The Governance of Canadian Domestic Multi-Sport Events: A Focus on Stakeholder
Coordination and Knowledge Management

Jessica Lin Schenk

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the requirements for the Master of Arts degree in Sport Management

The School of Human Kinetics
Faculty of Health Sciences
University of Ottawa

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ABSTRACT

This dissertation’s purpose was to explore the governance of two domestic multi-sport events—2012 Ontario Summer Games and 2013 Canada Games—regarding how stakeholder coordination and knowledge management occurred. Case studies were built using content and social network analyses of 27 interviews and 476 document pages.

In both events, the organizing committee staff and sport organizations were the most salient stakeholders, being therefore seen as the focal actors within the event network regarding coordination, initiating communication, building trust, and improving relationships. For the provincial event specifically, findings suggested the organizing committee should exist within an enduring organization in order to maximize resources (e.g., financial, human, etc.), build long-term coordination mechanisms, and enhance knowledge management capacities.

Knowledge transfer appeared to occur at both levels, to varying degrees of sophistication. The knowledge management processes at each event stressed the importance of people and of tacit knowledge. Implications for researchers and managers provided.
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<tr>
<td>Ath-del</td>
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<td>Local Business-Community</td>
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<td>Staff-Organizing Committee</td>
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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

The successful implementation of a major sport event is dependent upon a wide array of interconnecting elements, such as the bid, marketing and sponsorship, infrastructure, communications, legacy, sustainability, and knowledge management (e.g., Byers, Slack, & Parent, 2012; Girginov & Hills, 2009; Irwin, Lachowetz, Cornwel, & Clark, 2003; Kang & Stotlar, 2011; Leopkey & Parent, 2012; Lienhard & Preuss, 2014; MacIntosh, Nadeau, Séguin, O’Reilly, Bradish, & Legg, 2012; O’Reilly & Séguin, 2009; Parent, MacDonald, & Goulet, 2014; Séguin, Parent, & O’Reilly, 2010; Wicker, Breuer, & Pawlowski, 2009; Xing et al., 2008). It is the responsibility of the event’s organizing committee to be aware and in control of these elements where possible (Parent, 2008; Parent & Séguin, 2008). Furthermore, effectively organizing a sport event requires the coordination of a multitude of stakeholders, which include the community, the government, sport organizations, sponsors, media, and delegations (Parent, 2008). Each stakeholder has their own interests and expectations in terms of their participation in the event (Parent, 2008). Therefore, the organizing committee must also manage the needs and concerns of these various stakeholders. Since the various stakeholders communicate not only with the organizing committee, but also with each other, a complex network of stakeholder relationships is created that the event’s organizing committee has to manage (Parent & Smith-Swan, 2013). These relationships—the stakeholders' relationship with the organizing committee and with each other—can be categorized as stakeholder coordination. Essentially, the organizing committee can be perceived as being the conductor of the stakeholder orchestra. Ultimately, the operational and overall governance (e.g., planning, coordinating stakeholders, managing interests, implementing the Games, see Parent, 2008, 2013) of these sport events is in their
hands. Yet, current literature has not examined these aspects. By examining these aspects, we can learn more about how events are run and provide recommendations for effective and efficient event governance.

Present sport management literature seems to favour research regarding major (international, global, mega) sport events over smaller events (e.g., Burton, O’Reilly, & Séguin, 2012; Ellis, Scassa, & Séguin, 2011; Fourie & Santana-Gallego, 2011; Frawley & Adair, 2013; MacIntosh & Nichol, 2012; Parent et al., 2014; Parent & MacIntosh, 2013; Parent & Smith-Swan, 2013; Preuss, 2007; Preuss & Alfs, 2011; Preuss, Séguin, & O’Reilly, 2007; Toohey & Taylor, 2008; Xing & Chalip, 2012); however, there has been relatively little focus on the governance of sport events at the domestic level (i.e., national, provincial). This is a noteworthy omission from the literature considering more regions/cities are able to host these smaller events and thus, they are more prevalent than their mega event counterparts. Moreover, while previous sport event research explicates the basic needs of the various stakeholders independently, there is minimal research that provides a good understanding of their relationships amongst one another. That is, little attention has been directed to how exactly stakeholders coordinate (if at all) (an exception being Parent, Rouillard, & Leopkey, 2011), and no research to my knowledge has been done on how stakeholders coordinate at lower level sport events (i.e., national, provincial). This gap in the extant literature is not completely surprising as the sport event management literature is still relatively new and the number of associated stakeholders of sports events has recently risen (Crompton, 2004). I argue that studying these stakeholder networks is important for all types of events as they have an effect on the overall effectiveness and success of the events, whether major or minor sports events.
One way of examining stakeholder networks is through the use of network analysis. This method of analysis in a sport event context has many purposes. Simply put, networks are a way to observe a social system, with a focus on the relationships between the entities that make up the network (Borgatti, Everett, & Johnson, 2013). Further, network analysis is a way to look at structure and position, thereby helping the researcher determine the influence certain stakeholders hold over the network at various sport events. Thus, network theory facilitates a greater understanding—beyond simple dyadic ties—of each stakeholder group and the network they exist in. This deeper understanding of the network will help to uncover efficiencies, redundancies, as well as best and worst practices of the organizing committee and their associated stakeholders.

With that said, another major concern of governing a successful sport event is the need to learn from the past in order to (a) determine what worked well and (b) not repeat previous mistakes (i.e., knowledge management and transfer process) (Parent & Smith-Swan, 2013). One key resource exchanged within networks is knowledge (cf. Buchel & Raub, 2002; Dyer & Nobeoka, 2000; Gonzalez, Martins, & Toledo, 2014; Hansen, 2002; Kogut, 2000). It is therefore important to determine how knowledge is used and transferred amongst event stakeholders responsible for the organization and implementation of mega, major as well as domestic sport events. Hence, first we must understand how stakeholder coordination occurs, then examine the knowledge management processes at play within the network. To understand the use and value of knowledge in sport events, it is necessary to describe knowledge and how it is interpreted in the context of this study.

The value of understanding knowledge and knowledge management activities can be seen in the expanding knowledge management literature. In a review of the 20 top knowledge
management articles, Nonaka and Peltokorpi (2006) emphasized the increasing attention
to knowledge management has garnered in the management literature from both academics and
practitioners. While Tsoukas and Vladimirou (2001) admitted that “knowledge is indeed a tricky
concept” (p. 975), there is considerable consensus that knowledge is treated as a significant
organizational resource as it can provide an organization with a sustainable competitive
advantage (e.g., Alavi & Leidner, 2001; Argote, 2013; Argote & Ingram, 2000; Davenport &

The literature shows both knowledge and knowledge management are complex and
multi-faceted concepts (Alavi & Leidner, 2001; Leidner, Alavi, & Kayworth, 2006), and thus can
be interpreted in several ways (cf. Alavi & Leidner, 2001; Grover & Davenport, 2001; Nonaka &
Peltokorpi, 2006). Much of the existing literature addresses knowledge as a concept relative to
information and data (e.g., Davenport & Prusak, 1998; Nonaka, 1994; Van Der Velden, 2002),
where common elements of knowledge include the context and application of information. In
other words, as Ferguson and Cummings (2008) outlined, “knowledge gains value and
information gains meaning through the way in which people use it” (p. 77). Similarly, a widely
used understanding of knowledge is that of Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) who suggested:
“Information is a flow of messages, while knowledge is created by that very flow of information,
anchored in the beliefs and commitment of its holder” (p. 58). For this study, the adopted
definition of knowledge is based on the work of Alavi and Leidner (2001) who described
knowledge as “information possessed in the mind of individuals: it is personalized information
(which may or may not be new, unique, useful, or accurate) related to facts, procedures,
concepts, interpretations, ideas, observations, and judgments” (p. 109). Knowledge is viewed as
context-specific, relational, dynamic, and humanistic (Nonaka, Toyama, & Nagata, 2000).
Different from data and information, knowledge is about beliefs, perspectives, intention, and action (Nonaka, 1994). Halbwirth and Toohey (2001) insisted that an organization must ensure that it’s ‘data’ becomes ‘information’ and then ‘knowledge’, as if these concepts are on a continuum. Knowledge accumulates within individuals and is oftentimes only shared if the individual is willing to do so (Beesley & Chalip, 2011); this brings up the concept of knowledge transfer.

A key process of knowledge management is knowledge transfer, which is of specific interest for this study. According to Wang and Noe (2010), knowledge transfer “involves both the sharing of knowledge by the knowledge source and the acquisition and application of knowledge by the recipient” (p. 117). Generally, knowledge transfer is discussed as the movement of knowledge between different individuals, departments or organizations.

The extant sport event literature has yet to acknowledge how (if at all) stakeholders transfer knowledge amongst the network, as well as how knowledge is transferred to subsequent or different events, one exception being Parent and colleagues (2014). This dearth of research is surprising given the benefits that a knowledge management system could bring to organizing committees and their stakeholders. Do stakeholders start from scratch for each edition of an event or between events? Do they continuously reinvent the wheel or are there processes in place to aid in the organization and implementation of these events? This study answers the call made by several scholars to examine knowledge management principles within an event setting (e.g., Byers et al., 2012; Frawley & Toohey, 2009; Getz, 2007; Halbwirth & Toohey, 2001; Parent & Smith-Swan, 2013; Toohey & Halbwirth, 2005). Parent and Smith-Swan (2013) made it clear that much remains to be examined regarding knowledge management and the overall process for different types of major sport events. There is a need to uncover best practices, experiences,
areas for improvement, and ultimately, determine if knowledge transfer principles are being utilized and if they are helpful for delivering a successful sport event at the provincial and national levels.

**Purpose and Significance**

Thus, the purpose of this dissertation was to explore the governance of domestic Canadian sport events (i.e., Ontario Summer Games and Canada Games), in terms of how stakeholders coordinate and transfer knowledge. The specific research questions addressed in this study are twofold: 1) how does stakeholder coordination occur at each domestic level (i.e., provincial and national); and 2) how do knowledge management and transfer occur at each domestic level?

Accordingly, this dissertation contributes to both the event management and the sport management literatures. Through this research, it was discovered that the stakeholder networks at the domestic events were fairly similar and use multiple types of ties to coordinate their activities in domestic multi-sport events. Another contribution refers to which organizations should host domestic events. Domestic events, especially provincial events according to this dissertation, should consider the use of existing organizations to form the core of the organizing committee in order to optimize the success of the current and future events. Next, although only the Canada Games had a formal knowledge management program in place while the Ontario Summer Games did not, knowledge transfer appeared to occur at both event levels. Finally, one key finding that needs highlighting is the importance of people as a knowledge source (storage mechanism) and a means of transfer (knowledge transfer). This dissertation elaborates on existing knowledge pertaining to sport event organizing committees and their stakeholders by offering information that is applicable to various levels of events, and not just major international
sport events. Additionally, the findings can assist Canadian policy makers at the provincial and federal levels in their event-related decision-making and so they can maximize the efficiency and effectiveness of their activities.

**Overview of Dissertation**

In order to answer the research questions, first a literature review (chapter 2) examining the sport, event, and knowledge management literatures is provided. In addition, the theoretical framework composed of stakeholder theory and network theory is briefly described. The methodology (chapter 3) is then explained where the context of each case study used for this research, as well as data collection and analysis techniques are outlined. The first set of results (chapter 4) pertains to research question 1 on stakeholder network coordination. The second set of results on knowledge management and transfer is presented in chapter 5. Findings for each research question are discussed separately in chapter 6 and then together in terms of event governance. Chapter 6 concludes with contributions, limitations and future directions emanating from the findings.
CHAPTER 2

Review of Literature and Theoretical Framework

The extant sport event management literature is first discussed, followed by an overview of knowledge management and stakeholder coordination. The theoretical framework (i.e., stakeholder theory and network theory) is then outlined to demonstrate how it helped guide data collection and analysis.

Sport Event Management

In modern society, sport events are generally regarded as positive occurrences (Chalip, 2006). Indeed, the benefits of hosting a mega sport event have been discussed at great lengths in the sport management literature (e.g., Leopkey & Parent, 2012; Misener & Mason, 2006; Preuss, 2005; Solberg & Preuss, 2007; Turner & Westerbeek, 2004; Westerbeek, Turner, & Ingerson, 2002). Byers and colleagues (2012) corroborated that “mega sporting events have become a popular vehicle for obtaining political, cultural, and economic benefits for the hosting region” (p. 102). The extant sport event literature documents a variety of topics: managing and marketing sport events (e.g., Funk, 2008; Shank & Lyberger, 2014), motivation for hosting sport events (e.g., Hinch & Higham, 2011), the bid process (e.g., Hautbois, Parent, & Séguin, 2012), potential economic and social gain (e.g., Gratton, Shibli, & Coleman, 2006; Maennig & Zimbalist, 2012; Misener & Mason, 2006), event leveraging (Beesley & Chalip, 2011; O’Brien, 2006), effects on destination brand (e.g., Xing & Chalip, 2006), sport tourism (e.g., Higham & Hinch, 2006; Ritchie & Adair, 2004), sponsorship (e.g., O’Reilly, Séguin, & Pegoraro, 2008), and community development (e.g., Misener & Mason, 2010), just to name a few. Although the amount of research on sport events has increased in the past two decades, it is likely fair to say that the sport event management field is still young.
Sport events can be categorized based on several different elements, including size, scope, and scale, single-sport versus multi-sport, recurring versus one-off, etc. Further, events vary immensely in terms of their context, complexity, and number of stakeholders involved. Funk (2008) classified sports events as mega, hallmark, major, and local. According to Funk (2008), a mega sport event targets the international tourism market; furthermore, attendance size, target market, public financial involvement, political outcomes, media coverage, facilities, economic and social impact are enormous (e.g., Olympic Games, FIFA World Cup). Next, Funk explained that hallmark events are associated with a specific place or location (e.g., Wimbledon, Tour de France, Masters Golf tournament); while major events are not location specific, but provide significant economic benefits, media coverage, and high attendance (e.g., Rugby World Cup, NFL Super Bowl). On the other hand, Funk (2008) described domestic events to be more regionally based and as not meeting the criteria of mega, hallmark, and major events (e.g., Triathlon Series, Premier League match). Higham (1999) also included domestic events in his list of small scale-sports events, including “regular season sporting competitions (ice hockey, basketball, soccer, rugby leagues), international sporting fixtures, domestic competitions, Masters or disabled sports, and the like” (p. 87). Higham (1999) suggested that small-scale sport events may actually garner more positive results for host communities.

Although lower-level and domestic events have not typically been a major research interest in the sport event literature, there is consensus regarding some criteria for domestic sport events. Specifically, Walo, Bull, and Breen (1996) presented some criteria for an event to be categorized as a domestic event. First, the direct costs associated with staging a domestic special event are similar in nature to mega events, only smaller in size. Second, a domestic event operates within the existing resource capacity of the local economy. Lastly, opportunity costs are
low and community benefit is likely to be enhanced from other sources in addition to tourist expenditure.

Similarly, Higham (1999) explained small-scale-sports events usually operate within existing infrastructures, require minimal investments of public funds, and are more manageable in terms of crowding and congestion compared to hallmark events. Moreover, Ritchie (1984) contended domestic events require minimal marketing fees and have a low media profile. Accordingly, the Ontario Summer Games and Canada Games qualify as domestic Canadian events. That is, these Games do not draw near the media attention of major sport events (e.g., World Championships, Pan American Games, Super Bowl), nor do they require extreme marketing budgets. Additionally, these events occur within the existing resources of the region, have low opportunity costs, and the potential community benefits can be significant (Chalip, 2006; O’Brien, 2006, 2007; O’Brien & Chalip, 2007a).

Unsurprisingly, while there is a significant amount of research on mega sport events (e.g., Baum & Lockstone, 2007; Frawley & Toohey, 2009; Gratton & Preuss, 2008; Hautbois et al., 2012; Leopkey & Parent, 2009; Leopkey & Parent, 2012; Maennig & Zimbalist, 2012; O’Brien & Gardiner, 2006; Parent et al., 2014; Preuss, 2007), little is known about how sport events are run at the lower levels, specifically at the domestic (here provincial and national) level. This dearth of research on domestic level sport events is surprising considering the fact that more cities are able to host such events; simply put, they are more prevalent. Moreover, in most cases, in order to win the bid to host larger events (e.g., Pan-American Games, Commonwealth Games, Olympic Games), host regions have to first demonstrate their knowledge, capability, and the stakeholder support needed to effectively deliver a smaller event (Westerbeek et al., 2002). Various forms of knowledge are needed to put on a successful sport event; and as Parent (2008)
presented, many factors impact and contribute to the planning and implementation of such events. For this reason, organizing committees spend time and money building relationships with numerous stakeholders to acquire the resources necessary to effectively host an event (Parent, 2008). Oftentimes, there is an extensive network of stakeholders involved in the organization of a major sport event (Parent, 2008). Accordingly, it would be of great value to the sport event literature and sport event managers to understand how stakeholders coordinate, and how event knowledge is transferred amongst and between these stakeholder groups, in order to gain additional insights regarding the effective governance of these events.

Event stakeholders are the diverse people, groups or organizations that have interests in, and who affect or are affected by, the organizing committee’s past, present, and future actions (cf. Freeman, 1984; Parent, 2008). There is minimal research that provides a good understanding of event stakeholders’ relationships between each other. One exception is Parent (2010) who found that one of the drivers that emerged as important for the decision-making process in major sport events was stakeholder interaction. Researchers have yet to examine the stakeholder network of domestic sport events, which can provide event practitioners with insights on efficiencies in terms of the processes that take place within and between stakeholder groups. Especially in an environment where the pressure of time is an ever-looming issue, organizing committees have little or no time to make decisions (Parent, 2010) and thus understanding the coordination network could be beneficial when delivering a sport event.

Although the positive effects of knowledge management have been widely documented within the business and management field (e.g., Argote, 2013; Argote, McEvily, & Reagans, 2003; Edvardsson & Durst, 2013; Geisler & Wickramasinghe, 2009; Goh, 2005; Gold, Malhotra, & Segars, 2001; Minbaeva, 2007; Nelson, Sabatier, & Nelson, 2006; O’Dell & Grayson, 1998;
Stovel & Bontis, 2002; Wang & Noe, 2010; Yang, 2007), there is little research on knowledge, knowledge management, and the related processes in the sport management domain (Byers et al., 2012). Currently, the sport management literature that looks at knowledge management involves mainly national sport organizations and mega-events. O’Reilly and Knight (2007) considered best practices in national sport organizations, while a total of three articles (Frawley & Toohey, 2009; Halbwirth & Toohey, 2001; Toohey & Halbwirth, 2002) have been published concerning the introduction of a knowledge management system at the 2000 Sydney Olympics and one paper examining the knowledge management and transfer process at the 2010 Vancouver Olympic Winter Games (Parent et al., 2014). A study by Singh and Hu (2008) investigated the strategic alignment for destination marketing and the 2004 Olympic Games and the implications of extracting tacit knowledge. They found the acquired tacit knowledge from the study to be invaluable, intellectual capital that provides key insights for future destination marketing with mega events (Singh & Hu, 2008). Most recently, a study by Werner, Dickson and Hyde (2015) examined the impact of a mega-event on knowledge transfer processes within regional tourism networks. Nonetheless, the value of and need for knowledge management systems or practices in the event field have been addressed by many academics (e.g., Byers et al., 2012; Getz, 2007; Frawley & Toohey, 2009; Halbwirth & Toohey, 2001; Parent & Smith-Swan, 2013; Toohey & Halbwirth, 2005).

The study by Parent and colleagues (2014) used the 2010 Olympic Winter Games as a case to examine the theory and practice of knowledge management processes. Parent et al. interviewed the Olympic Games organizing committee and its associated stakeholders with two goals in mind: first, to compare and contrast the respondent’s descriptions of the theoretical knowledge management terms with the actual definitions according to the literature; and second,
to develop a model of the knowledge management processes that occurred for the event. This dissertation is an extension of the work by Parent et al., as it examined the same knowledge management processes, but at lower level events (i.e., provincial and national). Parent et al. highlighted the diverse nature of sport events by acknowledging that the knowledge management process is not necessarily universal for all stakeholders: “The exact nature and composition of the process may vary from one organization to the next” (p. 214). For some, it is an informal system that is not overly exceedingly detailed. This may be the case for the lower-level events, such as the Ontario Summer Games, who does not have a formal knowledge management system in place.

The complexity and unique context of sport events warrants the need for additional research that examines the potential benefits of prior experiences and knowledge transfer for the delivery of a successful sport event (Parent & Smith-Swan, 2013). Specifically, Parent and Smith-Swan (2013) stressed, “given the emphasis that the International Olympic Committee [IOC] places on its knowledge management programme…we would strongly urge sport management researchers to examine knowledge management processes” (p. 83). Most recently, Werner et al., (2015) expressed “the specific forms of knowledge acquired in the context of hosting mega-events, as well as the transfer channels through which knowledge flows, remain unclear” (p. 174). In the same light, Toohey and Halbwirth (2005) explained that, for sport event organizers, the knowledge management approach offers potential to take the insights, identified best practice and knowledge outcomes from specific events and disseminate these for the use and development by future event organizing committees and stakeholders.

Thus, these authors have underlined the need for further research on knowledge management in a sport event context. Parent and Smith-Swan (2013) stated that future sport
management researchers should “look for patterns in successes, failures, execution, and challenges of the event to understand how major sports events work and how they become more effective and efficient” (p. 333).

**Stakeholder Coordination and Governance**

As previously indicated, there is little existing research of knowledge transfer or stakeholder coordination in the sport event context. There is, however, a plethora of related research within the broader business and management literatures that help illuminate the fundamental concepts. To begin, the term stakeholder can be described as the diverse people, groups, organizations and systems that affect or are affected by the main organization’s actions either directly or indirectly (Freeman, 1984). Along the same lines, Donaldson and Preston (1995) declared stakeholders as the individuals or groups with legitimate interests in procedural and practical components of corporate activity. Another variation of the stakeholder definition is the “persons or groups that have or claim, ownership, rights, or interests in a corporation and its activities, past, present, or future” (Clarkson, 1995, p. 106). For my research, a combination of the aforementioned stakeholder descriptions help form the operational definition of a stakeholder: the diverse people, groups or organizations that have interests in, and who affect or are affected by, the organizing committee’s past, present, and future actions.

Goodijk (2003) elucidated that managing stakeholders is a question of balancing the different stakeholder interests and creating added value through trust, commitment, and social norms. Much of the management literature has noted the need for very high levels of trust in all stakeholders as part of the knowledge transfer processes (e.g., Choi & Kim, 2008; Levin & Cross, 2004; Szulanski, Capetta, & Jensen, 2004). Moreover, a recent study that examined the
parameters and strategies of decision-making in major sport events noted that communication with stakeholders is key (Parent, 2008), though further investigation is warranted and necessary. Stakeholder coordination, or more specifically, stakeholder participation, is part of democratic governance (Bevir, 2006). It is seen as a fundamental aspect of ‘good’ governance (Agere, 2000). In turn, Bevir (2011, p. 1) suggested that “governance refers to theories and issues of social coordination and the nature of all patterns of rule.” Governance is about the move from state and hierarchy to market and networks; it includes hybrid patterns of rule, multijurisdictional networks, and multiple stakeholders, hence the need to look at stakeholder coordination when examining the governance of sports events. In Meyer’s (2004) study regarding stakeholder influence on radical change, he explained, “the coordination of stakeholders is at the core of governance” (p. 235). Meyer (2004) also expressed leadership was essential for effective coordination of stakeholders, particularly by means of communication and by creating common knowledge about the organizations future direction. While diverse stakeholders can influence the management of an organization, Kochan and Rubinstein (2000) believed “the critical governance tasks… are to ensure effective negotiations, coordination, cooperation, and conflict resolution to maximize and distribute the joint gains among multiple parties of interest” (p. 370). It is important to recognize that domestic events typically rely on public funding. Accordingly, Singh and Hu (2008) held, considering the vast public and private investments involved in these large-scale events, the need to address this gap in the existing literature is remarkably evident. As such, government bodies are particularly salient in the delivery of these Games. Hence, using governance concepts becomes justified in the context of domestic events.

Governance is a mechanism for balancing (Leopkey, 2013) different interests, which is essential in a sport event where there are multiple stakeholders involved who each have unique
interests, concerns and needs as related to their involvement in the event. As Leopkey (2013) underlined, a key challenge in the governance literature is the tendency to consistently view governance as a structure, and lacks any onus on the actual governance processes. This research examined both the governance structure (i.e., what the event networks looked like) and the processes that occurred (i.e., knowledge management, stakeholder coordination) within two domestic events.

**Stakeholder Coordination and Knowledge Management**

Once stakeholders are identified, the task of managing the relationships with them is enormous (Freeman, 1984). The scarce amount of literature on stakeholder coordination could be in part due to its inclusion in the concept of knowledge transfer; it can be difficult to discuss one without the other. Some researchers directly advocate not making distinctions between these concepts (e.g., Fahey & Prusak, 1998). Gold and colleagues (2001) found relationships appear to precede and to be required for meaningful knowledge sharing and transfer. Hence, transfer can only exist if stakeholder coordination exists. Accordingly, it is necessary for individuals to develop relationships with a high degree of trust, as this can facilitate problem-solving as well as more effective communication within the organization (Wright, 2005). Successful communication can in turn ensure that knowledge flows through a department or organization (Cegarra-Navarro & Rodrigo-Moya, 2005). Kaweevisultrakul and Chang (2007) noted organizations “should focus on encouraging managerial involvement, creating organizational collaboration and a trusting culture” (p. 308). Moreover, the existence of a “strong co-operative and collaborative culture” can act as an essential precursor for knowledge transfer to occur (Kaweevisultrakul & Chang, 2007, p. 305). Similarly, Wang and Noe (2010) believed a cooperative team environment helps to establish trust, a necessary condition for knowledge
transfer. Manifestly, organizing committees cannot attempt to transfer knowledge amongst stakeholders and enable knowledge transfer between stakeholder groups without some degree of trust, which can develop from some form of collaboration or stakeholder coordination.

Specifically, while examining the relationship between the 2004 Olympic Games Organizing Committee and the destination marketing organization, Singh and Hu (2008) explained that effective coordination between the organizing committee (a temporary organization) and the destination marketing organization (enduring organization) is important for strategic tourism policy-making, improved tourism branding, and knowledge transfer. They found enhanced coordination could have been very beneficial for both involved parties:

The interview responses raised a few issues regarding the coordination between the Olympic Planning Committees and the destination tourism organizations. Successful coordination between the two organizations could have led to positive strategic implications not just for marketing of the event and destination during the event but also for the country’s tourism planning and marketing for the future. (Sing & Hu, 2008, p. 935)

Hence, there are acknowledged benefits of improving coordination mechanisms between event stakeholders. This dissertation brings a novel perspective by observing the coordination between all event stakeholders at the two domestic events. The issue of interdependence in sports events pertains not only to coordination, but also to communication and information management (Parent et al., 2011).

These coordinating ties or connections between individuals form social networks that can facilitate knowledge transfer and enhance the quality of information received (e.g., Cross &
Cummings, 2004; Reagans & McEvily, 2003). Networks can aid an organization to acquire, modify, integrate, recombine and release its knowledge resources (cf. Blyler & Coff, 2003). In a study investigating the use of networking to maximize economic outcomes from pre-event (i.e., Sydney 2000 Olympic Games) training, O’Brien and Gardiner (2006) found “some stakeholders lost opportunities for economic development by not using networking and relationship development in their pre-Games training initiatives” (p. 25). Knowledge network approaches to knowledge management imply that social dynamics between individuals, as opposed to technology, are essential to facilitate knowledge sharing, and form the core of knowledge management practice (Van den Hooff & Huysman, 2009). In terms of social dynamics, Van den Hooff and Huysman (2009) expanded: “Knowledge sharing… is primarily determined by the interpersonal and group relationships: how [individuals] are connected in social relations primarily determines to what extent and in what way they can draw upon and contribute knowledge” (p. 2). Likewise, research shows that individuals who interact regularly transfer knowledge more effectively, suggesting that social networking is an important part of knowledge management, especially regarding tacit knowledge (Anderson & Mohan, 2011; Swan, Newell, Scarbrough, & Hislop, 1999). More specifically, Swan et al. (1999) found it important for organizations to recognize the value of face-to-face interaction for sharing tacit knowledge. They emphasize encouraging active social networking (i.e., personal communication, face-to-face, etc.) rather than relying on information technology networks (i.e., intranets). On the same note, Anderson and Mohan (2011) found integrating social networking into knowledge management systems can increase the frequency with which individuals interact which in turn can improve their degree of trust and encourage more effective collaboration and communication. Similarly, Sáenz, Aramburu, and Rivera (2009) found that personal interaction-
based knowledge sharing initiatives had a positive and significant influence on organizational effectiveness, especially regarding new ideas and innovation. While conventional knowledge management systems were developed to store explicit knowledge, more recently, “organizations are starting to include social networking features in their knowledge management infrastructure to capture tacit, social, and individual knowledge” (Anderson & Mohan, 2011, p. 24). Thus, as Maznevski and Athanassiou (2007) proposed, important knowledge travels best through a network of personal relationships.

By analyzing the event network, we can determine the key stakeholders who control flows through the network, including flows of information. By doing so, there is the potential to uncover knowledge sources within the network, and according to Parent et al. (2014) “access to knowledge sources is one benefit that may result in a timelier and more widespread use of that knowledge for increased efficiency and effectiveness in operations” (p. 216). Thus, by examining the stakeholder network, insights on efficiencies may be gained. Of particular interest in this dissertation is the way knowledge is transferred within and between stakeholders in the network.

**Knowledge Management**

According to Alavi and Leidner (2001), much attention has been paid to treating knowledge as a significant organizational resource. Though later, Leidner, Alavi, and Kayworth (2006) acknowledge that while organizations may have a given pool of knowledge resources within their organization, they may be unaware that these resources exist, and, further, be unsure of how to effectively leverage them for competitive advantage. Hence, it becomes important for organizations to participate in knowledge activities that seek to create, maintain, and leverage these knowledge resources (Leidner et al., 2006). Broadly, knowledge management encompasses
the practice and process of systemically identifying, capturing, and leveraging an organization’s intellectual resources in order to perform and compete more effectively (Hansen, Nohria, & Tierney, 1999; Leidner et al., 2006; O’Dell & Grayson, 1998). In turn, knowledge management can be defined as a systematic and organizationally specified process for acquiring, organizing, and communicating both tacit and explicit knowledge so that other individuals, groups, or organizations have the opportunity to make use of it in an effort to enhance their own effectiveness, productivity, and competitiveness (Alavi & Leidner, 2001; Davenport & Prusak, 1998; Jackson, Chuang, Harden, Jiang, & Joseph, 2006; Nonaka, 1991; Shaw & Williams, 2009). This process involves people, information, enabling tools, best practices, and relationships (Ryu, Yong, Chaudhury, & Rao, 2005).

In addition, knowledge can be tacit or explicit. According to Grant (2002), “explicit knowledge can be articulated and easily communicated between individuals and organizations. Tacit knowledge (skills, knowhow, and contextual knowledge) is manifest only in its application—transferring it from one individual to another is costly and slow” (p. 136). Thus, the former is interpreted as objective, rational knowledge that can be expressed in various forms such as data, reports, manuals, and so forth, where the latter is referred to as subjective, experiential, and difficult to document and formalize. Thus, it becomes a challenge for event organizing committees to establish knowledge management and transfer practices that capitalize on and effectively transfer tacit knowledge. Maznevski and Athanassiou (2007) illuminated, “although explicit knowledge travels easily from one person to the next, tacit knowledge is much more difficult to share” (p. 71). The notion that personal interactions are a prerequisite for effective knowledge transfer becomes even more evident in the case of transferring tacit knowledge. As Nohria and Eccles (1992) established, the most effective way of sharing tacit
knowledge is through meaningful dialogue that comes with personal relationships.

Unfortunately, many organizations have a tendency to keep knowledge at the implicit and individual level instead of sharing it within the network (Lettieri, Borga, & Savoldelli, 2004). As mentioned by Werner and colleagues (2015), individuals and organizations responsible for organizing and implementing mega events “accumulate an extensive amount of tacit and explicit knowledge, such as knowledge in event planning and execution, and expertise in destination marketing, that could be transferred and reapplied for future benefits” (p. 174).

Before going into depth explaining the process of knowledge transfer, some key knowledge management processes are first addressed. The most commonly discussed are knowledge creation, acquisition, application, transfer, identification and storage (Heisig, 2009). According to Nonaka (1991), knowledge creation is a process of making tacit knowledge explicit. “[K]nowledge is created through the dynamic interactions among individuals and/or between individuals and their environments, rather than an individual who operates alone in a vacuum” (Nonaka et al., 2000, p. 3). Grover and Davenport (2001) described knowledge generation as “all processes involved in the acquisition and development of knowledge” (p. 7). According to Nonaka and Takeuchi’s (1995) SECI model, knowledge creation involves the transfer of both tacit and explicit knowledge that interact in a “knowledge spiral” to produce new knowledge.

In contrast, knowledge acquisition is a process oriented toward obtaining knowledge (Gold et al., 2001). Many terms have been used to describe this knowledge management process: acquire, seek, capture, collaborate; the common theme among these terms is the accumulation of knowledge (Gold et al., 2001). Knowledge acquisition refers to an organization’s ability to identify, acquire, and accumulate knowledge that is essential to its operations (Gold et al., 2001;
Zahra & George, 2002). Essentially, knowledge acquisition is how knowledge is collected (Hoe & McShane, 2010).

The process of knowledge application is concerned with the actual use of the knowledge. Gold et al. (2001) point out that little attention has been paid to the effectiveness of knowledge application; it seems to be assumed that once knowledge is created, it will be applied effectively. Some terms that have been associated with knowledge application within the literature are storage, retrieval, application, contribution and sharing (Gold et al., 2001). Simply, knowledge application is meaningfully utilizing acquired knowledge in the appropriate context (Mills & Smith, 2011).

Knowledge identification is determining what kind of knowledge is needed to perform one’s responsibilities (Bera, Burton-Jones, & Wand, 2011). This also entails detecting potential and valuable knowledge sources. Maznevski and Athanassiou (2007) suggested recognizing the ideal knowledge source is best done through personal relationships.

Knowledge storage refers to the retention and safeguarding of knowledge through an assortment of mechanisms including individuals, documents, and technology (Anand & Singh, 2011). It is an ongoing organizational battle to distinguish how best to store personal knowledge. Parent et al. (2014) mentioned the strong presence of Games gypsies as a knowledge source as well as a storage mechanism in the 2010 Olympic Games. Gold and colleagues (2001) explained that effective storage and retrieval mechanisms allow organizations to quickly access knowledge.

Knowledge transfer is the process through which one individual is affected by the experience of another (Argote & Ingram, 2000). Wang and Noe (2010) described knowledge transfer as the “sharing of knowledge by the knowledge source and the acquisition and application of knowledge by the recipient” (p. 117). Typically, knowledge transfer refers to the
movement of knowledge between different individuals, departments, or organizations. Knowledge transfer can encompass passing on expertise and knowledge from experts who have relevant knowledge to novices who require it (Hinds, Patterson, & Pfeffer, 2001).

It is understandable that studying the ways that knowledge is transferred amongst stakeholders of sport events is important to facilitate the sharing of explicit and tacit knowledge for other events. Liebowitz and Beckman (1998) stressed the need for organizations to transfer sufficient knowledge so everyone can act “intelligently and competently” (p. 62) and perform daily operational tasks efficiently and effectively. Further, transferring knowledge was found to reduce redundancy, enhance consistent representation, assure alignment of values and priorities, and ultimately improve efficiency (Gold et al., 2001). Additionally, this process enables the organization to replace unsuccessful, unhelpful, or out-dated knowledge (Gold et al., 2001).

Moreover, in a study that explored the management of relationships with stakeholders, it was noted that information between stakeholders is sent in a very restricted manner. According to Madariaga and Valor (2007), there are two types of communication channels: informal (e.g., ad hoc meetings, phone calls, e-mail) and formal (e.g., newsletters, sustainability reports, publicity, websites, regular meetings). Powell (1998) stated a wide range of interorganizational linkages is necessary for knowledge diffusion. He asserted these connections may be formal contractual relationships or informal. Further, Powell (1998) assured “both mechanisms are highly salient for the transfer of knowledge” (p. 228). Gold et al. (2001) noted stakeholder interaction should be encouraged, both formally and informally, so that relationships, contacts, and perspectives can be shared by those not working side by side. Additionally, these authors contended “this type of interaction and collaboration is important when attempting to transmit
tacit knowledge between individuals or convert tacit knowledge into explicit knowledge, thereby transforming it from individual to organizational level” (p. 189).

Interestingly, Powell (1998) argued that knowledge facilitates the acquisition of more knowledge. Hence, transferring knowledge from one stakeholder group to another, from one unit to another, allows insights to be gained from one set of experiences to shape subsequent activities. Though it is imperative for an organization to manage knowledge internally, it is equally important to effectively manage external knowledge as well (Gold et al., 2001).

According to Gold et al. (2001), an organization that shares and transfers knowledge is one that can analyze, reflect, learn, and change based on experience. This demonstrates how knowledge transfer and knowledge management processes could be beneficial to sport event organizers so they are able to learn from the past and plan for the future. “Without detecting and correcting errors in ‘what we know’ and ‘how we learn’, an organization's knowledge deteriorates, becomes obsolete, and can result in ‘bad’ decisions” (Fahey & Prusak, 1998, p. 265). Thus, knowledge transfer strategies can help organizers avoid repeating past mistakes, as well as learn from previous successes, in order to host the best possible sport event in the future.

Of concern, though, is the fact that sharing knowledge seems to be a rather rare practice and can be undervalued in an organizational environment (e.g., Lettieri et al., 2004). Interestingly, Fahey and Prusak (1998) suggested that the education system played a part in individuals’ inherent desire to hoard knowledge. Gold et al. (2001) offered another plausible reason that organizations are not transferring knowledge, explicating that one of the biggest barriers to knowledge transfer practices is ignorance—on both ends of the transfer. This means that neither partner knew someone else had knowledge they required or would be interested in knowledge they had (Gold et al., 2001). Thus, a variety of ideas exist to account for the lack of
knowledge transfer practices being implemented. Another barrier found to impede knowledge transfer was the lack of a relationship between partners. That is, the absence of a tie, credible and strong enough to justify communicating to, listening to, or helping each other, stood in the way of knowledge transfer (Gold et al., 2001). A final knowledge transfer hindrance is that of “silo” behaviour. Generally, the organizational structure of corporations promote this “silo” behaviour, in which locations, divisions, and functions are so focused on maximizing their own gains and rewards that they, consciously or unconsciously, hoard information and thereby do not optimize or leverage the total organization (Gold et al., 2001). Therefore, it is not only pertinent to investigate what types of knowledge event stakeholders possess, but also what types of knowledge they need, as well as who, when, where, and how they can attain it.

While it is sound to suggest that organizing committees need to focus on reinforcing their relationships with stakeholder groups, there seems to be a need to move beyond this and pay greater attention to the relationships between stakeholders. Specific mechanisms that support stakeholder coordination and knowledge transfer between all stakeholders could help advance and improve the governance of sport events. The dynamic nature of sport events needs to also be considered in regards to knowledge and knowledge transfer. Wolfe and Putler (2002) expressed the purpose of stakeholder management as being to facilitate understanding of increasingly unpredictable external environments, thereby facilitating individuals’ ability to manage within these environments. Along with the underling dynamic nature of knowledge, Williams (2006) highlighted the social context of knowledge management processes:

the capability to take effective action is not exercised in a vacuum, it happens within a context, a social/institutional context. Knowledge is invariably created, developed and maintained in communities of practice, some of which are highly formalized ... some of
which are highly informal ... as such knowledge is dynamic, strategic, political, and subject to change (p. 90).

In the same light, the sport event context is distinct given the unique timeline; as Games time approaches, pressures increase, dynamics shift, organizational demands change, and relationships evolve (Halbwirth & Toohey, 2001; Parent, 2008; Parent et al., 2014; Toohey & Halbwirth, 2005). Managing knowledge in these circumstances is a complex, multi-level process. While examining learning from collaboration within the pharmaceutical industry, Powell (1998) explained that knowledge management involves learning from and with partners under conditions of uncertainty, learning about partners’ behaviours, developing routines and norms that mitigate the risks of opportunism, and learning how to disseminate newly acquired knowledge across different stakeholder groups. Moreover, Powell indicated “when uncertainty is high, organizations interact more, not less, with external parties in order to access both knowledge and resources” (p. 229). Hence, it is a worthy endeavour to investigate whether this is also the case in the sport event context. In other words, do stakeholders need to have strong ties to acquire and disseminate the knowledge they require and do they communicate more or less as the pressures increase (i.e., the event approaches)? Ultimately, the unique circumstance of a sport event underlines the novelty of this research.

**Theoretical Framework**

The theoretical framework for this study is composed of stakeholder and network theories to help guide data collection and analysis.

**Stakeholder theory.** Essentially, there are four major components of stakeholder theory:

1. A main organization has relationships with several stakeholders;
2. stakeholder theory is interested in the process and outcome (nature) of the relationship between the main organization
and its stakeholders; (3) all stakeholders interests hold intrinsic value, and no interest is superior to others; and (4) the theory centres around organizational/managerial decision making (Jones & Wicks, 1999). Research applying stakeholder theory can focus on three different parts of the organization-stakeholder relationship: the focal organization itself, the stakeholders, and the relationship between the focal organization and its stakeholders (Parent, 2008). This study focuses on the latter two parts as it examine the stakeholder relationships (i.e., to discover how they coordinate and transfer knowledge) and the relationship between the organizing committee and its stakeholders.

Donaldson and Preston (1995) investigated the legitimacy of stakeholder theory and found that stakeholder theorists have used three different fundamental principles that are justified in the management literature: descriptive/empirical accuracy, instrumental influence, and normative. Namely, descriptive accuracy is descriptions of the organization’s nature, the sport event context, and stakeholder interests (Parent, 2008). For this dissertation, the descriptive approach was used to help identify the stakeholder and stakeholder groups and address their interests and expectations regarding event knowledge. Researchers use the instrumental approach to identify connections (or lack thereof) between stakeholder management and the main organization’s desired outcomes (Donaldson & Preston, 1995; Parent, 2008). Accordingly, in this dissertation, the instrumental approach was used to determine the degree to which event stakeholders coordinate and transfer knowledge internally, amongst each other, and with the organizing committee and the effectiveness of these processes. Lastly, the normative approach provides ethical and philosophical guidelines for organizational processes and management (Donaldson & Preston, 1995; Parent, 2008). As ethical considerations were outside the scope of the study, I did not use the normative approach.
Stakeholder theory is a helpful mechanism to expound the topic at hand. Stakeholder theory is concerned with examining the relationships between the main organization (here, the organizing committee) and its associated stakeholders. Essentially, these relationships form a network of event stakeholders who all impact or are impacted by event-related decisions. As such, a network perspective is also a helpful framework to guide this research.

**Network theory.** The evidence that a successful event requires the support of an effective and efficient network of stakeholders is amply justified in academic literature (e.g., Byers et al., 2012; Erickson & Kushner, 1999; Getz, Andersson, & Larson, 2007; Parent & Smith-Swan, 2013; Parent et al., 2011; Parent et al., 2014). For example, in a study of natural resource management, Prell, Hubacek and Reed (2009) recently used stakeholder theory and social network analysis to identify the role and influence of different stakeholders according to their position within the network. Within the context of sports events, Leopkey (2013) highlighted the importance of influence and power of a stakeholder over its network in the examination of event legacy. The present dissertation also addressed the concepts of influence and power within a network of event stakeholders. And so, the present research attempts, in part, to determine which stakeholders harvest the most power over and influence on the network in terms of information control.

A network is a web of relationships between two or more partners (Byers et al., 2012). Sallent, Palau, and Guia (2011) explained “the theory of networks lies within the complex world of relationships among people, groups, and communities” (p. 401). Typically, these relationships are centered on the exchange of resources such as knowledge, capital, or skills (Child & Faulkner, 1998). The relational ties among different actors (individuals or groups) in a network are channels to transfer resources, be they material (e.g., money) or immaterial (e.g.,
information, political support) (Wasserman & Galaskiewicz, 1994). Specifically, social network analysis can help researchers measure and examine stakeholder relations, not only to prove they exist, but also to generate insights on their quality and significance (Wasserman & Faust, 1994).

Parent, Kristiansen, Skille, and Hanstad (2015) validated the use of network analysis in sport event research when stakeholder relations are examined. Parent et al. explained:

…network analyses allow researchers to determine the relative importance of a stakeholder in a network, how dense the network is, who communicates with whom, who controls information, who reaches out to others and who receives the most requests for information. (p. 4)

Moreover, the location of an actor in a network, whether it is a central or peripheral role, can indicate relative power, which can be represented visually in a network graph (Parent et al., 2013). In addition, according to Parent et al. (2013), the stakeholder network can be a valuable source of knowledge for event-related activities. Thus, the network of stakeholders (though often not recognized as one) is a source of knowledge. Parent et al. emphasized the need for social networks for those working in high-paced, high-pressure environments, such as a multi-sport event. For some event managers, the pressure of following strict timelines, as well as the need for quick thinking and troubleshooting, results in a need to access knowledge easily and immediately.

Networks can be analyzed in many ways; some of the more common measures include density and centrality. Density measures the relative number of ties that are present in the network (Sallent et al., 2011), whereas, centrality measures the actor’s degree or number of direct ties, its closeness or independent access to others, and its betweenness or the power an actor has because most other actors can only get connected through them (Brass & Burkhardt,
### Table 2.1

**Network Measures Used in this Dissertation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measure</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ego</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Degree (s)</td>
<td>• Simply, how many connections an actor has (Borgatti et al., 2013)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Measure for an actor’s level of involvement or activity in the network (Prell, 2012)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Eigenvector</td>
<td>• A reflection of your alter’s connections. In essence, measures the degree centrality of an actor’s alters (Prell, 2012)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centrality (p)</td>
<td>• A measure of popularity or power: an actor with high eigenvector centrality is connected to actors that are themselves well connected (Borgatti et al., 2013)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Examines how often an actor sits on the geodesic (i.e. shortest path) between two other actors</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• How much potential control an actor has over the flow of information (Prell, 2012)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Betweenness</td>
<td>• Measures the distance between actors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centrality (p)</td>
<td>• Actors with the shortest distance to other actors have the most closeness centrity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Emphasizes an actor’s independence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• If an actor is not central, they generally need to rely on others to relay messages through the network. An actor who is close to many other actors is a very independent actor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Can quickly reach others without having to rely much on intermediaries; easily able to access information in the network</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Closeness</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centrality (p)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dyads</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Relational Tie</td>
<td>• Type of tie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(p)</td>
<td>• Mutual dyads are seen as more stable ties and also ties that contain more trust and positive affection (Carley &amp; Krackhardt, 1996)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Relations based on exchange are more likely to contain higher instances of asymmetric dyads; has to do with the idea that power, knowledge, and expertise are distributed unevenly in a network, resulting in certain actors being more actively sought after than others, and certain actors deferring to the status of others (Knoke &amp; Burt, 1983)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tie Strength</td>
<td>• A relative concept, best understood in relation to other ties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(p)</td>
<td>• An actor can have a variety of ties to others, but some will exhibit more intimacy, mutual confiding, and frequency of contact than others (Prell, 2012)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Combination of the amount of time two actors spend together, the emotional intensity of their relationship, the level of intimacy and/or mutual confiding between two actors, and the amount of reciprocal services or favours (Granovetter, 1973)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duration of Tie</td>
<td>A tie shared between two actors can help to uncover how attributes or behaviours of those actors might alter as a result of that dyadic interaction</td>
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<td>----------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiplexity (s &amp; p)</td>
<td>Actors sharing more than one kind of tie with each other</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| **Triad (s)** | Two actors involved in a dyad relation tend to share a stronger, more durable tie if that dyad is embedded within a triad (Simmel, 1950)  
A triad consists of three actors and all the ties between them; composed of different kinds of dyad configurations among a set of three actors; can break down into six different triples (Prell, 2012) |
| Triad Census | Codes the different triads according to how many of each kind of dyad exists in that particular triad (MAN) (Prell, 2012) |
| Transitivity (s) | A transitive triad is when ‘a friend of a friend is also my friend’  
A main structural characteristic of networks (Prell, 2012)  
A unifying concept that brings together ideas of structural balance and clustering |
| **Subgroups** | |
| Cliques (s) | Subgroups of actors consisting of mutual ties  
A clique consists of a complete subgraph, i.e., one consisting of three or more actors, who are directly connected to one another through mutual ties  
Research shows that member behaviour is strongly linked to membership in a clique, whereby individual members’ behaviours mirror those of other clique members (Prell, 2012) |
| Core-periphery (s) | A special kind of centralized network is the core-periphery network. There are two types of nodes: Core nodes and peripheral nodes. Core nodes, which are central nodes, are highly interconnected among themselves while on the other hand, peripheral nodes tend to establish loose linkages with the core and virtually no interconnections w other peripheral nodes (Borgatti et al., 2013) |
| **Whole Network** | |
| Density (s) | Refers to how many actual ties exist in a network, and expresses this number as a proportion of the potential ties that could exist  
The extent to which all the actors in a network are linked together (Prell, 2012) |
| Diameter (s) | The length of the longest geodesic distance between any pair of actors  
Quantifies how far apart the farthest two actors in the graph are (Wasserman & Faust, 1994) |
| Average Path Length (s) | Averages the geodesics in the network as an indicator for how close together actors are to one another  
Tells you the average distance between two actors (Borgatti et al., 2013) |
| Network Degree Centralization (s) | The extent to which one actor in a network is holding all of the ties in that network (Prell, 2012) |

Note: (s) represents governance structure component and (p) represents governance process
component.

1993). There are many other measures that are used in network analysis to examine the ego (single actor), dyad, triad, subgroup, and whole network levels (Borgatti et al., 2013; Prell, 2012). In this dissertation, various network analyses are used for each level. Table 2.1 outlines the network measures used for the analysis and provides the definition/purpose of each measure.

Although stakeholder theory allows for the identification of stakeholders, network theory is a suitable framework for examining the network of stakeholders, who influences the network, and how stakeholders coordinate and transfer knowledge within the network of these domestic events. A network perspective allows insight on the type, strength, and quality of relationships between stakeholders.
CHAPTER 3

Methodology

A qualitative research design was employed to build a multiple-case study (Yin, 2013) analysis of two domestic Canadian sport events: the 2012 Ontario Summer Games and the 2013 Canada Games. Case studies are valuable since they allow researchers to focus on particular instances in an in-depth manner; thus providing the opportunity to gain further insight on a specific case, be it an issue, event, etc. (Yin, 2013). Case studies are applicable when “how” and “why” questions are being asked; therefore, a case study methodology is suitable to explore “how” knowledge transfer and stakeholder coordination, revealing the overall governance of these events. Additionally, the case study approach facilitates the integration of various literature (here sport management, event management, knowledge management, network theory), as well as the examination of the two settings from the perspectives of the organizing committee members and other stakeholders, thereby providing the opportunity to expose individual perspectives on the governances of these events, with a specific focus on stakeholder coordination and knowledge transfer.

This research was conducted using a constructionist epistemology, which posits that reality is constructed through the collective generation and transmission of meaning (Crotty, 1998). According to constructionists, meaning is not contained inherently within an object or event. The meaning-making process is contingent upon human practices—interactions between individuals and their world, and therefore meaning is developed and transmitted within an essentially social context (Crotty, 1998). The stakeholders interviewed for this research were acting in relation to each other and to their expectations of the event, thus the constructionist perspective is applicable. Moreover, constructionists affirm, when people describe something,
they are conveying how something is seen and reacted to, and thereby meaningfully constructed, within a given context (Crotty, 1998). As I explored the way stakeholders describe their experiences regarding stakeholder coordination and knowledge transfer within the sport event context, I required an epistemological view that adheres to the idea that every interpretation is valid and unique. The epistemological perspective that helped to guide this research is outlined in Appendix A. An overview of the case study settings is provided next, followed by a detailed description of the data collection and data analysis procedures followed.

**Case Study Settings**

Case study setting details are provided below followed by a description of their similarities and differences.

**2013 Canada Games.** The 2013 Canada Games took place in Sherbrooke, Quebec, Canada, over the course of 16 days, from August 2 to 17, 2013, and showcased the athletic talent of 4,200 young athletes aged 15 to 21 from all across the Canadian provinces and territories competing in 20 different sports (i.e., athletics, baseball, basketball, beach volleyball, canoe-kayak, cycling, diving, fencing, golf, mountain bike, open water swimming, rowing, sailing, soccer, softball, swimming, tennis, triathlon, volleyball, wrestling). The organizing committee, which was referred to as the Host Society, was incorporated in August 2009 and is still technically in existence (as of the time of writing), with only two part-time employees left until the final audit of the financial statements is completed. The event was organized with the help of 100 staff and over 6,000 volunteers. The organizational structure involved a volunteer board of directors, paid staff, and volunteers.

The event’s rights holder is the Canada Games Council. In 2009, the rights holder, the Canada Games Council, instituted a formal knowledge transfer system to create efficiencies
within organizing committees by reducing organizing committees’ human resource and/or operating costs throughout all Canada Games operational areas. The Canada Games Council manages all Canada Games knowledge transfer including bid development, overseeing organizing committees throughout planning and organizing stages, successful Games delivery, and drafting final results and reports (Canada Games Council, 2010). The vision stated on the Canada Games Council website reads, “The Canada Games are a premium, nation-building, multi-sport event that enrich Canadian culture and create lasting legacies” (2014, para 3). With that in mind, their values include inclusivity, excellence, integrity, honesty, and respect, as well as working collaboratively with their partners in an accountable and responsive fashion (Canada Games Council, 2014).

2012 Ontario Summer Games. The 2012 Ontario Summer Games, occurred over four days, with the participation of 2,500 athletes (aged 13-18) from cities across Ontario competing in 21 sports (i.e., archery, ball hockey, baseball, basketball, beach volleyball, canoe-kayak, cycling, fencing, field hockey, golf, karate, lacrosse, rowing, rugby, sailing, skeet shooting, soccer, softball, sporting rifle, swimming, triathlon). The 2012 Ontario Summer Games were mainly held in Toronto, Ontario although some events took place in surrounding municipalities (i.e., Welland and Burlington). The event involved over 1,000 volunteers, 368 coaches, 113 managers, 281 officials, and 21 sport organization representatives. The organizing committee existed for 15 months. The Games organizing committee had 35 members, and included an executive committee and 13 sub-committees. Approximately 150 volunteers played an active role either participating on the organizing committee or assisting on sub-committees. The event’s rights holder is the Sport Alliance of Ontario, and it does not have a formal knowledge management and transfer system in place. The Sport Alliance of Ontario has a vision “to be the
pre-eminent leader in the development of the Ontario Sport System” (Sport Alliance Ontario, 2015, para 1) and its values are quite similar to the Canada Games Council (e.g., excellence, respect, inclusion).

**Case Study Similarities and Differences.** The two case study settings were selected based on a number of similar and differing characteristics. Both events were multi-sport, one-off youth events that took place in Canada and within one year of each other so that they could be in relatively similar political, socio-cultural and economic realities to allow for comparisons (Leopkey & Parent, 2009). Both events were summer, multi-sport, one-off events. As for the types of sports at each event, there was a significant degree of similarity. At the Ontario Summer Games, there were 21 sports and, at the Canada Games, 20 sports. Furthermore, data collection occurred during the same lifecycle mode (i.e., post-event) for both events (cf. Parent, 2008). This research was part of a larger project funded by the Government of Ontario, and in light of this, the funding party was particularly interested/invested in the Ontario provincial event (i.e., Ontario Summer Games), as well as national events that could be held in Ontario. As such, this had an influence over the cases that were chosen for this dissertation. As this research was part of a larger project that examined knowledge management and stakeholder coordination at various event levels, these two cases allowed me to look at an event from each domestic level (i.e., provincial and national), which could then be compared to the international and mega-event data collected for this grant, as well as the existing literature.

The similar context of these two events provided a foundation for comparison. However, there were some differences between the two settings, including the size and level (national versus provincial) of the event, and the location (different provinces, one being a Francophone province that is a “seasoned vet” of event hosting). As well, as the Canada Games are a national
level event, there is significantly more involvement from the Federal Government stakeholder

group than for the provincial event. Additionally, what may be worth mentioning is that the 2012
Ontario Summer Games seemed to act as an unofficial “test-run” for the 2015 Toronto Pan
American Games. After wrap up, many members of the Ontario Summer Games organizing
committee joined the 2015 Toronto Pan American Games organizing committee; and in light of
this, there could have been more emphasis and presence of knowledge management/transfer
processes compared to past and future Ontario Summer Games hosts. The data analysis
considered this element.

Data Collection

As Yin (2013) stated, a main advantage of case study methodology is the use of multiple
methods as it enables a more comprehensive understanding of the phenomena and it considers a
variety of contextual factors. To explore the governance of the two domestic events, specifically
looking at how stakeholder coordination and knowledge management occurred, data were
collected in two ways: semi-structured interviews and archival material. The primary data source
for this study was semi-structured interviews, supported by document analysis of archival
materials.

Semi-structured interviews are ideal because they provide the optimal balance of control
over the interview topics; they allow for more control over the scope of topics than unstructured
interviews, while not limiting or impeding the direction of topics as much as structured
interviews (Smith & Osborn, 2007). Semi-structured interviews grant the interviewee more
freedom to respond according to his/her own ideas and experiences, and they enable the
interviewer to gain insight into the interviewee’s social world (Smith, 2008). The experiences are
“reported and interpreted through the eyes of specific interviewees, and well-informed
respondents can provide important insights” (Yin, 2013, p. 92). The interviewer can establish a
rapport with the interviewee, creating a more comfortable environment that arguably facilitates a
more thorough account of his/her beliefs and experiences regarding the topic at hand.
Additionally, semi-structured interviews allow for the introduction of novel areas of research
(Smith, 2008).

Following Parent (2008), a minimum of two representatives from each stakeholder group
for each event were targeted using purposeful sampling. Ultimately, there were 10 semi-
structured interviews for the Ontario Summer Games and 17 for the Canada Games. In order to
have a representative from all event stakeholders, purposeful sampling, a technique that targets a
certain population based on criteria (Patton, 2002), was used to select participants. Accordingly,
my dissertation involved identifying and selecting information-rich participants who were
especially knowledgeable about, highly involved in, or experienced with the central issues at
hand, and therefore yield insights and in-depth understanding rather than empirical
generalizations (Creswell & Clark, 2011; Patton, 2002; Yin, 2013). As such, participants were
selected based on their ability to represent a key stakeholder group and to contribute to an
understanding of how the stakeholders of a domestic sport event coordinate and transfer
knowledge. Thus, criteria for my study outlined participants as being a member, executive, or
liaison of one of the associated stakeholder groups. None of the selected participants interviewed
were involved in both domestic events. Along with knowledge and experience, Bernard and
Ryan (2010) expressed the importance of availability and willingness to participate. See Table
3.1 for a breakdown of the event stakeholder groups interviewed.

Table 3.1

List of Interviewees
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stakeholder Group</th>
<th>2012 Ontario Summer Games</th>
<th>2013 Canada Games</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organizing Committee</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Host governments</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delegations</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sport Organizations</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sponsors</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total number of participants</strong></td>
<td><strong>10</strong></td>
<td><strong>17</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Due to the distance between the stakeholders and the researcher, some interviews were conducted via telephone if face-to-face meetings were not possible. For the Ontario Summer Games, all 10 interviews were conducted on the telephone. As for the Canada Games, five interviews were conducted via telephone and 12 face to face. Before interviews were conducted, participants had to read, sign, and return a consent form for ethics purposes. See Appendix B and C for a copy of the English and French consent forms, respectively.

It is important to note that this study was part of a larger, Ontario government-funded study led by my supervisor Milena Parent. As such, the interview guide (see Appendix D and E) was adapted from my supervisor’s established interview guide for the 2010 Olympic Games, 2015 Pan American Games, and 2014 Commonwealth Games. This interview guide was based on the literature on knowledge management, stakeholder, and network literatures, which were previously discussed in chapter 2. Using the same interview guide allowed for comparisons between the major and domestic events, an objective of the overall grant, but one outside the scope of this dissertation.

On average, interviews were 55 minutes long. Notes were taken during and immediately after each interview in order to record any notable impressions from the interview and to
describe the interview context. All interviews were digitally recorded and then transcribed verbatim. Transcribed interviews were sent back to the participants for member-checking. Member-checking allowed participants to review their interview transcripts in order to make any necessary modifications, further clarify the meanings of their responses, or simply to affirm their statements, in order to increase the trustworthiness of the data. Interviews were conducted until the researcher believed no new themes were emerging from the data, and thus theoretical saturation was determined to be reached (Bernard & Ryan, 2010) and the data converged.

For case studies, the most significant use of documents is to corroborate and augment evidence from other sources (Yin, 2013). Acquiring and reviewing relevant documents facilitated the examination of knowledge management activities and provided a look at which stakeholders were in contact and communicated with each other.

Archival material complimented, strengthened and triangulated the data collected in the interviews, thus enhancing the quality of research. The 476 documents reviewed included agendas, announcements, newspapers, websites, and administrative documents (e.g., annual reports, final reports). A paper trail of their coordination and communication as well as transferred knowledge helped to enhance the findings and served to complement the semi-structured interviews. Documents were transformed into electronic format (if they were not already in this format) for subsequent data analysis. Documents were analyzed for stakeholder relationships as well as knowledge management processes. For example, documents such as strategic plans, annual reports, the events’ websites, and stakeholder websites were analyzed to examine stakeholder coordination within the event network. Many useful documents were found on the respective Games’ websites and both events had their own archives.
Data Analysis

Computer assisted data analysis, with the aid of ATLAS.ti 6.2, was used to organize the project. ATLAS.ti 6.2 is a qualitative data assessment software that facilitates the coding and retrieval of data. Along with organizing the data, ATLAS.ti was used to code the data by highlighting themes that emerged from the interviews and archival material. Data analysis for research question 1 (stakeholder coordination) was undertaken using network analysis with Excel, UCINET 6.0, and NetDraw 2.0 (Borgatti, Everett, & Freeman, 2002; Borgatti, 2002), as well as content analysis with ATLAS.ti 6.2. Data analysis for research question 2 (knowledge management) was undertaken using content analysis with ATLAS.ti 6.2. UCINET 6.0, the social network analysis software, facilitated the analysis of stakeholder coordination, creating and analyzing the event networks, whereas NetDraw 2.0 was a tool that visually represented the networks in a sociogram. Before data analysis began, all interviews and archival documents were read at least once.

Network analysis. According to Scott (2000), network analysis is appropriate for relational data; relational data are “the contacts, ties, and connections, the group attachments and meetings, which relate one agent to another and so cannot be reduced to the properties of the individual agents themselves” (Scott, 2000, p. 3). Since the first research question concerned stakeholder coordination, the relations between the stakeholders were not the properties of agents, but of systems of agents, connecting pairs of agents into a larger relational system (Scott). Hence, network analysis, “whereby the relations are treated as expressing the linkages which run between agents” (Scott, 2000, p. 3), was an appropriate method of analysis.

To begin, data were openly coded for stakeholder relationships, to see if a tie existed between two stakeholders. If a link did exist, both stakeholders were placed beside each other in
an Excel table. The Excel table include the name of the relationship, the type of coordination, and any other relevant notes the researcher deemed important to document (e.g., support for stakeholder group choice, where to find evidence of the tie, etc.). Through this process, I examined the data for relational aspects between stakeholders. Once all the stakeholder relationships were recorded in the Excel table—a linked list, according to Scott (2000)—I categorized each interviewee to a specific stakeholder group based on their respective organization or role in the event. To ensure trustworthiness, two other researchers associated with the project confirmed the classification of stakeholders, as well as my supervisor.

Before proceeding with the network analyses, I traveled to the LINKs Center at the University of Kentucky for 10 days to work with Steve Borgatti, the creator of the UCINET and NetDraw programming to improve my understanding of Social Network Analysis. On a separate occasion, I also attended a weeklong Social Network Analysis Workshop at the LINKs Center where training on Social Network Analysis was provided at beginner and advanced levels. These training sessions improved my network analysis skills. Steve Borgatti was also able to validate the network analyses used in this study as being appropriate, thereby increasing the trustworthiness of the findings.

Specifically, the stakeholder data were imported into UCINET 6.0, converted into a full matrix (i.e., the network) of event stakeholder coordination, and various analyses were run: degree centrality, eigenvector centrality, betweenness centrality, closeness centrality, multiplexity, transitivity, cliques, core-periphery, density, diameter, average path length, and network degree centralization (see Table 2.1 for descriptions of these measures). The UCINET 6.0 results were then visualized through the NetDraw program where sociograms illustrated the
findings more clearly. UCINET analyses and sociograms are presented in Chapter 4, as they constitute part of my stakeholder coordination results.

**Content analysis.** Qualitative content analysis can be described as “a research method for the subjective interpretation of the content of text data through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns” (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005, p. 1278). Content analysis was selected over other analysis methods in order to allow for coding based on existing literature (e.g., knowledge management at the Olympic Games) (Parent et al., 2014). These approaches were helpful in identifying and classifying themes from the interviews and archival material. Content analysis was useful as this method transcends frequency counts to analyze data for the purpose of classifying large amounts of text into an efficient number of categories that represent similar meanings (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005).

To begin, the data were inputted into ATLAS.ti 6.2 and content analyzed using the guidelines set out by Miles and Huberman (1994), and compared through the comparison techniques of Glaser and Strauss (1967). More precisely, the data were deductively coded based on theoretical framework (e.g., Parent et al., 2013) and, next, they were inductively coded (open-coded) for other activities related to knowledge management. For instance, a few deductive codes used included knowledge identification, knowledge transfer, and knowledge tailoring (from the knowledge management literature), whereas, some inductive codes that emerged included importance of people, use of experience, and knowledge modification. In addition, I considered new concepts, theories and elements that arose from the data, not discussed in the literature. The emerging main categories were then outputted into a table to further analyze the respondents’ perceptions regarding knowledge management theory and practices.
Next, I searched for relationships between and among the established categories, which facilitated the creation of higher-order themes (Corley & Gioia, 2004). The concepts and definitions relating to knowledge management, as the respondents perceived them, provided the basis for collapsing the main categories into themes. Similar themes were then grouped into multiple overarching dimensions that provided the foundation for the emergent models (Corley & Gioia, 2004). From this, an initial draft of a model outlining the knowledge management process that occurred in each event was created. Similar patterns were achieved by comparing codes from interview transcripts with the codes from the archival data (cf. Miles & Huberman, 1994). To enhance trustworthiness, the models underwent multiple revisions as they were compared back to the data (constant comparison technique) and were discussed with my supervisor and colleagues in lab meetings. Additionally, the model was presented at the North American Society for Sport Management (NASSM) Conference to sport management academics and practitioners (see below). The models were modified following these peer feedback sessions and compared to each other, as well as to existing literature (e.g., Parent et al., 2014), the result of which is presented in this dissertation.

To increase the quality of research, parts of this dissertation were presented multiple times at conferences, including one poster presentation at the 2014 NASSM Conference and two oral presentations at the 2014 European Association for Sport Management Conference. The stakeholder coordination results are currently under review at the *Journal of Sport Management* within a broader article on domestic and international event stakeholder coordination. Lastly, an article derived from the knowledge management findings in dissertation, which includes comparisons to the international events (2014 Commonwealth Games and 2015 Pan American Games), was submitted to *European Sport Management Quarterly* and received a revise and
resubmit evaluation at the time of writing this dissertation. As such, these activities, as well as those mentioned earlier in the chapter, increased the quality and trustworthiness of this dissertation’s findings and contributions.
CHAPTER 4

Results – Research Question 1: Stakeholder Coordination

One of the main questions addressed in this dissertation is how stakeholder coordination occurs at each domestic level. This study used various network analyses to answer the research question at hand. The stakeholder networks for each event are first presented, compared and contrasted. Next, a deeper analysis of the stakeholder ties is provided.

Stakeholder Networks

Both event networks had 24 actors, but each event had one stakeholder group that did not appear in the other: the Federal Government at the Canada Games and an international sponsor at the Ontario Summer Games, as highlighted within the Table 4.1. The list of acronyms explaining each acronym for this table, as well as subsequent tables and figures, can be found in the preliminary pages of this dissertation. The presence of the Federal Government at the Canada Games is unsurprising given the national scope of the event; whereas, the presence of an international sponsor at the Ontario Summer Games is an outlier, which is likely specific to the location of this edition of the event. This international sponsor is likely only present because the event was held in Toronto. Thus, the stakeholder network is the same size at each event and the number of stakeholder groups involved is essentially the same. Again, refer to Table 4.1 for a complete list of stakeholder groups at each domestic event. The sociograms in Figure 4.1 and Figure 4.2 depict the complete stakeholder network of the Canada Games and Ontario Summer Games, respectively.

To examine and compare stakeholder coordination in each Games network, various network measures (e.g., density, betweenness, eigenvector, etc.) analyzing each event are
### Table 4.1

**Stakeholder Groups**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Canada Games</th>
<th>Ontario Summer Games</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ath-del</td>
<td>Ath-del</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Con-oth</td>
<td>Con-oth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cross-oth</td>
<td>Cross-oth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Federal-gov</strong></td>
<td>Groups-com</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Groups-com</td>
<td>Internet-med</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet-med</td>
<td><strong>Intl-spn</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LB-com</td>
<td>LB-com</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local-gov</td>
<td>Local-gov</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local-spn</td>
<td>Local-spn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local-spo</td>
<td>Local-spo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mission-del</td>
<td>Mission-del</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NGO-oth</td>
<td>NGO-oth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National-spn</td>
<td>National-spn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National-spo</td>
<td>National-spo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other-spo</td>
<td>Other-spo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Print-med</td>
<td>Print-med</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prov-gov</td>
<td>Prov-gov</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prov-spo</td>
<td>Prov-spo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radio-med</td>
<td>Radio-med</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rez-com</td>
<td>Rez-com</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff-oc</td>
<td>Staff-oc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TV-med</td>
<td>TV-med</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venue-oth</td>
<td>Venue-oth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vol-oc</td>
<td>Vol-oc</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: Bolded stakeholder groups not present in both events.*
Figure 4.1  Canada Games Stakeholder Network
presented in Table 4.2. See Table 2.1 in the theory chapter for definitions of each measure. The densities of each network were almost identical, with the Canada Games having a slightly larger density than the Ontario Summer Games. That is, despite the difference in the scale of these events, the national event is as cohesive, if not more cohesive, than the provincial event. Given the higher density measure at the Canada Games, the stakeholders at the national event seemed to be well connected—or equally as well connected—as the smaller provincial event. This means
that the stakeholders on the periphery at the Canada Games were more likely to have more connections; hence, there was more coordination occurring, generally speaking, at the national event than the provincial event. This demonstrates that there is a high degree of coordination at both events, with perhaps more coordination occurring at the national level event.

Table 4.2

Network Analyses of Domestic Events

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measure</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Canada Games</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ego level</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree (s)</td>
<td>Staff-oc (31.96)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>National-spo (21.30)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>National-spn (11.09)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eigenvector Centrality (p)</td>
<td>Staff-oc (78.21)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>National-spo (76.79)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>National-spn (47.29)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Betweenness Centrality (p)</td>
<td>Staff-oc (22.481)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>National-spo (12.863)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>National-spn (10.103)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Closeness Centrality (p)</td>
<td>Staff-oc (92.00)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>National-spo (85.19)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Venue-oth (69.70)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dyad level</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duration of Tie (p)</td>
<td>Presence of recurring stakeholders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiplexity (s &amp; p)</td>
<td>Organizing Committee (8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sport Organizations (8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Government (7)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In both events, the organizing committee and sport organizations had the highest degree. Specifically, the staff of the organizing committee had the highest degree, denoting that the organizing committee had the most connections and coordinated the most within both networks. Next, sport organizations had the second highest degree at both events—national sport organizations at the Canada Games and local sport organizations at the Ontario Summer Games—indicating that the sport organizations were also major contributors to coordination within the event network. Therefore, the key stakeholders in terms of degree/connections were the same at both events.

Regarding connectivity, although the Canada Games had a larger diameter than the Ontario Summer Games (4 versus 3, respectively), the average path lengths at both events were almost identical (Canada Games: 1.72; Ontario Summer Games: 1.70). This demonstrated that, in both
events, any stakeholder group could reach another in less than two ties. This is a positive reflection of the coordination mechanisms in place at these events, as both networks displayed a high degree of connectivity. The relatively low network centralization measures suggest that the stakeholder ties did not focus on one main stakeholder. The coordination efforts were not dependent on one stakeholder group in either event. That is, although the organizing committee is a salient stakeholder group, they are not the be-all and end-all. However, network degree centralization measures were significantly higher in the national event, which would indicate that the network is more centralized around one or few actor(s) in the national level event. This is likely due to the enduring ties at the national event as compared with the provincial event. The larger proportion of new stakeholders involved in the provincial event would require more coordination from all actors, thus decentralizing the coordination efforts, as opposed to the national event where more recurring stakeholders are present and are more likely to coordinate with/through the same stakeholder groups each time. Table 4.3 provides a list of recurring stakeholders per event, demonstrating there are significantly more for the Canada Games than Ontario Summer Games.

As for transitivity, both domestic events had similar transitivity values, with the Ontario Summer Games having a marginally higher number, (50.32% for the Canada Games network and 52.71% for the Ontario Summer Games). This means that approximately half the ties were transitive and half were not. That is, half the network was highly connected, which seems to point to a degree of trust existing between stakeholders and thus provided a favourable environment for knowledge sharing. On the other hand, the other half of the network was not transitive, which can actually be beneficial for a more effective and efficient knowledge network, as it allows for innovation and fewer redundancies. Ultimately, both networks appeared to be
relatively balanced structures, which could reflect an efficient network, and one optimal for trust, innovation and redundancy minimization, while ensuring adequate knowledge sharing.

Table 4.3

Recurring Stakeholders at Each Event

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Canada Games</th>
<th>Ontario Summer Games</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sport Canada</td>
<td>Sport Alliance Ontario</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Host Society</td>
<td>Provincial Sport Organizations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provincial/Territorial Governments (the teams)</td>
<td>Provincial Government</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Host Aboriginal Organization (not always, but often)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada Games Council</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Sport Organizations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multi-Sport Organizations (E.g., Coaching Association of Canada, AthletesCAN, Canadian Association for Advancement of Women and Sport, Sport Dispute Resolution Centre of Canada)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sponsors (Columbia, Deloitte, Tech, Sport Experts/Sport Chek, Shaw, Canadian Olympic Committee, The Look Company, Kimik IT, Sage, Panago, American Express, TSN/RDS)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In terms of centrality measures, the staff of the organizing committee in both events had the highest betweenness centrality. For both events, sport organizations scored among the highest actors in terms of betweenness centrality. These findings demonstrate that, in both events, the organizing committee had the most control over the flow of information. Sport organizations were also potential candidates for controlling the flow of information. Thus, when establishing or refining knowledge management principles, the organizing committee seems to be a good place
to start, followed by sport organizations. Betweenness centrality was illustrated using sociograms in Figure 4.3 and Figure 4.4. Additionally, more event stakeholder betweenness values are outlined in Table 4.4.

Figure 4.3  Canada Games Betweenness Centrality with Tie Strength
While the Canada Games organizing committee staff had the highest eigenvector centrality, interestingly, the local sport organizations had the highest eigenvector centrality at the Ontario Summer Games, followed by the organizing committee staff with the second highest eigenvector centrality. These findings suggest that the organizing committee is the most powerful/important stakeholder group at the Canada Games, whereas, the local sport organizations were the most powerful at the Ontario Summer Games. The local sport
Table 4.4

Event Stakeholder Betweenness Centrality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Canada Games</th>
<th>Freeman Betweenness (normalized)</th>
<th>Ontario Summer Games</th>
<th>Stakeholder</th>
<th>Freeman Betweenness (normalized)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Staff-oc</td>
<td>22.481</td>
<td>Staff-oc</td>
<td>34.866</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National-spo</td>
<td>12.863</td>
<td>Groups-com</td>
<td>11.941</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National-spn</td>
<td>10.103</td>
<td>Local-spo</td>
<td>10.255</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prov-gov</td>
<td>9.590</td>
<td>Prov-spo</td>
<td>10.162</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venue-oth</td>
<td>5.527</td>
<td>Local-gov</td>
<td>5.367</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LB-com</td>
<td>4.171</td>
<td>Print-med</td>
<td>2.032</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Print-med</td>
<td>3.214</td>
<td>Rez-com</td>
<td>0.455</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radio-med</td>
<td>3.205</td>
<td>LB-com</td>
<td>0.402</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mission-del</td>
<td>2.014</td>
<td>Ath-del</td>
<td>0.254</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prov-spo</td>
<td>1.007</td>
<td>Vol-oc</td>
<td>0.056</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rez-com</td>
<td>0.797</td>
<td>Internet-med</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Federal-gov</td>
<td>0.764</td>
<td>National-spn</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other-spo</td>
<td>0.735</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Groups-com</td>
<td>0.728</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vol-oc</td>
<td>0.665</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local-gov</td>
<td>0.519</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ath-del</td>
<td>0.143</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet-med</td>
<td>0.088</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Only stakeholders with a betweenness value above 0.05 are shown.

organization surpassing the organizing committee in terms of importance may be due to the Games-related events that the local sport organizations held leading up to the event. This highlights how stakeholders can increase their importance by hosting events that bring other
event stakeholders together. Eigenvector centrality measures for both events are illustrated in Table 4.5.

For both events, the organizing committee staff had the highest closeness centrality scores. Closeness centrality measures for both events are illustrated in Table 4.6. For the Canada Games, the next two highest stakeholder groups in terms closeness centrality were national sport organizations and the venue stakeholders. For the Ontario Summer Games, it was schools and community groups as well as provincial sport organizations. These findings reveal the key stakeholders that can easily access other actors within the network. Hence, the organizing committee was most easily able to access information in the network. At both the national and provincial events, sport organizations were found as having high closeness centrality as well. Thus, sport organizations are in a position to easily access information and hear about innovations within the network. Thus, they had increased potential to coordinate with other actors.

As for network subgroups, the results revealed the presence of several cliques, with slightly more cliques in the national event network. Out of 24 actors, there were actually 27 cliques at the national event and 20 at the provincial event. The existence of numerous cliques implies the stakeholder groups were highly interconnected in both networks. Further, this interconnection is indicative of a certain degree of communication and trust within each network. Correspondingly, the findings demonstrated that, in both events, approximately half the network had transitive ties. This means there were almost an equal number of strongly interconnected stakeholders as disconnected ones. The transitivity results suggest both networks had relatively balanced structures. There was opportunity for innovation through disconnected stakeholder groups, but through the strongly connected actors, there was potential for trust and knowledge dissemination.
Table 4.5

Event Stakeholder Eigenvector Centrality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Canada Games</th>
<th>Eigenvector Centrality (normalized)</th>
<th>Ontario Summer Games</th>
<th>Eigenvector Centrality (normalized)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stakeholder</td>
<td></td>
<td>Stakeholder</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff-oc</td>
<td>78.209</td>
<td>Local-spo</td>
<td>93.268</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National-spo</td>
<td>76.790</td>
<td>LB-com</td>
<td>50.283</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National-spn</td>
<td>47.291</td>
<td>Staff-oc</td>
<td>48.805</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Groups-com</td>
<td>30.692</td>
<td>Groups-com</td>
<td>39.678</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local-gov</td>
<td>24.502</td>
<td>Local-gov</td>
<td>35.852</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venue-oth</td>
<td>24.010</td>
<td>Prov-spo</td>
<td>34.358</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other-spo</td>
<td>22.385</td>
<td>Internet-med</td>
<td>26.182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prov-gov</td>
<td>21.772</td>
<td>Rez-com</td>
<td>16.073</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vol-oc</td>
<td>20.283</td>
<td>Con-oth</td>
<td>15.365</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mission-del</td>
<td>19.077</td>
<td>Ath-del</td>
<td>15.108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Federal-gov</td>
<td>18.934</td>
<td>Print-med</td>
<td>14.799</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LB-com</td>
<td>18.522</td>
<td>Prov-gov</td>
<td>14.104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ath-del</td>
<td>16.669</td>
<td>National-spn</td>
<td>11.415</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rez-com</td>
<td>16.337</td>
<td>National-spo</td>
<td>10.634</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radio-med</td>
<td>12.188</td>
<td>Local-spn</td>
<td>9.687</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prov-spo</td>
<td>9.682</td>
<td>Other-spo</td>
<td>8.293</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TV-med</td>
<td>7.959</td>
<td>NGO-oth</td>
<td>7.873</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet-med</td>
<td>7.151</td>
<td>Venue-oth</td>
<td>5.150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NGO-oth</td>
<td>6.265</td>
<td>Vol-oc</td>
<td>3.934</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local-spn</td>
<td>4.031</td>
<td>Mission-del</td>
<td>2.694</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local-spo</td>
<td>3.840</td>
<td>Cross-oth</td>
<td>1.957</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Con-oth</td>
<td>2.298</td>
<td>Radio-med</td>
<td>1.219</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cross-oth</td>
<td>0.353</td>
<td>TV-med</td>
<td>1.166</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.6

*Event Stakeholder Closeness Centrality*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Canada Games</th>
<th>Ontario Summer Games</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stakeholder</td>
<td>Closeness Centrality (normalized)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff-oc</td>
<td>92.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National-spo</td>
<td>85.185</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venue-oth</td>
<td>69.697</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LB-com</td>
<td>67.647</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radio-med</td>
<td>65.714</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National-spn</td>
<td>63.889</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prov-gov</td>
<td>63.889</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mission-del</td>
<td>63.889</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Print-med</td>
<td>62.162</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prov-spo</td>
<td>60.526</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Federal-gov</td>
<td>60.526</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rez-com</td>
<td>60.526</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other-spo</td>
<td>58.974</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vol-oc</td>
<td>58.974</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local-gov</td>
<td>58.974</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Groups-com</td>
<td>58.974</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ath-del</td>
<td>54.762</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet-med</td>
<td>53.488</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local-spo</td>
<td>52.273</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TV-med</td>
<td>52.273</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local-spn</td>
<td>50.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NGO-oth</td>
<td>50.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Con-oth</td>
<td>39.655</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cross-oth</td>
<td>39.655</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In terms of the core-periphery results in particular, many of the stakeholder groups involved in the core were the same for both events. The core was quite dispersed within both networks. See Figure 4.5 and Figure 4.6 for a visualization of the core-periphery findings, along with tie strength. The Canada Games had 13 stakeholder groups in the core and 11 in the periphery. The Ontario Summer Games had 10 stakeholder groups in the core and 14 in the periphery. The large core in each of these events means that there is a high degree of coordination occurring between many stakeholder groups. That is, coordination is dispersed within the network and not occurring only between a few groups. See Table 4.7 for a list of stakeholders in the core. For the Canada Games, of the 13 stakeholder groups in the core, nine of these groups were also present in the core of the Ontario Summer Games (see bolded stakeholders in Table 4.6).

Figures 4.7 and 4.8 depict the density of the core specifically, as opposed to the whole network (as found in Figures 4.5 and 4.6). Figures 4.7 and 4.8 show that the core density at the Ontario Summer Games is significantly higher than the core density at the Canada Games. The higher core density at the provincial event refers back to the presence of mainly new stakeholders. Hence, the stakeholders in the core were in higher need of constant coordination and communication in order to figure out their roles and responsibilities related to the event.

In summary, in terms of coordination, the organizing committee and sport organizations appeared to be the most salient stakeholder in both event networks. However, there were many stakeholders involved in the coordination for both events, and both networks seemed to be cohesive. Hence, the networks in place at both events seemed to be effective coordination mechanisms for organizing and implementing the respective events.
Figure 4.5  Canada Games Core-Periphery Stakeholders with Tie Strength. Core stakeholder groups indicated with black nodes and peripheral stakeholder groups indicated with gray nodes.
Figure 4.6  Ontario Summer Games Core-Periphery Stakeholders with Tie Strength. Core stakeholder groups indicated with black nodes and peripheral stakeholder groups indicated with gray nodes.
Table 4.7

*Core Stakeholder Groups for Domestic Events*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Canada Games</th>
<th>Ontario Summer Games</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Staff-oc</strong></td>
<td><strong>Staff-oc</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Groups-com</strong></td>
<td><strong>Groups-com</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ath-del</strong></td>
<td><strong>Ath-del</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>National-spo</strong></td>
<td><strong>Prov-spo</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Other-spo</strong></td>
<td><strong>Local-spo</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>LB-com</strong></td>
<td><strong>LB-com</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Local-gov</strong></td>
<td><strong>Local-gov</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Federal-gov</td>
<td>Rez-com</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prov-gov</td>
<td>Internet-med</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vol-oc</td>
<td>Con-oth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National-spn</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mission-del</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venue-oth</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Bolded groups were present in the core at both events.
# Figure 4.7  Canada Games Core-Periphery Density Matrix

The table below represents the blocked adjacency matrix for the Canada Games Core-Periphery Density Matrix. Each cell in the matrix indicates the density between two categories of entities:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>11</th>
<th>12</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ath-del</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National-spo</td>
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<td>5</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other-spo</td>
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<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
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<tr>
<td>Federal-gov</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>17</td>
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<td>4</td>
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</tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local-gov</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff-occ</td>
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<td>17</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>17</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
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<tr>
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<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mission-del</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prov-gov</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venue-oth</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet-med</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local-spns</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cross-oth</td>
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<tr>
<td>Prov-spns</td>
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<td>Radio-med</td>
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<tr>
<td>Local-med</td>
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<tr>
<td>TV-med</td>
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<td>NZC-med</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grp-med</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The density matrix indicates the strength of connections between the categories. The values represent the density of interactions or relationships between the categories.
The stakeholders in the event network used multiple types of ties to coordinate. The types of ties found in both events included collaboration, communication, coordinating bridge, instrumental, legal, authority/power, transactional, and external link. The types of ties per stakeholder group at both events are outlined in Table 4.8. The stakeholder network tie distributions and frequencies of tie type are presented in Tables 4.9 and 4.10. The two most preferred types of ties were communication and collaboration. More specifically, Canada Games stakeholders generally preferred communication, except for the sponsors, which used mainly transactional ties. Ontario Summer Games sponsors likewise preferred transactional ties, while
the Ontario Summer Games organizing committee opted to use collaboration types of ties more
than other tie types. The remaining Ontario Summer Games stakeholders seemed to prefer
communication, as per the Canada Games stakeholders. Implications of these findings will be
discussed in chapter 6.

Table 4.8

*Number of Ties per Stakeholder Group*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stakeholder Group</th>
<th>Canada Games</th>
<th>Ontario Summer Games</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organizing Committee</td>
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<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Governments</td>
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<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delegations</td>
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<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sport Organizations</td>
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<td>7</td>
</tr>
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<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community</td>
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<td>6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sponsor</td>
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<tr>
<td>Other</td>
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Table 4.9

*Canada Games Stakeholder Network Tie Distribution*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tie Type</th>
<th>Organizing Committee</th>
<th>Governments</th>
<th>Delegations</th>
<th>Sport Organizations</th>
<th>Media</th>
<th>Community</th>
<th>Sponsors</th>
<th>Others</th>
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<tr>
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<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>Legal</td>
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<tr>
<td>Authority/power</td>
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<tr>
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<td>135</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>94</td>
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Table 4.10

*Ontario Summer Games Stakeholder Network Tie Distribution*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tie Type</th>
<th>Organizing Committee</th>
<th>Governments</th>
<th>Delegations</th>
<th>Sport Organizations</th>
<th>Media</th>
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<tr>
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<td>1</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>14</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>75</td>
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</table>
CHAPTER 5

Results – Research Question 2: Knowledge Management and Transfer

The data indicated the Ontario Summer Games had no formal knowledge management system in place, though some knowledge transfer did occur at the discretion of the organizing committee. Conversely, the Canada Games did have a formal knowledge management system in place, and thus knowledge transfer occurred. When building and comparing each event’s knowledge management/transfer process, despite differences in the existence (or not) of a formalized knowledge management/transfer process, there were negligible differences found between the two domestic events. Participants from both the national and provincial events explained the overall process of knowledge management quite similarly; thus, the knowledge management and transfer processes emerging from the data were essentially the same, as illustrated in Figures 5.1 and 5.2, and were seen to be consistent across stakeholder groups.

Yet, not all stakeholders were aware that a knowledge management program existed, indicating that these events may not optimally be engaging with their stakeholders regarding this issue. The only major difference between the two events was the Canada Games’ feedback loop due to it hosting test events prior to Games-time, which provided an opportunity to learn and further tailor knowledge or create new knowledge that could then be applied at actual Games-time. Overall, the knowledge management system at both domestic events consisted of six processes: 1) Identification; 2) Acquisition; 3) Creation; 4) Application; 5) Storage; and 6) Transfer. The knowledge management system and key processes are described below.

Identification

The first step in the knowledge management system was knowledge identification. Respondents described this process as identifying what knowledge is needed and where to find
that knowledge (i.e. knowledge source). The possible knowledge sources varied (e.g.,
documents, people, previous Games, past experience), but strong emphasis was put on
identifying the people with the appropriate knowledge. Ontario Summer Games Sponsor
Representative 1 described this process as “determining what kind of information I might need.”
Ontario Summer Games Rights Holder Representative 1 noted “you identify that a knowledge
source exists or you identify that you, yourself, have the knowledge to be able to deliver your
responsibilities within your portfolio.” Along the same lines, Canada Games Sponsor
Representative 1 explained “I would have to appoint certain resources to do certain tasks or
certain files, [so] I would try to make the best identification of the person owning that specific
Figure 5.2  Canada Games Knowledge Management Processes

knowledge.” Similarly, Canada Games Rights Holder Representative 2 added, “There is an ongoing database in terms of best practices, information, and resources that are then able to be identified and used by stakeholder groups.” Hence, event stakeholders first determined what type of knowledge they needed to do their Games-related tasks, and where to get said knowledge.

Ontario Summer Games Rights Holder Representative 1 provided several examples of knowledge sources that were used for the Games:

Knowledge can be obtained through various avenues. Knowledge can be attained just through the staffing and the knowledge that exists within the staff that work for [the rights
holder] within the Games department. We obtain our knowledge through communication with other provinces and territories about their multi-sport Games. We obtain knowledge through ongoing communication with the provincial sport organizations to ensure that we have a full understanding of what’s important to them as a key partner within the Games. We also have a very good working relationship with the government, the provincial government. So, it ensures that we’re always becoming aware of what they want to see and are addressing that.

Here, the respondent outlined several individual-based knowledge sources identified as valuable for her with event-specific responsibilities, namely experience and personal knowledge within individuals, communicating with other provinces, delegations, sport organizations, governments.

**Acquisition and Creation**

Once the necessary knowledge and respective sources were identified, one of two things happened. First, if the identified knowledge already existed, then knowledge acquisition occurred, where knowledge was simply acquired from the source. Knowledge was often acquired from an existing source, be it an expert, a lived experience or a document. Ontario Summer Games Provincial Sport Organization Representative 1 explained, “If we had any questions, we would acquire that information from the Summer Games people.” In turn, Canada Games Rights Holder Representative 1 highlighted the importance of people as a knowledge source for acquisition:

Knowledge acquisition is the utilization of experts; people who have that knowledge, who, it’s not a book, it’s not a document, it’s not a policy, it’s a person. And being able to connect those knowledge experts with the appropriate people in Host Societies. So, it’s the [rights holders’] and the benefit to the Host Society of acquiring that expertise in a person.
Here, the respondent outlined the significant role people play as a knowledge source. Simply, Canada Games National Sport Organization Representative 1 discussed knowledge acquisition as “accessing knowledge from past events.” Second, if the necessary information did not already exist, then knowledge was created. Knowledge creation meant new knowledge was built above and beyond what was already known. For instance, Ontario Summer Games Provincial Sport Organization Representative 3 expounded her experience creating knowledge:

I’m not sure that we had a lot of knowledge when it started. It was sort of built. So, maybe that’s what the knowledge management is. It wasn’t about managing existing knowledge. It was the building of knowledge to bring about a successful Games.

In this case, knowledge management is viewed as building new knowledge necessary to execute an effective or successful event. Likewise, Ontario Summer Games Organizing Committee Representative 1 discussed the process of knowledge creation as “any new knowledge… whether it’s a new policy, anything additional, manual information… anything that is created above and beyond what we already know.” In the same light, Canada Games Rights Holder Representative 1 explained,

We run into situations where, either due to unique or local circumstances, or for that matter gaps in what we already have with past knowledge, is where a Host Society has to create from scratch, some procedure, policy, or any documentation that is brand new, but did not exist in the past.

Thus, there were situations in both events where knowledge was created from the ground up to ensure the delivery of a successful event.

Finally, another form of knowledge creation occurred where new knowledge was created out of existing knowledge or by incorporating previous experience or other existing knowledge
as a foundation to build upon; this was the process of knowledge tailoring. As an Ontario Summer Games Provincial Sport Organization representative noted, “that was probably the best label for what we did; where we started from having knowledge about a sport, to really creating knowledge about a Games.” Along the same lines, Canada Games Rights Holder Representative discussed the process of creating something new out of existing knowledge:

There is a lot of knowledge in what’s created. Even in the fine-tuning. If it’s a best practice in 2011, and 2013 uses it, I guarantee you they’ve tweaked it a bit, and nine times out of ten, made it even better. Right?

Hence, knowledge creation also occurred by expanding on or tailoring existing knowledge to produce something new. Community Representative 1 illustrated this point as well:

We have learned a lot during the Games. I know that some Games are different from one to another. There are different situations or context that means that the same thing could not be done… The transfer of knowledge, you can use it, but to a certain degree, because it’s not the same thing that can be done exactly the same in Sherbrooke.

The respondent highlighted the idea that acquiring existing knowledge is helpful, but it may only be used to a certain degree. Thus, prior knowledge is of value, but it often may need to be tailored in some regard to apply it to the present Games. This was a common finding in both events: tailoring existing knowledge to create something new. Consequently, a knowledge tailoring and learning process element existed between the acquisition and creation processes as seen in both Figure 5.1 and 5.2.

At both events, the process of knowledge acquisition was retrieving the identified relevant information (e.g., past experience, learnings, expertise). Hence, once knowledge needs are identified, knowledge is either acquired from an existing source, created new, or tailoring from
existing knowledge/previous experience. It should be noted, however, that identification, acquisition and application may be conceptually distinct, but they can occur together within a knowledge management process. Ontario Summer Games Sponsor Representative 1 described the concurrent process of identification, acquisition and application, outlining that knowledge needs were identified, acquired and then applied in the event setting: “[First] determining what kind of information I might need [i.e., identification]. Maybe it’s research, or maybe it’s past experience, and they’re things to apply [i.e., application]—that I would take the initiative to go and get that information” [i.e., acquisition].

**Knowledge Storage (I)**

Once knowledge was acquired or created, it had to be stored in some form for use by the organizers or stakeholders, as the following quote highlights:

> Whether it’s through creation, [or] through transfer of knowledge, that you may not need at this time, but, you are putting into a resource or putting away in a file that you may use in the future, that can help benefit the work that you’re doing. (Ontario Summer Games Rights Holder Representative 1)

Here, this participant discussed knowledge storage in terms of a material or physical resource, including databases (e.g., intranet/extranet), documents, final reports and the like; however, other participants emphasized the idea that knowledge can also be stored within people. Yet, storing knowledge held in individuals was perceived as being difficult for many stakeholders, such as this Sponsor Representative from the Canada Games: “It's a problem in all organizations because people are retiring and taking all their knowledge with them because nobody found a solution to store their knowledge.”
**Application**

Once knowledge was created or acquired, it was subsequently applied. That is, the next knowledge management process that occurred at both events was knowledge application, where learnings were put into action and knowledge was applied practically. Ontario Summer Games Organizing Committee Representative 1 described the knowledge application process as “Taking what we’ve asked them to do and actually doing it.” Similarly, Ontario Summer Games Provincial Sport Organization Representative 2 said, “Within that Games, it was when people were willing to answer my questions [i.e., knowledge acquisition] and then we took that knowledge and we applied it to make sure that the Games, the actual event, went smoothly.”

Ontario Summer Games Rights Holder Representative 1 explained the process of knowledge application in the same manner:

> Taking the information that has been provided through the various means that we just talked about. Whether it’s creation, whether it’s transfer of knowledge, and applying it to the work that you’re doing, in order to deliver the Games in a successful manner.

The last two quotes underlined that the application of knowledge is necessary to plan for, organize and implement a “successful” event.

Knowledge application occurred in a similar fashion at the Canada Games. Canada Games Rights Holder Representative 1 clarified, it is “not only having access to the best practices and mistakes of previous Host Societies, but actually taking that information and applying it in their own situation.” It is about “taking it from a document into practice” (Canada Games Rights Holder Representative 1). The example Canada Games Organizing Committee Representative 2 provided was “to see every training session that we did… to see it in action.” Correspondingly, Canada Games Organizing Committee Representative 3 affirmed, “[Volunteers] were really able
to work by themselves and to solve every problem in their venue and they didn’t have to call us.
Therefore, a key instance of knowledge application was to witness volunteers applying their
learnings come Games time. This represents the idea that knowledge application was about
stakeholders applying knowledge practically to the Games.

However, knowledge application also encompassed applying knowledge in other/future activities. Canada Games Sponsor Representative 1 spoke to this idea, “It’s the way you’re going to take this new knowledge and make it live through or use it in other areas…How do I take what I’ve learned and apply it to other situations?” Ontario Summer Games Provincial Sport Organization Representative 2 agreed that knowledge application included “learning from people’s experience and then applying it to a new situation.” Thus, the process of knowledge application included Games-time and other circumstances, as well as future endeavours.

Although the knowledge application process was almost identical at the Canada Games, there was the presence of a test event for this event, thus, introducing the feedback loop into the Canada Games knowledge management system. Canada Games National Sport Organization Representative 1 discussed the value of the test event:

I think most sports are using [test events]. I think it’s important to do it if you are using the field for the first time. I think it gives you good feedback in order to make appropriate changes as needed [i.e., tailoring]. In some cases, if the facility has been used before for an international or national event maybe, there is no need. Then it becomes more of a good practice for volunteers and for testing the fields. So, I think it’s important.

The respondent mentioned the importance of feedback in order to make “appropriate changes” for the actual event, thus, tailoring knowledge to create something more effective for application come Games time.
Knowledge Storage (II)

After knowledge was applied during the event, it was stored for future use by whomever (e.g., external stakeholders, future organizing committees). Respondents specified knowledge storage was to ensure knowledge (here, learnings and best practices) is retained for later transfer and use. Ontario Summer Games Provincial Government Representative 1 emphasized this aspect:

It’s making sure the knowledge isn’t lost. For example, for an event like this, it’s going to happen in the future. So, make sure whatever knowledge you gain from this experience is around for the next group that needs that knowledge.

Relatedly, Ontario Summer Games Organizing Committee Representative 1 illustrated a similar notion, explaining knowledge storage is the process of “how we safeguard all the information that we’ve learned and translate that into whether it’s a final report, recommendations, etc., so that future users can benefit from it.” Both these quotes highlight the idea that knowledge was stored with knowledge transfer in mind and, the importance of ensuring knowledge is not lost for the next people who need it. Ontario Summer Games Provincial Sport Organization Representative 1 discussed the storage mechanism they used for the Games, “We maintain a data file or information file on the Games that we could refer to when the next Games come along.” Hence, the respondent outlined the idea of storing knowledge for future use. Similarly, Ontario Summer Games Organizing Committee Representative 1 stressed the benefit of documentation for future hosts,

The only thing that I would maybe add was one thing that’s very important—which is what we’re finalizing right now—are final reports from previous Games. They prove to be very helpful for future committees… That knowledge storage of information is
extremely important so that they don’t have to reinvent the wheel every time they start another set of Games.

Knowledge storage could be done through tacit means (i.e., individuals) or explicit means (documents, such as files, final reports or minute meetings, as well as presentations, extranet and intranet systems, templates, etc.). Various types of documents were stored. Ontario Summer Games Organizing Committee Representative 2 listed examples of items that were stored for future use:

All [Games] information is stored on the back end. So, any tools that would be provided, including all of the operation manuals, past samples from Games, for instance a sample press release, past budgets, registration forms, all that stuff, would be stored on the back end. So, any volunteer, so let’s say a registration volunteer, any policy around registration, she could go in and look at past ones, as well as [the ones from] these Games.

Again, the respondent highlighted the importance of storage in order to pass on learnings and best practices from Games to Games.

For the Canada Games, the process of knowledge storage was quite similar, though perhaps more sophisticated or formal. As Canada Games Rights Holder Representative 1 boasted, “The system we’ve created to store knowledge allows us to actually directly say, ‘Okay, I want to send this document to this person’s e-mail, cause they need to have it now’ kind of thing.” He pointed out how important it is for the rights holders to [Make] sure we’re collecting from the Host Society what they’re producing in terms of knowledge, in terms of physical documentation, and then finding a way to categorize that
information and then preparing that information for the next phase being the actual
transfer of that knowledge.

Thus, knowledge is stored for immediate or future transfer/use. Determining what knowledge to
store, that is, what knowledge would be of value for the next Games, or for the next person in the
same role, needed to be considered. Accordingly, Canada Games National Sport Organization
Representative 1 discussed storing knowledge in order to make it easier on the people who are to
fill his shoes in the future. He discussed the process of knowledge storage as “storage of
information—the report and everything. So, if I leave, then at least the next person who would sit
in my chair would have some sort of knowledge about what happened before so they can prepare
properly.” In this instant, the respondent acknowledged that storage was a way to avoid
“reinventing the wheel.”

Notably, future use can include the present and future Games as well as other (non-
Games-related) situations. For instance, Ontario Summer Games Rights Holder Representative 1
explained,

You may have been provided with information through various means…that you may not
need at this time, but you are putting into a resource or putting away in a file that you
may use in the future, that can help benefit the work that you’re doing.

Thus, knowledge can be stored for subsequent use at the present Games, as well as for future
events. As can be seen in many of the previous responses, knowledge can be stored in the form
of documentation (i.e., explicit knowledge), as well as internally in people (tacit knowledge).
This is one of the challenges of knowledge management: how to effectively store and transfer
internal/personal knowledge.
Another unique finding that emerged from the data was the idea of determining what knowledge to store, that is, distinguishing what knowledge would be of value for the next Games, or for the next person in the same role. Stakeholders were concerned with ensuring the knowledge stored would be valuable for future stakeholder needs. For instance, Organizing Committee Representative 2 believed, for effective storage, they needed to “identify what information does the next society need to know in advance for example, that will help it planning its events.” Similarly, Canada Games Rights Holder Representative 1 outlined,

[We need to be] able to identify what documentation that has been created is important to pass on, because that’s one of the big things is that, if you simply pass on everything, it’s information overload. You have to be able to pass on the right information at the right time and to the right people. And that’s tricky.

In this case, the participant highlighted the importance of not just simply storing “any old knowledge,” but instead, ensuring that what is kept to pass on is useful for the next person, and that it is readily available for the right person, thus establishing a foundation for a more efficient and effective transfer. This brings us to the next knowledge management process: once knowledge was stored, it was ready to be transferred.

**Transfer**

Ultimately, the preceding knowledge management processes led to the final goal of knowledge transfer. The process of knowledge transfer included the sharing of information, passing on personal knowledge and/or experience, and transferring best practices and recommendations. As an example, the *2012 Ontario Summer Games Review and Legacy Update* (City of Toronto, 2013, p. 6) outlined, “Through the pilot use of Volunteer2 [the volunteer management software] during the 2012 Games, the City of Toronto is now using Volunteer2
software for managing event volunteers.” This quote indicates that best practices are not only transferred from one Games organizing committee to the next, but also amongst Games stakeholders. Ontario Summer Games Provincial Sport Organization Representative 1 discussed the process of knowledge transfer as “passing information on to our stakeholders [and] our participants.” Ontario Summer Games Rights Holder Representative 1 referred to knowledge transfer in two regards:

Knowledge transfer, within the Games, means transfer of information from previous host communities to current host communities, from learnings and experiences, to be able to further enhance our Games program. But also, knowledge transfer means transfer of knowledge from one particular individual to another that can help assist them in their portfolio. So, it can be from previous Games to current Games, but also from a provincial sport organization to a Games organizing committee member, to increase their knowledge to help them deliver their portfolio in a successful manner.

Hence, knowledge is transferred between stakeholders and from Games to Games.

Most respondents felt knowledge transfer was the responsibility of the Games Rights Holder. For instance, Ontario Summer Games Sponsor Representative 2 believed “the Ontario Summer Games does a good job of collecting this knowledge and forwarding it onto the next group. I think that it’s typically done in written format.” Here, the respondent referred to the final report that the organizing committee completed to pass onto the next organizing committee. Likewise, Ontario Summer Games Organizing Committee Representative 1 elucidated the central role of the rights holder in the process of knowledge transfer:

Anything we required from Sport Alliance, from past Games, pretty much was provided. Whether it’s past budgets, help, anything that we really needed in terms of policy. All
those things are made available from host to host to help each other out.

Thus, the rights holders were a key player in the process of knowledge transfer from one Games to the next.

In the same fashion, Canada Games Community Representative 3 acknowledged the significant part the rights holder played in the knowledge transfer process: “The Canada Games Council is storing—that’s what their job is—their job is to store [knowledge] and to transfer it”. Canada Games Rights Holder Representative 1 confirmed this belief, maintaining, “We do require that every Games give us all the information they produce in terms of documentation.”

Furthermore, he reviewed the knowledge transfer process:

In many cases, they were able to take documentation directly from 2011, basically change the dates, change some of the fine details and republish it as a 2013 document. And that’s what we want them doing with what we would consider best practices. And that is part of our document management is taking everything we get and saying, “Okay, this was done better here than has been done in the past. So, this is kind of our ‘best practice’ and we will recommend that the next Host Society uses the same process.”

Evidently, some documents can be valuable for present Games, as well as successfully transferred directly to subsequent events. Thus, it was important to identify what knowledge was worth passing on (e.g., best practices). By the same token, Canada Games Organizing Committee Representative 2 suggested that a part of knowledge transfer was for “the Host Society and the Canada Games Council—probably more so the Canada Games Council—to be able to identify, what has come out of a Host Society is a best practice,” so that it can be transferred to the next Games. Thus, knowledge had to be tailored during the knowledge transfer process. Canada
Games National Sport Organization Representative 1 stressed the value of knowledge transfer in terms of improving from one Games to the next:

I think we all learn from our successes and our mistakes, and I think it’s important to relay that information to the next group who will own the Games. And that’s the same thing for us. Here, we learn from what we’ve done before, and then we file everything, and then it’s important to improve from one year to another.

Hence, the participant explained how knowledge transfer was essential not only to improve the quality of the Games (external transfer), but also to improve the processes within their own organization (National Sport Organization, internal transfer) from year to year.

Ontario Summer Games Organizing Committee Representative 2 mentioned the presence of a representative with experience from another multi-sport Games on their committee as a means of knowledge transfer and learning:

I mean one of the reasons we had the fellow from the Pan Ams on the committee was exactly that, so that we could go through this kind of test run. We realize that we, in retrospect, did a lot of things that we wouldn’t do again and that we overcomplicated things that really could have been much simpler. So, having him on the committee was all a transfer of knowledge, because he’s going to be now working on Pan Ams. And [he] should be quite a good resource for those Games, given what he experienced.

Thus, there was a living knowledge resource that would act as a means of transfer from this event to a different one. In this case, personal knowledge is gained by experiencing (e.g., through informal and formal meetings, secondments, shadowing, direct/lived experience, etc.) one Games and transferring that to another.
One common theme that emerged was the difficulty in transferring knowledge strictly through documents and reports. Ontario Summer Games Organizing Committee Representative 2 acknowledged this:

So, I think the transfer of knowledge if that’s what you want to call it, from one to another could be done in perhaps a more meaningful way, with visuals. That’s why we taped our [volunteer] training. So, maybe it will be of help to someone to actually visualize the training, to see what the sporting event looks like, and to actually have a kind of a debrief with the committee in person as opposed to just reading a document. Most people would just kind of brush it to the side.

This was a key finding in both events: the idea that personal communication and experiential components were valuable ways to tackle the difficult feat of tacit knowledge transfer. In the same light, Organizing Committee Representative 2 discussed the knowledge transfer from the Canada Games to other multi-sport Games through personal communications:

During the Games, we did have a lot of visitors coming from other Games like the Arctic Games, Canada Games, Quebec Games, and Pan Ams also were there because the next [Pan Ams] are in Toronto. And we had to explain, and all of the service managers had to do presentations about their service. What did they learn, what they had to do, what was good, what was not good. So it was a big part of the planning services to make sure that we had a good knowledge transfer.

This was a good example of face-to-face knowledge transfer, from person to person, via conversation and presentations, as opposed to formal documents and reports in order to share “what was good” and “what was not good,” hence, including both best and worst practices.
Comparably, Ontario Summer Games Community Representative 2 offered an example of how knowledge was transferred at the Ontario Summer Games:

We got most of [our knowledge] from past Games when they did their, you know, post mortem and they did a document. So, we did that. I also placed a call to the past Chair of the Volunteer Committee of the Sudbury Games, which were the last Games that was held. I talked to her about what would she do differently and what was she most proud of.

This participant provided another instance where conversations about personal experiences were an effective, and arguably superior, means to transfer knowledge. Hence, human interaction was an effective way to transfer knowledge. Participants seemed to favour a personal conversation or direct interaction to acquire and/or transfer knowledge over receiving a report and being expected to understand everything that way. Thus, findings indicated people should be seen as a knowledge asset in terms of storing and transferring knowledge effectively. People were of the utmost importance, as will be described below.

The Importance of People or the Difficulty of Storing Personal Knowledge

As noted above, findings revealed that people were extremely valuable, if not the most important part of the knowledge management process. People hold knowledge that they gained through experience, past Games, day-to-day activities, etc., internally. Ontario Summer Games Rights Holder 1 explained, “Knowledge can be attained just through the staffing and the knowledge that exists within the staff.” Unfortunately, knowledge held internally poses a challenge for effective storage and transfer. If people leave, that knowledge is often lost. As an example, “I think with the departure of those [knowledgeable] people, that knowledge is lost, and well the new people who replace them would not gain or acquire that knowledge” (Canada
Games Provincial Government Representative 2). Ontario Summer Games Provincial Sport Organization Representative 3 also discussed the difficulty of storing personal knowledge:

I think that with each Games you learn things and it’s important to summarize those learnings and pass along to your organization. Because [the event] is only every two years and sports organizations are made up of volunteers, so that knowledge transfer for anything is always a problem, year after year or down the [road]. Volunteers leave and they take that knowledge with them.

Thus, participants believed that people hold valuable knowledge within them, and it is difficult to ensure this tacit knowledge is stored and/or transferred; yet, it was considered an important task to accomplish. It therefore seems necessary to address this issue of tacit knowledge storage and transfer in order to provide recommendations for organizers and event stakeholders. Canada Games Sponsor Representative 1 expressed the difficulty in knowledge storage:

It is a problem in all organizations because people are retiring and taking all their knowledge with them because nobody found a solution to store their knowledge. It's kind of a weird thing because you can't store knowledge like you can store data on a CRM [Client/Customer Relations Management] basis or stuff like that. … I think that data is certainly a part of knowledge, but knowledge is how you do things, and this is much more pertaining to a personal level and it has to do a lot with the personality of the person. So you can't actually put knowledge in a mason jar and say well let's save it for the next generation of professionals that comes along.

This participant urged that one cannot store all knowledge as easily as may be suggested, for instance in a document or report. Moreover, tacit knowledge was found to be more valuable, yet more difficult to store externally and transfer to others.
CHAPTER 6
Discussion & Conclusion

This dissertation set out to examine the overall governance of domestic multi-sport events by specifically studying stakeholder coordination and knowledge management processes at the Canada Games and Ontario Summer Games.

I will first review the stakeholder coordination findings before moving on to the knowledge management and transfer findings. These findings will then be integrated into a discussion of the governance of domestic events as it pertains to stakeholder coordination and knowledge management and transfer. I will then provide concluding remarks regarding contributions to research and practice, followed by limitations and future directions.

Stakeholder Coordination

In order to understand the stakeholder coordination results, it is important to put them into context, which may explain some of the findings obtained. First, the organizing committees have differing natures in that the provincial event seemed to be composed mainly of volunteers, or more specifically, of individuals with regular, full-time jobs who took on this responsibility on the side, thus not dedicating their full attention to this file. In contrast, the national event organizing committee had dedicated full-time employees, as is typically the case with major international sports events. Second, more stakeholder groups seemed to have been “regulars,” that is, stakeholders with a longer-term, enduring or pre-existing relationship with the national event than the provincial event, where there seemed to be a higher number of new stakeholders. This could have an impact in terms of the types and strengths of the ties (e.g., stronger ties for the national event, cf. Brass & Halgin, 2012; Prell, 2012), as well as the characteristics of the inter-stakeholder coordination.
As there seemed to be more recurring stakeholders at the national event (see Table 4.3), stakeholders may be more likely to store knowledge and reuse or adapt it for each subsequent Games, as opposed to new stakeholders at the provincial event that have to build everything from the ground up for each new Games. As a result, at the provincial event, more coordination amongst all stakeholder groups may be required to establish and build relationships and ultimately organize and implement Games-related tasks. The stakeholders at the national event have longer (and perhaps larger) investments in terms of time and money, and thus may want to ensure knowledge is stored for future editions of the Games to improve effectiveness and efficiency. In comparison, most provincial event stakeholder groups seem rather local to the host region, do not have enduring relations with the event, and thus may not see the benefit or need to store or transfer knowledge. Therefore, each context has unique characteristics, which can affect the coordination structures and processes, as well as the desire of stakeholders to implement and/or utilize knowledge management strategies.

Although it was logical to believe there would be stakeholder coordination differences between the two domestic events due to the differences noted above, there were significantly more similarities than differences between the events’ respective results. I now discuss the findings for each level of analysis.

**Whole network.** The measures pertaining to the whole network allowed me to determine the structure of the networks for the domestic events (see Table 4.2). The size of both event networks was the same, meaning the number of stakeholder groups (as opposed to the number of specific stakeholders) was the same (24). The key difference was the logical inclusion of the federal government stakeholder subgroup for the national event due to the scope of the event and the federal funding of the event. There was an unexpected stakeholder subgroup for the
provincial event, international sponsors. This finding may be considered an outlier, atypical for provincial sports events. It is likely a result of the location of this rendition of the Ontario Summer Games. The presence of an international sponsor is a particularity of this case and the fact that it was held in Toronto, the largest city in Canada. Otherwise, there would likely only be 23 stakeholder groups involved at the provincial level event, one less than the national level. Although the number of stakeholder groups was relatively the same, it may be a different story for the number of stakeholders. Using stakeholder groups was a methodological decision in order to be able to compare the two events. It was beyond the scope of this study to examine every stakeholder involved for both events. This limitation will be discussed near the end of this chapter.

Examining the list of stakeholder groups more closely (see Table 4.1), they included the same stakeholders as those found for international sports events (cf. Parent & Smith-Swan, 2013). What this dissertation contributes to the literature is a specification of which stakeholders are more important for the coordination of domestic events, namely the organizing committee and sport organizations, as well as a characterization of the core set of stakeholders that interact to coordinate the event (See Figure 4.5 and Figure 4.6).

Next, the connectivity at both events was quite similar. As could be expected, the national event had a larger diameter than the provincial event, but only by one tie. This may be due to the larger number of specific stakeholders involved in the national event. However, the average path length at each event was almost identical. Hence, although to reach any stakeholder, it could take up to four ties at the national event and three ties at the provincial, on average, stakeholders could reach each other in less than two ties. This is presumably a result of the high degree measure of the organizing committee (see Table 4.2) and, thus, the ability for
stakeholders to reach each other through the organizing committee. The fact that any stakeholder can reach another in two ties or less is a positive reflection of the strength of the coordination mechanisms in place at these domestic events. This arguably supports many participants’ belief (see the results section) that there should be a focal organization created that is responsible for coordination as well as knowledge transfer purposes. By having one or few key stakeholder(s) within reach of each stakeholder group, this could be an efficient way of storing and transferring knowledge amongst the event network.

The stakeholder network at both domestic events was not only similar regarding connectivity, but the level of connectivity appeared to be satisfactory. That is, the relatively high network densities reflected a seemingly appropriate amount of coordination in both networks. The national event actually had a slightly higher density than the provincial event (37% versus 32%, respectively). Although there was only a slim difference, it is a noteworthy difference, as the larger event is therefore as equally, if not slightly more, connected as the smaller provincial event. Nevertheless, these findings mean there is an appropriate degree of coordination at both levels.

Importantly, the network degree centralization values are reasonably low for each event. Low network centralization scores mean the network densities are not dependent on one (or a few) stakeholder group(s). Although the organizing committee can have the highest levels for the various network measures, they do not seem to be the be-all and end-all regarding network structure (i.e., the networks are not centralized or focused only on the organizing committee as traditional event stakeholder maps may lead one to believe, cf. Parent, 2008). The Canada Games had a higher network degree centralization, which means the stakeholder ties hovered around one or a few actors to a greater extent in the national level event than the provincial level event.
Since the Ontario Summer Games appear to start from the ground up each time, all stakeholders involved must coordinate to a significant level to understand what is required from each of them for the Games. As a result, coordination is less centralized on one or a few actors, and is more dispersed in the network. In contrast, the Canada Games seem to have many recurring stakeholders who likely coordinate through the same actor(s) at each edition. As well, being of greater scope (national), it is logical that the organizing committee of the national event has a greater coordination role.

Thus, as the domestic event organizing committees are created for coordination purposes, they still act as a central hub to varying degrees, though, structurally, there are other organizations that are very important as well (e.g., sport organizations). Essentially, domestic event organizing committees do not organize the events it by themselves, nor should they be expected to. These findings indicate that the network coordination structure is one of relative balance between stakeholder groups. This finding is further supported with the triad analyses discussed below.

In summary, in domestic events, the organizing committee is an important actor in terms of coordination, but other stakeholder groups are also involved in the coordination for the event. That is, although the organizing committee is a salient stakeholder group, they are not the sole group responsible for the coordination efforts.

**Subgroups.** Subgroup network analyses also provide structural governance and coordination information (see Table 4.2). In this dissertation, cliques and core-periphery analyses were undertaken. Findings indicate that there were several cliques in both event networks, which means stakeholders are interconnected and work in subgroups, but there seems to be some overlap in that stakeholders can belong to several cliques or subgroups. This means that there is a
high degree of coordination occurring within both networks or at least potential for coordination. It also indicates that inter-stakeholder structures and strategies (e.g., meetings, committees, and communications) are put in place for this coordination to occur.

In turn, the core-periphery findings indicated both domestic events had a large number of stakeholders in the core. The core stakeholders are connected tightly with other core stakeholders and loosely with stakeholders on the periphery. The stakeholders on the periphery are loosely connected to the core stakeholders and have virtually no connections to other peripheral stakeholders. Since both events had a dispersed or large core, this means there were many stakeholder groups that were closely connected and thus were in coordination for the event. Arguably, the stakeholders in the core—who are more highly connected and coordinate in multiple ways compared to those on the periphery—will have higher levels of trust and thus, have the potential to engage in more effective knowledge transfer. This can be attributed to constant coordination and communication, which can strengthen the ties between stakeholders and ultimately create a setting conducive for knowledge sharing. It also supports the idea of a balanced structure and of multiple stakeholders (i.e., more than just the organizing committee) sharing the coordination workload. There were a few more stakeholders in the core at the Canada Games (13) than at the Ontario Summer Games (10), which means more stakeholders are tightly linked at the national level. Given the scope of the national event and the larger diameter of the network, it is logical that the size of the core would be larger for the national event compared to the provincial event. However, many of the same stakeholder groups (nine) appeared in the core at the both events. These findings further support the notion that the two event network structures are quite similar.
As noted above, this dissertation contributes to the literature by specifying which stakeholder groups form the core coordination set for domestic events, namely: the organizing committee staff, community groups and local businesses, (local to national) sport organizations, the delegations, and local government. It would be interesting to undertake the same analysis at the international level to compare the core coordinating set of stakeholders. Likely, the national government and sponsors would rise in importance given the resources they bring to major international sports events such as funding and security (cf. Parent & Smith-Swan, 2013).

While the national event had a higher overall network density than the provincial event, the Ontario Summer Games had a higher core density. The higher core density demonstrates the fact that the provincial event stakeholders in the core are in greater, constant coordination and communication. This is likely due to a few factors. First, the provincial event occurs every two years, as opposed to the national event which occurs every four; hence, stakeholders have less time to plan the event and thus coordination must be more frequent to ensure a “successful” Games in a short timeframe. Second, the provincial event stakeholders were virtually all new to the event (i.e., minimal recurring stakeholders); thus, more interaction would be required to determine and implement stakeholder event-related responsibilities. Third, since the overall network density is higher at the national event than at the provincial event, the national event peripheral stakeholders are more highly connected to the core. This is likely also due to the fact that many of the event stakeholders are recurring at the national event and have established relationships with the Games in general. Hence, even the stakeholders on the periphery (with typically less salience for the event) are connected and likely assist in coordinating the national event.
Overall, this dissertation’s stakeholder coordination findings contribute to the literature by demonstrating that more coordination seems necessary to build a domestic sport event from the ground up with mainly new stakeholders, as compared to a sport event (here, the national event) that has a high prominence of recurring stakeholders. Moreover, the clique analyses reveal potential coordinating structures being implemented, with further specification of these structures noted below.

**Triads.** The transitivity analyses undertaken in this dissertation (see Table 4.2) highlight structural and procedural aspects of coordination. As Simmel (1950) pointed out, two actors within a dyad tend to share a stronger, more stable tie if that dyad relation were embedded within a triad. That approximately half the ties in both networks were transitive further supports these event networks as having a relatively balanced structure. A balanced structure means there were virtually equal numbers of disconnected actors as well as highly interconnected ones (see De Nooy, Mrvar, & Batagelj, 2011; Hansen, 1999; Holland & Leinhardt, 1971; Prell, 2012). This type of network structure seems ideal as it provides a greater opportunity for innovation (e.g., knowledge creation) and communication between disconnected groups (i.e., weak ties, see Brass & Halgin, 2012; Granovetter, 1973, 1982; Levin & Cross, 2004; Prell, 2012), while, at the same time, including a significant degree of trust between stakeholder groups given the substantial number of interconnected stakeholders (i.e., strong ties, see Borgatti et al., 2013; Centola, 2010; Krackhardt, 1992; Levin & Cross, 2004; Prell, 2012). As well, these closely linked stakeholder groups (e.g., cliques and triads) likely have stronger, more trustworthy relations that provide an increased potential for knowledge sharing (cf. Ghoshal, Korine, Szulanski, 1994; Lane, Salk, & Lyles, 2001; Szulanski, Capetta & Jensen, 2004; Uzzi, 1997). Thus, a combination of trust building, knowledge sharing and finding sources of innovation are process-based aspects of
stakeholder network coordination and governance in domestic events. In essence, these findings support the idea that power, knowledge and expertise are distributed unevenly in a network, thus resulting in some actors being more actively sought after than others (e.g., organizing committee and sport organizations), and certain actors deferring to the status of others (Knoke & Burt, 1983).

**Dyads.** The dyadic level of analysis in this dissertation focused on the types of ties present between stakeholder groups and the degree of multiplexity, which informs both structural and procedural aspects of stakeholder coordination and governance in domestic events. Findings highlight that stakeholder groups engaged in different forms or mechanisms of coordination, namely: collaboration, communication, coordinating bridge (committee structures), instrumental, legal, authority/power, and transactional ties or exchanges. There were also some external linkages found; these are generic linkages whose nature could not be ascertained to be categorized into one of the other mechanisms. These types of ties or coordinating mechanisms are a contribution of this study as they differ to some extent from those noted by Knoke and Yang (2008). It is logical that some would differ given that the context of this study was the planning and hosting of a sport event and the unit of analysis was organizational, as opposed to purely social relationships and an individual level of analysis.

A second contribution to the events literature is that some stakeholder groups participated in multiple forms of coordination, which is logical for a complex setting such as the hosting of a multi-sport event. What this dissertation contributes is that each stakeholder group tended to favour a particular type of coordination, with some stakeholder groups using mainly only one form (e.g., sponsors at both events favoured transactional ties), and other stakeholder groups (e.g., the organizing committee) engaging in multiple forms of coordination. As there were
various types of ties that existed between stakeholder groups, this likely affected the strength or intensity and nature of the inter-stakeholder group relationships. The stakeholder groups with more types of ties were coordinating in various ways, which should result in stronger relationships, that is, stronger ties, positive affiliation and greater trust (cf. Van Wijk, Jansen, & Lyles, 2008). An increase in trust should also facilitate knowledge transfer. That is, knowledge may flow more easily between two actors who share a high degree of trust or a strong, positive association with said actor (cf. Adler & Kwon, 2002; Dhanaraj, Lyles, Steensma, & Tihanyi, 2004; Hansen, 1999; Lane et al., 2001; Reagans & McEvily, 2003; Tsai & Ghoshal, 1998; Van Wijk et al., 2008). Coordinating in multiple ways should not only build stronger, more meaningful relationships, but also result in more tools or strategies in place for handling conflicts or any issues that arise. Essentially, stakeholders have more mechanisms or processes in place for managing their coordination activities. In terms of sponsorship specifically, according to Farrelly and Quester (2003), trust can act as an antecedent of sponsor commitment. That is, trust and commitment can determine a stakeholders’ intention to renew the relationship (Farrelly & Quester, 2003). Hence, the more meaningful the relationship between stakeholders, for instance the more trust that is established, then stakeholders are more likely to return for subsequent editions of the Games, as would be the case with sponsorship best practices (Farrelly & Quester, 2003, 2005).

Findings demonstrated that the organizing committee for the Ontario Summer Games utilized more collaborative ties than the Canada Games organizing committee, which favoured communication ties. The high number of collaborative ties above any other coordinating ties at the provincial event is perhaps due to the fact that the provincial level event had to start anew, with new and/or inexperienced stakeholders, as opposed to the national level event, which saw
familiar or recurring stakeholders. Hence, a collaborative approach is logical as the stakeholders had to learn together the collective objectives, processes, and respective responsibilities. This supports Parent’s (2010) contention of the importance of a positive, win-win approach to sport event decision making. In contrast, for the national event, many stakeholders were likely already aware of their roles and responsibilities, and so, communication seems an appropriate coordination mechanisms to ensure everyone is on the same page and timeline. By having stakeholders who are familiar with how the Games are run each time, there is less need for collaboration between stakeholders and more emphasis is placed on communicating (arguably already understood terms, needs, plans, etc.); for instance, the organizing committee already has technical packages from the event’s rights holder, they already know what to do and when, and thus less collaboration is needed with sport organizations to create something because it has already been decided in terms of how the Games will look. Alternatively, the provincial event likely requires more planning from the ground up, and thus, more collaboration.

Hence, this dissertation highlights that meaningful relationships can lead to or maintain recurring event stakeholders. As the Canada Games have recurring stakeholders, it is not surprising that there is more diversity in the types of coordination ties that exist in the national event. The increased multiplexity means there are more forms of coordination occurring, which is likely a consequence of the longer, more established relationships that exist in the national event network. As well, this dissertation contributes to the literature by noting that different coordination mechanisms should be employed in events where there is a higher ratio of new stakeholders (i.e., collaboration) versus recurring stakeholders (i.e., communication). This may also be the case for newer events (e.g., Youth Olympic Games) versus established events (e.g., Olympic Games), where more direct involvement or collaboration is needed for the event rights
holder (i.e. the International Olympic Committee) as the newer event still requires (co-)creation (cf. Hanstad, Parent, & Houlihan, 2014), though this hypothesis would need further examination and testing, which are beyond the scope of this study.

**Ego.** The final level of analysis is the ego or individual actor (stakeholder group) level. The analyses included in this dissertation (i.e., degree and various centrality measures) highlight, respectively, structural and process-based characteristics of stakeholder network coordination and governance.

The key stakeholders in terms of degree were the same at both events: the organizing committee and sport organizations. Hence, these two stakeholder groups were the most connected and had the opportunity to engage in the most coordination. Given the large number of connections, these two stakeholder groups had, they were fundamental in planning, implementing, and the overall success of these multi-sport events. Based on these findings, it is reasonable to assume that the organizing committee and sport organization stakeholder groups would have the highest degree in other domestic sport events, denoting their important role in the coordination process for multi-sport events. This may be a different situation for international sport events, so this should be further explored in future studies.

When looking at the differences between the two events, the findings indicated that the organizing committee at the national level event had double the connections (double the degree value) as the provincial event. This reflects the larger scale of the national event and the longer lifespan of the organizing committee. It is also possibly a reflection of the higher number of stakeholders (as opposed to stakeholder groups) that would be found for a national sport event versus a provincial one. As the Canada Games have existed for a longer period of time than the Ontario Summer Games, there would have been increased opportunity for interactions and
communication between the stakeholder groups to ensure planning is on track. Moreover, the organizing committee at the national event used more communication ties (information dissemination/exchange) than the provincial event, which would also explain the higher degree value for the national event compared to the provincial event.

Next, the stakeholder with the highest betweenness centrality in both events was the organizing committee. This result is expected given the organizing committee is in a position to control the flow of information regarding the event through the network. The organizing committee is able to filter, disseminate, or withhold information as it pleases, which means that it is a key actor for effective event knowledge transfer throughout the network. Another stakeholder group was found in the top betweenness centrality values at both events: the sport organizations. As this category includes rights holders of both events, it is not surprising that they are in a position to control information. What is interesting here is it delineates that event organization knowledge can be transfer and/or managed by other organizations and does not solely have to rest on the shoulders of the organizing committee. Other key stakeholders should be familiar with knowledge management practices or programs (if one is in place) in order to enhance its effectiveness. Hence, when establishing or refining a knowledge management system, these two actors are best positioned to coordinate with other actors, and as such, are key in terms of disseminating, withholding, and/or modifying information. These two stakeholder groups should be highly involved in all knowledge management programs. Further, it appears that they are often brokers between disconnected groups, meaning that information should be distributed and hosted by these key stakeholders (e.g., sponsor conferences and delegation meetings).
Subsequently, the stakeholder with the highest eigenvector centrality at the national event was the organizing committee, followed by sport organizations, including national sport organizations, provincial sport organizations and the rights holder. It would be expected that the organizing committee be the overall most important stakeholder group; yet, this was only the case at the national event. When it came to the provincial event, local sport organizations had the highest eigenvector centrality. That a local sport organization could supersede the organizing committee in terms of overall importance was unanticipated yet interesting. The high eigenvector centrality for the local sport organizations appeared to be a result of the Toronto Sports Council’s involvement with the Ontario Summer Games. The Toronto Sports Council held summits leading up to the Ontario Summer Games with numerous participants (including sport organizations, local businesses, sponsors, local government, etc.), therefore creating and/or strengthening links with a number of different stakeholders. By doing so, the Toronto Sports Council was able to increase their salience in the event network. This finding suggests stakeholders are able to strategically increase their importance in a network by hosting events that bring together key stakeholders, to the detriment of the organizing committee. Conceivably, in the smaller, more local-type events, it would be easier to do so than a larger event where there are more stakeholders and stakeholder groups involved. Hence, it can be recommended that for provincial level events, the organizing committee should be housed within an enduring organization as these types of organizations have access to more human and financial resources and have the potential to store knowledge for more effective event hosting in the future. For instance, during a presentation on non-mega sport events, Dr. Taks (2014) explained that Windsor, Ontario was able to plan and host the 2014 Ontario Summer Games in less than six months after the original host city, Niagara Falls, withdrew last minute. Windsor was able to
successfully pull the event off in such a condensed time frame as they had previously hosted an Ontario Summer Games. This example illustrates the potential benefit of housing the organizing committee within an existing organization as the organization likely has more capabilities (e.g., resources, experience, connections, facilities, etc.) to effectively and efficiently host the event and others of the sort in the future.

Thus, a contribution of this study to the literature is that, by hosting Games-related events, stakeholders can actually increase or leverage their importance in the event’s network. This leveraging potential could include both social and economic leveraging (Chalip, 2004; Chalip, 2006; Chalip & McGuirty, 2004; O’Brien 2007; O’Brien & Chalip, 2007a; O’Brien & Chalip, 2007b). I would argue, however, that the leveraging of events for stakeholder benefits (economic, social, importance in the network, etc.), may be more easily undertaken at a local or provincial event. I say this because, at the national level event, there were more sport organizations (more national sport organizations) and other stakeholders, and, as such, there seems to be greater decentralization due to a larger core, and therefore, increased complexity. This means sport organizations and other stakeholders may find it more difficult to undertake leveraging activities. With more stakeholders involved, it would be more difficult to increase the stakeholder’s power or importance for the more complex event. This may explain why certain efforts to leverage events that are larger have faced significant difficulties (cf. Taks, Green, Misener, & Chalip, 2014). It may also be the case that the provincial event organizing committee, being composed largely of volunteers working part-time on the event (as opposed to the national event having dedicated, full-time paid staff) may not have the resources (time, money, etc.) to consider leveraging (and legacy) opportunities and activities, leaving such an opportunity open for another stakeholder, as was the case with the Toronto Sports Council to
lead and thereby increase its importance and relationships within the network. Thus, this dissertation’s findings suggest that local sports organizations, councils, or commissions can do this, especially when, for some, it is in their mission to leverage sport within their respective city. Still, these explanations require further examination in future studies.

Pushing this idea further, it may be worthwhile to consider having sports councils/commissions host local/regional/provincial level events in order to maximize benefits as well as improve knowledge management practices. Many cities, especially in the United States, have sport councils or commissions (e.g., Toronto Sports Council, Ottawa Sport Council, North Vancouver Sport Council, Richmond Sports Council, Utah Sports Council, Chicago Sports Commission for Sport Tourism, Greater Cleveland Sports Commission, etc.), which arguably could be an effective model in terms of centralizing sports groups, their knowledge, and their efforts. Cities hosting local/regional events should consider using these existing bodies to act as the event organizing committee. By having an enduring organization be responsible for hosting the event, the knowledge garnered can be used and stored for the next event, whatever the next event may be. For instance, the Toronto Sports Council, an enduring organization, could be responsible for organizing the event, and then for other events Toronto hosts down the road, it will have knowledge from the Ontario Summer Games remain, such as the knowledge the Toronto Sports Council has since provided to the organizers of the 2015 Pan/Parapan American Games. This may also ensure consistency in the city’s event portfolio (see Ziakas, 2013a, 2013b; Ziakas & Costa, 2010, 2011) and enhance the opportunity for knowledge transfer internally and externally because the organization will continue to exist within the host region. Thus, this dissertation suggest having operations and the organizing of local/regional events be the
responsibility of an enduring body to maximize efficiencies, enhance event promotion, increase resources, and optimize knowledge transfer.

Finally, at both domestic events, the staff of the organizing committee also had the highest closeness centrality, followed by the sport organizations (national sport organizations at the national event and provincial sport organizations at the provincial event). The third highest in terms of closeness centrality were the venue stakeholders at the national event and community groups and schools at the provincial event. These two findings are similar considering the fact that the majority of the venue representatives at the Canada Games were delegates from various local schools, universities or community groups. Similarly, the community and school group stakeholders at the provincial event namely represented the venues used for the event. Seemingly, the stakeholders with the highest closeness centrality are quite similar at both events. The staff of the organizing committee, the sport organizations, venue representatives and community and school groups were the most central in terms of closeness. This signifies the degree of independence these stakeholder groups possess within the event network. That is, if an actor is not central, then they generally need to rely on others to relay messages through the network. Thus, an actor who is close to many other actors is a very independent actor. This represents the idea that these central stakeholder groups can “quickly reach others without having to rely much on intermediaries” (Prell, 2012, p. 107). Moreover, these stakeholders are in a position to more easily mobilize the network, as they are better able to reach out to all other actors in the network. Hence, it seems as though these stakeholders are in an ideal position to share knowledge considering they do not have to rely on middle-men to relay any information; rather, they have direct access to the majority of the network and have the potential to efficiently disperse knowledge and innovations. Further, as these actors are able to access information
within the network they also are most likely to hear about new information early on and therefore are the stakeholders who could most quickly diffuse information through the network (Prell, 2012). Ultimately, the staff of the organizing committee, national and provincial sport organizations (depending on the event level), as well as the venue representatives at the Canada Games and community groups and school stakeholders at the Ontario Summer Games appeared to have the highest independence. That is, they have the lowest degree of dependence on other actors in the network for information. Moreover, these stakeholders have the greatest potential to quickly and efficiently relay information throughout the entire network.

In summary, this dissertation contributes to the literature by highlighting dynamics and processes which occur in domestic sports events, and how stakeholders can change these dynamics (e.g., increase their importance). Integrating the above analyses, this dissertation highlights that:

- The provincial and national level events are relatively similar in terms of network structure:
  - The network structures of these domestic events is relatively well balanced;
  - There is a significant core set of stakeholder groups involved in each event;
  - The core for the national event is slightly larger;
  - The events were similar in terms of connectivity, and the level of connectivity appeared to be satisfactory
  - Similar stakeholder groups are included in each event network, leading to a potentially generic set of core stakeholder groups for domestic events; and
  - The organizing committee is an important actor in terms of coordination, but other stakeholder groups are also involved in the coordination for the event.
- There are variations in the processes associated with coordinating the various stakeholders
  
  o Although the organizing committee and sport organizations were key in each event, different coordinating mechanisms – collaboration for the provincial event and communication for the national event – were at play, likely due to the differing nature of the stakeholders regarding whether there was a higher number of recurring versus new stakeholders;
  
  o Using multiple types of ties seemed to strengthen the relationships between stakeholder groups and potentially increase trust and knowledge sharing
  
  o The balanced structure of the networks regarding transitive ties points to there being not only strong ties and trust, but also weak ties and the potential for innovation
  
  o The organizing committees and sport organizations controlled most of the information flow and were the most important stakeholders;
  
  o The organizing committee for the national event seems to take on somewhat more of a coordination role than the provincial event;
  
  o Domestic sport event stakeholders are able to strategically increase their importance in a network by hosting events that bring together key stakeholders, to the detriment of the organizing committee; and
  
  o It may be worthwhile to have the operations and organizing of local/regional events be the responsibility of an enduring body to maximize efficiencies, enhance event promotion, increase resources, and optimize knowledge transfer within other host region event, as well as to subsequent event editions.
Knowledge Management

Although only the Canada Games had a formal knowledge management program in place, it was found that the knowledge management and transfer processes at both events were quite similar, and in fact, almost identical. One notable difference was the feedback loop in the national event, created by the test event that took place as a practice run before actual Games time. This could in part be due to the longer national event organizing committees’ lifecycle, affording the organizing committee with time to “test” their assumptions and adjust their plans as needed. According to Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995), engaging in a knowledge feedback loop is necessary for an organization to complete their knowledge creation spiral, which can result in enhanced performance and innovation. The longevity of the event’s planning period (cf. Parent, 2008), then, may be a necessary indicator as to the organizing committee’s ability to establish and develop an effective knowledge management and transfer process, to allow time for the knowledge spiral to occur, and to ensure the knowledge management and transfer process can mature to benefit the event. For the provincial event, and, generally speaking, smaller events or those with short-lived organizing committees, rights holders along with local sports groups (i.e., host region commissions, councils) seem to be where knowledge management and transfer processes should occur, as they are the enduring entities associated with the events. Due to their longevity, not only the rights holder, but also an existing or enduring sport council should take the lead in the knowledge management and transfer process to ensure that valuable knowledge resources are maintained and passed along for effective operations and innovative futures.

Besides this, the distinction between the knowledge management and transfer processes at the Ontario Summer Games versus the Canada Games was a matter of degree of sophistication. In both events, stakeholders seemed to use the knowledge activities as outlined in
Heisig (2009), thereby following knowledge management and transfer processes in other industries and fields; however, these activities occurred in a more formal manner at the Canada Games. This is likely due to the fact that the rights holder, the Canada Games Council, oversees the knowledge management program, encouraging and enabling its use. As for the provincial event, the rights holder is viewed as a key stakeholder for knowledge management, yet it seemed to play a less prominent role in monitoring and fostering the use of these knowledge practices. This is likely a reflection of the smaller scope of the provincial event (i.e., less resources, financial support, etc.). Moreover, the presence of the knowledge management and transfer process itself did not seem to be contingent upon whether the event had a formal rights holder-based knowledge management system or not; rather, it seems linked to the level of the event (provincial vs national) and the possibly the organizing committee’s length of existence.

In line with Parent et al.’s (2014) findings, “knowledge management and transfer process is not necessarily a formal one for all stakeholders” (p. 214). The manner in which these processes occur may differ from one stakeholder to another. Some stakeholders may engage in all six knowledge practices depicted in Figures 5.1 and 5.2 and others may not. Notwithstanding, in this dissertation, the stakeholders in each event engaged in all knowledge management and transfer activities depicted for that event.

Evidently, the knowledge management and transfer processes at these domestic events did not differ substantially from those that occurred at the 2010 Olympic Games studied by Parent and colleagues (2014). All three events began with the identification of knowledge needs, followed by acquisition, creation, and application. Furthermore, all three events involved knowledge storage for future transfers. Ultimately, the end goal of the knowledge management system in each case was to successfully transfer knowledge. Additionally, there was the process
of knowledge tailoring, where existing knowledge was adjusted or built upon to create new knowledge that could be applied at the current Games. That is, past experience, learnings, old reports, and so on could be acquired and then tailored to create new knowledge that would be applicable to their respective event. This was demonstrated as a learning process between knowledge acquisition and creation (see Figures 5.1 and 5.2). Similarly, due to the presence of a test event, the Canada Games had a feedback loop of knowledge tailoring, where the test event provided learnings that could be improved upon in order to ensure the actual event ran as smoothly as possible. While some degree of knowledge tailoring occurred at both events, there was arguably more knowledge tailoring at the national event, due to the presence of a test event.

Although most knowledge management and transfer elements were very similar, a notable absence from the domestic knowledge management systems is the concept of knowledge tailoring for external transfer; perhaps this is due to the differences in the sophistication of the knowledge management process. The knowledge tailoring process found in the Olympic Games study signified the activities related to molding and packaging knowledge according to the needs of the individual, group, or organization receiving the transfer. This was done so the recipient could more easily interpret and apply the transferred knowledge to their current context. As previously mentioned, knowledge tailoring did occur at the domestic events, yet there was no evidence of knowledge tailoring for the sole purpose of transferring to the next person or event with the receiver in mind. Knowledge tailoring happened at domestic events, but more so internally for immediate use, rather than consciously for external transfer. Ultimately, the presence of knowledge tailoring for a future receiver in mind at the Olympic Games seems to reflect a more sophisticated knowledge management system.
Interestingly, although all stakeholders at both events engaged in these knowledge practices, many seemed unaware of the formal definition of these terms, findings that are similar to Parent et al.’s (2014) findings. Remarkably, even the rights holders—who were deemed in charge of facilitating the knowledge management processes—were unable to confidently discuss the formal meanings of the knowledge practices they exercised. This begs the question: if the individuals responsible for implementing a knowledge management system are unable to accurately describe the knowledge management processes that are being used, how can the other event stakeholders be expected to fully understand these processes, or for that matter care to engage in them? Correspondingly, Parent et al. (2014) asserted, “understanding in knowledge management has not yet reached a consensus” and in turn, “this may make it challenging for organizations or stakeholder networks to engage in knowledge management and transfer processes” (p. 205). Therefore, it may be important for event organizers and rights holders to underline to their event stakeholders what knowledge management is, outline the processes involved, and explain how the processes are beneficial (cf. Parent et al., 2014). Similarly, when examining the best practices of national sport organizations, O’Reilly and Knight (2007) attested, “volunteers must clearly buy into the benefits of knowledge management initiatives” (p. 277). This can become an issue of motivation: how can organizers motivate stakeholders to utilize these knowledge activities? How is it benefiting them? Having a knowledge management system in place does not automatically equate to stakeholders using it. Moreover, the goal of knowledge transfer is to make it easier for those involved in planning and implementing the same event in the future and to avoid reinventing the proverbial wheel; yet, some people choose willingly to create new knowledge in order to leave their own legacy or contribution to the event. This prompts the question: if a means to transfer knowledge from one Games to the next exists, but
organizers and event stakeholders do not want to use it, why do they not want to use it and how
do you encourage people to utilize the existing knowledge management processes?

The findings revealed a few potential means of encouraging stakeholders. One finding in
particular was the idea of transferring learnings to other activities or contexts. That is,
participants in this study were not always concerned with passing the information onto the next
Games or person in their shoes; participants often mentioned applying knowledge or transferring
knowledge to other situations. Thus, stakeholders may be more focused on transferring
newfound skills or knowledge, developed through their work on the Games, to other aspects of
their life, personal or work related. Consequently, Games organizers, as well as employers who
assign their own staff members to work on an event as part of their regular job, may want to
consider this fact. Organizers and employers alike may want to stress the benefits of knowledge
management in terms of enhancing the next Games, as well as personal skill sets to entice staff,
volunteers and other stakeholders to engage more meaningfully in the event’s knowledge
management program. This is one strategy that could motivate stakeholders to participate in the
knowledge management process. In turn, this could improve the effectiveness of Games’
knowledge management programs and resources.

My findings support Parent et al.’s (2014) and Halbwirth and Toohey’s (2001) contention
that technology can aid knowledge management processes; specifically, it was found that both
domestic events utilized various forms of online document management (e.g., intranet, online
database, GoogleDocs, e-mails, etc.) for storage and transfer. Although Parent and colleagues
(2014) agreed with Halbwirth and Toohey (2001) that technology is a useful aid for effective
knowledge management, they stressed that people trump technology. This is in accordance with
Jarrar’s (2002) notion that although technology is helpful, knowledge management activities
should rely “90% on people and 10% on technology” (p. 324). My findings support this statement that, though technology can facilitate knowledge management, people are a key component of effective knowledge management and transfer in the context of domestic events, as is the case for international events.

Much like Parent and colleagues (2014), a key finding of this dissertation was the significance of people. The data showed a clear emphasis on people as a knowledge resource, “confirming their roles as holders of tacit knowledge” (Parent et al., 2014, p. 216); thus people are fundamental in the knowledge management processes, specifically transfer and storage of knowledge. The findings allude to the fact that people’s experience and learnings are far more valuable than a document. Results showed that knowledge transfer in the form of documentation is neither as successful nor effective as personal communication. That is, “personified” knowledge management and transfer is preferable and indicates the value of tacit knowledge over explicit knowledge. Furthermore, personal experience—often a source of valuable Games knowledge—is difficult to save in the form a document or file. Accordingly, a major problem highlighted was the challenge of rendering explicit individuals’ tacit knowledge (i.e., externalization; Nonaka, 1994). Again, although technology may aid in the knowledge transfer process, the importance of people seems to prevail and outweigh the use of technology. The difficulty lies in organizers being aware of the value of the individuals’ experiences, not wanting to lose or not use this knowledge, and transforming this tacit knowledge into explicit knowledge. Thus, it becomes important for event stakeholders to capture that knowledge to make it available for future organizers and their associated stakeholders. As such, this dissertation highlights the importance of and need for including voluntary (cf. Winter, 1987) or purposeful storage mechanisms to assist in effective knowledge management and transfer, and also to ensure
stakeholders are aware of these mechanisms. It can be suggested that tacit knowledge would be best housed within the organizing committee, especially if it is an enduring organization that can utilize this knowledge to host successful future events in the region. This way tacit knowledge is not lost after each edition of the Games. This likely would require personal interaction between future and past organizing committees in order to effectively transfer tacit Games knowledge. Explicit knowledge seems to be best stored by the rights holder as it can pass on templates, documents, reports and the like, from one host committee/region to the next.

This could mean that a knowledge management system that focuses on storing every bit of knowledge in an online database may not be an effective way to maximize knowledge transfer. On the contrary, more attention should be paid to determining how personal knowledge can be transferred from one person to the next. Knowledge management systems should concentrate on tacit knowledge and how to efficiently and effectively transform tacit knowledge to explicit knowledge for transfer and subsequent use, much like Thompson and Walsham’s (2004) notion that “the focus of knowledge management systems (KMS) should be to ‘externalize’ and ‘combine’ tacit forms of knowledge” (p. 726).

While literature suggests explicit knowledge (i.e., words and numerical values stored in the form of data, information, reports, manuals, etc.) is the kind of knowledge that can be easily and systematically transferred to individuals, groups or organizations, this dissertation’s findings highlighted the value of tacit knowledge, that is, personal or internal knowledge (e.g., experience). These findings reinforce previous research that knowledge management processes should emphasize tacit knowledge (e.g., Bhardwaj & Monin, 2006; Thompson & Walsham, 2004). One issue that emerged from the present study was the difficulty of storing (and, in turn, transferring) this tacit knowledge. One major challenge Halbwirth and Toohey (2001) stressed
was the issue of how to capture valuable tacit knowledge. Although technology aids in the
process of knowledge transfer and storage, the consensus in this dissertation was that people and
communicating tacit knowledge through methods such as shadowing, observation programs,
face-to-face debriefs, and the like, were more important and useful than say a final report.
Therefore, it could be argued that what the IOC is implementing, particularly in terms of the
tacit/experiential elements (e.g., observations, shadowing, secondments, debriefs, etc.), may be
the most valuable components of a knowledge management system. As knowledge is stored
internally, if an individual leaves an organization or hoards knowledge, the transfer of
knowledge is disrupted or lost. Thus, it becomes important for event stakeholders (e.g., rights
holders) to capture that knowledge and to make it available for future organizers and event
stakeholders. A contribution of this study therefore is highlighting the importance of and need
for storage mechanisms to assist in effective knowledge management and transfer—of tacit
knowledge in particular—and also to ensure stakeholders are aware of these mechanisms and use
them, such as shadowing, observation or debriefing activities. If knowledge management
programs are in place, but not used, they become a wasted resource. Organizers and rights
holders should explain their knowledge management program and emphasize its benefit for all
stakeholders involved.

Ideally, event knowledge management systems should value personal interaction over
technology and reports. Primarily, knowledge should be transferred using face-to-face
communication, debriefs, presentations, secondments, shadowing, and the like. Second to this
emphasis on tacit knowledge is explicit knowledge, where technology can aid in transferring and
storing documents, templates, reports, etc. Furthermore, technology can assist in tacit knowledge
transfer with the use of applications such as Skype, Google Hangouts, and other similar
mechanisms. Tacit knowledge should be stored within the organizing committee, while explicit knowledge should be the responsibility of the rights holder. Given the importance of transferring personal knowledge and experience, it could be suggested to use Games Gypsies as a tool for tacit knowledge transfer. However, this begs the question of cost. What types of costs will be associated with such a knowledge management system? For instance, what would the travel cost for secondments and shadowing programs, or paying Games gypsies’ contracts entail, which would be arguably higher than simply creating an extranet for documents? How much will such a knowledge management system cost the host city and associated funding parties (e.g., governments, sponsors, etc.) if sharing tacit knowledge is the main focus of the knowledge management system? This is another area of future research.

**Summary: The Governance of Domestic Sports Events**

In order for small-scale sports events to garner more positive outcomes for host communities (cf. Higham, 1999), they must be properly governed. This research examined both the governance structure (i.e., what the event networks looked like) and the processes that occurred (i.e., knowledge management, stakeholder coordination) within two domestic events. The two domestic events examined demonstrated many similarities, thus suggesting common basic structural and procedural characteristics – many of whom are similar to international sport events. But, there were also some differences stemming from the events’ levels. As well, the balanced nature of the networks and the coordination mechanisms used by these events support Goodijk’s (2003) contention that managing stakeholders is a question of balancing the different stakeholder interests and creating added value through trust, commitment, and social norms.

Structurally, the networks were relatively similar. Domestic events include the following stakeholder groups: organizing committee, sport organizations, community, sponsors,
government, media, delegations, and others (e.g., venue, cross-stakeholder groups), which are essentially the same as those noted by Parent and Smith-Swan (2013). As can be seen, these are the same as those found in international/mega events. The most important stakeholder groups seem to be the organizing committee, sport organizations, and sponsors. However, the community stakeholder group had more prominence in the provincial sport event, insinuating that the community is a more prominent stakeholder in more local sport events. Notwithstanding, the key stakeholders involved in the governance of domestic events seem to be the organizing committee and sport organizations—including the rights holders. These stakeholders are most able to influence the event network (positively or negatively). As such, these stakeholders are the main groups who control the flow of information and thus can help filter knowledge through the network. These stakeholders are therefore salient pieces of the domestic sport event governance puzzle.

The network structures of these domestic events are also relatively well balanced and similar in terms of connectivity, and the level of connectivity appeared to be satisfactory. Though the core for the national event is slightly larger than the provincial event, coordination mechanisms seem to have been put in place to govern the event effectively.

A main difference between the domestic events was the sophistication or professionalism of the organizing committee, that is, the presence of paid staff versus mainly volunteers. This supports the importance of people for knowledge management. Regardless, there seems to be a link between professionalization of organizing committees at lower level events and the presence of knowledge management practices and processes. Of course, the national event had access to more resources, including a more professional organizing committee and pre-existing or enduring stakeholder relationships. Moreover, findings point to the idea that host regions of
smaller events should consider having an enduring organization (e.g., the local sports council or commission) be in charge of hosting such events, not only for the benefits of stakeholder coordination experience but also event knowledge management and knowledge transfer more broadly.

Importantly, findings showed that while the organizing committee is certainly an influential and central organization, the results suggest the organizing committee is not the be-all and end-all. In fact, other stakeholders can be quite influential within the network. These stakeholders can undertake leveraging and other coordinating activities, which can increase their importance, and in turn, help the host region garner benefits from hosting the event.

According to the network analysis results, the event networks at both events seemed to be balanced structures. Due to the wider core, the national event organizing committee seemed to have taken on more of a coordination role than the provincial event. It would be logical to assume that this would be even more the case with international events, where there are even more stakeholders. However, this remains to be tested in a future study. Still, such a balanced structure allowed for good connectivity and thus opportunity to build trust, engage in frequent communication, an access innovative aspects (ideas, resources, etc.) due to the presence of both strong and weak ties (strong ties for trust building and weak ties for innovation).

An interesting outcome of this research was the ability of a local sport organization to increase its importance. It may be recommended that a local or enduring organization (preferably a sport organization – council, commission, etc.) is responsible for organizing and implementing local sport and non-sport events. By doing so, these existing organizations can use a knowledge management program to their advantage. That is, they will be able to use previous Games knowledge for the next multi-sport, single-sport, or non-sport-related event. It could result in an
event knowledge database for the host region. That way, the host region can learn from previous mistakes, apply best practices, and ultimately, improve its overall event hosting capacities.

In terms of processes, although the organizing committee and sport organizations were essential in each event, different coordinating mechanisms – collaboration for the provincial event and communication for the national event – were at play, likely due to the differing nature of the stakeholders regarding whether there was a higher number of recurring versus new stakeholders. As well, stakeholders used various means of coordination other than collaboration and communication. These included: legal, transactional, coordinating bridge, instrumental, authority/power, and external link. Findings highlighted that the use of multiple types of ties seemed to strengthen the relationships between stakeholder groups and potentially also increase trust and knowledge sharing.

In order for effective stakeholder coordination to occur, a certain degree of trust needs to be established. Hence, an important element when governing a domestic multi-sport event, where the interests and demands of multiple stakeholders must be met, is establishing relations between and within the various stakeholder groups. This will facilitate knowledge transfer through increased communication and trust. Organizing committees can host summits, conferences or other events (cf. Parent & Smith-Swan, 2013), where stakeholders can meet, exchange ideas and experiences, and gain an understanding of other stakeholders’ interests and why other stakeholders are involved in the Games.

Next, the knowledge management processes at each event both stressed the importance of people as a knowledge source as well as a mechanism to effectively store and transfer knowledge onto the next people, Games, or event. As trust is an important component of stakeholder coordination, it makes sense that people where a key way to do so.
As well, test events, as found in the national event, were another way to foster stakeholder coordination. Although they were a distinctive part of the national event’s knowledge management program, it can be argued that they also allowed the organizing committee to assess the degree of effectiveness of stakeholder coordination. It is through such test events that communication effectiveness and trust can be ascertained and evaluated (cf. Parent & Smith-Swan, 2013). The knowledge management section of this dissertation also points to document sharing as another means of stakeholder coordination.

Finally, the knowledge management process at the national event was more sophisticated, as a knowledge management program already existed; yet, there remain areas of improvement in order to garner greater benefits of an effective and efficient knowledge management program. More precisely, the events rights holders may benefit from including all core stakeholder groups in their knowledge management programs to ensure they are aware of the program’s existence, can use its knowledge, and can contribute to it. Additionally, emphasis should be placed on improving tacit knowledge transfer in order to improve future and/or other events in which stakeholders are involved. The IOC’s Olympic Games Knowledge Management (OGKM) system (see Parent et al., 2014) seems to have a significant tacit knowledge transfer component (through observer programs, debriefs, shadowing, secondments, etc.), which should be considered by smaller event rights holders.

**Contributions to Research**

Through this dissertation, multiple types of ties were found to exist in domestic multi-sport events. That is, through the use of multiple types of ties, stakeholders were able to coordinate in various ways. This serves to enhance the relationship between stakeholder groups and could lead to stronger relationships, increased trust, and ultimately, recurring stakeholders
for future editions or other events. As well, different stakeholders seemed to use different coordinating mechanisms and ties (e.g., sponsors preferred transactional ties). This demonstrates that stakeholder coordination at domestic events is not a cookie-cutter occurrence; and, in fact, different stakeholders utilize different types of ties that will differ based on needs, intentions, interest, and likely the strength and duration of the relationship.

The stakeholder networks at the domestic events were fairly similar. The core stakeholder groups were coordinating the most and in turn have the power, or, are in a position to positively or negatively affect the entire network. For the national event, the organizing committee staff and national sport organizations were the most salient stakeholders and as such should be the focal actors within the event network in terms of coordinating (initiating communication, building trust, and improving relationships) to host the best possible event for all stakeholders involved. Similarly, for the provincial event, the organizing committee staff and local sport organizations were the most influential stakeholders and should be at the forefront of the coordination efforts for the network. Sport organizations were found to be imperative within the domestic event stakeholder network coordination, as well as for their ability to affect the way the stakeholder network coordinates and transfers knowledge.

Domestic events, especially provincial events, should consider the use of existing organizations to form the core of the organizing committee in order to optimize the success of the current and future events. If the organizing committee exists within an enduring organization, this will allow the host region to store knowledge within this body and pass it on not only to future editions of this sport event, but also to other sport and non-sport events. This will allow the event and tourism sector of the host region to maximize the effectiveness and efficiency of event hosting by creating a knowledge pool within an existing organization.
Although only the Canada Games had a formal knowledge management program in place, knowledge transfer appeared to occur at both event levels. For the Ontario Summer Games, a knowledge management program implementation was left up to the discretion of the organizing committee, with guidance from the rights holders. In contrast, the Canada Games Council assisted the organizing committee staff with the knowledge management program established at the national event. Still, the knowledge management and transfer processes and practices that occurred at both events were similar, with the main difference being a test event at the national level event, where knowledge could be tailored come actual Games time.

Whether or not a formal knowledge management system was in place, knowledge management processes do still seem to occur in domestic events. Given my findings and the benefits of a knowledge management program, it would be worthwhile for rights holders to establish even basic knowledge management systems to facilitate knowledge management processes and exchanges between stakeholders. Further, it may be more valuable to enroll all stakeholders in the knowledge management system in order to maximize its use and benefits.

Domestic event knowledge management systems are similar, though perhaps less sophisticated than the OGKM (cf. Parent et al., 2014). I found that the knowledge management and transfer processes that occur at the domestic level were quite comparable to those that occur at the Olympic levels. The major difference appeared to be the level of sophistication of the system and it was likely a reflection of the less formal establishment of a knowledge management system at the domestic level. Additionally, more knowledge tailoring appears to exist at the Olympic level, which is unsurprising given the longer lifespan of the organizing committee and the increased stakes (e.g., public/private money invested) at the Olympic level.
One key finding that needs highlighting is the importance of people as a knowledge source (storage mechanism) and a means of transfer (knowledge transfer). There was a consensus throughout the interviews that personal knowledge exceeded the value of explicit knowledge. That is, it is more valuable to transfer knowledge over a meeting, secondment, formal/informal conversation, over the phone, etc., as opposed to reading a formal document/final report. In essence, people are a vital piece of the domestic sport event governance puzzle.

**Contributions to Practice**

The provincial event revealed some novel insights; a local sport organization (sports council, commission, etc.) may be the ideal organization or stakeholder to host a local multi-sport event, as it is an enduring body within which event knowledge can live and be transferred to future Games or other city events. This can also provide the host region the opportunity to establish recurring stakeholders (as found in the national event) and in turn, strengthen the relationships for future events. By doing so, the event knowledge would remain in one location to improve the overall quality of knowledge transfer and storage for these Games and other events. Moreover, by having the organizing committee live within an existing organization, there is an opportunity for increased resources/manpower that could be allocated for the event. By having an existing organization run the Games, you also increase the chance of professionalizing the organizing committee and garnering benefits derived from professionalization.

Next, in order to optimize the benefits of knowledge management practices, it may be a good idea to formally introduce stakeholders to the knowledge management system; however, after examining the event network, it is clear that some stakeholders hold a position of more influence over others. Thus, it would be essential for these core stakeholders (e.g., organizing
committee staff and sport organizations, including rights holders) to be actively involved in the knowledge management program to garner the most benefits.

Knowledge management system owners should consider fostering more tacit knowledge transfer between individuals given the importance of people in the process, as found in this study. It could also be beneficial to include other stakeholders aside from just the organizing committee staff in the events’ knowledge management system. For host regions, it is suggested that the organizing committee originates from an existing body, whether they become independently incorporated organizations or not (e.g., strategic alliance, a department within an existing organization, or sub-department, such as the 2015 Pan/Parapan American Games Secretariat within Sport Canada).

Limitations and Future Directions

In depth analyses of a domestic (or international) event is possible and warranted for deeper understanding of the processes; however, comparisons between events become limited if event-specific actors (individuals, organizations) are used. As such, I chose to analyze the events at the stakeholder subgroup level. This afforded me the chance to make comparisons between the two events as well as with existing research that is largely on international events (e.g., the OGKM system). Of course, an in-depth analysis of a domestic event, such as the Canada Games, is a possible avenue of future research so as to further understand the exchanges, relationships, types of ties and improvements between editions (i.e., longitudinal study).

Although the choice of events within the same country serves as a strength for comparison purposes, it would be worth examining these findings in a different country. Different jurisdictions will have different cultures, processes, norms, which may impact
stakeholder coordination as well as knowledge management practices. This is an area of future research.

This study utilized interviews and document analysis to undertake the network analyses given its exploratory nature. Now that a core understanding of stakeholder coordination and knowledge management is available through this dissertation’s findings, the use of surveys and further quantitative analyses can be undertaken. As well, to further understand the use of stakeholder coordination and knowledge management processes at work, one suggestion would be to undertake a participatory type of study (e.g., participant-observation or auto-ethnography).

Other avenues for future research include exploring knowledge management in different contexts; for instance, an international single-sport event, a recurring event, a master’s event, other regional/provincial events, etc. It would be interesting to examine the Jeux du Québec in order to compare different provincial level events, especially considering the Jeux du Québec are known to be a more developed and elaborate Games than their Ontario Summer Games counterpart. Additionally, it may be valuable to explore knowledge management processes at non-sport events to examine the degree of transferability of this dissertation’s findings across fields and, perhaps, garner ideas or best practices that can be transferred back to a sport event context. Lastly, it would be worthwhile to examine the cost and effectiveness of using Games Gypsies as a tool for the knowledge management and transfer.

In light of this dissertation’s findings, it is evident that a knowledge management system, whether formal or informal, is beneficial for the organization and implementation of domestic sport events. The difficulty in storing and transferring tacit knowledge persists; but, it was found that personal interactions are superior to technology in terms of effectively transferring knowledge. While the most salient stakeholders were found to be the organizing committee and
sport organizations in both domestic events, it is recommended the organizing committee should exist within an enduring organization (e.g., sport council/committee) in order to ensure knowledge retention and transfer for future events. Moreover, as the organizing committee and sport organizations were found to be central actors in the event network, they will be influential in effective and efficient stakeholder coordination and in turn the dissemination of knowledge throughout the network. Further research on sport events in different regions and cultures is warranted.
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APPENDIX A

Epistemology

I approached this research using a constructionist epistemology, which posits that reality is constructed through the collective generation and transmission of meaning (Crotty, 1998). The focus here is not on the meaning-making activity of individuals, but on the collective generation of meaning (Crotty, 1998). According to constructionists, meaning is not contained inherently within an object or event, and as such, it cannot be “discovered” impartially in the way objectivism states that it can. The meaning-making process is contingent upon human practices—interactions between individuals and their world, and therefore meaning is developed and transmitted within an essentially social context (Crotty, 1998). Further, constructionists affirm when people describe something, they are conveying how something is seen and reacted to, and thereby meaningfully constructed, within a given context (Crotty, 1998). Constructionism is suitable for this research project because the participants were arranged based on stakeholder groups. As I explored the way stakeholders described their experiences and ideas of stakeholder coordination and knowledge transfer within the sport event context, I required an epistemological view that adhered to the idea that every interpretation is valid and unique. Constructionism aligns with this viewpoint by endorsing an uncritical perspective towards collective meaning-making processes (Crotty, 1998).
APPENDIX B

English Consent Form

The Governance of Major Sporting Events:
Stakeholder Coordination and Knowledge Transfer

Consent Form

Principal investigator: Milena M. Parent, University of Ottawa (School of Human Kinetics, Faculty of Health Sciences), 125 University St., Ottawa, ON, K1N 6N5, Canada. Tel: 613.562.5800 x 2984, Fax: 613.562.5497, Email: milena.parent@uottawa.ca.

Co-investigator: Jessie Schenk, University of Ottawa (School of Human Kinetics, Faculty of Health Sciences), 125 University St., Ottawa, ON, K1N 6N, Canada. Tel: 613.562.5800 x 7270, Fax: 613.562.5497, Email: jsche020@uottawa.ca.

Invitation to Participate: I am invited to participate in the above mentioned research study conducted by Milena Parent and Jessie Schenk. This study is funded by the Ministry of Research & Innovation (Government of Ontario) and the University of Ottawa.

Purpose of the Study: The purpose of the study is to understand the governance of major sporting events, focusing on stakeholder coordination and knowledge transfer.

Participation: My participation will consist essentially of taking part in one phone or face-to-face interview of approximately 30 minutes to 1 hour, during which I will be asked questions relating to the above purpose. With my permission, the interview will be audio recorded. Otherwise, the researchers will simply take notes during the interview.

Risks: My participation in this study will not entail any foreseeable risks.

Benefits: My participation in this study will allow the researchers to provide recommendations to the government policy makers and event organizers for future bids and hosting activities, as well as allow me to reflect on my organization’s activities in relation to sport event stakeholder coordination and knowledge transfer.

Confidentiality and anonymity: I have received assurance from the researchers that unless indicated otherwise below, the information I will share will remain strictly confidential. I understand that the contents will be used only for academic purposes (publications, technical reports) and that my confidentiality will be protected. I understand that, unless I indicate otherwise, my name will not appear in the research findings; only a broad title such as “Municipal Representative!” will be used. It is understood that only the two researchers and their research assistants (if any) will have access to the data. The data will be transcribed and then analysed using the software programs ATLAS.ti and UCINET. Data will be coded. I will be given the chance to review my transcript to ensure the accuracy of the information.
have my transcript sent to me via email, I understand the potential security risks (i.e., the everyday risk of interference associated with this mode of communication). I will be able to add, delete or modify the information given. The results will be pooled and made available in the form of technical reports, presentations, and articles submitted to scientific journals.

**Conservation of data:** The data collected (archival material, audio recordings of interviews, transcripts, notes, and data analysis files) will be kept in a locked file cabinet in the principal investigator’s office for ten years post-publication. Only the researchers and the research assistants (if any) will have access to this information.

**Voluntary Participation:** I am under no obligation to participate and if I choose to participate, I can withdraw from the study at any time and/or refuse to answer any questions, without suffering any negative consequences. If I withdraw from the study, I will decide at that point if I want the researchers to use my data or if I want them to destroy it and not use it.

**Acceptance:**

I, __________________________, agree to participate in the above research study conducted by Dr. Milena Parent and Ms. Jessica Schenk (School of Human Kinetics, Faculty of Health Sciences, University of Ottawa). I understand that by accepting to participate I am in no way waiving my right to withdraw from the study.

Please initial one of the following:

1. I agree to be quoted in publications (reports, articles, etc.) and that my identity/name be revealed _____ (initials).

2. I agree to be quoted in publications (reports, articles etc.), but I want these quotes to remain anonymous _____ (initials).

3. I do not wish to be quoted at all _____ (initials).

If I have any questions about the study, I may contact the researchers. If I have any ethical concerns regarding my participation in this study, I may contact the University of Ottawa’s Protocol Officer for Ethics in Research, Tabaret Hall, 550 Cumberland Street, Room 159, Ottawa, ON, K1N 6N5, tel.: 613.562.5841, email: ethics@uottawa.ca.

There are two copies of the consent form, one of which is mine to keep.

Participant’s signature:  
Date:

Researcher's signature:  
Date:
APPENDIX C

French Consent Form

La gouvernance des grands événements sportifs : la coordination des parties prenantes et le transfert de connaissances

Formulaire de consentement

Chercheuse principale: Milena M. Parent, Université d’Ottawa (École des sciences de l’activité physique), 125 rue University, Ottawa, ON, K1N 6N5, Canada. Tél: 613.562.5800 x 2984, Fax: 613.562.5497, Courriel: milena.parent@uottawa.ca.

Cochercheuse : Jessie Schenk, Université d’Ottawa (École des sciences de l’activité physique), 125 rue University, Ottawa, ON, K1N 6N5, Canada. Tél: 613.562.5800 x 7270, Fax: 613.562.5497, Courriel: jsche020@uottawa.ca.

Invitation à participer : Je suis invité(e) à participer à la recherche nommée ci-haut menée par Milena Parent et Jessie Schenk. Cette recherche est subventionnée par le ministère de la recherche et de l’innovation (gouvernement de l’Ontario) et par l’Université d’Ottawa.

But de l’étude : Le but de l’étude est de comprendre la gouvernance des grands événements sportifs, particulièrement la coordination des parties prenantes et le transfert de connaissances.

Participation : Ma participation consistera essentiellement à participer à une entrevue par téléphone ou en personne d’une durée d’environ une heure pendant laquelle on me posera des questions sur mes connaissances des sujets ci-haut mentionnés. Avec mon consentement, l’entrevue sera enregistrée. Sinon, des notes seront prises par les chercheurs pendant l’entrevue.

Risques : Ma participation à cette recherche ne comportera aucun risque prévisible.

Bienfaits : Ma participation à cette recherche aura pour effet de développer des recommandations pour les décideurs et gestionnaires d’événements sportifs pour la préparation de candidatures et d’événements futurs, ainsi que de me permettre de faire une réflexion sur les activités de mon organisation par rapport aux parties prenantes et au transfert de connaissances dans les grands événements sportifs.

Confidentialité et anonymat : J’ai l’assurance des chercheuses qu’à moins d’indication contraire de ma part, l’information que je partagerai demeurera strictement confidentielle. Je m’attends à ce que le contenu ne soit utilisé que pour des fins académiques (publications, présentations, rapports techniques) et selon le respect de la confidentialité. À moins d’indication contraire, je m’attends à ce que mon nom n’apparaisse pas dans les résultats de cette étude; seulement un titre général tel « représentant du gouvernement municipal 1 » sera utilisé. Il est entendu que seuls les deux chercheuses et leurs assistants de recherche (s’il y a lieu) auront accès aux données. Les données seront transcrites et analysées avec les logiciels d’analyse ATLAS.ti et UCINET. Les données seront codées. J’aurai l’opportunité de réviser la transcription de mon
entrevue afin de vérifier l’exactitude de l’information. Si je choisis de me faire parvenir ma transcription par courriel, je comprends les risques potentiels de sécurité (c.-à-d., les risques normaux d’ingérence associés à ce type de communication). Je pourrai ajouter, enlever et/ou modifier l’information donnée. Les résultats seront regroupés et rendus disponibles sous forme de rapports techniques, de présentations et d’articles pour les journaux scientifiques.

**Conservation des données** : Les données (enregistrement sonore de l’entrevue, le texte de transcription, notes, fichiers d’analyses des données) seront gardées dans un cabinet sécurisé au bureau de la chercheuse principale durant une période de dix ans, après quoi elles seront détruites. Seuls les chercheuses et leurs assistants de recherche (s’il y a lieu) auront accès à ces données.

**Acceptation** :

Je, ________________________________, accepte de participer à l’étude de recherche menée par Dre Milena Parent, Ph. D. et Mme Jessie Schenk (École des sciences de l’activité physique, Faculté des sciences de la santé, Université d’Ottawa. Je comprends qu’en acceptant de participer, je ne renonce d’aucune façon à mon droit de me retirer de l’étude.

**Prière d’initialiser une des options suivantes :**

1. Je consens à être cité dans des publications (rapports, articles, etc.) et que mon identité soit dévoilée ______ (initiales).

2. Je consens à être cité dans des publications (rapports, articles, etc.) mais je tiens à ce que ces citations demeurent anonymes ______ (initiales).

3. Je ne consens pas du tout à être cité ______ (initiales).

Pour tout renseignement additionnel concernant cette étude, je peux communiquer avec les chercheurs. Pour tout renseignement sur mes droits comme participant à cette recherche, je peux m’adresser au Responsable de l’éthique en recherche de l’Université d’Ottawa, Pavillon Tabaret, 550 rue Cumberland, pièce 159, Ottawa, ON K1N 6N5, Tél. 613.562.5841, courriel ethics@uottawa.ca.

Il y a deux copies du formulaire de consentement, dont une que je peux garder.

**Signature du participant :**

**Date :**

**Signature de la chercheuse :**

**Date :**
APPENDIX D

Ontario Summer Games Interview Guide

The Governance of Major Sporting Events: Stakeholder Coordination and Knowledge Transfer
Interview Guide

1. Description of organization, committee(s), and network characteristics
   a. Could you please describe your organization and its relationship to the Ontario Summer Games?
   b. How long have you been with this organization? What is your role within your organization?
   c. How did the coordination of work for the Ontario Summer Games occur
      i. Within your organization?
      ii. Between organizations?
      iii. What is your opinion of the coordination mechanisms?
   d. Were you involved in any external event committees? Internal event committees? For each:
      i. Is this committee a formal or informal committee?
      ii. What is your position (e.g., co-chair, member)?
      iii. What is the committee’s mandate?
      iv. How long was it in existence?
      v. How frequently do you meet?
      vi. Which other organizations/departments were represented?
      vii. What issues were discussed?
      viii. What was the coordination/resolution/strategy process for these issues?
      ix. How did the committee’s work translate into your organization (coordination mechanisms)?
      x. What types of exchanges did you undertake [information, resources (material, human, financial), referrals, other]?
      xi. How did you mainly undertake these exchanges (by phone, email, internet, intranet, extranet, mail, in person, directly or through someone else/another department usually; regularly, when needed, rarely; how often; who usually initiated the communications/was it reciprocal)?
      xii. How would you qualify the relationship between your department and the others?
      xiii. Where did your department fit within this network of relationships? (i.e. central role, partnership role, supportive role, peripheral role, other)
   e. Did you deal with any other stakeholders not represented in the above stated committees?
      i. Governments?
      ii. Community?
      iii. Media?
      iv. Sponsors
      v. Sport organizations?
      vi. Regional delegations?
      vii. Organizing committee staff and/or volunteers?
   f. For each stakeholder noted previously (see above), describe your relationship with them:
      i. How did you deal with (stakeholder), for example, through committee work, person-to-person, etc.
i. If through committee work, describe the top 3 committees where you dealt with this stakeholder:
   1. Committee name?
   2. What is your position (e.g., co-chair, member)?
   3. What is the committee’s mandate?
   4. How long has it been in existence?
   5. How frequently do you meet?

ii. How did the committees’ work translate into your organization (coordination mechanisms)?

iii. What type of exchanges did you undertake (information, resources (material, human, financial), referrals, other)?

iv. How did you mainly undertake these exchanges (by phone, email, mail, in person, directly or through someone else/another organization usually; regularly, when needed, rarely; how often; who usually initiated the communications/was it reciprocal)?

v. How would you qualify the relationship between your department and the other?

vi. Where did your department fit within this network of relationships (central role, partnership role, supportive role, peripheral role, other)?

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2. Knowledge and knowledge transfer
   a. What does knowledge management, as relating to Games, mean to you?
   b. What does knowledge transfer mean to you?
   c. What does knowledge creation mean to you?
   d. What does knowledge application mean to you?
   e. What does knowledge identification mean to you?
   f. What does knowledge acquisition mean to you?
   g. What does knowledge storage mean to you?
   h. (For each question below, probe for tacit/explicit and voluntary/involuntary)
      i. What kind of knowledge was needed for your organization to undertake its responsibilities in relation to the event? Why?
      ii. Where did you obtain this knowledge from?
      iii. From whom was this knowledge obtained?
      iv. When did you obtain this knowledge?
      v. How was this knowledge obtained?
      vi. How was this knowledge used in your organization? By whom?
      vii. Did you share knowledge with any individual or organization? If so,
         1. With whom did you share knowledge?
         2. What kind of knowledge did you share?
         3. Why did you share knowledge?
         4. How did you share knowledge?
         5. When did you share knowledge?
         6. Where did you share knowledge?
      i. Did you obtain knowledge from an unlikely or unforeseen source? If so, explain.
      j. Is there any other information on knowledge or knowledge transfer that should be noted?
3. Democratic governance
   a. Performance:
      i. What does organizational performance mean to you?
      ii. Can you describe the way organizational performance was evaluated for the event if at all
         1. (Probe for goals/objectives, use of resources, results, measures, who does the evaluation/participants, timing, and feedback/retroaction?)
   b. Accountability:
      i. What does accountability mean to you?
      ii. Can you explain how (to whom, for what) the organization was held accountable?
      iii. Was there any accountability issues/challenges in how your organization is held accountable? How are these accountability issues dealt with?
   c. Participation
      i. With regards to your organization, what does participation mean to you?
      ii. Can you explain who was involved in making decisions regarding coordination within your organization and with other organizations?
      iii. Can you explain who was involved in making decisions regarding knowledge transfer, knowledge creation and/or knowledge application?
      iv. What is your opinion of the degree of stakeholder participation in terms of coordination and decision-making?
      v. What is your opinion of the degree of stakeholder participation in terms of knowledge transfer?
   d. Transparency
      i. What does transparency mean to you?
      ii. What is your opinion of the degree of transparency related to decision-making
      iii. What is your opinion of the degree of transparency related to coordination between your organization and other stakeholders (Governments, communities, media, sponsors, regional delegations, and organizing committee staff and/or volunteers)?
      iv. What is your opinion of the degree of transparency related to knowledge and knowledge transfer?

4. Is there anything else worth mentioning about governance? (E.g., organizational performance, accountability, participation, or transparency)

5. Do you have any recommendations to policy makers related to any of the topics we’ve discussed?
APPENDIX E

Canada Games Interview Guide

The Governance of Major Sporting Events: Stakeholder Coordination and Knowledge Transfer

Interview Guide

1. Description of organization, committee(s), and network characteristics
   a. Could you please describe your organization and its relationship to the Canada Summer Games?
   b. How long have you been with this organization? What is your role within your organization?
   c. How did the coordination of work for the Canada Summer Games occur
      i. Within your organization?
      ii. Between organizations?
      iii. What is your opinion of the coordination mechanisms?
   d. Were you involved in any external event committees? Internal event committees? For each:
      i. Is this committee a formal or informal committee?
      ii. What is your position (e.g., co-chair, member)?
      iii. What is the committee’s mandate?
      iv. How long was it in existence?
      v. How frequently do you meet?
      vi. Which other organizations/departments were represented?
      vii. What issues were discussed?
      viii. What was the coordination/resolution/strategy process for these issues?
   x. How did the committee’s work translate into your organization (coordination mechanisms)?
   xi. What types of exchanges did you undertake [information, resources (material, human, financial), referrals, other]? 
   xii. How did you mainly undertake these exchanges (by phone, email, internet, intranet, extranet, mail, in person, directly or through someone else/another department usually; regularly, when needed, rarely; how often; who usually initiated the communications/was it reciprocal)?
   xiii. Where would you qualify the relationship between your department and the others?
   xiv. Where did your department fit within this network of relationships? (i.e. central role, partnership role, supportive role, peripheral role, other)
   e. Did you deal with any other stakeholders not represented in the above stated committees?
      i. Governments?
      ii. Community?
      iii. Media?
      iv. Sponsors
      v. Sport organizations?
      vi. Regional delegations?
      vii. Organizing committee staff and/or volunteers?
   f. For each stakeholder noted previously (see above), describe your relationship with them:
      i. How did you deal with (stakeholder), for example, through committee work, person-to-person, etc.
i. If through committee work, describe the top 3 committees where you dealt with this stakeholder:
   1. Committee name?
   2. What is your position (e.g., co-chair, member)?
   3. What is the committee’s mandate?
   4. How long has it been in existence?
   5. How frequently do you meet?

ii. How did the committees’ work translate into your organization (coordination mechanisms)?

iii. What type of exchanges did you undertake (information, resources (material, human, financial), referrals, other)?

iv. How did you mainly undertake these exchanges (by phone, email, mail, in person, directly or through someone else/another organization usually; regularly, when needed, rarely; how often; who usually initiated the communications/was it reciprocal)?

v. How would you qualify the relationship between your department and the other?

vi. Where did your department fit within this network of relationships (central role, partnership role, supportive role, peripheral role, other)?

2. Knowledge and knowledge transfer
   a. What does knowledge management, as relating to Games, mean to you?
   b. What does knowledge transfer mean to you?
   c. What does knowledge creation mean to you?
   d. What does knowledge application mean to you?
   e. What does knowledge identification mean to you?
   f. What does knowledge acquisition mean to you?
   g. What does knowledge storage mean to you?
   h. (For each question below, probe for tacit/explicit and voluntary/involuntary)
      i. What kind of knowledge was needed for your organization to undertake its responsibilities in relation to the event? Why?
      ii. Where did you obtain this knowledge from?
      iii. From whom was this knowledge obtained?
      iv. When did you obtain this knowledge?
      v. How was this knowledge obtained?
      vi. How was this knowledge used in your organization? By whom?
      vii. Did you share knowledge with any individual or organization? If so,
          1. With whom did you share knowledge?
          2. What kind of knowledge did you share?
          3. Why did you share knowledge?
          4. How did you share knowledge?
          5. When did you share knowledge?
          6. Where did you share knowledge?
      i. Did you obtain knowledge from an unlikely or unforeseen source? If so, explain.
      j. Is there any other information on knowledge or knowledge transfer that should be noted?
3. Democratic governance
   a. Performance:
      i. What does organizational performance mean to you?
      ii. Can you describe the way organizational performance was evaluated for the event
          if at all
          1. (Probe for goals/objectives, use of resources, results, measures, who does the
             evaluation/participants, timing, and feedback/retroaction?)
   b. Accountability:
      i. What does accountability mean to you?
      ii. Can you explain how (to whom, for what) the organization was held accountable?
      iii. Was there any accountability issues/challenges in how your organization is held accountable? How are these accountability issues dealt with?
   c. Participation
      i. With regards to your organization, what does participation mean to you?
      ii. Can you explain who was involved in making decisions regarding coordination
          within your organization and with other organizations?
      iii. Can you explain who was involved in making decisions regarding knowledge
          transfer, knowledge creation and/or knowledge application?
      iv. What is your opinion of the degree of stakeholder participation in terms of
          coordination and decision-making?
      v. What is your opinion of the degree of stakeholder participation in terms of
          knowledge transfer?
   d. Transparency
      i. What does transparency mean to you?
      ii. What is your opinion of the degree of transparency related to decision-making
      iii. What is your opinion of the degree of transparency related to coordination
           between your organization and other stakeholders (Governments, communities,
           media, sponsors, regional delegations, and organizing committee staff and/or
           volunteers)?
      iv. What is your opinion of the degree of transparency related to knowledge and
           knowledge transfer?

4. Is there anything else worth mentioning about governance? (E.g., organizational
   performance, accountability, participation, or transparency)

5. Do you have any recommendations to policy makers related to any of the topics we’ve
discussed?