3 does not feature in the tourism literature. It was initiated by the borough as a direct attempt to attract visitors to the town in the hope that this would translate into increased income for the local businesses. It must not be forgotten, however, that CS1 and CS2 are established events; the former began in 1993 and the latter in 2008. CS3 has only been in existence since 2014 and as observed by Connell and Gibson (2011), it can take time for new events to become established.

As indicated above, the interest in attracting visitors to these places links to economic (monetary) impact. Expenditure by non-residents is considered additional income for the host economy. A strategy that aims to attract visitors from beyond a local authority area is one way of achieving this. Evidence was found in the key informant interviews that TVBC views events such as the three case studies in this way, which is one of the reasons for the continued financial support for CS1 and CS2, albeit a token sum. According to the findings from the attendee surveys, the first two case studies attracted more non-residents of the borough than residents, however, few travelled more than 20 miles and were largely resident in the wider county of Hampshire. In contrast, for CS3 there was far more local appeal, with more than three-quarters of visitor survey respondents living within an eight-mile radius of the town centre. Further, almost half of this number lived within one-and-a-half miles of the town centre. Of the 17 respondents who were non-residents of the borough, only four came from any great distance. This suggests two things: first, cultural events, such as the three case studies, have a local appeal and do not attract a significant number of visitors, or tourists, which is contrary to the aims of the local authority. Second, a monthly event, like a farmers' market attracts mainly residents of the town's immediate vicinity, whereas annual events, like a music or food festival, have a slightly broader appeal.

These findings supplement Newman (2007), who argued that sports mega-events have a tendency to enhance cities that are already successful tourist attractions, rather than to initiate tourist activity, by offering evidence from a different perspective: the ability of small-scale cultural events to act as visitor attractions in market towns. In doing this, they also complement Powe and Hart's (2008) theory discussed above by illustrating that such events appear to be more successful at attracting visitors when the host town is already established as a visitor attraction.

7.2.3 The local business perspective

There is prior evidence above suggesting that local businesses do not report significant changes to normal trading activity around the time of a small-scale cultural event (Wood and Thomas, 2008). Although this observation was made in the context of a rural food festival in Wales, the findings from CS1 and CS2 support this claim, since the majority of business survey respondents reported

either no change to or a slight decrease in normal footfall or sales turnover at the time of the event. Additional respondent comments from CS1 illustrated concern over anti-social behaviour, or frustration that crowding in front of the premises prevented customers from entering, potentially hindering trade and resulted in them closing early. This was not the view of everyone, however, as there was support for the event from some retailers, even though it was felt that visitors were not in Romsey that day for shopping purposes.

CS2 elicited a similar set of comments: some local businesses were supportive and others less so. CS3 produced slightly different results, as the local businesses were more optimistic in general, although the majority reported minimal change either to footfall or to sales activity. There was a suggestion of appreciation that the local authority was attempting to do something to increase footfall on a usually quiet day. The findings also suggest that cultural events with a selling component, for example, the food festival and farmers' market, have the potential to create conflict for the host town's businesses. Firstly, evidence emerged which indicated there was a feeling of unfair competition when stallholders were seen to be selling goods that were also on sale in the town's permanent outlets and this contributed to some of the frustrations. Secondly, location of the cultural event within the town's spaces seems to be important. Evidence emerged in CS3 of a spatial division: the businesses in the Chantry Centre felt somewhat separated from those in the High Street, where the market was located. Consequently, the former felt at a disadvantage and perceived that they benefited less from the market than those businesses located on the High Street.

At the start of this theme, there was a discussion about the nature of the visitor expenditure; that the majority of this expenditure in the host towns was food and drink-related and that the retailers benefited very little directly from these events, apart from in the final case study where the spending by event visitors was more equally divided between non-food and food purchases. These findings suggest that it is not simply a case of arguing that, in general, small-scale events benefit only food retail and leisure services in their host towns. Instead, there seem to be specific locational and event-related factors to consider, which influence the creation of experiences. Location in the sense of where these events are precisely positioned in the host town. Event-related factors, meaning the type of event: a music festival seems to encourage more spending in the host town than either a food festival or farmers' market.

Another way to view the local business perspective is by examining the extent to which small-scale cultural events facilitate small business expansion. Research on farmers' markets in New Zealand found that this type of market in particular provides opportunities for sole traders, start-ups, or other small local businesses to make the move from temporary to more permanent premises by offering a reasonably low-cost means of accessing potential customers (Guthrie *et al*, 2006). Typically, farmers' markets operate more frequently than annual events and so provide a regular opportunity for these sole traders to build a regular customer base.

CS1 and CS2 – both annual events – did not produce any evidence of business development in this manner. The organisers of CS1, however, did provide a forum for emerging youth bands to perform. In general, these comprised children from the local secondary school who had formed their own music groups. They were provided with their own time and space in a location specifically marked out for them in the local recreation ground. This serves to illustrate how a music festival can provide similar opportunities: instead of local producers selling or testing out artisan produce, these are local artists testing out their performance potential, possibly for the first time in a public space, and perhaps this might be the vehicle to help them progress.

CS3 was an event more in line with the literature in this regard. TVBC set the pitch fee deliberately low, at £10, in order to help sole traders and small local producers, by offering a regular and low-cost means to trade. It emerged from the key informant interviews that at least two permanent businesses in Andover town centre began trading as regular stallholders at the farmers' and crafts market. This shows that markets like this can contribute to high street performance by acting as an incubator for start-ups. As an additional benefit, the vacancy rate in the town is reduced slightly.

7.2.4 Theme two summary: the varied contributions made by small-scale events to high street performance

Wrigley and Lambiri (2015) have claimed that in the future, town centres with a higher proportion of services to retail will be more resilient. Grimsey (2013), in his response to the Portas Review (Portas, 2011), argued that the historic reliance on retail provision is diminishing, while service provision is strengthening. The findings of this research indicate that cultural events located in town centres firstly encourage limited additional expenditure in the

host town's businesses and services, and secondly, that expenditure is mainly focused on food retail or food-related leisure services. In this way, the current study makes a timely contribution to the debates by providing evidence to strengthen the above arguments.

Although Hallsworth *et al* (2015) have found that weekday markets generally encourage increased footfall, the findings from this study indicate that any expenditure in the host town centre is minimal, and much of that spend is more likely to be on food- and drink-related items. Thus, it emphasises the need for town centres to ensure there is adequate service provision to support the demand, whether through permanent or temporary providers (eg: mobile catering vans, preferably originating from within the local economy to minimise leakage). Evidence included here indicates that town centre event attendees make minimal non-food retail purchases. Additionally, there is no strong evidence to indicate whether return visits are made as a direct result of attending the event.

The type of event also seems to have a bearing on how expenditure is undertaken in the host town centre: the music festival (CS1) led to significant leisure service expenditure, as did the annual food festival (CS2). CS3 resulted in more parity between leisure service, food retail and non-food retail. Further work is needed to understand more about the circumstances leading to these differences, for example, it could be owing to the type of event, or the location, or the motivations of event visitors.

In as much as some market towns have succeeded in increasing their visitor appeal (Powe and Hart, 2008), cultural events have also been used to attract visitors to more urban towns and cities (Getz, 2008b). The case studies included in this research combined both: cultural events and market towns. The findings indicate that the case studies acted as an attraction for a localised audience, with few travelling more than 20 miles. As it seems to be important, local context is examined further in the final theme.

Local businesses reported that they observed no change either to footfall or sales during the events, which fits with findings from Wood and Thomas (2008). For CS1, this is thought to be unrepresentative of the actual story, since the views of the publicans were not included, for reasons already explained. As in Wood and Thomas' case, the data provided by the visitor survey respondents suggests a far higher expenditure than the local business

survey respondents were prepared to reveal. The problems associated with this have already been discussed in the first theme. There is evidence, however, that the final case study has helped sole traders with no formal premises to expand such that they have now taken on permanent retail units in the town of Andover and so support town centre performance in this way.

Although the three case studies were very different events, they contribute in some way to their host town's performance. They each increased footfall and generated additional income for the towns' food retail and leisure service provision. Aside from the type of event, other differences emerged which seem to be location-specific: both CS1 and CS2 appeared to elicit positive comments relating to the town and the atmosphere, notwithstanding concerns over anti-social behaviour relating to CS1 (the implications of these are considered in the final theme). In contrast, CS3 generated very different results, which confirm Newman's (2007) findings that events tend to enhance places which are already seen as a pleasant visitor attraction and that it is harder for cultural events to create this kind of atmosphere in a less well-regarded place. Newman's claim was made in the context of a mega-sporting event and so the current research extends his findings to small-scale cultural events.

7.3 Theme three: Experiential value creation through small-scale cultural events

The previous two themes have shown that economic impact in relation to small-scale cultural events is a problem for researchers. Firstly, the EIA process is not a particularly accurate measure as it is based on a series of estimates and assumptions that are open to misinterpretation (Tyrrell and Johnston, 2006; Crompton *et al*, 2016). Secondly, there is a reliance on judging the impact of an event by the extent to which it offers a return on investment, or encourages additional expenditure (Crompton, 1995; Wood, 2005). This approach, however, fails to acknowledge that cultural events also facilitate experiences (del Barrio *et al*, 2012).

This final theme addresses the omission by considering how experiences have their own value, which may contribute to overall economic impact. It does this by drawing from the experience and creative economy literature (eg: Pine and Gilmore, 2011; Arthur and Hrac, 2015; Hrac and Jakob, 2015), as well as

literature concerned with immersion (eg: Carù and Cova, 2006) and authenticity (eg: Jeannerat, 2013) to demonstrate that the economic impact of events is constructed from more than expenditure and income (Gibson *et al*, 2010), and is context-specific.

This section proceeds by discussing four specific factors emerging from the research as important influencers of the overall event experience. These factors appear to be related to experiential value and, ultimately, overall economic impact. The first factor is the social influence of inclusion or sense of belonging (Duffy *et al*, 2011) and its opposite – exclusion. The second is the atmospheric influence of fun and enjoyment, as well as its opposite. The third is the locational influence of place. The fourth is reputational influence; both of the event and of the place. Intersecting each of these influences is the concept of authenticity, which has already been identified as a subjective construct (Waite, 2000) and plays a part in the levels of experiential value creation that can be achieved. An exploration of this, along with a consideration of the contribution made by immersive experiences, follows.

This theme helps to broaden understanding of experiential value creation, specifically from the perspective of small-scale cultural events located in market towns. In this way, it contributes both to understandings of the experience economy (eg: Pine and Gilmore, 2011; Arthur and Hacs, 2015) and the evolving high street (eg: Wrigley and Brookes, 2014; Wrigley and Lambiri, 2015). Finally, it contributes to policy debate by arguing that small-scale cultural events have a role to play in market town vitality, however, they are context-specific. In general terms, this type of event (ie: small-scale, cultural) in this type of location (ie: market town) does add vibrancy, which contributes to vitality, but they need to belong to the market town, rather than simply be a suitable fit as proposed by Young *et al* (2010). There is a subtle difference in the meaning of these words: ‘fit’ means ‘to be appropriate or suitable for (a situation)’, whereas ‘belong’ means ‘to be bound to (a person, place, or club) by ties of affection, dependence, allegiance, or membership’ (Collins, 2017). In this way, a farmers’ market might be appropriate for a market town, although this factor alone may not be sufficient for it to be a success. Belonging, as discussed here, implies a much stronger relationship with place than is offered by fit.

Chapter Two discussed how Pine and Gilmore (2011, p3) identified experiences as a ‘fourth economic offering, as distinct from services as services are from

goods.’ The current study engages with this argument by demonstrating that experiences are not separate from other forms of economic offering, such as services or products. Instead, they permeate other forms of economic offering and are, thus, integral to them. A consumer who chooses to purchase from a food festival, for example, is buying much more than the item they could, perhaps, obtain from the host town’s retailers, often at a lower price (Miller, 1998). This part of the discussion illustrates how the experiential value created by the event contributes to such expenditure and, therefore, economic impact.

7.3.1 The influence of belonging (being an ‘insider’) and exclusion (being an ‘outsider’)

Crompton and McKay (1997, p425) have suggested that the motivation for attending an event is ‘triggered by a desire to meet a need’, which might be practical or emotional. In practical terms, this may be a wish to experience the physical aspect of the event, for example, to see a particular music performance (Nicholson and Pearce, 2001), or to capitalise on an opportunity to buy products not normally available at other times. In emotional terms, according to Richards and Palmer (2010), it might be to meet a societal or individual need for kinship: to feel a sense of belonging by being part of a shared experience (Hawkins and Ryan, 2013). Cultural events provide opportunities for out-of-the-ordinary shared experiences and can generate a sense of belonging (Getz, 1989; del Barrio *et al*, 2012). This sub-section discusses how this sense of belonging is expressed and the way in which it contributes to experiential value.

This sense of belonging emerged from the data analysis in three main ways: firstly, the local feel of the events; secondly, the community spirit that was present; and thirdly, through opportunities for sharing experiences with family or friends. Each of these indicated that being an ‘insider’ enhanced the overall experience. These feelings and experiences also occasionally overlapped, suggesting that there is a close connection between them. With the exception of CS1, belonging was also expressed as a desire to support local producers, even though they may not have been known personally to the visitor. In this way, the participants were helping other ‘insiders’ who shared some commonality. The concept of locality appeared to be important to the event attendees, as it enabled them to become insiders for a limited time. Local and

community may seem to be the same thing, yet, there were differences in the way in which these concepts were expressed. Local was associated either with place, which is discussed later, or in terms of the stallholders. Community was associated with people and social interaction (Watson *et al*, 2006).

There was a suggestion that formal arrangements were not needed to meet friends; instead, there was an expectation that these events would attract other 'insiders' who were known to the respondents and that opportunities for social encounters would present themselves. This sense of collective belonging was also expressed in a considerate way, similar to what Watson (2009) observed in relation to markets, where stallholders would often chat to customers in a jovial but caring way to check on their wellbeing. This was observed in CS2, when visitors, who were ordinarily strangers, appeared to feel some form of association with one another during their shared experience, such that they should keep a watchful eye over each other and warn of potential involvement in road accidents, for example, as traffic shared the space with the festival stalls.

The case studies seemed to provide important opportunities for family and friends to engage in a common leisure activity. The sense of belonging was expressed as being part of a smaller group within the overall festival group. There was also an indication that some people wanted to offer support to family or friends, who were also stallholders, which indicated an additional emotional, caring connection to the events, as discussed above.

Quinn and Wilks (2013) have observed that festivals have a binary nature: one either attends or does not attend, therefore, they are either inclusive or exclusive. Richards and Palmer (2010) have additionally argued that it is the nature of this exclusivity that heightens the sense of belonging: that being an 'insider' is preferential to being an 'outsider'. Exclusion can either be imposed by design in order to exclude unwelcome social groups (Atkinson and Laurier, 1998), or it can be self-imposed by those not wanting to be associated with the event for a number of reasons.

CS1 illustrated this self-imposed disassociation quite strongly and the disassociation in this case was centred on perceptions of anti-social behaviour and excess alcohol consumption. Confusion over the date of the serious disturbance suggests that the stories about anti-social behaviour have become engrained in the event and result in some people wanting to remain as

‘outsiders.’ Further, hearsay, rather than personal experience, seemed to be sufficient to warrant this conduct.

This self-imposed exclusion was not as apparent in the other two case studies, however, a small number of residents reported that they did not attend CS2 owing to concerns over traffic congestion and parking. Other commitments and activities were reasons for not attending CS3. Although there was no strong evidence to suggest that people felt excluded socially from any of the case study events, the next section mentions an indication of this in relation to atmosphere.

This sub-section has demonstrated that the case study events enhanced a sense of belonging for those who chose to take part. A second influence, which contributes to experiential value creation, is the atmosphere of the event and this is discussed in the following sub-section.

7.3.2 The influence of atmosphere

‘Atmosphere’ is difficult to define in the context of cultural events, however, Getz (1989, p127) has described it as a combination of tangible and intangible components that contribute to the visitor experience, which ‘makes events special’, and meets attendees’ expectations of enjoyment. Atmosphere is also referred to in the literature as the emotions or feelings associated with an event, for example: ‘party atmosphere’ or ‘community atmosphere’ (Kim and Walker, 2012, p97); ‘festival atmosphere’ (Burgan and Mules, 1992, p709); ‘atmosphere of acceptance and conviviality’ (Pennay *et al*, 2014, p1093); ‘pleasant social atmosphere’ (La Trobe, 2001, p184). These adjectives imply a pleasant or positive experience, as referred to by Pine and Gilmore (2011); something which Hart *et al* (2014) have deemed to be an important contributor to encouraging visitors to town centres. Positive atmosphere then, can be thought of as the ‘feel good factor’ in the psychic income approach introduced in Chapter Two of this thesis (eg: Crompton, 2004; Kim and Walker, 2012; Gibson *et al*, 2014). It has a place, therefore, in the creation of experiential value and is now considered in relation to the findings of the current study.

In each case study, the atmosphere or ambience associated with the events emerged as an important factor in enhancing the visitor experience. Atmosphere was either used in conjunction with other descriptors, or expressed to suggest the respondents were enjoying the experience of

attending the event. Other adjectives that emerged in the responses included 'relaxed', 'cheerful', 'spontaneous', or 'lovely'. Each of these adding weight to the suggestion that a positive atmosphere, however described, contributed to the respondents' enjoyment and experience of the event. Sometimes the respondents referred to 'atmosphere' itself, or to 'buzz.'

So far, the discussion has been concerned with how atmosphere has featured in the results a positive sense. It also featured negatively, as illustrated particularly by the comments noted down in CS1 from all respondent groups over the potentially unsafe, fearful atmosphere brought about by concerns over excess alcohol consumption and anti-social behaviour. This is despite no serious incident occurring at the Beggars Fair since 2011. This continuing perception is an indicator of the power of reputation and is discussed in a later section of this theme.

Responses from CS2 suggest that concerns relating to crowding may lead to a stressful or worrying atmosphere, particularly for families with young children. Additionally, from CS2, there was a perception of an unwelcoming atmosphere held by some respondents, that the market was not aimed at their socio-economic group, implying that they felt they were an 'outsider'.

This discussion has shown that atmosphere, however expressed, is an important contributor to experiential value creation. It also has the capacity to detract from experiential value and this is something which seems to have been overlooked in the literature focusing on the less tangible impacts of events, such as Crompton (2004) or Kim and Walker (2012). Such negative effects clearly have a detrimental consequence and so should not be ignored. The next sub-section moves on to examine how place contributes to experiential value.

7.3.3 The influence of place

In theme two of this chapter, the importance of place was related to market towns and their varying ability to attract visitors (Powe and Hart, 2008; Powe *et al*, 2015). Gibson *et al* (2010) have also contended that place plays an important part in the connection between culture and economic development, and since this overall thesis is situated in the field of economic development, this is an important consideration. Further, Richards *et al* (2013) have argued that cultural events enable people to create their own connections to place.

Place emerged frequently in the findings of the current research in two respects: firstly, place in the locational sense; and secondly place in terms of the specific spatial layout of the events within their host towns. Closely connected to place, heritage and history also featured. Combined, these factors contribute to experiential value.

In the locational sense, the physical setting for cultural events is important, with some places being more capable of creating experiential value than others. All three case studies took place in what were once well-established market towns, with numerous fairs and markets operating throughout the year, and so were important focal points for their respective communities. For a variety of reasons, the reliance on these regular fairs and markets in each of the towns has diminished over the centuries. The reasons for the creation of the case study events, as explained in Chapter Four, are equally varied, so too are the connections to their host towns and how, in turn, they shape the experiences of the visitors.

CS1 – a folk music festival – was closely entwined with its host town. The majority of the respondents, across all groups, indicated their support for the event and this contributed to the impression that the Beggars Fair was closely connected with Romsey and that the town benefited from it taking place. In this way, the event and its location together create experiential value. Conversely, there was an opposing feeling, that the event was something that did not belong in a town like Romsey. The implication here is that the event attracts ‘outsiders’ who are the troublemakers, as locals would not behave anti-socially. This perception appears to be unfounded, as no substantive evidence was found to verify these claims. Nevertheless, it has a negative effect on experiential value.

CS2 was located in an example of what Powe and Hart (2008) described earlier as the kind of market town more likely to be successful at attracting visitors. TnA draws from the town’s heritage and natural features: the River Test and its tributaries run through and around the town, which is surrounded by farmland and countryside. These characteristics are implicit in the reasons people visit. One visitor even commented on the ‘lure of Stockbridge’, which captures precisely what Powe (2006) encountered in his study of market towns in the North East of England and helps to explain how a food festival in a traditional market town setting creates experiential value: both elements complement each other for maximum impact (Young *et al*, 2010). Stockbridge, however, is

the only town of the three included in this study not to maintain its weekly market, yet its character is highly suggestive of what is considered to be a market town by many: it is seen to be an attractive place to visit as it possesses charm and character (Powe, 2006).

The third place encountered in this study – Andover – contrasts with the other two towns. Although technically it remains a market town in the formal sense, as it maintains its charter market, the town seems to have lost much of the character it once possessed. The addition of the farmers' and crafts market is a direct attempt by TVBC to recreate the feeling of a traditional English market town and so encourage visitors; in other words to emulate places like Romsey or Stockbridge. As identified earlier, however, the majority of market visitors live within just a few miles of the town centre. The residents are mixed in their opinion of AFM. There also appears to be a feeling of gratitude from the local businesses that the borough is trying to do something to inject life into the town, which suffers from low footfall and some long-term town centre vacancies. These findings illustrate the point raised earlier about an event needing to do more than simply be appropriate or suitable in the way Young *et al* (2010) described. There are other factors to consider, such as the quality of the town's existing retail offer (Young *et al*, 2011). Even though Andover is a market town, where traditionally farmers would congregate to trade, and modern farmers' markets are suggestive of these former times, Andover is struggling to make the connection work to its full advantage.

The second way in which place emerged as an influence is reminiscent of Pine and Gilmore's (2011) 'realms of experience', and especially 'aesthetic appearance'. This refers to the spatial configuration of the case study events and how they were incorporated into the towns' existing infrastructures.

Murphy (2011, p584) has described farmers' markets in particular as 'temporary, flimsy retail environments constructed for the day and then dismantled.' This is true of each of the case study events and the spaces they occupy influence the way in which they are experienced. CS1 was spread around the town centre and nearby recreation ground, which provided two distinct spaces for visitors and performers to experience the event. The town centre street pattern provided micro-locations down side streets as well as in the central areas and this added to the enjoyment for both visitors and performers.

CS2 was organised in a linear fashion on both sides of the road, which provided a clear sight line of all the food festival stalls, with the scene of colourful canopies and vintage tractors adding to the event's character. There was a constant flow of vehicular traffic, as the road remained open. This occasionally came to a standstill when the park and ride bus stopped to pick up or drop off passengers, or when pedestrians were crossing the road. The organisers are aware of the potential dangers, however, there have been no reported road traffic incidents and this issue does not appear to affect the success of the event or how the majority of people experience it. Watson *et al* (2006) have observed that locational factors influence the success of a market as a social space and constant traffic flow on a main trunk road could be more of a problem than it appears to have been to date.

The layout of CS2 shared similarities with CS3, which was located in what would once have been the central area of the town, in front of the Guildhall and now partly pedestrianised. The adjacent small car park area was also used, ensuring there would be no vehicular traffic passing through for the duration of the market. The stalls lined both sides of the High Street, with plenty of space between them and the shops, and the market was close to other car parks. The space dedicated to entertainment was roughly in the centre of the stalls and opposite an alley, which enabled sound to filter through and attract passers-by who might not have been aware of the market. These are factors which Watson *et al* (2006) have observed contribute to a market's success, yet AFM currently struggles to attract a substantial number of visitors; significantly fewer than the other two case studies. As the largest town, however, it has the greatest capacity and would not suffer from the congestion that Stockbridge does. One explanation for this could be that the other two events are annual and this is monthly, providing potential visitors with more opportunities throughout the year. A simpler explanation, however, is that Andover is a place that people do not wish to visit, unlike both Romsey and Stockbridge, which capitalise on their historic character and proximity to the countryside (Powe and Hart, 2008), and this enhances the overall experience for visitors.

This sub-section has shown that place has the capability of enhancing any experiential value that can be created by a cultural event. Both the place and the event need to complement each other to maximise the opportunity. The case studies included in this research have illustrated this point clearly: the

first two work well in this regard but the last case study struggles. One factor that might help to explain this is reputation, which is the final component of this theme.

7.3.4 The influence of reputation

The contribution made by reputation has been hinted at throughout this theme on experiential value creation, both of the event and of the place in which it is held. Bradley and Hall (2006) have argued that the public image of a town can be enhanced by a cultural event, however, an event's prior reputation can also be enough for it to be unwelcome (Hubbard, 2013). Anti-social behaviour has the ability to damage an event's reputation more than any other negative attribute, such as congestion or noise (Deery and Jago, 2010). Thus, this final sub-section discusses the part reputation plays in terms of the event and the place.

Evidence has been provided in every sub-section of this theme that CS1 creates considerable experiential value for those involved in it. The event has, however, developed a reputation for excess alcohol consumption, which leads to anti-social behaviour, although there have been no significant incidents reported since 2011. Nevertheless, this reputation has affected the way in which many perceive the event, which in turn damages experiential value. This poor event reputation seems to have endured, despite efforts made by the organisers to transform it into one aimed at families. It was clear that the pubs in the town benefited from the volume of custom on the day, judging by the number of people behind the fencing, particularly in the pubs that provided their own entertainment in addition to the performances around the town. Some people were clearly frustrated by what they considered an unjust reputation, which suggests that the level of experiential value created by the event's reputation varies dependent upon whether the supporter or opponent perspective is adopted.

CS2 generally enjoys a much more positive reputation, upon which TVBC capitalises in its tourist promotion literature to project an attractive image of the town. Nevertheless, there does appear to be some confusion over what TnA is, as suggested by some respondents' comments about the lack of trout at the event. TnA has developed a reputation as a high quality food festival selling handmade and local produce, yet it also seems to have developed a reputation for overcrowding and parking difficulties. Comments made by

respondents blamed all of Stockbridge's cultural events collectively for creating these problems and, in this way, CS2 has gained a reputation by association, even though the organisers have worked hard to mitigate parking problems by introducing the park and ride service, which is not provided for other events held in the town.

There was no strong evidence arising from CS3's results to indicate whether the event had developed a reputation – either positive or negative. One explanation may be that it is still a reasonably new addition to the town, having only begun in its current format in March 2014.

The earlier sub-section on place touched on the notion that reputation of place is another means of creating experiential value. There is evidence in the literature that places suffering from a weak public image – or reputation – seem to retain it, despite attempts at regeneration or rejuvenation, while the opposite is true for those with a strong image (Bradley *et al*, 2002). In addition, attempts at revitalising lacklustre towns elsewhere by encouraging creative activity have made minimal difference to embedded reputations (Waitt and Gibson, 2009).

As discussed in the previous sub-theme, the first two case studies are already considered to be popular towns, seemingly benefiting from the features identified by Powe and Hart (2008). The events have a synergy with their host towns and just as they profit from a reputation based on the existing image of their hosts, the towns equally benefit from the reputation created by the events, which contributes to experiential value creation. This is with the exception of CS1 and its reputation for anti-social behaviour.

Any reputation that CS3 is attempting to build appears to be undermined by the pre-existing reputation of the town. There is a feeling of anticipation among the local businesses that the addition of AFM will generate interest in the place. An impression of an uninspiring town was also evident, particularly from the non-attending residents. This perception of a town with little to offer prospective visitors may outweigh any attraction the market provides. In this way, the town's reputation damages the market's reputation, thus detracting from potential experiential value. This finding supplements the observation made by Bradley *et al* (2002) that the public image of a town can be enhanced by a cultural event, by illustrating the opposite: that the reputation of a cultural event can be damaged by the public image of a town.

This sub-section has shown that reputation affects levels of experiential value, both in terms of the event itself and its host location. In addition, these elements influence each other. The event may develop a strong reputation over time, however, one incident can have far-reaching consequences that affect its ongoing reputation. Equally, reputation of place can influence the reputation of the event.

7.3.5 Immersive experiences and perceptions of authenticity

Although not expressly referred to in the above sub-sections, there is an implicit suggestion that leads to questions concerned with perceptions of authenticity and how such perceptions may affect levels of experiential value. In this section, authenticity and its association with immersive experiences are explored to explain this in more detail.

Authenticity of experience has already been considered to be a subjective, social construct (Jeannerat, 2013), influenced by the personal narratives and preconceptions of the consumer of that experience (Waitt, 2000), which in this research refers to event attendees. Different versions of authentic experiences, therefore, exist. Szmigin *et al* (2017) have contended that attending a festival is sufficient for it to provide an authentic experience, however ‘authentic’ is interpreted by the festival-goer. This is Tope *et al*’s (2005, p483) notion of ‘being there’, or Carù and Cova’s (2006) theory of immersion in an experience.

In terms of the three case studies examined in this research, each provides its own level of authenticity. If, as observed by Arthur and Hracis (2015) place is a significant contributor to the quality of the immersive experience, then that assists understanding of how the events in this research might be considered authentic or inauthentic. CS1, for example, is located in a market town, its narrow medieval street pattern remains largely intact, with historic architecture and its modern form of quasi-feudalism owing to Romsey’s relationship with the neighbouring Mountbatten family. It seems perfectly plausible for a folk music festival called the Beggars Fair to be located there. No evidence emerged to suggest that it is considered a contrived fabrication, despite there being no actual history associated with either the event or its name.

Understood in this way, the Beggars Fair can be considered authentic, in that it is reasonable to expect a folk music festival to take place in a market town such as this: it complies with visitor expectations (Waitt, 2000). If, however,

this event in this place is seen from Bakhtin's (1968) perspective, it is fake, since excessive alcohol consumption leading to anti-social behaviour has resulted in tight control by the authorities. This contradicts the original purpose for fairs like these; the 'grotesque realism' associated with the temporary subversion of authority in order that control might be maintained at other times. Perhaps the greatest contradiction is, however, that the performers are not permitted to collect money, which is a characteristic of an established street festival in a similar town, not too far away, yet the name of the event suggests that this is an integral component.

Arthur and Hrac's (2015) point above regarding significance of place is clearly demonstrated by CS2, as both the place; Stockbridge, a historic market town, with its historic architecture and rural surroundings, and the event; a food festival celebrating local food and crafts, are closely connected. The experience for event attendees is authentic; again, it is what they would expect and comments emerging from the qualitative analysis, illustrated in Chapter Six, support this, for example 'it was quintessentially English.' The danger here, however, is that it risks becoming what Hubbard (2017b) has criticised in relation to micropubs: the domain of the white middle classes. Certainly, the demographic profiles of the survey respondents for both this and CS1 indicated this is already the case. Despite attempts to account for such eventualities in the residents' survey (ie; by using a systematic sample of residential addresses), the majority of respondents were well educated and employed in middle management or senior positions. Response bias is a possible explanation for this. As already discussed in section 7.3.1, however, exclusion and exclusivity are inter-connected (Richards and Palmer, 2010). Exclusivity, or perceptions of it, help to enhance distinctiveness. For CS2, this enriches the immersive experience and so strengthens authenticity.

CS3 presents as the 'deviant case' (Silverman, 2011) in relation to authenticity. As discussed earlier in this theme, a disconnect between place and event emerged and this affects current levels of experiential value, as well as the potential for further experiential value. Andover appears to be a place that is not a popular destination, if recorded footfall is used as an indicator. Town centre businesses are in need of support, particularly since the town suffers from some long-term vacancies. In attempting to provide a solution to this problem, TVBC has looked at successful events in Romsey and Stockbridge and has endeavoured to replicate this in Andover. The borough is attempting to

revive the market town image in its promotional material, as it is aware of the potential economic benefits associated with generating an image of place that connects with its historic past. From the local authority's perspective then, a farmers' market ought to be a natural feature, so in theory is authentic, particularly if Waitt's (2000) reading of authenticity is applied. In turn, visitors searching for an authentic experience would expect to see a farmers' market in a market town (Zukin, 2008). The reality, however, is that the town and its surrounding industrial and residential areas have grown considerably since the middle of the 20th century, and this expansion continues. The attempt to perpetuate a historic market town image is misplaced in a largely modern town, so any anticipated value that might be attributed to enhanced experiences based on the authenticity of the connection between place and cultural event is lost.

Further problems arise in relation to the origins of the market traders. With no precise definition for 'local' in place, TVBC risks secondary inauthenticity. Not only do the non-local traders (ie: those originating outside the borough) lead to economic leakage, but they also mislead consumers in terms of interpretations of what constitutes local. As outlined in the literature review, 'local' could apply to traders based up to 50 miles away (FARMA, 2015). Given the geography of the northern part of the borough, such a distance extends beyond not just the borough but also the county. Although the market manager's priority is to fill the spaces, if further value is to be created at this event, then clarification in this matter is needed. If local traders were genuinely from within the borough, the benefits would be twofold: first, distinctiveness could be created that connects place and event and second, that local businesses would benefit from the opportunity to trade locally. Evidence from this case study indicated that the market has already provided the springboard for other sole traders to develop their business and move into permanent premises. This, in turn, provides more variety in the town centre. As discussed earlier, diversity of offer is a characteristic of town centres that are reasonably buoyant in the current economic climate (Wrigley and Lambiri, 2015).

7.3.6 Theme three summary: varied routes to experiential value

Pine and Gilmore (2011) have contended that experiences are key to enhancing economic activity in an increasingly commoditised world. This final section of

the chapter has explored this notion in the context of small-scale cultural events to consider how these activities create experiential value and the part this plays in overall economic impact. It has been argued that the experiential value associated with small-scale cultural events is created via four key influences: sense of belonging; atmosphere; place; and reputation. When combined, these influences create something much larger than they are able to individually, yet have the potential to be positive or negative.

The three case studies included in this research have revealed a number of differences, suggesting that 'one size does not fit all' (Wrigley and Lambiri, 2015, p92) and that cultural events such as these are not easily transferred (Hawkins and Ryan, 2013) between market towns: individual context is important. The implementation of case study methodology has enabled these differences to surface. Taking each case study in turn, the first – the Beggars Fair in Romsey – creates experiential value for its supporters, however, this is also diluted by numerous concerns over alcohol-fuelled anti-social behaviour. CS2 – Trout 'n About in Stockbridge – creates substantial experiential value for all involved in it and this is enhanced by the characteristics of its location. CS3 – the farmers' and crafts market in Andover – is more complex: farmers' markets have been described as a 'manifestation of experiential retailing, along with craft markets and food and wine festivals' (Murphy, 2011, p583) and although experiential value is created for those who attend the market, there is evidence both that the existing reputation of the town and a disconnect between intended and actual authenticity are weakening this. These findings support those of other studies. Young *et al* (2010) observed that economic impact depends on the fit of the event to its host location. Newman (2007) argued, in the context of mega-sporting events, that events enhance places that are already popular.

Earlier, it was noted that Hart *et al* (2014) are of the view that people will keep returning to the high street as long as they enjoy the experience. The case studies have produced evidence that cultural events have the potential to provide such an experience and in this way, they add value to the overall offer, however, they are context-specific.

7.4 Chapter summary: towards an inclusive approach to understanding economic impact

Small-scale cultural events in market towns have not been well researched, until now. This discussion has shown there is much to gain through study of them and it has broadened knowledge and understanding of their impacts, which contributes to the study of urban centres as well as events in the wider sense. This chapter has identified three key themes that have emerged from the data analysis in connection with the research questions posed at the start of this thesis. The first theme explored the challenges of conducting EIA in the context of small-scale cultural events in market towns. It has been shown that the process is beset with difficulties at virtually every stage, that the results produced are often at best vague indications of monetary activity and that even small miscalculations can be greatly magnified at such a small-scale (Dickson and Milne, 2008). Given these challenges, the suitability of such a narrowly focused approach was questioned. It has been acknowledged, however, that policymakers rely on this methodology, as evidenced by TVBC's request for the assessments in the first place, so a systematic process for calculating the economic impact of small-scale cultural events was designed and implemented. This approach is easily transferable but other dependent factors, such as the motivation for the expenditure, need to be accounted for as well.

The second theme considered the way in which the monetary activity occurred. There is an expectation among policymakers that hosting small-scale cultural events will automatically encourage additional footfall, which translates into additional expenditure in the host town's retail and leisure service provision. The evidence arising from the current study demonstrates that this is more complex: although the events generally increased footfall, the pattern of expenditure by visitors varied. The majority of expenditure at CS1 was on the town's food retail and leisure services (ie: food and drink). In contrast, at CS2, significantly more was spent at the festival stalls than in the town and, of the latter spend, the majority was again on food retail and leisure services. CS3, like SC2, resulted in more expenditure on the market stalls than in the town. There was, however, more parity between non-food retail expenditure and food retail and leisure services expenditure in CS3. These findings further understanding of how such cultural events contribute to British town centre activity by highlighting differences in visitor spending patterns that result from different types of cultural event. This is an important consideration for

policymakers or TCMs who might be contemplating this kind of cultural event as a means of improving the income of their town centre businesses.

The final theme examined the part played by experiences and how they contribute to economic impact. Context emerged as a key factor in understanding how the case studies generated economic impact. This context was explored from the perspective of four influences: sense of belonging; place; atmosphere; and reputation. The evidence shown in this theme underpins the first theme: that economic impact in the monetary sense too often ignores other, equally important factors that clearly affect the way in which these events are perceived by those who have any kind of involvement in them. CS3 in particular illustrates this clearly: on the surface a farmers' market held in a market town should be a complementary fit (Young *et al*, 2010), however, it is less successful than might be expected if it were to be held in either of the other two market towns included in the research. This suggests there is more to this than whether the event simply complements the town – it needs to have a close association in order to belong and be successful. As Powe and Hart (2008) observed in respect of market towns as visitor attractions, there are certain characteristics that are more appealing to visitors, such as a market town's historic architecture or surrounding area. Both Andover town centre and its hinterland have changed considerably over the centuries and despite attempts by TVBC to project a traditional market town image in its tourist promotion material, it now lacks the appeal of Romsey or Stockbridge, which have altered very little over time. TVBC has attempted to recreate a traditional feel to Andover with the introduction of the farmers' market, however, it struggles to attract significant numbers of visitors. In contrast, the BF and TnA have developed a relationship with their host towns that is more than just a 'fit'; these events seem to belong to their towns.

Chapter 8: Conclusion

8.1 Overview

This thesis has examined the numerous ways in which small-scale cultural events contribute to market town vitality, using literature on local economic development as its starting point. Economic, social and cultural impacts have been examined through analysis of three case studies. The findings have revealed that even the most successful cultural events generate minimal levels of additional income for their host towns, despite major increases in footfall. Further, such events should not be thought of as interventions that can be drafted in to a struggling town centre in the hope that they will alter that town's economic trajectory on their own, for other contingent factors need also to be accounted for: factors which are less quantifiable but, nonetheless, influence the way in which expenditure is made at these events. Policymakers need to be aware that an event, which may have been successful in one place, will not necessarily reproduce that success elsewhere. Additionally, economic value consists of more than expenditure alone. Understanding the overall economic impact involves appreciating that experiences – good or bad – contribute as well by influencing the way in which expenditure occurs at the event on the one hand and, on the other, influences whether people attend or not. By staying away, economic impact is reduced.

This final chapter serves a number of purposes. Firstly, it reviews the extent to which the research has achieved its original aims. Secondly, it clarifies the original contributions made to methodology and practice, and includes implications for policy. Finally, it reflects on the limitations of the study and suggests avenues for further research.

8.2 Evaluation of research aims and questions

This research focused on two main aims, which were achieved via two key research questions (shown in Chapter One). The aims are restated overleaf, for convenience, and a reflection of the extent to which they were achieved follows.

Research aims

1. To provide TVBC with an understanding of how cultural events taking place within the borough contribute to its economy, with particular reference to the retailers and services located within its three main urban centres.
2. To develop an understanding of the broader contribution made by small-scale cultural events to market town vitality, beyond the economic (monetary) role.

Both aims were achieved and questions answered via the implementation of a mixed methods research design. Although there was some cross-over between methods used to answer the RQs, the quantitative component formed the basis of an EIA, which was the foundation for answering RQ1, and the qualitative element largely addressed RQ2.

A systematic process was developed and implemented at three cultural events in the TVBC area in order to achieve the first aim and answer RQ1. This followed a thorough literature search in the field of event impacts, in order to develop an understanding of the process for assessing economic impact, as well as the relevant debates. The results of these EIAs were presented to TVBC officers in the form of a report (see Rust, 2016).

The process was designed to be as manageable as possible for practitioners to replicate, should they wish to, given that EIA has been found to be a complex and sometimes challenging undertaking. Compromises, which were discussed in Chapters Three and Seven, needed to be made. The approach developed and presented in this thesis, however, is fit for purpose in the context of small-scale cultural events where impact is modest when compared with other, larger events. The balance between accuracy and resources (time, people and money) that was achieved is believed to be appropriate and sufficient for this type of cultural event, which is often organised by volunteers, who have little in the way of resources to undertake anything more complicated (Dickson and Milne, 2008).

The purpose of the second aim was to develop a deeper understanding of the non-monetary or less-quantifiable impacts generated by these events. The literature search revealed that defining economic impact in monetary terms was limiting and resulted in only a partial account of the overall impacts generated by cultural events. The research addressing RQ2 and its associated sub-questions produced plenty of rich data and through its analysis, it was

possible to broaden existing understanding of the connection between event-related expenditure and the motivations, attitudes and behaviours of the event visitors. Although the RQs were answered, which enabled the aims and objectives to be achieved, this was not a straightforward process. The difficulties encountered in calculating economic impact were sufficient to warrant further discussion in Chapter Seven.

8.3 Main findings and their relationship to existing work

This study has advanced knowledge and understanding of small-scale cultural events located in market towns. This section now identifies the key findings and their contributions to the existing literature.

8.3.1 Empirical findings: Contribution of small-scale cultural events to market town vitality

Small-scale cultural events make considerable contributions to town centre vitality by adding a temporary, out-of-the-ordinary vibrancy or ‘buzz’. The precise ways in which this vitality is evident are, however, complex and location-specific. In other words, a cultural event may be successful in one place, however, this is not a guarantee of similar success in another. Conflicts over intended, perceived and actual authenticity affect the quality of the experience and, in turn, this affects the level of value that is created. This experiential value is also a contributor to town centre vitality. These findings have emerged as a result of adopting a case study methodology and illustrate a level of detail not present in other research, such as Hallsworth *et al* (2015), whose quantitative study reported that weekday markets increase footfall considerably. The evidence produced from the three case studies has shown that although this may indeed be the case for weekday markets, increased expenditure in the town’s retail and service provision may not necessarily follow from increased footfall.

Concern for the vitality and viability of the British town centre and high street is ongoing and this current study has extended work that has sought to understand how the high street is evolving and reacting to a number of significant challenges, such as Wrigley and Lambiri (2014a, 2014b, 2015). Hart *et al* (2014) have additionally commented that high streets will survive as long as they can provide an enjoyable experience. Evidence from this research

indicates that cultural events can provide that enjoyable experience, however, they are unlikely to prompt significant increases in expenditure in the host town's own retail and service provision. Local policymakers and TCMs, therefore, need to consider carefully their reasons for wishing to host such events in their centres. Further, according to these findings, the type of event has a bearing on visitor spending patterns. Evidence now exists to suggest that a music festival, which includes stalls carefully selected to complement the host town's existing food-related offer at a time of increased demand is likely to benefit the town more than a market or food festival, which includes a high number of stalls offering similar produce to that on sale in the existing permanent premises.

Additionally, these findings both concur with, and add another layer to, those of Powe and Hart (2008), who have remarked that market towns, which are successful at attracting visitors, seem to do so by capitalising on their existing heritage and surrounding landscape. By viewing such places from the perspective of cultural events, it is possible to add that reputation is also an important factor. Evidence from CS1 and CS2 has enabled an illustration of two well-regarded market towns to emerge, each with events that appear to complement their host towns and vice versa. CS3, in contrast, suggests that the reputation of the place is an important factor contributing to the ability of an event to attract visitors. This aspect also adds weight to Young *et al* (2010), who have argued that to be successful, an event needs to fit with the place.

8.3.2 Methodological findings: Difficulties associated with the EIA process

The EIA process is complex and the current study has encountered similar challenges to those either highlighted or neglected by existing studies, such as Tyrrell and Johnston (2006), Southern *et al* (2007) or Wood (2005). The ways in which these complications were encountered and how they were addressed are discussed next. Southern *et al*'s (2007) use of a questionable multiplier may have resulted in an over-estimation of the economic impact in their study. In addition, they did not attempt to estimate the overall attendance so, as with Wood (2005), they provided a MPP expenditure. The current study tackled the problem of estimating attendance in order to produce as accurate an estimate as possible under the circumstances, and the capture-recapture method employed in CS2 is believed to be robust and replicable in future studies. The

problem of the multiplier has been discussed in the literature (eg: Archer, 1984; Crompton *et al*, 2016) and, again, it is believed the one used in the current study was as accurate as could be expected.

The development of the systematic process that was used in this research gave rise to numerous difficulties. First, as each of the case studies took place on a single day in relatively small places, the data collection period for event visitors was very limited. In order to overcome this, attempts were made to recruit ample support from colleagues to maximise opportunities. This proved to be difficult to achieve and so compromises had to be made, resulting in a lower number of respondents in two of the case studies than had been planned. Events with a longer duration have more opportunities to gather such data and as a result, obtain a far higher number of respondents.

Other studies, such as Crompton *et al* (2001), used proprietary software to undertake their evaluations. Since an aim of this study was to develop a process that could be easily replicated by small-scale event organisers, TCMs, BID managers or local authority officers, each of whom have limited financial resources, the use of such software was not considered appropriate. Hence, alternative means were needed to enable calculation of indirect and induced impacts of the case study events. As a consequence, attempts were made to obtain financial data from local businesses in each of the case study towns. This was also problematic, as an insufficient number of businesses was prepared to provide such data, which meant this approach could not be taken. Enquiries were made of the ONS to find out whether other data sources might provide this information, for example, the Interdepartmental Business Register, which details VAT returns. This only contains information for a sample of returns, and requires the business to be VAT registered and employ one permanent member of staff. It would not provide the detail required to calculate the difference a one-day event might make.

The next issue was to source an appropriate multiplier. Unlike Tohmo's (2005) input-output evaluation of a Finnish folk festival, local economic data was not available, so it was impossible to calculate an accurate multiplier for this study. The ONS produces a national multiplier but as it is calculated at this geography, it cannot discern local economic differences. The warnings in the literature concerned with the use of inappropriate multipliers, which result in over-inflated EIAs were heeded (Archer, 1984), so a search for a suitable one was undertaken. Southern *et al*'s (2007) use of the multiplier provided by

BAFA was questionable, since it was calculated using American economic data, which may be very different to British. The multiplier used by Baker (2007) was felt to be more appropriate, since it was based on a rigorous economic study undertaken in Scotland. Although not perfect, it seemed to provide the best option.

The above are issues that those undertaking EIAs of larger scale events would be unlikely to face: such events attract many thousands of people over a much longer period. Data collection is, therefore, less of an issue. The scale of the event means that sample economic data available from the ONS would be more useful. Larger-scale events are more likely to have the financial resources to utilise proprietary software and so dispense with a search for a suitable multiplier, or the need to attempt to gather financial data from local businesses. Associated with this, owing to the increased number of businesses operating in these larger urban environments, far more opportunities are available should data be required from them than in the small centres included in this study, meaning that a similar refusal rate might not render any collected data unusable.

Whilst the above posed significant challenges that might not have been faced in either a larger urban area or during the study of a larger-scale event, the systematic process devised for this study attempted to simplify the overall procedure to enable anyone with an interest in understanding economic impacts of small-scale cultural events to follow it. The methodology that was developed to undertake the task as accurately as possible was the best compromise that could be reached given access to data, time and resource constraints, all of which would be equally challenging for other researchers or policymakers wishing to study similar small-scale events. Users and interpreters of this methodology first should be clear about the underlying assumptions that lie behind the process and, second, they should consider the results alongside the more emotionally driven outputs to obtain a complete illustration of the impacts.

8.3.3 Conceptual findings: Towards a conceptualisation of holistic economic impact

The main findings presented above extend existing theories concerning the economic impacts of cultural events, as discussed in Chapter Two. They also extend Kim and Walker's (2012) psychic income model, which itself was a

development of that proposed by Crompton (2004). Neither of these studies was concerned with the monetary impacts of events. Instead, they took a different approach, which focused only on the positive aspects associated with the ‘feel-good factor’ and did not account for any negative consequences, such as the effects of a poor reputation. The present study therefore advances current understanding by combining both the monetary elements of economic impact with the less tangible components – both positive and negative – arguing that one cannot occur without the other. This holistic approach is shown conceptually in Figure 8.1 overleaf, which is a development of Figure 2.8, incorporating the additional components that have emerged as a result of this research.

Reading the diagram from left to right, starting at the top: cultural events are used by policymakers as a ‘boosterist’ intervention for town centres and high streets to increase footfall in the hope that this will lead to increased income for the host town’s retailers and service providers. Over time, it is hoped this will lead to a vibrant high street, with reduced vacancy rates. In other words, there will be a positive economic impact.

This research has found that the reality is far more complex. In order for a cultural event to operate in this way, the event needs to ‘belong’ to its host town. By this is meant that the event characteristics need to align with the characteristics of the town, as well as be supported by its local community. Contingent factors of relevance here include the town’s existing ability to act as a visitor attraction, its existing reputation, and existing levels of community support for the town and event.

Increased footfall may result directly from the event, however, this does not automatically lead to increased expenditure in the host town. If the event itself is a ‘retail’ event, ie: a market or food festival, then much of the expenditure is likely to occur on the stalls rather than in the town. The majority of visitor expenditure in the town is most likely to be on food retail or leisure services.

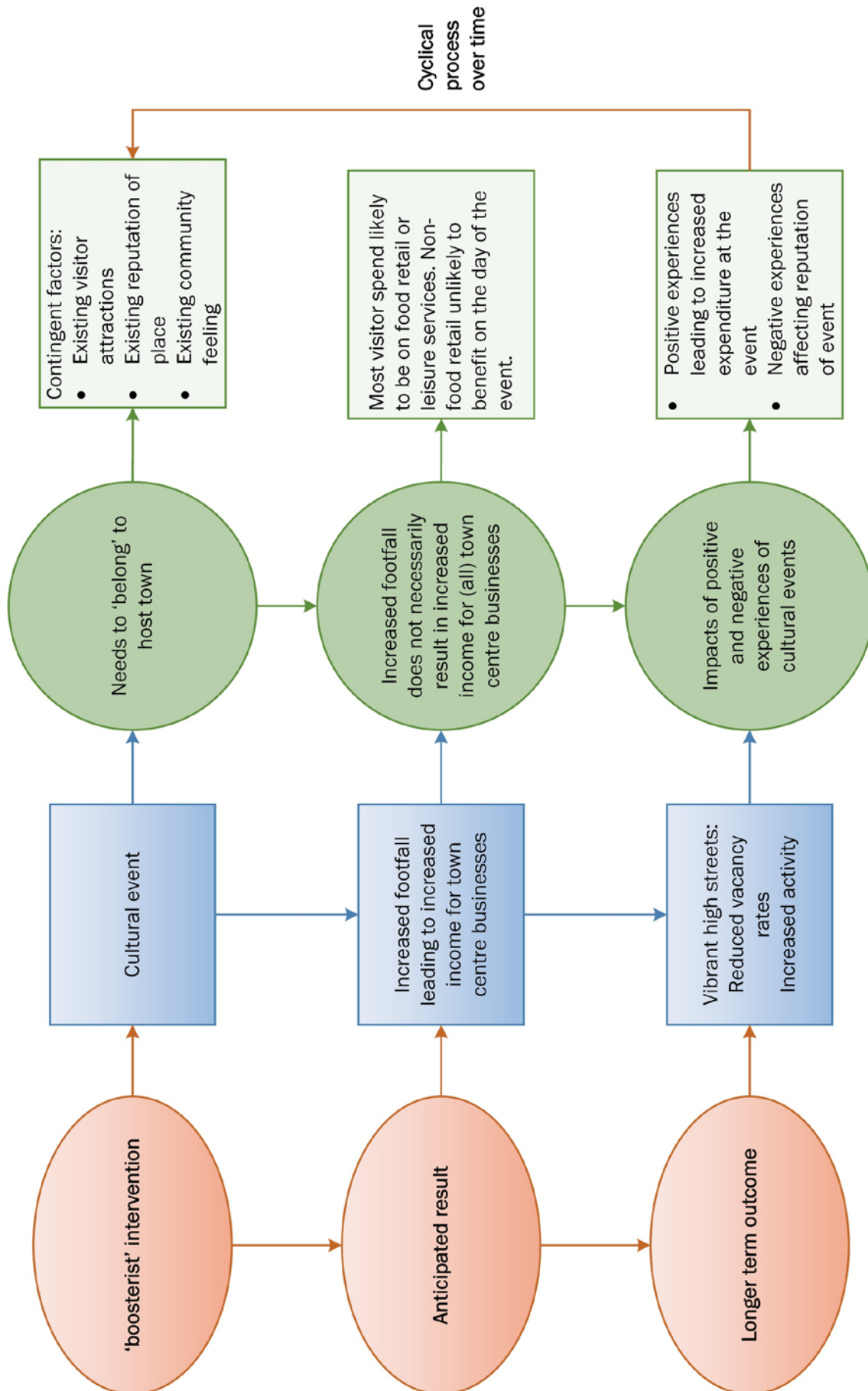


Figure 8.1: Revised concept for hosting cultural events in market towns – the holistic approach

The longer-term impacts are not known, however, the theory here is that over time as an event becomes established, its reputation attracts more visitors or as a consequence of attendance, and those visitors may return at another time to visit the host town's retailers and service providers. This part of the model was beyond the scope of the present study, so offers an opportunity for future enquiry.

Additional factors are the negative associations with place and the event that may occur as a consequence of the event. Such associations affect the reputation of the event and the town, which feeds in to the model. The experiences of interested parties, such as visitors, traders, performers, local businesses and residents contribute to the overall impact of these events, as they each interact with the other, either directly or indirectly, to forge this reputation.

This revised model captures the holistic economic impact of a cultural event. It incorporates the basic model, shown in Chapter Two, and contains further additions based on the evidence that emerged from this study. The next section clarifies the main contributions made by the research.

8.4 Contributions

This research has advanced knowledge and understanding of the economic, social and cultural impacts of small-scale cultural events, principally those located in market towns. This particular area continues to be under-researched compared to ongoing interest in more high-profile mega-events in large cities, such as the Olympic Games. Contributions have been made to methods and practice by combining three fields of study, which until now have often been treated separately: cultural events, the British town centre and high street, and small towns. The precise contributions are now discussed.

8.4.1 Methodological contributions

Whilst acknowledging that EIA alone does not provide a complete illustration of the economic impacts generated by a small-scale cultural event, this research has contributed to methodological debates regarding EIA. First, the research developed and implemented a systematic process for evaluating the economic impacts of small-scale cultural events, without the need for proprietary computer software, which may not be a feasible option for policymakers at the

local level. By scaling down established methods more commonly associated with evaluation of larger-scale events, the research highlighted the problems associated with EIA at this scale, such as inability to obtain data at the required geography to facilitate detailed local level analysis. Despite providing solutions to these issues, the study has argued that dependence on this approach should be reduced for small-scale cultural events, since the inherent difficulties associated with data collection are resource-intensive and are likely to yield disappointing results. In this context, a framework for a more holistic approach to understanding economic impacts was proposed.

Secondly, through CS2, the research contributes to methodological debates concerned with improving accuracy of attendance estimates at open-air events. These are notoriously difficult undertakings where there are no barriers to control the flow of visitors and facilitate a head count, or no ticket sales to confirm numbers. The approach, explained in Chapter Three, was based on capture-recapture methodology. It used the number of cars and their passengers as the 'capture' element and asked survey respondents if they used a car park (the 'recapture' component) to estimate overall attendance. This approach could be easily adapted for use at other open-air situations.

Third, this research has examined how small-scale cultural events contribute, specifically in economic, social and cultural terms, to market town vitality. As such, it makes a timely and worthwhile contribution to existing debate on the viability of the British high street and town centre. By undertaking an EIA process, it has shown the variability in economic impact produced by different types of event. The folk music festival encouraged the highest visitor spend in the town's own retail and service provision. In contrast, both the food festival and farmers' market attracted a higher spend on the trading stalls than in the respective towns' retail and service provision. This illustrates that footfall alone is an imprecise indicator of an event's success and adds another layer to the work of Hallsworth *et al* (2015).

Finally, in methodological terms, this study has questioned the reliance on EIA as a means of understanding the overall impact this type of event can generate for its host location. It has argued that this approach is too narrowly focused, as it fails to account for the motivations behind expenditure, the experiential value that these events create, and the relationship between the two. This has been a weakness of existing studies which have used the term 'economic impact' when they actually mean 'monetary impact.' This common way of

viewing economic impact has been combined with attention to other less-tangible, experiential factors in the current study and, as a result, a conceptualisation of holistic economic impact has been developed and presented at Figure 8.1. The conceptualisation, which partly took its inspiration from the psychic income model proposed by Crompton (2004), later improved by Kim and Walker (2012), offers a framework which can be further tested at cultural events.

8.4.2 Practical contributions and policy implications

Integral to this research was the need to ensure there would be practical contributions, which would inform policy decision-making, since the project was funded by a CASE studentship from the ESRC and RIBEN. In addition, with TVBC as a co-sponsor, there was an expectation that the research would produce practical benefits in return for the borough's investment. Noteworthy contributions have accordingly been made in this respect.

Broadly, this study presents policymakers, who could be local authority decision-makers, TCMs, or BID managers, with a systematic process for conducting EIA on the understanding that they report the underlying assumptions used in the process, and interpret and present the results in broad terms as an indication of likely impact. The value associated with experiences must also be accounted for alongside the monetary impacts, since only when both elements are combined can a holistic account of economic impact be produced. Policymakers need to be clear of their principal aim for a cultural event at the outset; whether it is to increase footfall, increase local economic activity, provide an enjoyable experience for residents and visitors, facilitate social connectivity and community cohesion, or to attract inward investment by acting as a visitor attraction. It may be unrealistic to expect a small-scale cultural event to perform all potential roles, according to the findings of this research. The evidence presented here suggests that such events are more successful in market towns that already have a positive reputation, as the event can enhance the overall appeal but it is unlikely to be the primary reason for a visit. These events appear to be less successful in market towns that are struggling with a poor reputation. Further, an event that appears to be successful in one place may not automatically afford the same benefits to a different location; authenticity of place and event seem to be key contributors. Policymakers need to be mindful of these points, since if they

are attempting to revive the fortunes of an ailing town, simply hosting an event may not be the panacea for its problems.

This study makes a further practical contribution to the limited academic work concerned with small towns, such as Bell and Jayne (2006a), who argue that too much attention is paid to cities. The study has illustrated that market towns in particular function in different ways to cities, certainly when viewed through the lens of small-scale cultural events. Details that are overlooked in the study of larger urban centres have been revealed, such as the difficulties encountered when scaling down the EIA process, which are not so apparent when a similar process is applied to these larger places. As observed by Besser (2009), these small places offer an opportunity to study such activity in a concentrated, personal environment, something which is harder to achieve in larger cities. The disadvantage of this type of study is that it is more challenging and resource-intensive to obtain adequate data. Additionally, by concentrating on market towns and providing an illustration of the interactions between cultural events and these places, this study adds to work by Powe and Shaw (2003); Powe and Hart (2008) and Powe *et al* (2009) through its focus on the impacts of cultural events.

8.5 Limitations of this research and potential further study

Owing to the nature of the research funding, the scope of this study was confined to the TVBC area, which is a relatively prosperous borough in the south of England. As a result, it can only offer evidence of a particular borough's experiences of events. For this reason, case study methodology was employed, since as Baxter (2010) has argued, in-depth study of a single case has value of its own, without the need to secure a statistically significant sample of cases. Nonetheless, further enquiry to test the generalisability of this research would be beneficial. With ongoing concern for the British town centre and high street, repeating the study at cultural events taking place in boroughs or towns in other parts of the UK would test the conceptual framework proposed here and produce more evidence of how such activities contribute to their host communities.

Evaluating the longer-term impacts of these events was beyond the scope of this research. Instead, a snapshot was taken of the impacts of the case study

events, which is somewhat limiting. Study of the longer-term effects would provide an insight into the ways in which the host towns may be able to derive additional benefits from the events. Although relatively little additional expenditure tends to occur on the day of the event itself, visitors might return subsequently, or recommend the town to friends and family as a result of having visited the event. In addition, it is not known for how long the experiential value – the ‘feel-good factor’ previously mentioned – lasts, or how specifically this translates into additional economic activity. It would be beneficial to understand more about whether and how events such as these strengthen relationships between the place and event visitors, particularly in the context of the current economic climate and the ongoing concern about the welfare of the British town centre and high street. As Connell and Gibson (2011) observed in their longitudinal analysis of the Parkes’ Elvis revival festival, it takes time for events such as this to embed themselves into local communities and build a sufficient reputation to transform the fortunes of ailing places. A study such as this would, therefore, contribute further to the British town centre and high street debate, as well as providing additional practical evidence for local policymakers.

Although covered in the literature review, specific evaluation of the place-marketing effects generated by these events was outside the scope of the current study, as it concentrated on conducting an EIA and exploring wider social and cultural impacts. The research does, nevertheless, provide a framework for further enquiry. Clearly, the events contribute to image of place, as shown by the findings discussed earlier, however, a relatively novel area of study would be to explore connections between cultural events and digital communities. In particular, there is a need to know more about the extent to which these events generate online buzz or resistance before, during and afterwards, and in this way impact, both on the image of the place and social connectivity, as understood by O'Brien (2017) in relation to the place. At a time of increasing overlap between the physical and virtual environments, particularly in relation to British town centres and high streets and the growth of omnichannel retailing, there is a need to understand how, or if, the virtual can strengthen ties with the physical. Massey (1994) has argued that place and community need not be fixed to a particular space and time: place and community can be tangible – as in town centres – or virtual – as in Facebook groups. The author has witnessed how virtual communities can be created

during the build up to an event, actualised during the event and continue post-event.

Williams *et al* (2015) have laid the foundations for further work in this emerging field by conducting exploratory research into social media conversations concerned with the annual Bournemouth Air Festival. Their work employed social network analysis to develop an understanding of different stakeholder groups involved with the festival rather than to focus on the effects of these digital conversations. Advancing Williams *et al*'s work would make timely contributions. Theoretically, understanding more about impacts generated by these digital conversations is an emerging field of study. From a practitioner perspective, such research would assist local policymakers, particularly those who are attempting to revitalise their town centres. If these policymakers understand how to generate buzz in a virtual environment, then they may be able to add vibrancy to their town centres and high streets in an age where online activity is growing at a faster rate than the traditional bricks and mortar version of the high street.

A further topical line of enquiry concerns increased securitisation at events. This follows heightened concern over recent terrorist activity and threats across Europe in places where large crowds of people gather for enjoyment. The Bataclan bombing in Paris in December 2015, the attack on the Christmas market in Berlin in December 2016, the explosion at the Ariana Grande concert in Manchester in May 2017 are all examples of this. As a result, the majority of gatherings such as these now involve increased levels of security. The author has recent personal experience of attendance at a music concert at Wembley stadium (June 2017), some stages of the Tour de France, including the final in Paris (July 2017) and a weekend music festival in Hampshire (August 2017). Strict levels of security were in force at each of these events, along with heightened police presence, roadblocks and funnelling procedures in Paris (where the public is directed to specific entry and exit points). These experiences lead one to consider whether levels of enjoyment are compromised for the sake of safety, or whether enjoyment is enhanced because eventgoers feel somehow safer in a controlled environment, and to what extent does this affect authenticity? This emerged to a lesser degree in the findings for CS1, for in the words of one respondent: 'police make me feel less safe because they shouldn't be needed.' This, then is worthy of further investigation. Giulianotti and Klauser (2010, p58) claim that sports mega-

event security is ‘a complex assemblage of social control mechanisms’ in the light of their initial exploration of this field and proposed that further research was needed, however, once again, mega-events were the focus of this call. The differences between large and small-scale have been discussed at length throughout this thesis, so the value of such research in relation to small-scale events would be considerable.

Finally, and in part connected to place marketing, the importance of heritage and tradition became clear during this research, but was again outside the main scope of the study. CS1, for example, involved an event that appeared to have an association with an ancient festival. It transpired during the research, however, that the event was much more contemporary, having been first created in 1993 by a group of enthusiasts and called the Romsey Folk Festival. The revised name – the Beggars Fair – was simply a marketing initiative developed for the 1994 event (see Chapter Four for the full explanation). The contrived title is a nostalgic suggestion (Holloway and Kneafsey, 2000) of a past that did not actually exist. Contemporary middle class society enjoys selective elements of this historical narrative, for example the Morris dancers, yet does not tolerate others, such as the effects of excessive alcohol consumption, as evidenced by the enforcement of the Drinking in Public Places Order and the considerable number of concerns raised over perceptions of alcohol-related anti-social behaviour.

This manipulation of history to suit 21st Century levels of acceptance (Philo and Kearns, 1993) is a frequently-used strategy, as mentioned in earlier chapters of this thesis. According to Bakhtin (1968), deviant behaviour was part of the ‘grotesque realism’ associated with medieval fairs and festivals and was permitted in order that social control could be maintained at other times. This phenomenon encourages the reading of modern festivals from two standpoints: firstly, from the perspective of the bread and circuses thesis (Eisinger, 2000), to explore whether – and how – local policymakers facilitate the implementation of problematic policies by providing enjoyable activities, such as cultural events. This connects with Bakhtin’s understanding of medieval fairs and festivals, stated earlier in this paragraph. Exactly how – or if – cultural events contribute in this regard are not known. Secondly, from the perspective of securitisation of public space (Barnett, 2015). Evidence emerged during this research to indicate that views over the effects of additional security were mixed; some felt it enhanced their feeling of safety,

while others felt it was excessive and created a more oppressive atmosphere. Additional security is a common feature of urban retail centres and has been discussed in the literature on privatised public space (Zukin, 1996).

Understanding how this impacts on cultural events would make a valuable contribution to the literature concerned with town centre vitality and provide further evidence to local policymakers who are planning a programme of cultural events for their urban centres.

APPENDICES

Appendix A	Event Visitor Survey
Appendix B	Event Trader/Performer Survey
Appendix C	Local Business Survey
Appendix D	Non-attending Residents Survey
Appendix E	Semi-structured interview schedule
Appendix F	Summary of EIA Models
Appendix G	Ethics Approval

Appendix A Event Visitor Survey

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Research Ethics Number: 4361

Test Valley Economic Impact Research –Event Visitor Survey

I am a PhD Researcher from the University of Southampton working with Test Valley Borough Council on a project which aims to find out how annual events taking place in the borough support local businesses and the community. Trout 'n About has been selected for inclusion in the study and I would be grateful if you could complete the attached survey, which should take between 5-10 minutes to complete with the help of the interviewer.

In order to compile a comprehensive illustration of how Trout 'n About impacts upon Stockbridge, surveys are also being conducted with local businesses and stallholders after the event.

The purpose of the research is to determine the overall impact of these events on their host towns, including how they contribute to the local economy. Although you may skip any question, please do try to provide accurate information where possible to help with the study's accuracy. You may withdraw at any time. **This survey is completed anonymously and all information obtained in it will remain confidential. No individual will be identified in any published results.**

How to complete the survey

A researcher from the University of Southampton will help you complete the short survey, so anything that is not clear can be explained. Please try to answer all questions as accurately as possible, providing estimates where required.

If you are happy to proceed, please tick the box below to indicate you have read and understood the above information and agree for your data to be used for the purpose of this study. If you have any questions relating to this research, please feel free to contact me at any time using the email address at the bottom of this page.

*I agree to take part in this study and have read and understood the information provided to me.
I understand my participation is voluntary and I may withdraw at any time.*

Tick box
if you agree

☐

Thank you for your time.

Elaine Rust
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TA-EV-Sv_V4
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Test Valley Economic Impact Study – Event Visitor Survey: Trout ‘n About, Stockbridge, 4 August 2013

Survey Identification Number

Time

Section One: About you and your group

1. What is your age from the options below?

Interviewer note: read the options or ask the respondent to select the appropriate box:18-33 ☐34-49 ☐50-64 ☐65+ ☐**Interviewer to add:**

M/F

2. Where do you normally live?
- If you are from the UK, please provide your postcode sector in the format XXXX X. If you are not from the UK, please provide your town and country:*

Interviewer note: please encourage UK respondents to provide their postcode sector eg S017 1Postcode sector of UK visitor: **go to question 3**

Non-UK visitor town and country

go to question 4

3. Do you pay your council tax to Test Valley Borough Council? Yes ☐ (tick which applies)
This is so that we can separate Test Valley residents for the purposes of our study No ☐ (tick which applies)
4. If the answer to question 3 was 'no', are you currently on holiday? Yes ☐ (tick which applies)
 No ☐ (tick which applies)
5. How many people travelled with you today?
 a. Number of adults (aged 18 or over)
 b. Number of children (under 18)

6. If the answer to question 5 is more than one, please indicate your group type from the following options:

Interviewer note: read aloud or show the options to the respondent. Tick the appropriate answer.

Type of Group	✓
Spouse/partner only	<input type="checkbox"/>
Family group	<input type="checkbox"/>
Family and friends	<input type="checkbox"/>
Friends	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other (please specify):	<input type="checkbox"/>

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7. What is your main occupation?

Interviewer note: ask respondent to select from the list below and enter the code in this box: ☐

Alternatively, ask respondent to name their occupation for coding later

Occupation	Code	Occupation	Code
Managers and senior officials	1	Professional occupations	2
Middle management	3	Junior management	4
Skilled trades occupations	5	Administrative and secretarial occupations	6
Unskilled occupations	7	Armed forces	8
Student	9	Never worked or long-term unemployed	10
Retired	11	Prefer not to say	0

8. What is your highest level of education?

Interviewer note: ask respondent to select from the list below and enter the code in this box: ☐

Alternatively, ask respondent to name their qualification for coding later

Highest level of education	Code
Degree/Higher Degree/ HND/NVQ Level 4/Scottish equivalent	1
2+ A levels/advanced GNVQ/NVQ Level 3/Scottish equivalent	2
5+ GCSEs (A-C)/intermediate GNVQ/NVQ Level 2/Scottish equivalent	3
<5 GCSEs (A-C)/foundation GNVQ/NVQ Level 1/Scottish equivalent	4
No formal qualification	5
Prefer not to say	0

Section Two: Reason for your visit and how you travelled here today

1. Did you know Trout 'n About was taking place today before you decided to visit? Yes ☐ (tick which applies)
No ☐

2. How did you hear about Trout 'n About?

Interviewer note: if response is 'advert', please ask in which media it was seen (eg name of newspaper)

.....
.....

3. How long are you intending to stay today (please provide the estimated number of hours)?

.....

4. What is the **main** reason for your visit to Stockbridge today?

Interviewer note: read aloud or show the options to the respondent and tick one box only

Reason for visit to Stockbridge	✓
To visit Trout 'n About	
To visit family and friends	
To accompany someone else to the event	
To visit Stockbridge as a tourist/sightseeing	
To go shopping in Stockbridge	
To meet family/friends for a meal	
Other (please specify):	

5. Would you have come to Stockbridge today if Trout 'n About was not taking place?

Yes ☐ (tick which
No ☐ applies)

6. If your answer above was 'no', were you planning to visit Stockbridge at some point within the next 12 months?

Yes ☐ (tick which
No ☐ applies)

7. Did you come by car?

Yes ☐ (tick which
No ☐ applies)

8. If your answer above was 'yes', did you use one of the car parks provided?

Yes ☐ (tick which
No ☐ applies)

9. Could you tell me which car park you used?

Eastern (Winch/Soton) ☐ (tick which
Western (Salisbury) ☐ applies)

Interviewer note: use the map to prompt if required

10. What is your view of the car parking arrangements today?

.....

.....

.....

Section Three: Your estimated expenditure today

1. Please could you estimate any expenditure you and your group are likely to make whilst **at Trout 'n About today (ie at trader stalls)** in the following categories:

Expenditure Category	Amount £
Food and drink purchased from Trout 'n About stalls	£
Art/craft items purchased from Trout 'n About stalls	£
Souvenirs/gifts purchased from Trout 'n About stalls	£
Any other chargeable activities (eg fairground rides/sideshows)	£
Other expenditure while attending Trout 'n About today (please specify)	£

2. Please estimate any expenditure you are likely to make **in the town today** in the following categories:

Expenditure Category	Amount £
Transport to/from event	£
Meals in restaurants/pubs/café's or similar	£
Food and drink purchased elsewhere (eg supermarkets)	£
Souvenirs/gifts	£
Other retail purchases	£
Entrance fees to local attractions	£
Other expenditure in Stockbridge today (please specify)	£

Interviewer note: this is the end of the main survey for TVBC residents as identified by the answer to Question 3, Section 1 and for non-residents who are not on holiday (as defined by answering 'no' to Question 4, Section 1. Please ask if the respondent is prepared to answer the remaining questions in Section 5 by saying the following:

This is the end of the main survey, thank you for taking part. I have a few additional questions to ask concerning your reasons for coming to Trout 'n About and your views of the event. Would you like to answer them? They should only take a couple of minutes.

If yes – go to page 7 for the additional questions

If no – thank the respondent and wish them a pleasant day.

For non-residents who answered 'yes' to Question 4, Section 1, please proceed to the next section.

Section Four: Non-resident visitor questions**Interviewer note: residents as defined in section 1, question 3 may skip this section**

1. If you are visiting the area and staying overnight, could you tell me the town/village you are staying in?
-

2. What type of accommodation is it?

Interviewer note: read aloud or show the options to the respondent and tick appropriate box

Type of accommodation	✓	Type of accommodation	✓
Hotel/guest house		B&B	
Self-catering		Caravan/camping	
Friends/relatives		Second home	
N/A			

3. How many nights are you staying in this accommodation?
4. Please could you provide an estimate for all general expenditure you and your group are likely to make during your stay in the following categories. Please exclude today's expenditure:

Expenditure Category	Amount £
Accommodation	£
Event/entertainment/visitor attraction tickets	£
Meals (not included in accommodation) in restaurants/café/pubs etc	£
Food and drink purchased elsewhere (eg supermarkets)	£
Souvenirs/gifts	£
Other retail purchases	£
Leisure services (eg sporting activities)	£
Transport (eg buses, trains, taxis, private car hire. Include car parking charges)	£

Interviewer note: this is the end of the main survey. Please ask if the respondent is prepared to answer the remaining questions by saying the following:

This is the end of the main survey, thank you for taking part. I have a few additional questions to ask concerning your reasons for coming to Trout 'n About and your views of the event. Would you like to answer them? They should only take a couple of minutes.

Section Five: Additional questions relating to your views of Trout 'n About

1. Could you tell me a little more about why you came to Trout 'n About today?

.....

.....

.....

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2. What are you intending to do while you are here?

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3. What do you like about Trout 'n About?

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4. Is there anything you dislike about Trout 'n About? If so, what is it?

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.....

END OF SURVEY – THANK YOU

If you have any questions relating to this study, please contact **Elaine Rust** at the University of Southampton by email at elaine.rust@soton.ac.uk or by post to **Geography and Environment, University of Southampton, Highfield, Southampton, SO17 1BJ**.



July 2013
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Appendix B Event Trader/Performer Survey

Geography and
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To the proprietor or manager

Research Ethics Number: 4361

Economic Impact Study – Event Trader Survey

I am a PhD Researcher from the University of Southampton working with Test Valley Borough Council on a project which aims to find out how the Borough's cultural events support the local economy and the community. The farmers' and crafts market has been included in the study, so I am now asking if you could help me with the research by completing the attached survey for market traders.

The research design aims to produce robust economic evidence relating to how these events support the economy, so questions concerning your sales activity are included. Please try answer the questions as accurately as possible. **Please be assured that the survey is completed anonymously and all information contained within it will remain confidential. No individual or business will be identified in any published results.**

How to complete the survey

This short survey should take around 10 minutes to complete. Although you may skip any question, please do try to answer them all as accurately as possible, providing estimates where required, as the answers will contribute to the overall economic impact study in due course. You are free to withdraw from the study at any time. I will make arrangements to collect the completed survey at a time convenient to you, or if provided, please return it in the freepost envelope. No further involvement is needed.

Please feel free to add any comments you feel are relevant to this study at the end or on a separate sheet.

If you are happy to proceed, please tick the box below to indicate you have read and understood the above information and agree for your data to be used for the purpose of this study. If you have any questions relating to this research, please feel free to contact me at any time using the email address at the bottom of this page.

Thank you for your time.

I agree to take part in this study and have read and understood the information provided to me.
I understand my participation is voluntary and I may withdraw at any time.

*Tick the box
if you agree*

☐

Elaine Rust
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FM-Tr-Sv_V1
Apr 2015
Page 1 of 5

Test Valley Economic Impact Study – Event Trader Survey: Andover farmers’ and crafts market, 17 May 2015**Survey Identification Number***Interviewer: please insert your initials followed by a sequential number starting 001***Time***please note the start time of the interview***Section One: About your business**

1. What is the postcode of your business address? Please provide the postcode sector, eg SP10 1 in the boxes below (this is so that we can identify your normal location): If you are not from the UK then please provide the town and country of your normal place of residence:

Postcode sector of UK business:

Non-UK business town and country

2. Please tick the box below that best describes your business activity:

Trader/performer Business Category	✓
Food and drink (prepared/cooked/ready-to-eat)	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Food and drink (non-prepared/raw)	<input type="checkbox"/> 2
Clothing	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Textiles	<input type="checkbox"/> 4
Arts and crafts	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
Live performer(s)	<input type="checkbox"/> 6
Souvenirs/gifts	<input type="checkbox"/> 7
Attraction	<input type="checkbox"/> 8
Other (please indicate below):	<input type="checkbox"/> 9

3. How often do you trade at the farmers’ and crafts market? Please tick the box that best describes the frequency:

Frequency	✓
First time today (17 May 2015)	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
2-5 times	<input type="checkbox"/> 2
6-9 times	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Been to every one since March 2014 (the first one)	<input type="checkbox"/> 4

4. On a scale of 1-5, where 1 is not at all and 5 is extremely, how likely are you to return to another farmers’ and crafts market? Please circle the appropriate number below:

1 2 3 4 5
 Very unlikely ←————→ Extremely likely

Section Two: Expenditure associated with the farmers' and crafts market

This section concerns all expenditure relating to your attendance at the farmers' and crafts market today:

1. How many people travelled with you to the farmers' and crafts market?
2. Thinking about expenditure **specifically associated with your attendance at the farmers' and crafts market on 17 May**, please provide an estimate of your total spend in the following categories. If possible, please include expenditure for all group members who travelled with you. If this is not possible, please tick the box to indicate you are answering for yourself only: ☐

Expenditure category	Expenditure amount (best estimate)
Pitch hire/stall rental	£
Food and drink purchased from farmers' and crafts market stallholders	£
Souvenirs/gifts purchased from farmers' and crafts market stallholders	£
Transport to/from the farmers' and crafts market (eg buses, taxis, trains etc). Include car parking charges	£
Other expenditure (please name):	£

3. Could you now provide an estimate for any expenditure you and your group are likely to make **in the town's businesses** on the day of the farmers' and crafts market? Exclude any expenditure made at the farmers' and crafts market stalls. If you are answering for yourself only, please tick this box: ☐

Expenditure category	Town expenditure on 17 May (best estimate)
Meals (not included in accommodation) eg restaurants/pubs/café	£
Food and drink purchased elsewhere eg takeaways, snacks	£
Souvenirs/gifts	£
Other retail purchases	
Local services (eg garage)	£
Transport (eg buses, taxis, trains etc). Include car parking charges	£

4. Did you stay overnight in visitor accommodation? Yes ☐ No ☐
If you answered 'no', go to Section 3 on p5
5. How many nights did you stay in the accommodation?

6. From the options below, please tick which type of accommodation you/your group stayed in. If there were more than five people in your group, please use the space on the last page of this survey to continue.

Accommodation type	You	Group member 1	Group member 2	Group member 3	Group member 4	Group member 5
Hotel/guest house						
B&B						
Self-catering						
Caravan/camping						
Friends/relatives						
N/A						

7. What was the name of the accommodation?
8. In which town or village was it located?
9. What were you/your group's total estimated spend on accommodation during your stay?
£.....
10. Please could you provide your best estimate for the total expenditure you and your group made during your stay in the following categories. Please exclude any expenditure already accounted for and if you are answering for yourself only, please tick this box: ☐

Expenditure category	Expenditure during stay
Meals (not included in accommodation) eg restaurants/pubs/cafés	£
Food and drink purchased elsewhere eg takeaways, snacks	£
Souvenirs/gifts	£
Other retail purchases	
Local services (eg garage)	£
Transport (eg buses, taxis, trains etc). Include car parking charges	£

Section Three: Your views about the farmers' and crafts market

This section is an opportunity for you to express what you like or would like to improve about the farmers' and crafts market, your reasons for this and your reasons for attending.

1. Why do you come to the farmers' and crafts market?

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2. What do you like about the farmers' and crafts market and why?

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.....

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3. What, if anything would you like to improve about the farmers' and crafts market and why?

.....

.....

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.....

END OF SURVEY – THANK YOU

Please keep this survey in a safe place until it is collected by a representative from the University of Southampton, or return in the freepost envelope if provided. If you have any questions relating to this study, please contact **Elaine Rust** at the University of Southampton by email at elaine.rust@soton.ac.uk, or by post to **Geography and Environment, University of Southampton, Highfield, Southampton, SO17 1BJ**

Appendix C Local Business Survey

Geography and
Environment

UNIVERSITY OF
Southampton

To the proprietor or manager

Research Ethics Number: 4361

Economic Impact Study – Local Business Survey

I am a PhD Researcher from the University of Southampton working with Test Valley Borough Council on a project which aims to find out how the Borough's cultural events support the local economy and the community. Andover farmers' and crafts market taking place on 17 May 2015 has been included in the study, so I am now asking if you could help me with the research by completing the attached survey for local businesses.

The research design aims to produce robust economic evidence relating to how these events support local business, so questions concerning your sales activity have been included. You may already be interested to know how these events contribute to the local economy, so please answer the questions as accurately as possible. **Please be assured that the survey is completed anonymously and all information contained within it will remain confidential. No individual or business will be identified in any published results. The data will be kept securely and will only be used to determine a figure for additional activity experienced at the level of industry sector (eg accommodation or retail).**

How to complete the survey

This short survey should take around 10 minutes to complete. Although you may skip any question, please do try to answer them all as accurately as possible, providing estimates where required, as the answers will contribute to the overall economic impact study in due course. I will make arrangements to collect the completed survey at a time convenient to you, or if provided, please return it in the freepost envelope. You are free to withdraw from the study at any time and no further involvement is needed.

Please feel free to add any comments you feel are relevant to this study at the end or on a separate sheet.

If you are happy to proceed, please tick the box below to indicate you have read and understood the above information and agree for your data to be used for the purpose of this study. If you have any questions relating to this research, please feel free to contact me at any time using the email address at the bottom of this page.

Thank you for your time.

I agree to take part in this study and have read and understood the information provided to me.
I understand my participation is voluntary and I may withdraw at any time.

*Tick the box
if you agree*

☐

Elaine Rust
PhD Researcher
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Southampton SO17 1BJ
Email: elaine.rust@soton.ac.uk



April 2015_V1
FM_BS_V1
Page 1 of 4

Test Valley Economic Impact Study – local business survey: Andover farmers' and crafts market

Survey Identification Number Completion date:

Interviewer: please insert your initials followed by a sequential number starting 001

Section One: About your organisation

1. Please provide the postcode sector of your business in the boxes below, *eg SP10 1* (this is so that we can determine your proximity to the town centre and will not be used to identify you):

2. Please indicate your business category by placing a tick in the appropriate box below:

Accommodation:	✓	Food & Drink Services	✓
B&B	1	Café/coffee shop	6
Hotel – private	2	Pub	7
Hotel – part of multiple	3	Restaurant	8
Self-catering	4	Takeaway	9
Caravan/campsite	5	Van/kiosk	10
Retail	✓	Visitor Attraction	✓
Independent retailer	11	Free entry	14
Multiple retailer, part of local/ regional group	12	Chargeable ticket entry (please indicate your standard ticket prices for adult/ family):	
National multiple retailer	13	Adult: £..... Family: £.....	15
Transport	✓	Other services	✓
Private (state type, eg coach, car hire)	16	Leisure (state type, eg cinema, sports facility, etc)	18
Public (state type, eg bus, train)	17	Other business not listed (state type)	19

Section Two: How the farmers' and crafts market affects your business financially

In order to be able to calculate any change in normal business activity, we need a starting point. The following questions are designed to collect that information and are not for any other purpose.

1. Please provide an estimate of your average weekly or monthly sales (whichever figure is most convenient) in the space below:

£..... per week/month (delete as applicable)

2. Please provide an estimate of your average weekly or monthly footfall (whichever is most convenient) in the space below:

..... per week/month (delete as applicable)

The following questions relate to changes in normal business activity experienced during the week which includes the date of the farmers' and crafts market (11–17 May 2015)

3. Please give your best estimate of the percentage change to **normal sales** experienced **during the week which included** the farmers' and crafts market. Tick the most appropriate box from the options below:

Change to normal sales activity	✓	Change to normal sales activity	✓
Increase of more than double	1	Decrease of up to 24%	7
Increase of between 75%-100%	2	Decrease of between 25%-49%	8
Increase of between 50%-74%	3	Decrease of between 50%-74%	9
Increase of between 25%-49%	4	Decrease of between 75%-100%	10
Increase of up to 24%	5	Decrease of more than double	11
No change	6		

4. Please give your best estimate of the percentage change to **normal footfall** your business experienced **during the week which included** the farmers' and crafts market. Tick the most appropriate box from the options below:

Change to normal customer visits	✓	Change to normal customer visits	✓
Increase of more than double	1	Decrease of up to 24%	7
Increase of between 75%-100%	2	Decrease of between 25%-49%	8
Increase of between 50%-74%	3	Decrease of between 50%-74%	9
Increase of between 25%-49%	4	Decrease of between 75%-100%	10
Increase of up to 24%	5	Decrease of more than double	11
No change	6		

1. Is your business normally open on a Sunday?

tick the appropriate box

Yes ☐ 1 go to S3

No ☐ 2 go to Q2

2. If you answered 'no' above:

- a. Did you open on the day of the farmers' and crafts market?

tick the appropriate box

Yes ☐ 1

No ☐ 2

- b. Why was this?

.....

.....

.....

Section Three: Your views of the farmers' and crafts market

This section is an opportunity for you to express your views about how the farmers' and crafts market affects the town of Andover and what you like about it or would like to change.

1. What is your opinion of how the farmers' and crafts market affects Andover town centre?

.....

.....

.....

.....

2. What do you like about the farmers' and crafts market and why?

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

3. Is there anything about the farmers' and crafts market you would like to change? If so, what is it and why?

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

END OF SURVEY – THANK YOU

Please keep this survey in a safe place until it is collected by a representative from the University of Southampton or return it in the freepost envelope if provided. If you have any questions relating to this study, please contact **Elaine Rust** at the University of Southampton by email at elaine.rust@soton.ac.uk or by post to **Geography and Environment, University of Southampton, Highfield, Southampton, SO17 1BJ**.

Appendix D Non-attending Residents Survey

Geography and
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UNIVERSITY OF
Southampton

Research Ethics Number: 4361

Test Valley Events Impact Research –Non-attending Residents Survey

This survey is completed anonymously and all information collected will be used only for research purposes. No individual will be identified in any published results and you may withdraw at any time. Should you wish to enter the prize draw, your entry slip will be separated from the questionnaire on receipt to maintain your anonymity.

How to complete the questionnaire

Please try to answer all questions as accurately as possible. You are not obliged to answer any question you do not wish to, however, it would be preferable if you do not leave any questions unanswered.

Once you have completed the questionnaire, please return it to me in the Freepost envelope provided **no later than Tuesday 30 June 2015**.

If you are happy to proceed, please tick the box below to indicate you have read and understood the information above and contained in the attached letter, and that you agree for your data to be used for the purpose of this study. If you have any questions relating to this research, please feel free to contact me at any time using the email address at the bottom of this page.

*Tick the box
if you agree*

*I agree to take part in this study and have read and understood the information provided to me.
I understand my participation is voluntary and I may withdraw at any time.*

☐

Prize Draw

To thank you for completing this questionnaire, I am offering a draw for two people to win a £10 voucher each to spend at Thyme & Tides. If you would like to be entered into the draw, please provide your name and preferred contact details on the separate slip enclosed. Your draw entry will be separated upon receipt to maintain your anonymity. The winners will be drawn at random and contacted by 10 July 2015.

Thank you for your time and good luck in the prize draw!

If you have any questions relating to this study, please contact me using the details provided below:

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University of Southampton
Highfield
Southampton
SO17 1BJ
Email: elaine.rust@soton.ac.uk



May 2015
TA-RNA-Sv_V4
Page 1 of 4

Test Valley Events Impact Study – Non-attending residents survey: Trout 'n About, Stockbridge

Section One: Initial screening question

tick the appropriate box

Did you come to Trout 'n About (Stockbridge's annual food festival) in 2014?

Yes ☐ ₁

Date prompt: took place on Sunday 3 August 2014 along the High Street.

No ☐ ₂

If you answered 'yes' to the above question, please turn to page 4 and answer the questions in Section three. Once you have done this, please return the questionnaire in the Freepost envelope provided, no later than Tuesday 30 June 2015.

Section Two: Your reasons for not attending

We would like to find out more about why you did not go to Trout 'n About, so please try to cast your mind back to Sunday 3 August and answer the following questions to the best of your ability.

1. Please refer to the table below and, from the options provided, place a tick in the corresponding box for **all that apply to you**:

Reason for not attending	Tick if applicable	Reason for not attending	Tick if applicable
Was not aware of the event	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁	Was at work	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂
Chose to avoid the event*	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	Went shopping elsewhere*	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄
Involved in leisure activity*	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅	Event is not of interest to me*	<input type="checkbox"/> ₆
Went to a different event on the same day (3 August)*	<input type="checkbox"/> ₇	Went to a different event on a different day*	<input type="checkbox"/> ₈
Was away on holiday	<input type="checkbox"/> ₉	Other*	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁₀

**** if you selected any of the boxes marked with an asterisk, please provide further information about why you did not come to Trout 'n About and what you did instead. Space is provided below. Continue on a separate sheet if necessary:***

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

2. Have you ever been to Trout 'n About in the past? *Please tick the appropriate box below:*

Yes ☐ ₁ *go to Q3*No ☐ ₂ *go to Q6*Unsure ☐ ₃ *go to Q6*

3. How many times have you been to Trout 'n About in the past? *Please select **one** from the following options:*

Once

Between 2-4 times

☐ ₁

Between 5-7 times

☐ ₂

Unsure

☐ ₃☐ ₄***Trout 'n About began in 2008***

4. When did you last come to Trout 'n About? *Please select **one** from the following options:*

Year before last (2013)

3 or 4 years ago (2011-2012)

☐ ₁☐ ₂

More than 4 years ago (2008-2010)

Unsure

☐ ₃☐ ₄

5. If you have been before could you tell me a little more about what you like about Trout 'n About?

.....

.....

.....

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.....

.....

6. Whether you have or have not been in the past, what, if anything, do you dislike about Trout 'n About?

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.....

Section Three: About you

The following questions will help us to understand whether we have obtained the views of a cross-section of residents, which helps the overall validity of the research.

1. What is your postcode sector? This is the first half and subsequent number of your postcode in the following format: SOXX X, for example SO20 6.

Please enter your postcode sector in the boxes provided:

2. Are you male or female? Please tick the appropriate box below:

Male ☐

Female ☐

3. Which of the following age categories applies to you? Please tick the appropriate box below:

18-33 ☐

34-49 ☐

50-64 ☐

65+ ☐

4. What is your occupation? Please tick the box below that best describes your main occupation. If none of the options is appropriate, please write your occupation in the space provided below:

Occupation	Tick if applicable	Occupation	Tick if applicable
Managers and senior officials	<input type="checkbox"/>	Professional occupations	<input type="checkbox"/>
Middle management	<input type="checkbox"/>	Junior management	<input type="checkbox"/>
Skilled trades occupations	<input type="checkbox"/>	Administrative and secretarial occupations	<input type="checkbox"/>
Unskilled occupations	<input type="checkbox"/>	Armed forces	<input type="checkbox"/>
Student	<input type="checkbox"/>	Never worked or long-term unemployed	<input type="checkbox"/>
Retired	<input type="checkbox"/>	Prefer not to say	<input type="checkbox"/>

5. What is your highest level of education? Please tick the box below that best describes your highest level of education:

Highest level of education	Tick one box
Degree/Higher Degree/ HND/NVQ Level 4/Scottish equivalent	<input type="checkbox"/>
2+ A levels/advanced GNVQ/NVQ Level 3/Scottish equivalent	<input type="checkbox"/>
5+ GCSEs (A-C)/intermediate GNVQ/NVQ Level 2/Scottish equivalent	<input type="checkbox"/>
<5 GCSEs (A-C)/foundation GNVQ/NVQ Level 1/Scottish equivalent	<input type="checkbox"/>
No formal qualification	<input type="checkbox"/>
Prefer not to say	<input type="checkbox"/>

END OF SURVEY – THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME

Please return this questionnaire, along with your draw entry, in the Freepost envelope provided **no later than Tuesday 30 June**. Your draw entry will be separated upon receipt to maintain your anonymity.

Appendix E Semi-structured interview schedule

- Thank you for agreeing to this interview. Explain the aims of the research and how this interview contributes.
- Offer the information sheet: has it been read and understood? Ask the interviewee to tick/initial in the appropriate box.
- **LISTEN** – do not lead interviewee

Thank you.

- Ask for permission to record the interview. Explain that the recording will be transcribed and then deleted.

Introduction to the interview

I am going to ask questions relating to your views how of the [Beggars Fair/Trout 'n About/craft market] affects [Romsey/Stockbridge/Andover].

- Ask about the organisation and the interviewee's role/responsibilities
- In your view, does the [name of event] result in economic benefits for [name of town]? If so, what do you think they are?
- Do you think there are any negative outcomes for [name of town] resulting from [name of event]?
- What you like about the [name of event]?
- Is there anything you don't like?
- Why you [stakeholder] support the [name of event]?
- What support do you [stakeholder] give (looking for financial or other 'in kind' support)?
- How long/When did you first become involved with the [name of event]?
- What is/was your role at the event?
- Anything else not covered that may be relevant?

Appendix F Summary of EIA Models

F.1 Cost-Benefit Analysis (CBA)

Although it has been suggested that CBA is not technically a model for EIA (Veal, 2010, p319), others would maintain that it is a useful tool for evaluating economic impact of public sector-led projects (Burgan and Mules, 2001).

Tyrrell and Johnston (2006, p3) argue that whilst CBA and EIA are 'methodologically and conceptually distinct', the two are often confused. It is for these reasons CBA is included in this review.

CBA is used mainly at the planning stage of a project to justify the required investment. All costs of a project are identified, whether monetary (economic) or social, and balanced against perceived benefits (Tribe, 2005, p239). CBA goes beyond financial analysis to include immeasurable, quality of life costs and benefits. These might include negative costs, such as increased traffic congestion, or positive, such as an improvement in quality of life as a result of renovation of a recreation ground. CBA is concerned with the overall viability of a project including these unquantifiable costs and benefits (Veal, 2010, p339). Broadly speaking, CBA is used in the public sector to justify many public projects (Burgan and Mules, 2001). At its simplest level, it is an analysis of whether predicted project outputs will be greater than project costs.

F.2 Economic Base

As far as LED policy is concerned, the economic base model is arguably the most widely used model, yet also the most problematic (Isserman, 1977). The structure of the model is based on two industry sectors in a given region: 'basic' and 'non-basic'. Examples of the former would be manufacturing, agriculture or natural resource industries and services or government activity would be examples of the latter (Loveridge, 2004). A ratio is calculated based on the economic activity of the region under examination in relation to a comparison, which could be a neighbouring or national economy. Once calculated, the local economic activity is multiplied by the ratio to provide the impact assessment (Isserman, 1977).

This model is very simplistic in structure and as a result is open to much criticism. Some of the major issues are that the multipliers produced by the

model can be unrealistic, which leads to a low level of accuracy, there is an inherent assumption that the ratio outlined above is fixed and the model is susceptible to manipulation (Loveridge, 2004).

Although laden with many disadvantages, the economic base model benefits from its simplicity; for policymakers on a budget or very short time frame, this model offers a rapid and low-cost option. It is especially suitable for projects within industries classified as 'basic' and does not require the use of special software or datasets (Loveridge, 2004).

F.3 Input-Output (I-O)

In terms of EIA analysis, the next level of complexity is I-O (Loveridge, 2004). Although this method can be used for regional analysis, it was initially developed for use at the national level (Loveridge, 2004) and is the most commonly used model (Daniels *et al*, 2004; Della Lucia, 2013). Indeed, many of the models discussed later in this section originate from the I-O model. (Dwyer *et al*, 2005) and Riddington *et al* (2006) suggest it is the best method available for calculating economic impact at a local level, as it is inexpensive and uncomplicated in design. Additionally, following a detailed review of EIA models in relation to economic impact of the European Capitals of Culture programme, Phythian-Adams *et al* (2008) recommend this method.

As mentioned earlier, I-O was initially developed for use on a national scale, which means that national indicators need to be scaled down if the model is being used at regional or local level. These indicators can be obtained from data already in existence, for example from the Annual Business Inquiry collated by the Office for National Statistics (Gibson *et al*, 2005). Scaling down national indicators to fit regional requirements is the cause of much criticism, since assumptions are made in the scaling down process that can lead to EIA analyses that are wildly inaccurate. Local business surveys may be undertaken to obtain location-specific data, although these can be time-consuming and costly (Loveridge, 2004), however, the advantage of this activity is that more accurate can be produced.

The I-O approach enables analysis to be undertaken within a geographical location of how one industry sector impacts upon another, or is impacted on by others. It is also able to account for leakage out of the economy (Fletcher, 1989). In this way, a detailed 'snapshot' of the I-O linkages that exist in the

area can be constructed (Armstrong and Taylor, 2005, p35). A transactions table is constructed which illustrates the interdependencies in the form of coefficients that represent output, income and employment. The most recent set of national tables produced by the ONS was published in 2011 containing 2005 data. Since the matrix is approximately 130 rows by 130 columns, it is not possible to reproduce it here. It can, however, be obtained from the ONS (ONS, 2011a). The ONS does not produce regional I-O tables. By way of illustration, a basic I-O table produced by Fletcher (1989, p522) is reproduced in Table F.1 below:

Table F.1: Basic input-output table *in* Fletcher (1989, p522)

		Intermediate Demand						Final Demand of Goods & Services				
Sales to Purchases From	Productive sectors						Final demand sectors					
	Industry											
	1	2	3			m	H	I	G	E		
Industry 1	X ₁₁	X ₁₂	X ₁₃	.	.	.	X _{1m}	C ₁	I ₁	G ₁	E ₁	X ₁
Industry 2	X ₂₁	X ₂₂	X ₂₃	.	.	.	X _{2m}	C ₂	I ₂	G ₂	E ₂	X ₂
Industry 3	X ₃₁	X ₃₂	X ₃₃	.	.	.	X _{3m}	C ₃	I ₃	G ₃	E ₃	X ₃
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.
Industry m	X _{m1}	X _{m2}	X _{m3}	.	.	.	X _{mm}	C _m	I _m	G _m	E _m	X _m
Wages & salaries	W ₁	W ₂	W ₃	.	.	.	W _m	W _C	W _I	W _G	W _E	W
Profits & dividends	P ₁	P ₂	P ₃	.	.	.	P _m	P _C	P _I	P _G	P _E	P
Taxes	T ₁	T ₂	T ₃	.	.	.	T _m	T _C	T _I	T _G	T _E	T
Imports	M ₁	M ₂	M ₃	.	.	.	M _m	M _C	M _I	M _G	M _E	M
Total Inputs (purchases)	X ₁	X ₂	X ₃	.	.	.	X _m	C	I	G	E	X

Where X = Output
 C = consumption (households)
 I = investment (private)
 G = government expenditure
 E = exports
 M = imports
 W = wages & salaries
 P = profits & dividends
 T = taxes

FINAL DEMAND SECTORS
 H = household consumption sector
 I = investment expenditure sector
 G = government expenditure sector
 E = exports sectors

Use of the I-O model enables calculation of additional rounds of economic activity within the area under investigation beyond the initial direct effects. These subsequent rounds produce the indirect and induced effects (Webber *et al*, 2010, p9). I-O models can be adapted to incorporate inter-regional activity (Loveridge, 2004), which could be beneficial for a local authority that is

conducting a comparative exercise between different areas within its boundaries.

I-O tables can be used to calculate multipliers for output, income and employment. In other words, the likely effect of additional economic activity in one sector on all other sectors included in the matrix, in terms of output (additional production), income and employment.

I-O modelling does not allow for the inclusion of a timescale, so any outputs are assumed constant. This is clearly problematic if the EIA is being conducted on a time-limited project, such as a festival or event; additional economic activity is likely to be for a limited time span (Dwyer *et al*, 2005). Additionally, the model cannot account for slack in the economy, instead assuming that additional employment is manifested as permanent jobs. Again, in the case of short term activity, the additional employment may be covered by underemployed staff and will be for a specified time period (Loveridge, 2004). I-O analysis is not capable of accounting for switching of demand, whether temporary or long term, instead it assumes increased demand (Dwyer *et al*, 2005). I-O models assume the impact is always positive (Dwyer *et al*, 2006) and there are problems with some standard industry classifications that are not specific to the service industry for example (Bonn and Harrington, 2008). All of these issues combined often lead to over-estimations of economic impact. Indeed, where some post-project evaluations have been carried out, actual impacts were found to be considerably less than pre-project predictions (Dwyer *et al*, 2005).

F.4 Capacity Utilisation Model (CUM)

This model was developed in the 1990s specifically to measure the economic impacts of tourism in the State of Florida, USA. Hotel industry data is used as a baseline, comparing historical and actual occupancy rates with national levels. The model includes aggregated information relating to length of stay, number in party, proportion staying in hotels and other types of accommodation in comparison with those visiting friends and relatives (Bonn and Harrington, 2008).

Bonn and Harrington (2008) recommend the use of CUM for evaluating unticketed or open events. Ordinarily it is very difficult to measure numbers at this type of event with any accuracy, since without ticket sales or barrier entry

counts an estimate of visitor numbers is usually provided for evaluation purposes. Another benefit of CUM is that it does not require expensive computer software (Bonn and Harrington, 2008). Sun (2007) suggests that the use of CUM is more suitable for use in EIA of the tourism sector than I-O, since I-O analysis assumes constant behaviour between industry sectors. Economic activity in the tourism sector, on the other hand, fluctuates throughout the year. Events and festivals can be said to follow a similar pattern, since they are time-limited and may only occur once a year, or at even less regular intervals.

CUM is similar to I-O in that it makes use of regional multipliers, which may not be updated regularly, leading to potentially misleading impact assessments. Additionally, CUM is unable to measure induced impacts and cannot separate direct from indirect impacts. (Bonn and Harrington, 2008). Both are important factors to consider when compiling EIA.

F.5 Social Accounting Matrix (SAM)

SAM is another model based on the same set of assumptions as I-O but it places more attention on the distributional aspects of the economic activity being modelled (Loveridge, 2004). SAM is able to account for a number of economic factors, including goods, services and income of all stakeholders involved in a specific activity over a limited period of time (Rivera *et al*, 2008). It includes value-added transactions and is usually associated with analysis of large regional or national economies (Wagner, 1997).

The benefit of using a SAM model lies in the methodology; as mentioned above, it incorporates realistic linkages between different economic sectors within a given region. SAM can calculate regional economic multipliers that will provide estimates of the impacts of a particular sector on production, income distribution and demand (Wagner, 1997).

Problems associated with SAM models are similar to those arising from I-O models; SAM uses fixed proportion production functions, does not allow for time scales or time-limited activity and excludes supply and demand factors. In addition, original data is required and if the model is not adjusted for a specific case, internal inconsistencies leading to double-counting may occur (Loveridge, 2004).

For further information regarding the construct of a SAM, see Rivera *et al* (2008), who used this model in their evaluation of a cultural festival in Florida, USA.

F.6 Regional Economic Models Inc (REMI)

The REMI model was developed during the 1980s in the US and, although it incorporates inter-industry activity, is not strictly an I-O model (Rickman and Schwer, 1995; Bonn and Harrington, 2008). In fact, the former authors suggest ‘it may better be described as an eclectic model that links an input-output model to an econometric model’ (Rickman and Schwer, 1995, p365). Sharing similarities with the computable general equilibrium model (discussed next in this chapter), REMI is a complex model comprising many equations that describe the cause-and-effect relationships existing in the economy (Bonn and Harrington, 2008). REMI can provide outputs down to city level scale and can simulate both long- and short-term impacts (Bonn and Harrington, 2008). The model is based on a 53-sector input-output matrix, which is integrated into a supplementary system of equations that feed back into the I-O model (Loveridge, 2004).

Whilst REMI is able to provide quite detailed analyses which can be area or region-specific, it is expensive to obtain and does not allow customisation (Bonn and Harrington, 2008). As with the standard I-O model, REMI relies on fixed input proportions in estimates of production. Unlike I-O, however, it can allow for comparisons between different years (Loveridge, 2004).

Greater detail about how the REMI is constructed can be found at Rickman and Schwer (1995) who compare multipliers produced by this model with two others (IMPLAN, discussed later in this chapter, and RIMS II, not included in this study) and Bonn and Harrington (2008), who compare REMI with two other economic impact models (IMPLAN and CUM).

F.7 Computable General Equilibrium (CGE)

Developed in response to problems and inaccuracies associated with the standard I-O model and its derivatives (Loveridge, 2004), CGE was first used in national and international contexts then adapted for regional use (Partridge and Rickman, 2008). The aim of this model, similar to the I-O model, is to calculate multipliers that can be used to determine the direct, indirect and

induced effects of a specified economic activity (Webber *et al*, 2010, p9). Early models were static, however, more recently the ability to include time scale has been added.

More usually associated with broad macro-economic policy analysis (Dwyer *et al*, 2006), CGE can be used for multi-regional analysis. This can be beneficial when the area under investigation is small, for example an urban area within a larger region (Partridge and Rickman, 2008). In this way, inter-regional interdependencies can be modelled.

In regional CGE modelling systems, the number of industry sectors is usually more constrained than in regional I-O modelling, owing to lack of sufficient data. In addition, some of the econometric parameters are often taken from national level studies as they are not available at regional level (Loveridge, 2004).

Whilst CGE models have become more widely used for regional policy analysis, they are still not favoured over the standard I-O model (Partridge and Rickman, 2008). The model's complexity and corresponding cost are the major criticisms. Additionally, the CGE model contains more equations than free variables and requires numerous assumptions to be fed into it, which can lead to multiple outcomes from the same inputs (Loveridge, 2004).

F.8 Impact Analysis for Planning (IMPLAN)

IMPLAN was developed during the 1990s in collaboration with the US Forest Land Use Planning Unit in Colorado (Bonn and Harrington, 2008) and is a computer program based on and utilising the same methodology as I-O analysis (Tyrrell and Johnston, 2006). Consequently, it can measure direct, indirect and induced effects of change in multi-sector economies (Chhabra *et al*, 2003). IMPLAN is able to produce three outputs, representing sales, personal income and employment (Crompton *et al*, 2001).

In order to produce accurate results, the IMPLAN model needs to be customised to include regional data for the geographical location under evaluation. Should these modifications not be entered in an exact manner, the resulting assessment may be distorted in some way (Bonn and Harrington, 2008). IMPLAN models data over a one-year period, however, these dates can be adjusted to allow for short-term activity (Bonn and Harrington, 2008).

IMPLAN has been used to evaluate the economic impact of the Albuquerque International Balloon Fiesta in 1995 (Yu and Turco, 2000). The decision to make use of the model in this particular case was based on the existence of IMPLAN data at the appropriate regional level.

F.9 DREAM Impact

The detailed regional economic accounting model, or DREAM (Gibson *et al*, 2005) was created to address the problems of inaccuracy associated with scaling down national or regional indicators to local levels and makes use of UK local authority areas (Gibson *et al*, 2005). The model seeks to apply appropriate local multipliers rather than to scale down national multipliers that may produce overestimates at local level. DREAM uses data from the 123-industry sector classification down to the NUTS¹ 3 level in England and Wales (county/unitary authority level).

A full explanation of the methodology used in the DREAM model can be found at Riddington *et al* (2006), who conducted a comparison exercise between DREAM and a standard I-O model. It was the conclusion of these authors that the DREAM model produced more credible results than the standard, scaled down national I-O tables.

¹ Nomenclature of Units for Territorial Statistics (Office for National Statistics, n.d.)

F.10 Table summarising characteristics of Economic Impact Assessment Models

EIA Model	Methodology	No of Sectors	Complexity	Costs	Strengths	Weaknesses	Examples
CBA	assesses all impacts, whether economic, social or cultural		complex		accounts for all impacts, whether economic, social or cultural/positive or negative	not an agreed method of EIA	
EB	based on basic and non-basic regional industry indicators	2	simple	low	availability of regional data, speed of results, low cost, simplicity, no need for specialist software or datasets. Can include location quotients to adjust ratio between sectors	fixed proportions between sectors, manipulation possible, multipliers can be over-estimated, low accuracy of results, static analysis (no time dimension)	best for small scale projects that do not require accurate results. Most used model
I-O	based on regional industry indicators	Many	Simple	low	speed of results, low cost, simplicity, ability to use standardised regional datasets, detailed industry sector breakdown, less open to manipulation than other models. Simple adjustment allows for inter-regional analysis	fixed proportions between sectors, no time dimension, no inclusion of supply and demand so susceptibility to overestimation of multipliers, verification of data required when scaling down national to regional level. Adjustment increases cost of model, scaling down of national data leads to local inaccuracies, no allowance for extra capacity in regional production, fixed coefficients suitable for marginal changes in outputs only. Outputs	Same as EB. Widely used for a variety of projects, across all industry sectors

EIA Model	Methodology	No of Sectors	Complexity	Costs	Strengths	Weaknesses	Examples
						based on price, no allowance made for production quantities. Excludes distribution effect across income segments. Unable to account for supply-induced displacement of economic activity	
CUM	based on I-O model	many	moderate	low	useful for estimating numbers attending unticketed events	does not provide induced impact assessment, amalgamates direct and indirect impacts, static time frame	specific to tourism sector
SAM	extension of I-O model	fewer than I-O	moderate	moderate	more accurate results than EB or I-O	same as I-O, use of additional data increases cost. Adjustment needed to address internal inconsistencies owing to multiple counting of transactions. Assumes equal distribution across industry sectors	widely used for a variety of projects. Used to explain economic development rather than economic growth
REMI	Form of IE+I-O	many	high	high	highly accurate, dynamic time frame, can simulate short-term or long-term impacts. Can model down to city-level.	cost and complexity	wide variety of projects
CGE	based on I-O model	2-30 (usually less than 10)	high	high	accounts for short term supply constraints and long-term adjustment responses, more realistic assumptions and highly flexible, many variables,	low sector detail, unobserved values at regional level - some data taken from national level so inaccuracies at regional level. Difficult to explain path of change owing	regional economic policy analysis: hazardous waste management, tariff protection, labour market

EIA Model	Methodology	No of Sectors	Complexity	Costs	Strengths	Weaknesses	Examples
					effective for substantial shocks. Can include multi-regional analysis. Incorporates changes to taxation revenues	to complexity of model. Multiple outputs possible	deregulation, technological change, public infrastructure
IMPLAN	based on I-O model		moderate	moderate	higher level of accuracy than standard I-O. Timescale can be adjusted.	tendency to overestimate regional purchase coefficients, static time frame	festivals
DREAM	based on a gravity model, uses 123 industry sector information down to NUTS 3 level	123	moderate	unknown	does not use scaled down national data but is not a tailor-made model. Uses data available from ONS	has not been widely used apart from in research undertaken by model developers	variety of sporting events

(Sources: Yu and Turco, 2000; Daniels *et al*, 2004; Loveridge, 2004; Dwyer *et al*, 2005; Gibson *et al*, 2005; Riddington *et al*, 2006; Bonn and Harrington, 2008; Partridge and Rickman, 2008; Della Lucia, 2013)

Appendix G Ethics Approval

From: [ERGO](#)
To: [Rust E.L.](#)
Subject: Your Ethics Submission (Ethics ID:4361) has been reviewed and approved
Date: 28 February 2013 14:37:37

Submission Number: 4361

Submission Name: Economic Impact of Festivals and Events

This is email is to let you know your submission was approved by the Ethics Committee.

Comments

1.It seems to me OK. Good luck!

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To: [Rust E.L.](#)
Subject: ERGO extension request approved (Ethics ID:4361)
Date: 24 January 2014 14:54:20

Submission Name : Economic Impact of Festivals and Events

Submission ID : 4361

This email is to let you know that the extension request to your research has been approved

If this is a student project, please note that this extension relates to the research itself, but does NOT alter deadlines for submission of your dissertation or thesis. Separate arrangements are in place to request an extension for submission of the dissertation and these can be found in your Handbook or by asking your supervisor.

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From: [ERGO](#)
To: [Rust E.L.](#)
Subject: ERGO extension request approved (Ethics ID:4361)
Date: 30 September 2015 13:29:30

Submission Name : Economic Impact of Festivals and Events|

Submission ID : 4361

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